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Role of Self-Efficacy and Experiential Training in Classroom Guidance Participation

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Abstract

According to the American School Counseling Association (ASCA) school counselors should be spending 15 to 45 percent of their time engaged in classroom guidance (ASCA, 2005; 2012). Yet there has been little research in the area classroom guidance and understanding what factors impact whether or not school counselors choose to engage in classroom guidance. This study explored whether factors like self-efficacy, experiential training, and a variety of demographic variables including previous teaching training were significantly correlated to the amount of classroom guidance performed. The study was a quantitative in nature and was a cross sectional, correlational, survey design.

The ASCA membership was judged to be an ideal population to survey since the organization is focused on school counseling and has members across all 50 states. An invitation to participate in the study was sent to 4985 email addresses of ASCA members and stratified sampling was used to make participation representative across the four geographic regions. Additionally, this study introduced two new instruments, the first was a measure of self-efficacy related to classroom guidance and was based on previous classroom guidance research by Geltner, Cunningham, & Caldwell (2011).   The second instrument measured experiential training in classroom guidance.

From the 4985 requests sent out this study yielded 239 usable responses. The three significant factors related to the amount of classroom guidance performed were self-efficacy related to classroom guidance, school counseling level worked, and caseload. That self-efficacy related to classroom guidance was significant seems to indicate that when school counselors feel competent working in a classroom, they report

actually engaging in more classroom guidance. In the second significant finding, school

counselors working at the elementary level performed, on average, twice as much

classroom guidance as their peers in the middle and high school levels. This finding is in

line with previous school counseling literature that showed elementary school counselors

are more likely to be practicing in the way they preferred (Scarbough & Culbreath, 2008;

Scarborough & Luke, 2008). Lastly, the results indicated that as school counselors'

caseloads increase, school counselors are performing more classroom guidance. This is

encouraging because it aligns with school counselor best practice (ASCA, 2005).

While more research is needed to explore the areas of classroom guidance. This

study provides a foundation to better understand some of the factors that influence school

counselors' willingness to engage in classroom guidance. This is especially important

considering that classroom guidance plays an important role in any comprehensive

developmental school counseling program.

ROLE OF SELF-EFFICACY AND EXPERIENTIAL TRAINING
IN CLASSROOM GUIDANCE PARTICIPATION

By

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B.S University at Buffalo, 1991

M.S. Niagara University, 1994

DISSERTATION

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

in Counseling and Counselor Education in the Graduate School of Syracuse University

June 2015

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There are people that I would like to acknowledge as many have provided me with support to complete both this project and my degree at Syracuse University. For without the support of the faculty, my fellow students, my family and friends, I would not have successfully navigated this program. First I would like to start by recognizing my dissertation committee.

Dennis, thank you for your help and support, especially in the early years. What I found most helpful was your ability to speak "Sean." That is to translate information that I needed to know in a format that I could understand. This made many of the challenges that I faced in the program much easier.

Melissa Arthur, you were in a unique position on my committee in that you moved from being a supportive classmate to an equally supportive committee member. Thank you for your willingness to help me keep my sanity and for your continuous encouragement. You have been one of the people that has been with my throughout the entire program and for that I am thankful.

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To my fellow students, I was in a somewhat unique situation in that I was a cohort of one. Yet I found support through the years as many of the other cohorts adopted me. I

am not going to even try to list everyone's names, as I know I will forget someone important.

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Foreword

My interest in classroom guidance started with my own experiences working as a new school counselor in a rural middle school in North Carolina. In my very first week on the job I was asked to go in and cover a classroom for a teacher who was running late. I quickly found that both my lack of training and experience in classroom management caused significant challenges when dealing with a class of students who had been left largely unsupervised. While I was able to become much more comfortable operating in a classroom setting, this increase comfort was largely due both having greater experience operating in the classroom and a willingness to obtain feedback from many of the master teachers that I worked with. The American School Counselor Association national model recommends that school counselors spend anywhere from 15% to 45% of their time engaged in classroom guidance (ASCA, 2005). However, only a few states require that school counselors be trained as teachers. So an important question becomes how are school counselors to effectively engage in classroom guidance if there is no longer training required to work in a classroom setting?

There is considerable support showing positive outcomes in the school counseling literature on school counselors engaged in classroom guidance as part of a comprehensive developmental school counseling program (Wilderson, Perusse, & Hughes, 2013). Additionally, my antidotal experiences as a school counselor educator are that few local school counselors are actively engaging classroom guidance. Since classroom guidance has been shown to be an effective way to positively influence all students I want to better understand what factors influence school counselor's willingness to work with students in the classroom setting.

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Chapter I: Introduction

School counselors play a vital role in promoting the academic, social, and psychological well-being of students in the K-12 setting. Historically, however, there has been confusion as to the exact function of school counselors within the school community (Paisley & McMahon, 2001). Research has shown that school counselors are not necessarily spending their time in preferred ways (Scarborough, 2005; Scarborough & Luke, 2008), and school counselor practices do not follow a best practices model (Foster, Young, & Hermann, 2005; Scarborough, 2005). In many cases school counselors are only directly serving a small percentage of the student body (College Board, 2011). In 1997, the American School Counseling Association (ASCA) released its National Standards for School Counseling Programs placing an important emphasis on the role of school counselors to work with and positively influence all students (Cambell & Dahir, 1997).

The need for school counselors to work with and positively influence all students was later echoed in the ASCA National Model, which delineated four categories of school counselor service delivery (ASCA, 2005). One important addition intended to assist school counselors in meeting the needs of all students was for school counselors to regularly engage in classroom guidance (ASCA, 2005). Prior to the release of the ASCA national standards and national model, school counselors generally worked with students individually or in small groups (Hayes & Paisley, 2002). With the national student to counselor ratios averaging 459:1, there is no way to meet the mandate of positively impacting all students without the use of classroom guidance (National Center for Educational Statistics, 2005). There is, however, a growing body of research that

supports the positive effects of having a school-counseling program in place (Borders & Drury, 1992; Wilson, 1986; Whitson & Sexton, 1998; Whiston, Tai, Rahardja, & Eder, 2011).

As an integral component of service delivery within the ACSA Model, it is important to understand what is meant by the term classroom guidance. Although also referred to as large group instruction and recently as school counselor core curriculum (ASCA, 2012), the term classroom guidance is most common in the overall literature and will therefore be used within this document. Classroom guidance refers to school counselors delivering a psycho-educational or career focused lesson and working from the framework of a teacher, while simultaneously incorporating their training as a school counselor. Additionally, classroom guidance means that school counselors working in a teaching role are responsible for designing and implementing developmentally appropriate lesson plans (Borders & Drury, 1992; Myrick, 2003a) and assessing and evaluating student learning. In many cases these lessons will be related to areas normally under the purview of a school counselor with a focus being on academic, career, and social-emotional issues (ASCA, 2012).

The literature notes that classroom guidance lesson plans need to include items like an introduction, developmentally appropriate learning activities, conclusion, assessment, and follow up (Goodnough, Perusse, & Erford, 2011). School counselors also need to create a safe and appropriate space for students to learn; however, this may be challenging because the lesson normally occurs in another teachers' classroom, since few school counselors have their own teaching space (Goodnough et al., 2011). Another important part of both teaching and classroom guidance is the ability to effectively

manage the behaviors of students in the classroom setting (Geltner & Clark, 2005).

While a school counselor engaged in classroom guidance is largely teaching, the focus is

on engaging all students in areas related to academic, career, and personal/social

development (ASCA, 2005). Consistent with the teaching profession, it is important that

school counselors be appropriately supervised in their classroom guidance role (Luke &

Bernard, 2006).

Parallel to the call for school counselors to engage in classroom guidance is the

need for counselor education programs to provide the necessary training to insure the

effective preparation of school counselors for this responsibility (Geltner, Cunningham,

& Caldwell, 2012). Currently, the research related to the training of school counselors in

classroom guidance is very limited, and it is uncertain how different school counselor

education programs attempt to meet this need (Perusse, Goodnough, & Noel, 2001).

Given the importance of evidence based practice and the yearly evaluation of school

faculty using the Annual Professional Performance Review (APPR), it is important that

both the training and evaluation of school counselors in classroom guidance be aligned

with best practices. Thus, the primary purpose of this dissertation is to begin to fill the

gap in knowledge related to the preparation of school counselors to deliver classroom

guidance.

<div align="center">Role of a School Counselor</div>

The literature includes examples of how school counselors can positively impact

student development and postgraduate planning (McDonough, 2005a, 2005b), but many

school counselors are still not fulfilling those roles meaningfully (Paisely & McMahon,

2001). When school counselors are allowed to work within a comprehensive

developmental school counseling program to address the academic, career, and social emotional needs of students, they can have a positive impact on many aspects of the school community. Examples of the positive effects with the implementation of the ASCA National Model include increasing student achievement (Cook & Kaffenberger, 2003; Lee, 1993; Sink & Stroh, 2003), helping students deal with stressors like test anxiety (Cheek, Bradley, Reynolds, & Coy, 2002), and lowering the dropout rate for the school (Mullis & Otwell, 1997; Sutton & Fall, 1995). Research has yet to separate the impact of the four forms of school counselor service delivery. Yet, in many cases, school counselors find themselves delegated to non-counseling roles such as class scheduling, testing coordination, and disciplinarian or in other ways limited in their scope of practice (Clinedinst, Hurley, & Hawkins, 2011; Paisley & McMahon, 2001).

Many school counselors seem to operate in an ambiguous area partly in the academic school system and partly in the mental health/social services system without clear roles or goals in either (College Board, 2011). Adding to this challenge is that few school administrators have a full understanding of the appropriate role of a school counselor (Finkelstein, 2009), which includes implementation of classroom guidance. In some cases, school counselors themselves add to this role confusion by assuming that a strong desire to help and good intentions alone are adequate justification for their role (Sink, 2009). Illustrating this role confusion, Scarborough and Culbreth (2008) found discrepancies between the school counselors' reported preference for spending their time, which included activities related to counseling, curriculum (i.e., classroom guidance), consultation, and coordination, and how they actually spent their time. School counselors in this study reported spending too much time on "other" tasks, including hallway/lunch

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duty, coordinating testing programs, maintaining educational records, and covering teachers' classrooms. These non-counseling responsibilities possibly diluted the school counselors' impact on their students.

In order for school counselors to have a broad impact on the entire student body, especially in the area of college planning, the ASCA (2005) model asserts that they move from a reactive model of service delivery, wherein they primarily work with individuals and small groups, to a developmental and preventative model, wherein their work includes significant classroom guidance activity. The ASCA National Model recommends that depending on the grade level and needs of their students, school counselors should spend anywhere from 15% to 45% of their time in classroom guidance activities. These classroom guidance activities are organized around a school-counseling curriculum, which can efficiently address a variety of student needs.

Historically, many states required school counselors to have previous teaching experience. Dudley and Ruff (1970) found that in the late 1960s, 33 states had a mandate for prior teaching experience as part of school counselor certification requirements. Over the past 40 years, the requirement for previous teaching experience has slowly diminished. In the early 1970s, Boller (1972) found that while the majority of states still required previous teaching experience, 18 reported that they were considering possible alternate paths to school counselor certification. In 1992, 21 states, or 42%, still required some form of teaching certification or experience as a requirement to be a school counselor (Kandor & Bobby, 1992). In 1997, this number was down to 16 (Randolph & Masker, 1997) and by 2007, only seven states, Arkansas, Connecticut, Kansas, Nebraska, North Dakota, Rhode Island, and Wyoming still required teaching experience or a

teaching certificate to become certified as a school counselor (American Counseling Association, 2007).

In general, the literature indicates that prior teaching experience has little to no impact on overall school counselor effectiveness (Dahir & Stone, 2012). This lack of impact is supported in a study by Stein and DeBerard (2010), who found that educational stakeholders (e.g., teachers, administrators, parents) perceived little difference between school counselors with teaching experience and those without in regard to understanding school culture. Nonetheless, there has been minimal inquiry into the training requirements and processes related to classroom guidance and the teaching abilities in school counselors-in-training, and further research is needed to understand how previous teaching experience impacts how often a school counselor engages in classroom guidance.

Classroom Guidance

There has been ample discussion in the literature about the concerns and challenges school counselors face related to classroom guidance (Luke & Goodrich, 2013; Geltner & Clark, 2005; Williams, McMahon, McLeod, & Rice, 2013). When working directly with students in a classroom environment, school counselors have expressed concern about their lack of training and experience with classroom management (Geltner & Clark, 2005; Goodrich & Luke, 2010). School counselors with limited experience in classroom instruction may find themselves ill prepared in dealing with student misbehavior (Chaney, 2002; Geltner & Clark, 2005). Adding to the challenge of classroom guidance is how to create a safe, productive learning environment, without being seen as a disciplinarian by the students (Goodrich & Luke,

2010; Stickel, Satchwell, & Meyer, 1991; Williams et al., 2013). Goodrich and Luke (2010) noted that even at the end of an experiential group activity, trainees' abilities related to limit setting remained underdeveloped. However, this study did not directly explore the experiences of school counselors in training with respect to classroom guidance.

ASCA (2005) suggests that many concerns related to classroom guidance can be prevented or proactively addressed within counselor education and professional development programs by providing training specific to working in the classroom environment. Yet, counselor education programs often have a clinical mental health focus, without fully addressing the unique training needs of school counselors who will have to work in a school environment (The Education Trust, 1997). For school counselors to be effective in the school environment, including delivering classroom guidance, they will need to be trained to understand schools as a complex sociocultural system so as to be able to foster change more efficiently (Hayes & Paisley, 2002).

In a grounded theory study of school counselors implementing a comprehensive developmental school counseling programs, Scarborough and Luke (2008) found that all school counselor participants reported having had significant exposure to comprehensive developmental school counseling programs during their training and further explained that this served as a model for developing their own comprehensive developmental school counseling program. Additionally, participants identified having access to a professional support network and postgraduate professional development as key aspects of successful program implementation (Scarborough & Luke, 2008). Underscoring this, Stein and DeBerad (2010) sampled 142 school counselors and found that they expressed

a desire for more training in the skills needed to be successful in the classroom (e.g., leadership, engaging students, instructional technology). However, more research is need to better understand what specific training experiences school counselors find helpful relating to classroom guidance.

<div align="center">Experiential Learning</div>

Recent research has identified the importance of Kolb's (1984) experiential learning within counselor education (Goodrich & Luke, 2010; Lennie, 2007; Luke & Kiweewa, 2010; Yalom & Leszcz, 2005). Experiential learning is important as it provides an important opportunity to develop skills directly, rather than focusing solely on knowledge and awareness as much of counselor education does (Luke, Goodrich, & Scarborough, 2011); in fact, several scholars have advocated for the use of experiential learning in counselor education (Kline, Falbaum, Pope Hargraves, & Hundley, 1997; Stockton & Toth, 1996; Yalom, 1995; Zimpfer, Waltman, Williamson, & Huhn, 1985). A simple form of experiential learning is the reflection journal, which encourages students to explore their thoughts and feelings in reaction to a particular activity (Longhurst & Sandage, 2004). Experiential learning or reflective practice could also be present in a classroom setting as an active learning process that encourages creative and dynamic engagement (Chickering & Gamson, 1987). Most commonly, experiential learning occurs outside of the classroom (Furr & Carroll, 2003). These direct experiential experiences were reported by counseling students to be critical in fostering both personal and professional development (Furr & Carroll, 2003; Goodrich & Luke, 2010; Luke & Kiweewa, 2010). Indeed, connecting real world experiences to theoretical understanding is a key part in challenging students to both create meaning and grow as

counselors (Furr & Carroll, 2003). However, continued research is needed to better understand the full impact of these experiential learning activities, especially when related to the training school counselors receive in classroom guidance.

Statement of the Problem

As part of a comprehensive developmental school counseling program, school counselors are expected to perform classroom guidance as a significant part of their professional duties (ASCA, 2005). Indeed, the Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) lists the ability for school counselor graduates to provide effective program delivery of a guidance curriculum through the use of classroom guidance as an important specialty standard (CACREP, 2009). However, a review of the literature reveals that there has been very little exploration about school counselors' perceptions as related to their effectiveness in the classroom. Additionally, the research in how best to train school counselors in regards to performing classroom guidance has been minimal (Geltner, Cunningham, & Caldwell, 2011).

The primary focus of the current study is to explore the relationship between both school counselors' classroom guidance self-efficacy and classroom guidance experiential training on the frequency with which school counselors report that they actually engage in classroom guidance. While ASCA (2005) and CACREP (2009) both indicate that the ability to perform classroom guidance is an important skill for school counselors, very little is actually known about what impacts school counselors' willingness to engage in classroom guidance or how much actual classroom guidance school counselors are delivering. While self-efficacy has been reported to be influential when training various

counseling related tasks (Beverage, 1989; Larsen & Daniels, 1998), the relationship between classroom guidance self-efficacy and the willingness to engage in classroom guidance has never been explored. Perhaps, even more important, an exploration of the role of experiential training on whether school counselors are engaging in classroom guidance would make an important contribution to the empirical literature as this area is also currently unexplored. Lastly, a better understanding of the interaction between experiential training and self-efficacy as they relate to classroom guidance is important so as to insure that counselor educators use limited training time and resources most effectively.

This study will also provide the opportunity to explore what effect, if any, that previous teaching training and experience have on both self-efficacy and frequency of engagement when related to classroom guidance. As already stated, requiring counselors to be experienced teachers was once a prerequisite of the school (guidance) counseling profession, yet the vast majority of states have eliminated this requirement (Goodnough, Perusse & Erford, 2011; ASCA, 2010; Sweeney, 1995). This becomes especially salient, since there is now a new focus on classroom teaching (classroom guidance) as a core part of the school counseling process (ASCA, 2005; CACREP, 2009). Theoretically, school counselors with previous teaching experience may have higher self-efficacy related to working in the classroom environment, and therefore, engage in classroom guidance more often. However, this has not been formally studied to date.

Wittmer (2000) surmised that school counselors who have not been trained as teachers rely on their counseling related skills when working in a classroom. Although this has not been fully explored in the literature, the expectation would be that school

counselors who have more training, as measured by credit hours and/or years of experience, would have more fully developed these "counseling skills" to apply in the classroom. Therefore, it is surmised that school counselors with more school counseling training and experience appear similar to someone with teaching experience with regard to their level of self-efficacy and engagement in classroom guidance (Bringman & Lee, 2008). Additionally, the literature has found that experience based courses like internship can be especially helpful to counselor development (Morrissette, 1996; Kiweewa, 2010; Goodrich & Luke, 2010). These experienced based courses, which utilize experiential learning, could be beneficial if they contain experiential components related to performing classroom guidance. Giving counselor trainees the opportunity to engage in hands on learning has been indicated as important for personal and professional development (Achenbach & Arthur, 2002). In an unpublished qualitative study of ten school counselor trainees, the school counselor trainees reported feelings of anxiety and uncertainty when first assigned an experiential task involving classroom guidance with real students (Finnerty, unpublished). Yet counseling students' expressed increased feelings of both comfort and competence with classroom guidance as the semester progressed and they gained more experience (Finnerty, unpublished). Therefore, an exploration of how the amount of experiential training that school counselors receive related to classroom guidance correlates with the amount of classroom guidance that they engage in is warranted.

<div align="center">Research Questions</div>

This study is informed by five research questions:

<div align="center">11</div>

1. What is the impact of classroom guidance training and classroom guidance self-efficacy on the amount of classroom guidance school counselors performed?

2. What school counselor demographic variables are correlated to the amount of classroom guidance performed?

3. When looking at classroom guidance training, classroom guidance self-efficacy, and school counselor demographic variables, which are most influential in regards to the amount of classroom guidance performed?

4. Are there unique self-efficacy factors related to performing classroom guidance?

5. Are school counselors able to accurately estimate how their peers scored on a measure of classroom guidance self-efficacy?

Terminology

Classroom Guidance: When school counselors move into the role of a teacher to engage students in a classroom setting for the purpose of providing training or information.

Classroom Guidance Curriculum: "structured developmental lessons designed to assist students in achieving the competencies and is presented systematically through classroom and group activities" (ASCA, 2005, p. 151).

Experiential Training: Kolb (1984) defined experiential learning as a method that promotes knowledge acquisition through activities that involve lived experiences, simulations, role-plays, and experimentation.

Large Group Instruction: See classroom guidance.

Self-Efficacy: Bandura (1991) defines self-efficacy as "people's beliefs about the capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning and other events in their lives" (p. 257).

School Counseling Core Curriculum: See classroom guidance.

School Counselor: is a counselor with special training in education who works in elementary, middle, and high schools to provide academic, career, college readiness, and personal/social competencies to all K-12 students through a developmental school counseling program.

Chapter II: Review of the Literature

The role of the school counselor continues to evolve, moving from a static responsive role, to one who implements a set of intentional and often preventative services. Although school counselors' services exist as an ever changing developmental program (Akos, Cockman, & Strickland 2007), their ability to provide the needed comprehensive services to all students continues to be challenged by high counselor to student ratios. ASCA recommends that each school counselor serve no more than 250 students (ASCA, 2005). According to the National Center for Education Statistics (2010), the average counselor to student ratio for the 2008-2009 school year was 1 to 457, well above this average. This makes it challenging for school counselors to fulfill their ethical responsibility within the National Standards for School Counselors, namely working with and positively influencing all students (Cambell & Dahir, 1997).

The use of classroom guidance is seen as one way for school counselors to fulfill the mandate of working with all students efficiently and effectively (ASCA, 2005). Additionally, the ASCA National Model (2005) includes the following statement: "Although teaching experience is not required in some states, it is important for school counselors to receive training in student learning styles, classroom behavior management, curriculum and instruction, student assessment and student achievement" (p. 16). This is echoed in the CACREP (2009) standards: "Understands curriculum design, lesson plan development, classroom management strategies, and differentiated instructional strategies for teaching counseling and guidance related material" (p. 43). As such there has been considerable debate in the literature about whether or not school counselors should have

classroom-teaching training and experience prior to becoming school counselors (Baker, 1994; Olson & Allen, 1993; Quarto, 1999; Smith, Crutchfield, & Culbreth, 2001).

<center>Historical Perspective – Is Teacher Training Required</center>

The school counseling profession received a significant boost in the United States as the result of the launching of the first artificial satellite, Sputnik, by the USSR in 1957 (Jorden, 1957). This started the space race between the US and the USSR; the US responded with the National Defense Education Act of 1958, which resulted in the increased demand for school counselors, and the growth of counselor education programs (Baker, 1994). The increased demand for school counselors brought into focus the controversy about what constituted appropriate certification requirements, specifically the requirement about to whether or not all school counselors should come from a teaching background.

Whether teaching experience should be a requirement or not has been debated since the beginning of the profession. Jones (1941) in a position statement provided the foundation of certification standards which still exist today in some states. This included the desirability of teaching certification with a minimum of 1 to 2 years of experience (Jones, 1941). Furthermore, other writers have stated that not only was teaching experience desirable, but it was also necessary in order to function as a school counselor (Mathewson, 1952, 1954; Ohlsen, 1949; Tooker, 1957). Ohlsen (1949) felt that teaching experience was necessary in order for school counselors to better understand the teachers' perspectives, and moreover, that school counselors should be selected from the existing teaching staff at the individual schools (Ohlsen, 1949; Weitz, 1958). Simmers and Davis (1949) in a survey of 406 counselors in 20 states reveal almost unanimous support for

teaching experience as part of a school counselor's background. By 1950, in support of this finding, 23 states had adopted plans to require teaching experience and certification, usually 2 years, as part of school counseling certification (Kremen, 1951). Indeed, the zeitgeist of the day was that school counselors identified themselves simply as teachers with specialized training (Pierson, 1954). In most states a teaching credential with 4 or 5 classes in school counseling were all that were required to obtain certification (Nugent, 1966).

The debate about whether school counselors should have classroom experience is continued into the 1960s, with many contributions to the professional literature (Baker, 1994). Proponents of required teaching experience stated that this experience gives school counselors knowledge related to school policies and procedures, as well as facilitating relationships with teachers since they share a common background (Farwell, 1962; Hoyt, 1961; Hudson, 1961; Hutson, 1962; Rochester & Cottingham, 1966). This viewpoint still exists today with some scholars arguing that previous teaching experience is an advantage in understanding school policy and is a means to connect with teachers and administrators (Olson & Allen, 1993; Quarto, 1999). It has been stated that if the goal of school counselors is to work with students on educational, as well as emotional problems, prior teaching experience would provide helpful insights into accomplishing this goal (Fredrickson & Pippert, 1964; Tooker, 1957). It was also during this time that the role of the school counseling profession began to evolve, moving from a purely vocational model, to one with a limited focus on crisis response, and finally to one favoring a preventative approach (Herr, 2001; Wrenn, 1962).

Empirical studies during this time explored the thoughts of district superintendents and school principals about the desirability of teacher certification and experience for school counselors (Stripling & Lister, 1963). A study by Fredickson and Rippert (1964) found that 99% of the superintendents and 100% of the principals surveyed expressed a desire to hire a school counselor with at least one year of teaching experience with "all other personal factors being relatively equal." Additionally, Fredickson and Rippert (1964) found that 55% of the superintendents and 64% of school principals rated previous teaching experience as "absolutely necessary" when hiring school counselors, clearly illustrating the desirability of school counselors having previous teaching experience.

In contrast, there were groups that challenged this notion of teaching experience being a necessity. The American Personnel and Guidance Association released two position statements in 1964, where there desirability of a teaching requirement for certification was not specifically mentioned (APGA, 1964a). In the statement on secondary school counselor preparation, APGA stated that qualified candidates may be drawn from a variety of disciplines at both the graduate and undergraduate levels (APGA, 1964b). Additionally, the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision proposed that by completing specifically designed courses and with appropriate supervision, school counseling students without teaching experience would be appropriately trained (ACES, 1967).

The movement from the traditional model of vocational guidance to one of a more preventative approach was not without challenges. There was a lack of consensus within the school counseling community about both the training requirements and role of

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the school counselor (Hill, 1967). This led to the formation of a committee to investigate

guidance in U.S. schools, resulting in the publishing of a report titled *The Counselor in a*

Changing World (APGA, 1968). The report emphasized the view that school counselors

should be involved with individual and group counseling, activities certainly beyond the

purview and training of teachers.

It was also during the 1960s that a focus arose regarding empirical research

related to comparing school counselors from a teaching background with those from

other disciplines. As an example, Cambell (1962) found that when school counselors

came from a teaching background, they tended to use information giving, tutoring, and

advising more often than their peers without a teaching background. Additionally,

counselor trainees from a teaching background rated themselves as being more dogmatic

than those without teaching experience (Wittmer & Webster, 1969). Indeed, there were

several authors who felt that individuals with behavioral science background had better

insight into students' personal and behavioral issues (Arbuckle, 1961; Cohen, 1961;

Dugan, 1961; Stewart, 1961). Wrenn (1951) expressed that it is the nature of the

teaching experience determines whether it is helpful or not. The APGA later agreed with

Wrenn's statement by expressing concern about the emphasis on the quantity of the

experience rather than the quality (APGA, 1958). Other studies showed that school

counselors who were teachers were more likely to regress in counseling skills than those

without teaching experience (Merrill, Lister & Antenen, 1968). Mazer, Severson,

Axman, and Ludington (1965) found that counselors without teaching experience tended

to establish more therapeutic relationships than counselors from a teaching background.

Lister (1969) summarized the opposing views and stated, "the long standing and

widespread requirement of teaching experience for counselor certification has developed and has been maintained without sound evidence that counselors selected from the teaching ranks are systematically more effective" (p. 49-50).

There was continued empirical focus in the 1970s with several authors exploring the perceptions of school administrators in regard to the performance of school counselors both with and without teacher training. Dilley, Foster, and Bowers (1973) focused on the reported ratings of school counselors by school administrators in five different areas: staff relationships, adjusting to school conditions, implementing counseling services, working without supervision, and overall performance. No significant differences were reported between the two groups of school counselors, one with teaching experience, and the other without. This was consistent with the findings of White and Parsons (1974) which revealed no significant differences between teacher trained and non-teacher trained school counselors' abilities regarding specific guidance duties. In one counselor education program, a study was done exploring the performance of the program's graduates. Building principals were surveyed about the school counseling graduates' performance on a variety of important skills and personal qualities, including classroom guidance. No significant differences were reported between those with and without teaching experience (Baker & Herr, 1976). When exploring perceived effectiveness and employability, Havens (1972) found no significant differences regarding school counseling interns based on whether they had or do did not have previous teaching experience.

Taken collectively, the empirical literature from the 1970s consistently reported no significant differences between school counselors with teaching backgrounds from

those without (Baker & Herr, 1976; Dilley et al., 1973; Lister, 1969; White & Parsons, 1974). This lack of significant findings challenged the prerequisite of teaching experience for school counselor certification and suggested it be discontinued (Dilley et al., 1973; White & Parsons, 1974). Scholars from that era have stated that the teaching requirement to become a school counselor seems largely based on prejudices, biases, and emotions and is not supported by the existing empirical data (Baker & Herr, 1976; White & Parsons, 1974). Baker (1994) later echoed this sentiment by challenging counselor educators in states with a teaching requirement to closely examine their personal and professional perceptions about this issue and to make needed changes. Despite these findings, administrators and teachers still seem to prefer someone with teaching experience being certified as a school counselor (Peterson, Goodman, Keller, & McCauley, 2004; Quarto, 1999). Teachers may resent working with school counselors who do not come from a teaching background, believing that these counselors lack of understanding of teachers' unique problems and daily experiences (Baker, 1994).

While the research related to requiring school counselors to be teachers has slowed since the beginning of the 1980s, it is still a topic that is being indirectly explored. Scarborough and Luke (2008) argued that a prior teaching background might assist school counselors in identifying and navigating the school system. Scarborough and Luke used a qualitative, grounded theory method to explore eight professional school counselors' thoughts and experiences related to designing and implementing a comprehensive school-counseling program in their schools. While this study did not explore classroom guidance directly, its findings are relevant as classroom guidance plays an important role in any comprehensive developmental school-counseling program. The

model that emerged from the study showed that school counselors motivated to help all students find that implementing a comprehensive developmental school-counseling program as an effective way to meet this goal (Scarborough and Luke, 2008).

Recently, Bringman and Lee (2008) explored the self-rated classroom guidance abilities of practicing school counselors both with and without previous teaching experience. The predictor variables in this study were classroom teaching experience and school counseling experience. The criterion variables were (a) ability to conduct classroom guidance lesson alone and (b) ability to conduct classroom guidance lesson with a teacher in the classroom. A 10-point Likert scale was used to measure the criterion variables. One hundred and seventeen counselors responded to the survey and the authors found both teaching experience and school counseling experience to be significant predictors of classroom guidance ability, both with and without an accompanying teacher. Yet when a multivariate regression analysis was used with both predictor and criterion variables loaded at the same time, teaching experience was no longer significant. Additionally, this study relied entirely on self-reports of classroom guidance competencies, which is consistent with other related research (Desmond, West, & Bubenzer, 2007; Peterson et al, 2004). The authors themselves acknowledge that the reported levels of competencies may not accurately reflect actual classroom guidance abilities (Bringman & Lee, 2008). This study emphasizes the need for more research about how school counselors perceive their abilities related to classroom guidance.

In summary, prior teaching experience connotes education and training in lesson plan development, classroom management, various pedagogical strategies, and assessment/feedback. These items are arguably important if school counselors are to

effectively engage in classroom guidance. Additionally, within the field of teacher

training, the above is taught both in a classroom and experientially refined in student

teaching. An important question currently not answered by the empirical literature is

what impact, if any, does experience and training in the various "core" teaching areas

have on the willingness of school counselors to engage in classroom guidance.

<div align="center">Impact of Experiential Training</div>

Exploration of the role of experiential training in school counselors' development

can be traced back to the late 1960's. One important thread in the literature explored the

impact of practicum or internship experience on school counselor trainees' ability to

function successfully in a school environment. These direct experiential learning

opportunities were reported by counseling students to be critical in fostering both

personal and professional development (Furr & Carroll, 2003; Goodrich & Luke, 2010;

Luke & Kiweewa, 2010). For example, Antenen and Lister (1967) found that when a

counseling practicum was completed, the length of the experience had a positive impact

on interview behavior. In comparing counselors with teaching experience with those

without, the difference in the two groups was minimized when school experiences were

taken into account (Haven, 1972). This finding was consistent with Erpenbach and

Perron's (1976) review of the empirical literature, concluding that while school

counselors need a broad base of knowledge and experience to be effective, this can be

provided with appropriate practicum experiences. As training requirements regarding

practicum and internship, influenced by CACREP (2009), become more uniform across

the various counselor education programs it can be concluded that the benefits of past

teaching experience will be minimized.

One of the main benefits of teaching experience, knowledge of schools and school procedures, can arguably be achieved through the diligent and intentional practicum and internship experiences (Erpenbach & Perrone, 1976; Olson & Allen, 1993). Counselor education programs requiring participation in experiential learning opportunities like classroom observations and job shadowing can also help meet this need (Olson & Allen, 1993). Adjusting to and understanding the school environment can be challenging to counselors without prior school experience, yet this challenge seems to exist only for a short period early in their careers (Baker, 1994; White & Partson, 1974). Desmond, West, and Bubenzer (2007) used qualitative methodologies to explore the following research question, "How does mentoring help novice school counselors without a teaching background transition into the school environment?" Four school counselors consisting of two mentor and mentee pairs were used in this study, and the data analysis used the collective case study approach (Sarroub, 2001). Two main categories of themes emerged: school environment and the profession of school counseling. Themes within these categories were learning school environment, opening to learning, and teaching expression for school environment category and benefits, motivations, and professional development for the profession of school counseling category. In the end, "mentors and mentees agreed that teaching experience prior to becoming a counselor might have been helpful, but it was not necessary to becoming an effective school counselor" (p. 180). Yet one limitation of this study in the current context is that it did not explore experiences of the participants when working in the classroom. Nevertheless, these findings are consistent with Peterson and Deuschle's (2006) statement that with proper training and an appropriate practicum and internship experiences, there is little or no perceived difference

between teachers and non-teachers and their competence as school counselors by the end of the internship.

The existing literature, however, does not address the fact that as part of the ASCA model, school counselors at the high school level should be spending 15% to 25%, middle school level 25% to 35%, and elementary level 35% to 45% of their time engaged in classroom guidance (ASCA, 2005). To date, there has been neither a national investigation about how widely classroom guidance is employed by practicing school counselors, nor has there been meaningful exploration of the self-efficacy of school counselors within the classroom or of the appropriate training methods in classroom guidance. With only a few states now requiring prior teaching experience as a requirement for counselor certification, many counselors have not been exposed to teaching pedagogy unless it is included in their school counselor preparation. An absence of this information could potentially impact their ability to engage in classroom guidance effectively (Smith, Crutchfield, & Culbreth, 2001). Consequently, school counselor trainees could have little exposure to important aspects of classroom guidance like lesson plans, classroom management, and delivering instruction (Akos, Cockman, & Strickland, 2007).

Teacher training provides focused preparation in working with entire classrooms of students (Manning & Bucher, 2007) as well as the opportunity to engage in experiential learning (McKeachie, 2002). Peterson et al. (2004) used qualitative methods to explore the perceived internship experiences of 26 school counseling students, some of whom had teaching experience and others who did not. The study asked four opened ended questions in each of the sixteen categories related to school counselor experience

and competence. In this study, the themes that emerged for those without teaching experience were an acknowledgment of a lack of classroom management skills, the struggle for respect and credibility with the teaching staff, and a difficulty in understanding and adjusting to the school culture (Peterson et al., 2004). However, since classroom guidance was only one of the sixteen categories explored, this study was not focused on the impact of teaching experience on classroom guidance. The Peterson et al. (2004) findings that school counseling interns feel they are lacking in classroom management skills, seem to struggle for respect, and acknowledge difficulties in understanding school culture are all important areas that future research needs to address.

Classroom Guidance

Large-group counseling or classroom guidance has been identified by ASCA as an important part of both a school counselor's professional role and school counseling training (ASCA, 2005; Baker & Gerler, 2007; Campbell & Dahir, 1997; Dahir, Sheldon & Valiga, 1998; & Goodnough, et al, 2011). ASCA (2005) contends that only through classroom guidance and school-wide programming can a school counselor positively impact all students because school counselors cannot provide regularly scheduled counseling and advisement to all individual students within their caseload; in many cases, classroom guidance might even be the first experience that students have with their school counselor (Geltner & Clark, 2005). Group counseling, including classroom guidance, can be seen as one of a school counselor's most highly specialized skills (Goodnough & Lee, 2004). Furthermore, in today's age of budgetary cutbacks, classroom guidance is efficient, since it allows school counselors to positively impact large numbers of students (Baker, 2000; Baker & Gerler, 2007; Geltner, Cunningham, &

Caldwell, 2011; Myrick, 2003; Schmidt, 2008; Snyder, 2000; Wittmer, 2000).

Classroom guidance also allows school counselors to provide students with important developmental and preventative information efficiently (Dahir, 2004; Goodnough et al., 2011; Myrick, 2003; Wittmer, 2000). For example, Bennett & Gibbons (2000) reviewed 30 studies related to bullying or antisocial behavior that took place over a 24-year time span, and services within 23 of the 30 studies were delivered in a group or classroom format. Sixty percent of the tested interventions occurred in a school setting and the authors reported that the average child in treatment improved 69% more than the children in the control group (Bennett & Gibbons, 2000).

Considering the importance of classroom guidance, it is key that all school counseling trainees are educated and experienced in working with students in a classroom setting (Geltner et al., 2011). This focus on classroom guidance is also in agreement with what national school counseling leaders and educators are advocating: namely that school counselors engage in classroom guidance as part of a comprehensive developmental plan which includes a sequential school counseling curriculum (ASCA, 2005; CACREP, 2009; Cambell & Dahir, 1997; Geltner et al., 2011; Fall, 1994). As noted earlier, the role of classroom guidance is becoming more important as school counselors struggle to find resources to meet all of their students' needs (Geltner et al., 2011). The curriculum component of a developmental school counseling program allows counselors, through the use of structured lessons, to assist students in meeting their academic, career, and personal/social needs (ASCA, 2005). However, it is important to understand that when placed on a continuum where individual counseling is at one end and classroom teaching is at the other, classroom guidance is much closer to teaching than it is to individual

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counseling. The intent of classroom guidance is psychoeducational in nature (DeLucia-Waack, 2006; Gerrity & DeLucia-Waak, 2006; Geltner et al., 2011), where the school counselor teaches a comprehensive, sequential curriculum to address, either in a proactive or reactive manner to address students' academic, career, or personal/social needs.

During the 1980s there was a call for school counselors to redefine themselves incorporating the role of a proactive teacher. Counseling itself can be viewed as an intentional activity created by the counselor that results in client learning, which is a definition of teaching (Hiebert, Martin, & Marx, 1981). At one point, leaders in the school counseling field called for developmental guidance programs to add a fourth C, for curriculum, to the other 3 C's: counseling, coordination, and consultation (Bailey, Deery, Gehrke, Perry, & Whitledge, 1989). The notion of classroom guidance with its inherent curriculum remains a critical part of a developmental counseling curriculum (Gysbers & Henderson, 2006). Embedded within the 4th C, curriculum, is the assumption that classroom guidance is an efficient and effective way to impact student development (Lee, 1993).

In addition to its efficiency in serving more students, another advantage of classroom guidance is the opportunity it provides to collaborate with teachers when designing and implementing developmental lessons (Goodnough, Perusse, & Erford, 2007; Myrick, 2002; Schmidt, 2008; Tompson, 2002). Besides designing and implementing classroom guidance independently, school counselors can assist teachers in the creation of developmental classroom lessons within their own curriculum (Goodnough et al., 2007; Myrick, 2002; Schmidt, 2008). Likewise, teachers can provide

classroom expertise and support to help school counselors in the planning and delivery of developmental classroom guidance (Sciarra, 2004; Vernon, 2004). This collaboration is essential if classroom guidance is to be well integrated into a student's regular instruction (Sciarra, 2004).

Classroom Environment

School counselors report feeling significantly challenged by classroom management while performing classroom guidance. Classroom guidance requires good classroom management in order to be effective (Geltner et al., 2011). Thus the potential lack of classroom management skills in non teacher trained counselors is seen as a major concern by those who advocate for the requirement that all school counselors have teaching certification (Olson & Allen, 1993). The challenge in "figuring out" classroom management is something that many non teachers have expressed to be personally challenging (Peterson, Goodman, Keller, & McCauley, 2004) and at times discomfiting (Geltner & Clark, 2005). The importance of school counselors being competent managers of classroom behavior should not be overlooked if classroom guidance is going to be effective (Geltner et al., 2011). However, school counselors do report feeling conflicted between their role as a 'helper' and their role as a limit setter (Goodrich & Luke, 2010; Luke & Goodrich, 2013). Unfortunately, the literature provides no specific description about the skills and knowledge required for a school counselor to be a successful classroom management manager (CACREP, 2009; Goodnough et al., 2011).

When school counselors manage a classroom successfully it allows them to impact their students in a positive way (Geltner & Clark, 2005; Goodrich & Luke, 2010). However, it should be anticipated that students, especially middle school students, will

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deliberately test the classroom boundaries to see what behavioral limits the school counselor will set (Charney, 2002). A new school counselor may feel especially challenged when faced for the first time with a student who willfully misbehaves (Geltner & Clark, 2005). Consequently, school counselors engaged in classroom guidance will need to develop their own management style (Wittmer, 2000). For this to occur, a background in the basics of teaching and classroom management is essential (Henington & Doggett, 2004). Perhaps most important in maintaining order within the classroom, the school counselor must be able to provide a lesson that maintains the students' interest and attention if it is to be a successful learning activity (Geltner & Clark, 2005; Wong & Wong, 2009).

School counselors must have a thorough understanding of the goals or learning objectives for their classroom guidance lessons (Erford, 2010). These lessons should be designed in a developmentally appropriate sequence with the intent of creating an optimal match between the goals of the lesson and the format of the instruction and activities (Goodnough, Peruuse, & Erford, 2010). Assessing the effectiveness of the classroom guidance activities is an important, yet often overlooked, aspect of designing an effective program; professional school counselors must demonstrate that these activities are effective and that students are different as a result (Dimmitt, Carey, & Hatch, 2007). During this process of student engagement, the school counselors will need to demonstrate skill and sensitivity, if they wish not to be seen as disciplinarians by their students (Stickel, Satchwell, & Meyer, 1991).

As previously noted, school counselors who do not come from a teaching background may lack needed classroom management skills (Geltner & Clark, 2005;

Peterson & Deuschle, 2006), causing them to experience significant discomfort when engaging in classroom guidance (Goodrich & Luke, 2010; Peterson & Deushle, 2006). Very little research has been done to empirically explore outcomes related to classroom guidance when teaching experience is taken into account. Several studies report that internship students, who did not have teaching experience, expressed feeling that their classroom management skills were inadequate (Peterson, Goodman, Keller, & McCauley, 2004). Additionally, Goodrich and Luke (2010) found that while school counselor trainees improved their group work skills, they still struggled with limit setting, even at the end of their group experience. Although not a direct examination of classroom guidance, this appears to indicate the need for school counselor trainees, especially those without previous teacher training, to engage in more experiential training related to classroom guidance. It also indicates a need for more research to better understand how experience and experiential training impact school counselor self-efficacy related to classroom guidance.

While classroom management is a key component to classroom guidance, the school counselor's ability to create interesting and engaging lessons is equally as important. The students' motivation to learn and their level of engagement are increased based on their level of personal interest (Piaget, 1978; Tomlinson, 2001). School counselors engaged in classroom guidance have to adjust to the diverse levels of ability within the class, and as such, should use appropriate pacing to maximize student engagement (Akos, Cockman, & Strickland, 2007; Howard, 1994; Tomlinson, 2001; Vygotsky, 1962). If school counselors lack an appropriate grounding in developmental theory, classroom guidance programs may be used inappropriately, even by school

counselors with the best of intentions (Myrick, 1997). For schools which lack a comprehensive developmental program, classroom guidance activities can be isolated and/or disjointed, thus limiting their effectiveness (Nicoll, 1994).

Empirical evidence supporting the claim that classroom guidance is an effective tool to support student development does exist. In one study, when classroom guidance was used in conjunction with other counseling methods, there was a significant reduction in behavioral problems among 4th and 5th graders (Cobb & Richards, 1983). Downing (1977) found that group interventions designed to improve student behavior also improved academic achievement significantly. These findings are supported by a study where Gerler, Kinney, and Anderson (1985) showed that group guidance, used in conjunction with other behavioral techniques, significantly improved the math and language arts grades for a group of underachieving students. Although research has shown the potential of classroom guidance to help meet the social, emotional, and academic needs of today's students (Berlin & Sum, 1988; Gerler & Anderson, 1986; Martin, 1983; Purkey & Aspy, 1987; Ryan, 1986), these studies seem to rely heavily on self report or instruments whose validity and reliability have not been fully tested. One example is Gerler and Anderson's (1986) study, which investigated the impact of classroom guidance on various student outcomes. This study investigated 896 students in grades 4 and 5, with approximately half the students in the control group and the other half of the students in the treatment group. On subjective measures like conduct, behavior rating scales, and a self reported school attitude - score significance was found. However, on more objective measures like language arts and math grades, no significant impact was seen.

Empirical Evidence

As evidenced in the literature, there is some empirical evidence to support school counselors' use of classroom guidance, but some authors express concern about the robustness of these findings. Considering that classroom guidance is a fundamental part of the ASCA National Model (2005), there still remains relatively little research as to its effectiveness (Akos et al., 2007). Classroom guidance is widely implemented as part of a comprehensive developmental school-counseling program, yet research regarding classroom guidance has produced somewhat mixed results (Nicoll, 1994). In a review of the school counseling outcome literature, Whiston & Sexton (1998) found that only 24% of the studies could be classified as relating to classroom guidance. A puzzling finding considering both the scope and importance of the classroom guidance component within a comprehensive program (Gysbers & Henderson, 2006). Of the 12 outcome studies reviewed, only a few provided support for the effectiveness of classroom guidance, especially in the area of improving students' self-concept or self-esteem (Whiston & Sexton, 1998). That said, the aims of classroom guidance extend beyond these variables that were examined.

While the school counseling literature as a whole has been characterized as being limited in scope and lacking rigor, the absence of empirical findings for classroom guidance could be considered puzzling considering the amount of time school counselors are supposed to be engaged in this practice (Akos et al., 2007). This leads to the question about the role of inadequate program development and intensity in the lack of empirical finding related to classroom guidance (Nicoll, 1994). Perhaps even more concerning is the paucity of literature exploring effective ways to design and deliver classroom

guidance (Akos et al., 2007). Appropriate models of training related to classroom

guidance have not yet been delineated or empirically tested which calls into question the

effectiveness of school counselor training programs related to this area (Geltner et al.,

2011). Indeed, almost no research has been done detailing and exploring the actual

process of providing classroom guidance (Akos et al., 2007). In summary, significant

research is needed related to classroom guidance because areas like classroom guidance

experiential training, for example, has virtually been unexplored.

<div align="center">Training Implications</div>

With significant focus on classroom guidance as part of a comprehensive

developmental school-counseling program, there are training implications that need to be

considered. School counselors should receive training to become competent classroom

instructors, as well as counselors (Baker, 2000), and yet, a review of several entry-level

school counseling texts showed a paltry number of pages being devoted to classroom

guidance; the number of pages ranged from zero to twenty-four with most having fewer

than four pages and only making up 1%-2% of the text (Dahir & Stone, 2012; Davis,

2005; Ereford, 2010; Studer, 2005). This is discouraging because every school counselor

trainee should be exposed to this material in order to become proficient in implementing

classroom guidance, so as to have the opportunity to demonstrate their competence in this

area (Curry & Lambie, 2007). Ironically, counselor training programs may focus heavily

on the individual counseling role of the school counselor because of the lack of training

or understanding of developmental classroom guidance by the counselor educators

themselves (Fall,1994). Additionally, there is little exploration of what the standards are

related to classroom guidance and a lack of clear expectations for what school counselors

should know at the end of their training program (CACREP, 2005). There is a substantial overlap between the skills demonstrated by school counselors engaged in a developmental classroom lesson and those by an effective teacher (Akos et al., 2007).

When looking at individual counselor education programs, there is still a wide variability between what exactly is being taught and how it is being taught (Perusse et al., 2001). When searching for appropriate ways to train school counseling students on how to deliver effective classroom guidance, this material is contained mostly in school counseling textbooks and is not found in the empirical literature (Goodnough, Perusse, & Erford, 2003; Myrick, 1997; Sears, 2004; Vernon, 2004). In addition to this small amount of material, there are inconsistencies in the information about classroom guidance across textbooks. As a result, there is a lack of clear training expectations for classroom guidance; thus scholars argue that most school counselors lack the training needed to be successful in implementing group interventions in schools (Akos, Goodnough, & Milsom, 2004; Paisley & Milsom, 2007; Steen, Bauman, & Smith, 2008).

This lack of exposure is especially true for students who lack teaching experience or other experience with school age youth (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). It has been stated that school counseling students should be required to conduct a number of classroom guidance activities as part of their practicum and internship experiences, in order to obtain experiential learning experiences (Bringman & Lee, 2008). Both ASCA (2005) and CACREP (2009) recognize the training needs of school counselors and provide limited guidelines describing the expectations for classroom guidance. The majority of school counselors enter the profession without meaningful teaching

experience, suggesting a lack of clarity on how best to provide a meaningful training environment for classroom guidance (Geltner et al., 2011; Luke & Goodrich, 2012).

There are no training models in classroom guidance that have been empirically explored. However, certain themes have been explored that help clarify the current educational training needs for classroom guidance. Peterson, Goodman, Keller, and McCauley (2004) found that school counseling students, especially those without teaching experience, desire a better understanding about central factors including, gaining respect and credibility within the school community, developing classroom skills, and adjusting to the school culture. While practicum and internship provide opportunities for school counseling students to address these training needs, there has also been a call to maximize these experiential learning opportunities and to do so throughout the training program (Peterson & Deuschle, 2006). School counselors also find themselves relying on a blend of counseling skills, classroom management strategies, and instructional methodology that is potentially unique to the school counseling profession and not yet fully understood (Bringman & Lee, 2008; Geltner et al., 2011). Additionally, small group training is ubiquitous to counselor education programs, and some of the small group knowledge and skills may transfer to classroom guidance (Geltner et al., 2011). Peterson and Deuschle (2006) have called for a combination of experiential learning, including hands on opportunities, and the necessary theoretical foundation. Creating and testing an experiential training scale for classroom guidance would be an important contribution to the empirical literature.

The literature on classroom guidance expresses support for more training in the area of classroom guidance. Peterson and Deuschle (2006) postulated that training for

classroom guidance might take the form of intense mini workshops to build important skills. It is the lack of consensus related to certification standards or supervision requirements of such classroom guidance training that make creating these programs challenging (Barret & Schmidt, 1986). It is important to note that experience seems to bring a sense of competence related to performing classroom guidance, whether the individual has teaching experience or not. Bringman and Lee (2008) found a significant relationship between self perceived competence related to classroom guidance and an individual's school counseling experience. Self perceived competence, however, may not equate to someone actually being competent in the task measured. It was also found that when teaching experience was regressed against school counseling experience, teaching experience was no longer significantly correlated to self reported classroom guidance ability (Bringman & Lee, 2008). These findings are supported by Peterson et al. (2004), who reported the more opportunity counseling interns had to perform classroom guidance, the more comfortable they felt. There has also been a call for more research related to outcome measures in this area; expanding on simple self reports (Bringman & Lee, 2008; Peterson & Deuschle, 2006) as actual classroom guidance outcomes related to teaching experience have not been measured.

School counselor trainees without teaching experience report a greater level of discomfort in the classroom when compared with their peers who come from a teaching background. Yet there are currently no outcome studies that report one way or another whether teaching training or experience makes someone more effective in the classroom (Bringman & Lee, 2008). In a recent Delphi study by Geltner, Cunningham, and Caldwell (2011), 35 participants were broken into two groups based on whether they

were practicing school counselors (n=15) or prominent school counselor educators (n=18). The purpose of the study was to determine recommended curriculum components for classroom guidance training. The study was web based where participants had to rank each item using a Likert scale with a range from one, meaning not at all important, to seven, meaning extremely important. This study consisted of three rounds, which resulted in a final selection of 40 items from the original 89 possible choices. The resultant list included both knowledge and skill items, with an important emphasis on the skills needed for the actual practice of classroom guidance. A comparison between the school counselor and counselor education groups' respective item means were highly similar and no significant differences were found between the groups. These findings represent an opportunity for counselor education programs to use experiential training methods to teach these important classroom guidance skills. The authors also called for these knowledge and skill items to be incorporated into practicum and internship experiences, as well as other school counseling courses (Geltner et al., 2011).

While group work is a requirement of all CACREP (2009) counseling education programs, it usually lacks a psychoeducational focus appropriate for school counselors (Akos, Goodnough, & Milsom, 2004; Coyne, Wilson, & Ward, 1997; DeLucia-Waack, 2006). Additionally, much of the group training in counseling programs takes place with adults, with little attention given to working with children or adolescents (DeLucia-Waack, 2000; Riva & Haub, 2004; Steen, Bauman, & Smith, 2008). This lack of appropriate focus can result in school counselors feeling unprepared to work with

children or adolescents once they start working as school counselors (Goodrich & Luke, 2010; Luke & Goodrich, 2013; Riva & Haub, 2004; Steen et al., 2008).

Self-Efficacy

Bandura (1991) defines self-efficacy as "people's beliefs about the capabilities to exercise control over their own level of functioning and other events in their lives" (p. 257). This study in part, explores the relationship between school counselor self-efficacy beliefs about performance or skills related to performing classroom guidance and the outcome variable about how often school counselors actually implement classroom guidance. In order to provide clarity, an explanation of self-efficacy and school counselors is needed.

Self-efficacy plays an important role in how individuals perceive their own functioning, as self-efficacy beliefs about their abilities relates to whether they are capable of performing certain tasks. Bandura (1986a) states that self-efficacy is "a generative capability in which component cognitive, social, and behavioral skills must be organized into the integrated courses of action to serve innumerable purposes" (p. 122). It is centered on whether individuals judge that they have the ability to address or deal with any prospective situations that might arise (Bandura, 1982). This is consistent with Sutton and Fall's (1995) work that defined self-efficacy beliefs as whether individuals expect that they possess the skills and knowledge as well as the capacity and willingness to take the actions needed to overcome problems. Self-efficacy has also been found to impact counselors in a variety of ways, with Larson et al. (1992) finding that counselor self-efficacy is correlated to training level, experience, and level of supervision.

A person's self-efficacy impacts how that individual thinks, feels, and acts. People with a strong sense of self-efficacy generally set higher goals, exhibit a greater motivation, and show the resiliency needed to complete those goals (Bandura, 1986a, 1995). Self-efficacy influences people's actions, whether they decide to engage in a task, how much effort they put forth, and how they deal with failure (Bandura, 1986a). It is important to note that self-efficacy does not directly measure how skillful an individual is, but rather their beliefs about their skill level (Bandura, 1997).

Four Sources of Self-Efficacy

Moving from a conceptual to a more concrete understanding of self-efficacy will clarify how self-efficacy is important in school counseling. According to Bandura (1977, 1989a, 1993), the concept self-efficacy can be further broken down into four experiential sources. The names for these sources have evolved over the years, but they are now recognized as 1) master/performance accomplishments, 2) modeling/vicarious experiences, 3) social/verbal persuasion, and 4) affective/emotional arousal (Bandura, 1993).

The most influential source in regard to its impact on self-efficacy is mastery/ performance accomplishments (Bandura, 1977, 1986a). Mastery occurs when individuals are engaged in direct experience like trying to complete a specific task. According to Bandura (1977, 1986a) when someone is successful, this increases self-efficacy, if they fail to complete the task this can lower self-efficacy. However, once self-efficacy is established through direct success in a particular area, the occasional failure has a limited impact. Additionally, mastery in one area can increase self-efficacy in another since the individual generalizes his or her self-efficacy to other areas (Bandura, 1977, 1986a).

The second source of self-efficacy is modeling/vicarious experiences. Vicarious experiences occur when an individual observes someone else handling a specific situation and imagines how he or she might do in the same or similar situation (Bandura, 1986a; Pajares, 2002). From a counseling perspective, examples of vicarious experience might be watching another classmate or school counselor engage in classroom guidance either in person or through video. While vicarious experiences impact self-efficacy, they are not as powerful as successfully engaging in the activity itself (Bandura, 1986a).

The third source of self-efficacy beliefs is social/verbal persuasion. This occurs when individuals allow themselves to be persuaded that they can successfully deal with a challenging situation that might have been seen as beyond their abilities in the past (Bandura, 1986a). An example of verbal persuasion might be when a classroom instructor verbally encourages a student to attempt a difficult task. As with vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion does not impact self-efficacy as much as direct accomplishments do (Bandura, 1986a).

The last source of self-efficacy as proposed by Bandura (1977) is affective/ emotional arousal. An individuals' self-efficacy can be impacted by their current state of emotional arousal. If an individual experiences a high level of anxiety related to a specific task or situation, it may lower their sense of self-efficacy (Bandura, 1986a). A possible example would be student's having a high level of anxiety around public speaking. This could impact his or her sense of self-efficacy related to being successful when performing classroom guidance. Not surprisingly, when an individual is consistently successful with the task, it can lower their anxiety level, which further increases their self-efficacy (Larson & Daniels, 1998).

The four categories of self-efficacy are important to understand since they help to conceptualize the link between self-efficacy and experiential learning. It does not require a great intuitive leap to see how past mastery/accomplishments, vicarious experiences, social/verbal persuasion, and affective/emotional arousal might impact someone's willingness to engage in experiential learning, especially when experiential learning is incorporated. Yet, this relationship has never been empirically explored when looking at the training of school counselors engaging in classroom guidance.

Counselor Self Efficacy

Central to the discussion of self-efficacy is an exploration about its impact on the counseling profession. Larson and Daniels (1998) stated that counseling self-efficacy is an important part of being an effective counselor. This is also true for counselor trainees because self-efficacy is one of the predictors of effective counseling. There is an expectation that efficacious counselors in a session will be able to continuously adjust their approach to address the ever changing needs in the session (Larsen & Daniels, 1998). Counselor self-efficacy then is defined as counselors' beliefs that they have the skills needed to deal effectively with a variety of clinical situations (Larsen & Daniels, 1998).

When exploring counselor self-efficacy, researchers found that it was strongly related to outcome expectancies and moderately negatively related to anxiety (Larsen & Daniels, 1998). Experience also seems to play an important role in counseling self-efficacy, with counselors who have at least some experience reporting higher levels of counselor self-efficacy than those with no experience (Melchert, Hays, Wiljanen, & Kolocek, 1996; Polenya, 1990). Consistent with the findings related to self-efficacy,

Larson and Daniels (1998) concluded that counselor efficacy is influenced by the same sources: namely mastery, modeling, social persuasion, and effective arousal.

One of the better researched areas related to counselor self-efficacy is the impact of training and supervision. The initial counseling training courses, commonly referred to as pre-practicum and practicum, seem to provide an opportunity for counselor trainees to be exposed to all four sources of self-efficacy (Larson & Daniels, 1998). Counseling self-efficacy has been named as one of the three reliable and stable characteristics that could be used in training and selection of counselors (Beutler, Machado, and Neufeldt, 1994). Cashwell and Dooley (2001) found that counselors receiving supervision reported significant higher counselor self-efficacy levels than counselors who received no supervision.

As noted earlier, experience also plays a role in the reported level of counseling self-efficacy. Counselors or counselor trainees with little or no experience often report lower counselor self-efficacy than those with more experience (Larson & Daniels, 1998). However, research has shown that after gaining experience or receiving significant supervision, as part of a practicum or internship, the relationship between experience and counselor self-efficacy is minimal (Aharez, 1995; Larson, Cardwell, & Majors, 1996; Potenya, 1990; Sutton & Fall 1995).

Counselor self-efficacy can play an important role in counselor training. It can affect how resilient counselor trainees are, as shown by their willingness to overcome the challenges inherent in the practicum and internship training (Larson & Daniels, 1998). To increase counselor self-efficacy, counselor educators and supervisors can focus on providing positive performance feedback, as not surprisingly, negative feedback appears

to decrease self-efficacy (Larson & Daniels, 1998). Increasing trainee counselor self-efficacy, which would decrease anxiety related to counseling, is an important step since high level of anxiety may impair clinical performance (Urbani, Smith, Maddux, Smaby, Torres-Rivera, & Crews, 2002).

When directly exploring the research related to counselor self-efficacy there are a variety of findings. In their seminal review of the literature, Larson and Daniels (1998) found support that higher levels of counselor self-efficacy indicated a higher-level performance, as rated by counseling supervisors. Beverage (1989) found a strong relationship between counselor self-efficacy and performance, yet this study was not longitudinal in nature but cross sectional. Larson et al. (1993) found considerable variation across trainees over a 23-week practicum course, but the sample size for this study was limited. A third study measured the relationship between counselor self-efficacy and counseling performance, but did not find any correlation (Ossama, 1990). The variation in the findings shows the need for continued research in this area.

The ability to manage anxiety effectively seems to play an important role in increasing counselor self-efficacy. The literature supports this showing that trainees with low levels of counselor self-efficacy tend to also report high levels of anxiety (Alzarez, 1995; Frielander, Keller, Peca-Baker, Olk, 1986; Larson et al., 1992; Larson et al., 1993). The skill requirements of school counselors have many things in common with other counselors, yet there are also unique skills needed like engaging in classroom guidance that require special training. There is a need to explore self-efficacy specifically for school counselors and classroom guidance.

School Counselor Self-Efficacy

In many respects, self-efficacy is an especially important part of being an effective school counselor. Hatch and Chen-Hayes (2008) note that the success of the ASCA National Model (2005) is dependent on the school counselor's willingness to learn new skills, change outdated practices, and use data to show program effectiveness. School counselor self-efficacy appears to be vital in keeping school counselors engaged in the process of moving both their program and the profession forward. Sutton and Fall (1995) stated that school counselor self-efficacy "has the potential of becoming a powerful construct and helping school counselors to understand their influence over people and systems, and more importantly, understand themselves" (p. 335). School counselors should be aware of the variety of factors that can impact their self-efficacy. As an example, Holcomb-McCoy (2005) found that school counselors who had taken a multicultural counseling course rated their multicultural competence higher than that of those who had not.

School counselors play an important role in the broader educational community, but this means they can both impact as well as be impacted by factors like school climate, counselor roles, and other select demographic variables (Sutton & Fall, 1995). In many respects school counseling can be seen as a hybrid of teaching and counseling (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005). Research has shown that previous teaching experience increases school counselor self-efficacy more than previous counseling experience (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005). However, school counselor self-efficacy has a limited knowledge base and little empirical research has been done to date, especially in the area of school counselor self-efficacy, and its impact on classroom guidance. While not directly measuring school counselor self-efficacy, Scarborough (2005) created the School

Counselor Activity Rating Scale (SCARS). The SCARS was designed to measure whether school counselors' preferences and how they would like to spend their time actually matches their job activities. In the initial design, the literature, including the ASCA National Model (2003), was reviewed to develop a list of 50 task statements that incorporates work activities performed by school counselors. These items fell into five areas: counseling, consultation, coordination, curriculum, and "other." The SCARS uses a verbal frequency scale to measure how often an activity is performed. Additionally, the SCARS measures how often school counselors actually perform an activity and how often they would prefer to perform that activity.

The resulting survey was sent to six hundred school counselors across all levels, and 361 usable surveys were returned and used for analysis. Series of statistical analyses were performed on the resulting data including factor analysis. This resulted in ten items in the counseling area, seven items in the consultation area, eight items in the curriculum area, thirteen items in the coordination area, and 10 items in the "other" category. As part of the factor analysis, the "other" area was further broken down into three sub scales: clerical with three items, fair share with five items, and administrative with two items.

The data from the SCARS survey was further explored to examine the discrepancies between the actual and preferred practice of school counselors (Scarborough and Culbreth, 2008). In addition to the data collected for the SCARS, the counselor self-efficacy scale (CSS) and school climate scale (SCS) both created by Sutton and Fall (1995) were given to participants. Consistent with other research, this study found discrepancies between how school counselors prefer to spend their time and how they actually spend their time (Hutchinson, Barrick, & Groves, 1986; Johnson, 1993;

Mustaine, Pappalardo, & Wyrick, 1996; Partin, 1993; Wilgus & Shelley, 1998). This study also showed that school counselors consistently indicated that they wanted to engage in activities that directly benefited students. These activities are consistent with what would be done within a comprehensive developmental school-counseling program (ASCA, 2005). Another finding of this study was that elementary school counselors were more likely to be practicing in the way they preferred, with high school counselors being least likely to be practicing in the way they preferred. One finding that was directly related to school counselor self-efficacy was that school counselors who scored high on the CSS, indicating higher self-efficacy, also reported more congruence between preferred and actual practice.

It is important to note that self-efficacy is a common variable used in a wide variety of research (Hsu, Wiklund, & Cotton, 2015). Yet, just because someone self reports a high level of self-efficacy, in this case related to classroom guidance, this does not necessarily mean they are actually more skilled in that area. Additionally, there is a large body of research that showing that school counseling comprehensive models are effective (Wilkerson, Perusse, and Hughes, 2013). However, the research has not yet studied the individual components of the comprehensive model.

<div align="center">Dunning and Kruger Effect</div>

Self-efficacy is not the only theory that attempts to understand how people's self-concept can impact their performance. What is commonly known as the Dunning and Kruger effect, named after the authors' research publication that supported the impact of self-views on performance, posits that individuals lack the insight needed to accurately gage their performance (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). There is a significant body of

research which suggests that individuals are often poor at evaluating themselves over a wide variety of domains (Dunning, 2005; Dunning, Heath, & Suls, 2004; Falchikov & Boud, 1989; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Mabe & West, 1982). Most people believe they have an above average level of talents and skills, which is not possible given the nature of descriptive statistics, such as the bell curve (Alicke, 1985; Dunning, Meyerowitz, & Holzberg, 1989; Kruger & Dunning, 1999; Weinstein, 1980). In many cases the individuals most confident with their skill level are those with the least actual amount of skill (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Much of the related literature seems to indicate that an individual's perception of skill is, at best, only moderately correlated to their actual performance (Dunning, 2005; Dunning et al., 1989; Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003; Falchikov & Boud, 1989; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Mabe & West, 1982). Kruger and Dunning theorize gross overconfidence sometimes occurs because those lacking skill are not able to recognize how large their deficits are. As an example, Kruger and Dunning (1999) found that individuals who performed in the bottom quartile in tests of grammar and logical reasoning self-reported that they perceived that compared to their peers, they were performing above the 60th percentile. Given that the Dunning and Krugger Effect has not been explored in a school counselor sample, but there is reason to believe it would hold in this population and also have potential bearing on the variables of self-efficacy and engagement in school counseling duties, more research on this is needed.

Self-Views

Ehrlinger et al. (2008) proposed three different factors that contributed to errors in self-assessment on tasks: (1) relying too heavily on self-views; (2) selecting the skill in

the area or domain being tested; and (3) ignoring evidence or feedback that indicates low performance. With self-review, people often possess a limited amount of what psychologists have termed metacognitive insight, or the ability to anticipate the accuracy and/or error in their responses (Metcalfe & Shimamura, 1994; Yzerbyt, Lories, & Dardenne, 1998). It would appear that self-views could be useful in predicting performance since they should be based, in part, on the feedback received from past performances (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003). However, self-views seem to be influenced by a number of factors that have little or nothing to do with measuring ability (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003). In many cases when individuals evaluate their performance, they seem to incorporate a chronic or global view which incorporates self-views from other domains (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003).

In regard to empirical support for the role of self-views, Ehrlinger and Dunning (2003) explored whether self-views were correlated with individuals' performance estimates when actual performance was controlled. The participants in the study, 59 undergraduate students, self rated their abilities in 14 different areas using a nine point Likert scale. The only item of interest in this study was the question "ability to reason abstractly" (p. 7), while the rest of the items were dummy items. The participants then completed a 10 question multiple-choice test that contained questions from a Law School Aptitude Test (LSAT). The participants were asked to estimate both their own and their classmates' performances. The results showed the participants on average estimated they had performed in the 61st percentile, significantly above average ($p < .0001$). In this study, self-views were significantly related to performance assessments, but not actual performance.

Lack of Skill

Kruger and Dunning (1999) have suggested that those less competent are not able to judge their performance accurately. The incompetent lack the skill to deal effectively with the demands placed on them, and moreover their incompetence prevents them from recognizing their lack of ability (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Research has shown that incompetent individuals show the lowest accuracy in their assessment of how they or their peers will perform (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003). To be able to ascertain how well someone is performing, an individual needs to know what good performance looks like (Ehrlinger, 2008). This can be especially challenging for intellectual tests (Ehrlinger et al., 2008).

Kruger and Dunning (1999) studied 45 undergraduates in an introduction to psychology class who earned extra credit for their participation. Participants were told that the study focused on logical reasoning skills. The participants then completed a 20 item logical reasoning test using questions taking from a LSAT review book. Upon completing the test, participants made three estimates of their abilities. They were asked to compare their general logical reasoning ability to that of other students from the class. They were also asked to rate their scores on the test to their classmates scores. Lastly, they were asked to indicate how many questions they had answered correctly.

The results from the study showed a discrepancy, especially in the first quartile, between expectations and results (Kruger & Dunning, 1999). On average, participants placed themselves at two thirds or the 66th percentile. For those students in the first quartile, the ones we might consider incompetent, their actual score was in the 12th percentile. The findings of this study are consistent with others that seem to show most

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people, especially people in the first quartile, struggle to estimate their abilities (Kruger & Dunning, 1999; Ehrlinger and Dunning, 2003; Ehrlinger et al., 2008).

Criticisms of Dunning-Kruger Effect

The Dunning-Kruger Effect has not been without its share of critics (Krueger & Mueller, 2002; Ackerman, Beier, & Bowen, 2002; Krueger & Funder, 2004). The first concern is whether the effect that Kruger and Dunning (1999) have studied is influenced by a statistical expression known as regression to the mean (Krueger & Mueller, 2002). Simply put, a regression to the mean is a statistical artifact that occurs when variables are imperfectly correlated. This may imply that not everyone in the lower quartile of ability is actually in the lower quartile for perception (Krajc & Ortmann, 2007). Other concerns were related to the generalizability of the samples since a vast majority of the participants studied were Cornell undergraduate psychology students. In addition, many of the measures used in the studies to test the skill of the participants were seen a statistically unreliable and potentially containing measurement errors (Krueger & Mueller, 2002). Dunning, Kroger, and others have performed additional research since 1999 in an attempt to address the criticisms related to their work, but the debate continues on (Ehrlinger et al., 2008; Dunning, Johnson, Ehrlinger, & Kruger, 2003).

The Dunning-Kruger effect poses some interesting questions about how people estimate their skill in various domains (Dunning & Kruger, 1999). This is true both for better understanding of the construct being measured as well as exploring self-estimates across different domains (Ehrlinger & Dunning, 2003). The Dunning and Kruger effect hasn't been studied in a professional sample like school counselors, but since there is no reason to think that results from school counselors would be different than the results of

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previous research. To date, no one has explored school counselor self-estimates of their self-efficacy and training related to school counselors or specifically within a classroom guidance context.

<div align="center">Conclusion</div>

Increasing our understanding about how school counselors perceive classroom guidance is important. With the ASCA National Model encouraging school counselors to spend from 15 to 45 percent of their time engaged in classroom guidance, further research in this area is appropriate (ASCA, 2005). This makes research exploring how self-efficacy and experiential training relate to classroom guidance both timely and needed.

Considering the stated research questions in context with the review of school counseling literature provided in this chapter results in a clear rational for this study. There is no existing literature that fundamentally explores the question of what influences school counselors to engage in classroom guidance. The five stated research questions were created to start the exploration this important question in an attempt to provide a foundation for future research.

Chapter III: Methodology

As the school counseling profession has continued to grow and evolve, there has been a renewed focus on school counselors interacting with students in the classroom environment (ASCA, 2005, Geltner et al., 2011). There is, however, little empirical research on whether school counselors feel capable and comfortable in engaging in classroom guidance as a result of their training. Additionally, it remains unclear about which demographic variables, like the type and amount of classroom guidance preparation or the years of school counseling experience, may impact school counselor self efficacy related to classroom guidance or the frequency with which school counselors implement classroom guidance. This dissertation will begin to fill these gaps.

Statistical Methods

This study is quantitative in nature and uses a cross sectional, correlational, survey design. The design of this study is consistent with other school counseling related research (Mason, Nims, Hughey, and Dyal, 2002). Additionally, this study used stratified sampling, discussed in detail in the next section. This is an important distinction as the use of stratified sampling increases both external validity and generalizability and is a widely used research tool and has been used in previous school counseling research (Bellini and Rumrill, 1999; Wilkerson et al., 2013).

Sampling

This study seeks to better understand school counselors' training and experience related to classroom guidance. The American School Counseling Association membership was judged to be an ideal population to survey since the organization is focused on school counseling and has members across all 50 states. ASCA describes

itself as supporting school counselors in their efforts to help students achieve success by providing professional development, publications, research and advocacy to more than 32,000 professional school counselors around the globe (ASCA, 2013; Paone & Lepkowski, 2007). Additionally, the email addresses for many members are available on the ASCA website. These addresses are separated into four geographic regions: North East, Midwest, Southern, and Western.

The list of email addresses was copied into an Excel spreadsheet and all information other than the ASCA members' email addresses was removed. This resulted in 5,305 email addresses from the North East Region, 5,334 email addresses from the Mid West Region, 8,267 email addresses from the Southern Region, and 4,534 email addresses from the Western Region. The final total of 23,440 ASCA member email addresses represents all areas of the country. An additional column was added to this spreadsheet to represent an assigned random number. Using the random number function in Excel, a random number was generated for each of the email addresses. Lastly, each regional spreadsheet was sorted by the resulting random numbers to identify 5000 total email addresses to be used.

A stratified sampling procedure was used in order to keep the percentage of participants to be recruited from each region for the sample equal to the regional percentage of the populations. The North East Region makes up 22.6% of the overall population; therefore, 1130 randomly selected participants were chosen from the North East. When this procedure is applied to the rest of the population, the Midwest Region at 22.8% resulted in 1140 participants, the Southern Region at 35.3% gave 1765, and the Western Region with 19.0% provided 950. When all regions were combined, this

resulted in a pool of 4985 email addresses. In order to be eligible to participate in the study, participants will have to be members of ASCA and have experience working as school counselors in a K-12 setting.

<div align="center">Instruments</div>

Self-efficacy

Instruments designed to assess self-efficacy specifically for classroom guidance research do not exist, and furthermore, those loosely related ones are extremely limited. While there are several instruments available to measure counselor self-efficacy (Larson et al., 1992; Lent, Hill & Hoffman, 2003; Melchert, Hays, Wiljanen & Kilocek, 1996) and one instrument available that is specific to school counselor self-efficacy (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), none of these instruments are designed for or have been used in a classroom guidance context. A search of the literature identified a study by Geltner et al. (2011) that focused on identifying the necessary and appropriate curriculum components to train school counselors to be effective in the classroom. The forty items identified from this study (Geltner et al., 2011) provide a foundation of both knowledge and skills, items that school counselors should know if they are going to be effective in the classroom. By adding a Likert scale to the previously identified items in the current study, it will be possible to use these items to measure a school counselor's self-efficacy related to classroom guidance.

The 40 items from Geltner et al. (2011) were used to measure school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy and include: a) nonverbal communication, b) group final stage, c) group conflict, d) group cohesion, e) group initial stage, f) reflecting feelings, g) group process, h) goal setting, i) wait time, j) evaluating, k) group

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cohesiveness, l) clarifying, m) cooperative learning, n) acknowledging, o) multicultural diversity, p) summarizing, q) initiating, r) supporting via reassurance, s) reinforcing, t) blocking, u) linking, v) legal considerations for group work, w) supporting an individual member, x) giving feedback, y) processing, z) group dynamics, aa) open-ended questioning, ab) showing empathy, ac) terminating, ad) protecting, ae) modeling, af) facilitating group interactions, ag) guidance/psychoeducational group, ah)evaluation of group, ai) active listening, aj) ethical considerations for group work, ak) rule setting. As in Ponterollo, Gretchen, Utsey, Reeger, and Austin (2002), participants rate their level of self-efficacy using a seven-point Likert scale, with a range from one to seven with a one indicating a low level of self-efficacy and a seven a high level of self-efficacy related to classroom guidance. The instrument, which can be found in appendix c, as a whole ranges from a low score of 40, indicating a low overall level of self-efficacy, to a high score of 280, indicating a high overall level of self-efficacy related to classroom guidance.

Classroom Guidance Training

Training level is one of the key independent variables for this study, and as no related instruments could be identified, a measure of classroom guidance training was developed. The experiential classroom guidance-training assessment (ECGTA) was created to systematically assess school counselors' perceptions of their prior preparation in classroom guidance delivery. The ECGTA consists of 10 components of SC training, and each is scored using a Likert scale from one to seven, with one indicating a low perceived level of training and seven indicating a high perceived level of training related

to classroom guidance. This results in a score range for the ECGTA of 10 to 70. The ECGTA is made up by the following 10 items.

a) There were significant in class discussions related to classroom guidance in my training program.

b) There were significant assigned readings related to classroom guidance in my training program.

c) I was taught and had to create a classroom guidance lesson plan as part of my training program.

d) I had to perform a simulated in class experience with classroom guidance. (An example of this would be acting as the school counselor teaching a lesson while the remainder of the class acted as K-12 students).

e) I received verbal and/or written feedback from my course instructor and/or classmates on my simulated classroom guidance activity.

f) I was required to perform a "live" classroom guidance lesson with K-12 students.

g) I received verbal and/or written feedback from my course instructor and/or classmates on my "live" classroom guidance lesson.

h) I had to complete a reflection journal that focused on my experiential training in classroom guidance, and I received feedback on this journal.

i) As part of my training program, I received live supervision on my classroom guidance activities either individually or as part of a group.

The ECGTA was developed in part from qualitative studies dealing with school counseling trainees' experiences engaging in classroom guidance (Finnerty, unpublished; Goodrich & Luke, 2010). Additionally, there were several author/faculty discussions

related to the development of the ECTGA, where both the author and faculty were experienced as school counselors and counselor educators; additionally, the faculty member was also an experienced teacher. These discussions included coding the qualitative data as well as creating a conceptual framework to help better understand the learning process of the participants. As a result, the ECTGA can be deemed to have good face validity, consistent with available empirical and experiential knowledge. While this training assessment has never before been used in an empirical study, support can be found in the literature for other validity claims (e.g., content, construct) (Desmond et al., 2007; Olson & Allen, 1993; Stein and DeBrad, 2010). Lastly, the current study will help to establish this measure as a viable instrument to measure experiential training in classroom guidance.

Demographic Questionnaire

The next part of the survey consisted of 14 demographic questions developed for this study to assess participants' characteristics more fully. The demographic questions were selected based on past research (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005; Finnerty, unpublished; Geltner et al., 2011; Goodrich & Luke, 2010), in order to support the current study. Questions included the following participant data: a) age, b) gender, c) ethnicity, d) I have an undergraduate/graduate degree in teaching (Y/N), e) highest degree complete (bachelor, masters, doctorate), f) did you graduate from a school counselor CACREP accredited program (Y/N), g) levels you currently work at as a school counselor (select grade levels), h) average number of classroom guidance lessons implemented each month, i) years of previous K-12 teaching experience, j) years of post graduate experience as a school counselor (do not count time spent in practicum and internship, k)

what is your approximate current student caseload, l) training in the ASCA National

Model (Likert scale 1-7 with a 1 indicating a low level of agreement and a 7 a high level

of agreement). Of particular interest in the demographic information is question h,

average number of classroom guidance lessons implemented each month - since this is

the dependent variable for the study as a whole.

The variable related to grade levels currently worked was coded into the

following categories: elementary, junior high school, high school. The coding was done

as follows: grades K-5 are seen as belonging to the elementary school classification

labeled as 0, grades 6-8 to the junior high classification labeled as 1, and grades 9-12 the

high school classification, labeled as 2. Participants selecting grade levels in more than

one classification were placed in the classification where they had the majority of grade

levels. In the case of a tie, the higher-grade level classification was selected. If the

participants listed grades levels belonging to all three possible classifications, they were

not be classified (e.g., K-12).

Estimate of Skill

The last part of the survey contained four questions related to the Dunning-Kruger

Effect. These questions are consistent with what has been used in other studies related to

the Dunning-Kruger Effect (Kruger & Dunning, 1999; Ehrlinger and Dunning, 2003;

Ehrlinger et al., 2008). The research indicates that individuals are often unable to

accurately assess what their performance would be on a specific task (Kruger & Dunning,

1999). In many cases, people will overestimate their performance, as well as

overestimate how their estimated performance compares to that of others completing the

same task (Alicke, 1985; Dunning, Meyerowitz, & Holzberg, 1989; Kruger & Dunning,

1999; Weinstein, 1980). Therefore, the question in this section asked participants to estimate what they think the average self-efficacy score related to classroom guidance was for all other participants. The results ranges from 40, indicating a low level of self-efficacy to 280, which will indicate a high level of self-efficacy related to classroom guidance.

<div align="center">Procedures</div>

The data collection part of the study used SurveyMonkey (SurveyMonkey, 2013). The survey exists entirely in an online format. After the randomized email lists were generated, an initial email inviting individuals to participate was sent. SurveyMonkey allows users to send emails to as many as 10,000 addresses each day, all of the potential participants were contacted in a single day. Initially, data was collected separately from each of the four regions, which facilitated the ability to do cross-region comparison. Since the emails were sent directly through SurveyMonkey, this allowed the system to track who responded. After five days, the system sent a second email encouraging participants to respond to the survey, while again providing a link to access the survey. After an additional ten days, one last reminder email was sent letting potential participants know that they had four days remaining to complete the survey. Other researchers have found reminder e-mails to be beneficial in increasing response rates (Crawford, Couper, & Lamias, 2001). The survey was open for a total of 19 days.

After the survey closed, data from each region was exported to a Microsoft Excel file, one region at a time. This allowed a column to be added to the spreadsheet, indicating the participant's region. Since SurveyMonkey exported the data in an Excel format, very little manual data entry was required. The only data that needed to be

entered was what region the participant's email was from: North East, Midwest, Southern, and Western. Once the data was imported from SurveyMonkey, the find function was used to identify any variables that had data missing. The process for dealing with missing data is detailed in chapter four.

Missing data was not the only concern related to the processing of the survey, for equally as important, was the cleaning of the data. With the statistical methods being used, it was important that the data be checked for items like outliers, skewness, colinearity, and linear relationships. An additional advantage of using SurveyMonkey was the ability to set specific data types into the response fields. As a result, there were few instances where improper data types are present. Regardless, the variable columns were sorted which allowed "dirty" data concerns to be addressed (Keith, 2006), again this process will be detailed in chapter four.

<div align="center">Hypotheses and Statistical Analyses</div>

This section discusses each of the research questions and their accompanying hypotheses and gives the statistical procedures that were used to test the hypothesis and its subcomponents.

Question 1: What is the impact of classroom guidance training and classroom guidance self-efficacy on the amount of classroom guidance school counselors performed?

Hypotheses 1a: *There will be a statistically significant relationship between school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy and the amount of classroom guidance performed.* A Pearson's correlation will be used to test this hypothesis with classroom guidance self-efficacy being

the independent variable and measured using the 40-item classroom

guidance self-efficacy scale. The dependent variable is the amount of

classroom guidance performed, which is measured using a single question

as part of the demographic data where participants indicate the average

number of classroom guidance lessons they perform each month. In

regard to performing a Pearson's correlation, four assumptions must be

met. First, both the independent variable and the dependent variable must

be continuous; this assumption is met. Second, a linear relationship must

exist between the independent and dependent variables; creating a

scatterplot to check for linearity will test this. Third, there should be no

significant outliers, which can be checked using the scatterplot and in

SPSS. Lastly, the variables should be normally distributed which will be

tested in SPSS as well.

Hypotheses 1b: *There will be a statistically significant relationship*

between classroom guidance training and the amount of classroom

guidance performed. A Pearson's correlation will be used to test this

hypothesis with classroom guidance training being the independent

variable and measured using the 10-question ECGTA. The dependent

variable is the amount of classroom guidance performed. The four

assumptions for performing a Pearson's correlation listed in hypothesis 1a

will also be met for this question.

Hypotheses 1c: *There will be a statistically significant relationship*

between school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy and classroom

guidance training. A Pearson's correlation will be used to test this hypothesis with classroom guidance self-efficacy being the independent variable and measured using the 40-item classroom guidance self-efficacy scale. The dependent variable is classroom guidance training, which is measured using the 10-question ECGTA. The four assumptions for performing a Pearson's correlation listed in hypothesis 1a will also be met for this question.

Hypotheses 1d: *The relationship between school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy and amount of classroom guidance will be mediated by classroom guidance training.* This question requires that hypothesis 1a, 1b, and 1c all be supported. A regression analysis will be used to test this hypothesis with classroom guidance self-efficacy measured using the 40-item classroom guidance self-efficacy scale and classroom guidance training measured using the 10-question ECGTA loaded as independent variables. The dependent variable is the amount of classroom guidance performed. The use of regression relies on four assumptions that must be met. First, that the variables are normally distributed, which will be tested using SPSS. Second, that there is an assumption of a linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables; this can be tested by creating a scatter plot in SPSS. The third assumption is that the variables are measured without error; this can be tested in SPSS. Lastly, is an assumption of homoscedasticity, which can also be tested using SPSS.

Question 2: What school counselor demographic variables significantly impact the amount of classroom guidance performed?

Hypotheses 2a: *There will be a statistically significant relationship between years of school counselor experience and the amount of classroom guidance performed.* A Pearson's correlation will be used to test this hypothesis with years of school counselor experience being the independent variable and measured by the demographic question: "Years of post graduate experience as a school counselor (do not count time spent in practicum and internship)." The dependent variable is the amount of classroom guidance performed. The four assumptions for performing a Pearson's correlation listed in hypothesis 1a will also be met for this question.

Hypotheses 2b: *There will be a statistically significant relationship between having an undergraduate teaching degree and the amount of classroom guidance performed.* A t-test will be used to test this hypothesis with having an undergraduate/graduate teaching degree being the independent variable and measured by the demographic question: "I have an undergraduate/graduate degree in teaching: (Y/N)." The dependent variable is the amount of classroom guidance performed, which is measured using a single question as part of the demographic data where participants indicate the average number of classroom guidance lessons they perform each month. A t-test is being used in this case because

unlike many of the other questions, the independent variable in this case is categorical, not continuous.

Hypotheses 2c: *There will be statistically significant differences between school counseling level worked and the amount of classroom guidance performed.* An ANOVA will be used to test this hypothesis with school counseling level as the independent variable and measured by the demographic question: "Levels you currently work at as a school counselor, select all that apply: (K, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11,12)." The dependent variable is the amount of classroom guidance performed, which is measured using a single question as part of the demographic data where participants indicate the average number of classroom guidance lessons they perform each month. The three assumptions for performing a ANOVA are independence of observations, normality, and homoscedasticity. These will be checked in SPSS prior to the statistical analysis.

Hypotheses 2d: *There will not be a statistically significant relationship between being a graduate of a CACREP program and the amount of classroom guidance performed.* A t-test will be used to test this hypothesis with being a graduate of a CACREP program as the independent variable and measured by the demographic question: "Did you graduate from a school counselor CACREP accredited program (Y/N)." The dependent variable is the amount of classroom guidance performed, which is measured using a single question as part of the

demographic data where participants indicate the average number of

classroom guidance lessons they perform each month. A t-test is being

used in this case because unlike many of the other questions, the

independent variable in this case is categorical, not continuous.

Hypotheses 2e: *There will not be a statistically significant relationship*

between number of graduate credit hours completed and the amount of

classroom guidance performed. A Pearson's correlation will be used to

test this hypothesis with number of graduate hours completed being the

independent variable and measured by the demographic question, "What

are the total # of graduate credit hours completed." The dependent

variable is the amount of classroom guidance performed. The four

assumptions for performing a Pearson's correlation listed in hypothesis 1a

will also be met for this question.

Hypotheses 2f: *There will be a statistically significant relationship*

between training in the ASCA National Model and the amount of

classroom guidance performed. A Pearson's correlation will be used to

test this hypothesis with training in the ASCA National Model being the

independent variable and measured by the demographic question, "I have

been trained in the ASCA model (Scale 1 – 7, 1 meaning low level of

training and a 7 a high level of training)." The dependent variable is the

amount of classroom guidance performed. The four assumptions for

performing a Pearson's correlation listed in hypothesis 1a will also be met

for this question.

Hypotheses 2g: *There will be a statistically significant relationship between years of previous teaching experience and the amount of classroom guidance performed. School counseling experience will mediate this relationship.* A Pearson's correlation will be used to test this hypothesis with years of previous teaching experience being the independent variable and measured by the demographic question, "Years of previous K-12 teaching experience." The dependent variable is the amount of classroom guidance performed. The four assumptions for performing a Pearson's correlation listed in hypothesis 1a will also be met for this question.

Hypotheses 2h: *There will be a statistically significant relationship between counselor caseload and the amount of classroom guidance performed.* A Pearson's correlation will be used to test this hypothesis with counselor caseload being the independent variable and measured by the demographic question, "What is your current caseload." The dependent variable is the amount of classroom guidance performed, which is measured using a single question as part of the demographic data where participants indicate the average number of classroom guidance lessons they perform each month. The four assumptions for performing a Pearson's correlation listed in hypothesis 1a will also be met for this question.

Question 3: When looking at classroom guidance training, classroom guidance self-efficacy, and school counselor demographic variables, which are most influential in regards to the amount of classroom guidance performed?

Hypotheses 3: *When regressed simultaneously with significant demographic variables from question two, both school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy and classroom guidance training will remain significant.* Simultaneous multiple regression will be used to answer this question with classroom guidance training as measured using the 10-question ECGTA and classroom guidance self-efficacy as measured using the 40-item classroom guidance self-efficacy scale as independent variables. Additional independent variables would include demographic variables from question 2 that were significantly related to the amount of classroom guidance performed. The dependent variable is the amount of classroom guidance performed. The use of regression relies on four assumptions that must be met. First, that the variables are normally distributed which will be tested using SPSS. Second, that there is an assumption of a linear relationship between the independent and dependent variables; this can be tested by creating a scatter plot in SPSS. The third assumption is that the variables are measured without error; this can be tested in SPSS. Lastly, is an assumption of homoscedasticity, which also be tested using SPSS.

Question 4: Are there unique factors related to performing classroom guidance?

Hypotheses 4: *School counselor knowledge and skill items will load onto common classroom guidance factors.* Factor analysis was selected since this there is no current model available to test, and the results may provide needed information for future model building related to school counselor class guidance self-efficacy. The 40 items from the classroom guidance self-efficacy scale will be used. Factor analysis was selected since this there is no current model available to test, and the results may provide needed information for future model building related to school counselor class guidance self-efficacy.

Question 5: Are school counselors able to accurately estimate how their peers scored on a measure of classroom guidance self-efficacy.

Hypotheses 5a: *Participants will not be able to accurately state the average score of the school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy scale.* A one sample t-test will be used to test this hypothesis with a average self-efficacy score being the independent variable and measured by the question: "On this same section what do you think the average self-efficacy score will be of all participants? (Please select a score between 40 and 280)." The dependent variable is the average of actual scores on the classroom guidance self-efficacy scale. A t-test is being used in this case because unlike many of the other questions, the independent variable in this case is categorical, not continuous.

Statistical Power

The G*Power 3.1 program was used in order to estimate the needed sample size for the statistical methods proposed for this study. Since correlation will be used to answer the majority of questions, the following information was needed. First, the effect size or p needed to be selected. According to Kraemer and Thiemann (1987), there are three options for determining effect size, using substantive knowledge, basing it on previous research, and using conventions. Since the research in this area is very limited, there really is no research base for selecting an effect size; so this leaves substantive knowledge and conventions as possible choices. A large effect is not required for this question to be meaningful, so a small to medium effect size would be appropriate. Based on Cohen (1988) a p of 0.3, or medium effect size, was selected which is on the middle of the spectrum. Secondly, the error probability will be set at 0.05 and the power level at 0.95. After entering this information into the G*Power program, a minimum sample size of 132 was computed.

Conclusion

The ASCA (2005) National Model recommends that, depending on the grade level and needs of their students, school counselors should spend anywhere from 15% to 45% of their time in classroom guidance activities, making an understanding of what variables impact school counselors' willingness to engage in classroom guidance vital. When working directly with students in a classroom environment, school counselors have expressed concern relating to a lack of training and experience with classroom management, which also makes this an important area to explore (Geltner & Clark, 2005; Goodrich & Luke, 2010). A review of the literature reveals that there has been very little exploration of school counselors' perceptions about their effectiveness in the classroom.

Finally, the research about how to train school counselors to perform classroom guidance effectively has been minimal (Geltner, Cunningham, & Caldwell, 2011). These are the concerns being addressed in the current research project.

Chapter IV: Results

The data collection process resulted in a final sample (n=239) of school counselors who had both worked for a least one year as a school counselor and were ASCA members. Initially, the data was cleaned and various descriptive statistics were run. The data was then checked to assure that they met with the assumptions of the statistical procedure being used in the case of correlation: continuous variables, linearity, and normality (outliers, skew, and kurtosis). After the initial exploration and cleaning of data, statistical analyses were done using SPSS 21.0 for the Macintosh.   The following chapter details the preceding steps in sequence: cleaning of data and providing descriptive statistics, meeting the assumptions of correlation, and detailing the statistical analysis used to test each hypothesis.

Participants

From the 4985 requests sent out this study yielded 239 usable responses. Three hundred and forty one potential participants clicked on the survey link, yet only 257 actually clicked the "done" button at the end of the survey. Of the resulting 257 "completed" surveys, nine were removed because they only completed the self-efficacy part of the survey. An additional four participants were removed because they did not answer any of the demographic questions in the survey. Lastly, four participants were removed because they didn't meet the requirement of having worked as a school counselor. This left a final total of 239 participants, which was a 4.8% response rate.

The 239 participants reported the following demographic information. The average age of the participants was 42, with a range running from 23 to 68, a standard deviation of 11.61, and with 3 (1.3%) not answering this question. One hundred ninety

three (80.75%) of the participants indicated they were female, 43 indicated they were male (17.99%), and three (1.26%) participants did not answer the question. With ethnicity, 29 (12.13%) participants indicated they were African American, one participant (0.41%) Asian, nine (3.77%) Hispanic, 192 White (80.33%), and four (1.67%) of mixed raced. Finally, four (1.67%) participants did not choose to answer the race question.

The dependent variable, namely the "average number of classroom guidance lessons implemented each month," ranged from a low of zero to a high of 98. The mean for the participants was 15.04, with a standard deviation of 18.4, a median of 8, and a mode of 1. The responses to the question: "I have been trained in the ASCA model" ranged from a low of one, which is the minimum score allowed to a high of seven, which is the maximum score allowed, with a mean score of 5.19, standard deviation of 1.87, and three participants did not answer the question. 92 (38.49%) participants indicated that they had an undergraduate teaching degree, with 144 (60.25%) indicating no undergraduate teaching degree, and 3 (1.26%) not responding to this question. The participants that indicated they had an undergraduate degree in teaching indicated an average of 10.21 years of teaching experience. Those without an undergraduate teaching degree indicated an average of .92 years of teaching experience. For the sample as a whole, the average number of years of teaching experience was 8.74, with a range of 0 years to 30 years.

In regard to the question: "Years of post graduate experience as a school counselor," participants' had an average of 8.59 years of experience with a range of 0 to 40 years and a standard deviation of 7.56, with five participant choosing not to answer the question. For education level, two (0.84%) participants indicated that they had a

bachelor's degree, 199 (83.62%) a master's degree, 18 (7.53%) a CAS, 19 (7.94%) a doctorate, and one participant (0.42%) did not answer this question. The responses to the question: "Did you graduate from a school counselor CACREP accredited program" indicated that 65 (27.20%) participants reported not graduating from a CACREP program, 166 (69.46%) reported that they graduated from CACREP programs, and eight (3.35%) did not answer the question. For the question about grade level currently worked, participants were allowed to freely select the levels across K-12 that they currently worked. The participants indicated that 84 (35.15%) worked in an elementary setting, 51 (21.34%) junior high/middle school, 81 (33.89%) high school, 15 (6.28%) were not classified, and 8 participants (3.35%) did not answer this question.

In responding to the question: "What are the total number of graduate hours completed," participants reported an average of 63.02 graduate hours completed, a standard deviation of 22.30, with a range of 12 to 180 graduate hours, and 31 participants did not answer this question. For the final demographic question: "What is your current case load," participants indicated that they worked with an average of 391.48 students, with a standard deviation of 233.66, a range of zero to 1900, and 27 participants did not answer this question. Geographically, of the initial 341 responses, 55 (16.1%) came from the Western region, 128 (37.5%) from the Southern region, 82 (24.0%) from the Midwest region, and 77 (22.6%) from the North East region. After cleaning the data of the remaining 239 participants, 41 (17.2%) came from the Western region, 89 (37.2%) Southern, 55 (23.0%) Midwest, and 54 (22.6) North East.

<center>Statistical Assumptions</center>

Since the primary statistical analysis that is being used in this study is correlation, specifically a Pearson's correlation, there are a number of assumptions that must be tested before using this statistical method (Keith, 2006; Miles & Shevlin, 2001). The assumptions include: the independent variable and the dependent variable must be continuous, a linear relationship must exist between the independent and dependent variables, there should be no significant outliers, and the variables should be normally distributed (Keith, 2006; Miles & Shevlin, 2001). The use of a Likert scale ensures that the data conform to the first assumption that the independent and the dependent variables be continuous. To test for the second assumption, the requirement that a linear relationship exists between the independent and dependent variables, a scatterplot is used for each grouping, where a linear relationship would show up as such in a scatter plot. Non-linear relationships would show possibly as curved or just a random distribution of dots on the plot. The last two assumptions, no significant outliers and normal distribution, were not met. As the dependent variable, the average amount of classroom guidance had both outliers and a lack of normal distribution; decisions had to be made about how to respond. Since the dependent variable is central to the data analysis, a detailed exploration of this issue and its resolution is warranted.

Both outliers and a non-normal distribution can be seen in a graphical representation of the data as shown in figure 1 with the variable being both positively skewed having positive kurtosis. There are a number of options to deal with this problem. The first is to look for any outliers that might be influencing the data. As indicated on the histogram, there are a number of outliers leaving the option of removing them from the dataset. One drawback with this option is that it is not unreasonable for

school counselors to be performing 20, 30 or more classroom guidance lessons in a month. Even the most extreme outlier indicating an average of 98 classroom guidance lessons is still plausible, because it would indicate someone's being in the classroom 4 or 5 times in a day. Therefore, removing these outliers could make the sample less representative of the population of school counselors who may actually be performing these duties. It is also not surprising that most of the responses are clustered at the lower end of the range; past research has suggested that school counselors may not be using best practice as described by ASCA (Foster, Young, & Hermann, 2005; Scarborough, 2005).

Another option for dealing with non-standard data, in this case positively skewed data, is to the transform the data. To convert strongly positively skewed data to normally skewed data, a transformation is needed; in this case taking the square root of the result can be applied. Since some of the data points are equal to or close to zero and are not changed by a square root transformation, prior to the transformation two was added to all values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Miles and Shevlin (2001) stated that values of skew and kurtosis, which are greater than twice the standard error of skew and kurtosis, indicate violations of normality. However, these authors also noted that skew values lower than 1.0 should not be problematic.

Transforming the dependent variable, amount of classroom guidance performed, a comparison of important statistical information both before and after transformation is provided in the table 1. As can be seen from the data in the table, the transformed mean and the transformed 5% mean are within allowed tolerances. Additionally, after transformation, both the level of skewness and kurtosis are less than one, which is within

Figure 1

Histogram Representing Average Number of Classroom Guidance Sessions Performed Each Month
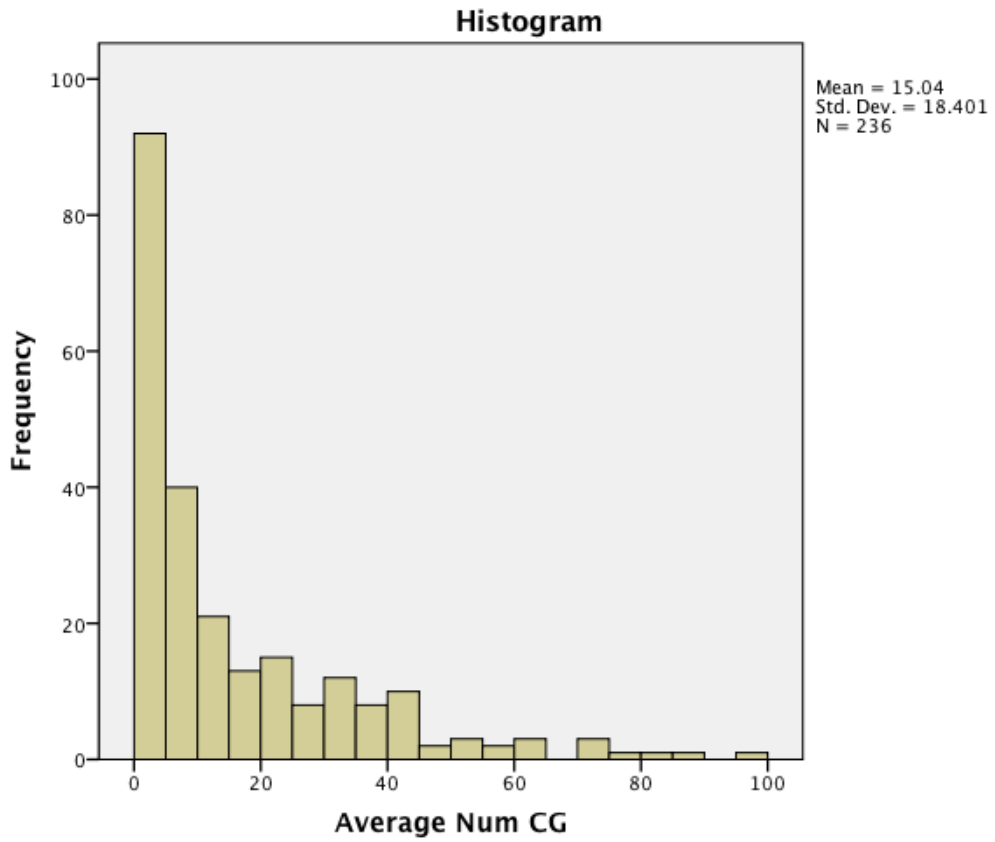
Table 1

Transformed Dependent Variable

	Before Transformation	After Transformation
Mean	15.04	3.6375
5% Trimmed Mean	12.74	3.4860
Std. Error	1.198	.12728
Skewness	1.842	.973
Kurtosis	3.6	.183

Figure 2

Box Plot Showing Original Distribution Of Student To Counselor Ratio
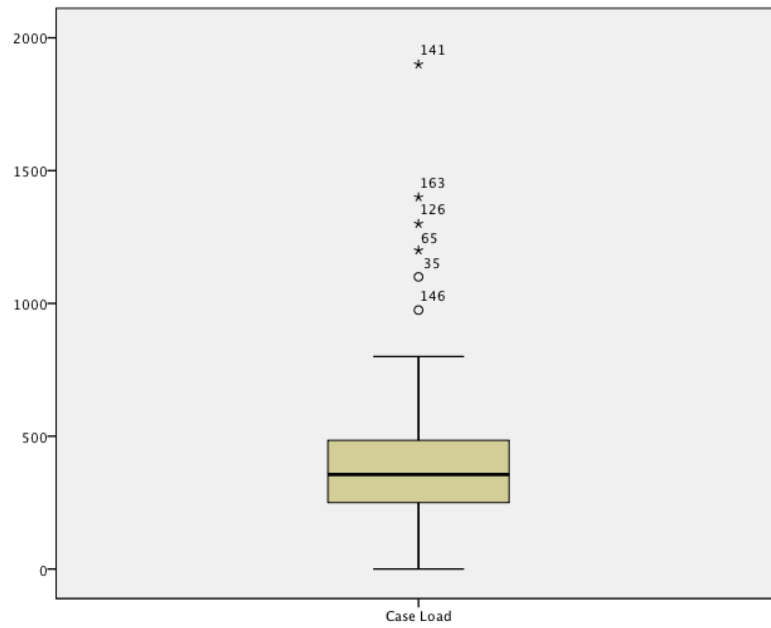
Table 2

Pearson Correlation Between Total Self-Efficacy and Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed

		TotSE	CG_Sqrt
TotSE	Pearson Correlation	1	.195**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.003
	N	239	236
CG-Sqrt	Pearson Correlation	.195**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.003	
	N	236	236

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

acceptable limits (Miles and Shevlin, 2001). Other variables were also tested to make

sure they met the required statistical assumptions with one independent variable,

caseload, lacking a normal distribution. After exploring student to counselor ratio, it was

quickly apparent that outliers were responsible for unacceptable levels of skewness (2.22)

and kurtosis (10.07), as can be seen in figure 2.

After careful consideration, these six outliers were removed because having a

student to counselor ratio of 1900 to 1 is possible, but not representative of the population

as a whole (Miles & Shevlin, 2001). Once these outliers were removed, the remaining

sample was normally distributed with the following characteristics: a mean of 365.16

students, a standard deviation of 169.13, a range of zero to 800, a skewness of .224, and a

kurtosis of -.160.

<div align="center">Results</div>

Hypothesis 1a – There will be a statistically significant relationship between

school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy and the amount of classroom guidance

performed. To test hypothesis 1a, a Pearson's correlation was performed using total self-

efficacy (TotSE) as the independent variable with a mean of 225.21, a standard deviation

of 31.096, and a range of 110 to 280. The transformed dependent variable, amount of

classroom guidance (CG_Sqrt), was also used with a mean of 3.6375, a standard

deviation of 1.95527, and a range of 1.41 to 10.00. As shown in table 2, a small but

significant correlation was found between total classroom guidance self-efficacy and

amount of classroom guidance performed, $r(234) = .195$, $p < .01$; therefore, hypothesis 1a

was supported.

Hypothesis 1b – There will be a statistically significant relationship between classroom guidance training (TotTrain) and the transformed average amount of classroom guidance performed (CG_Sqrt). To test hypothesis 1b, a Pearson's correlation was performed using total classroom guidance training (TotTrain) as the independent variable with a mean 41.13, a standard deviation of 17.127, and a range of 10 to 70. The transformed dependent variable, amount of classroom guidance (CG_Sqrt), was also used. The analysis did not show a significant correlation between classroom guidance training and the amount of classroom guidance performed as indicated table 3, $r(236) = .006$, $p > .05$; therefore, hypothesis 1b was not supported.

Hypothesis 1c - There will be a statistically significant relationship between school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy and classroom guidance training. Once again, a Pearson's correlation was used to test this hypothesis. As shown in table 4, self-efficacy and classroom guidance training were significantly correlated at the .05 confidence level, $r(239) = .131$, $p < .05$; therefore, hypothesis 1c was supported.

Hypothesis 1d - The relationship between school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy and amount of classroom guidance will be mediated by classroom guidance training. This regression was to be performed, yet one of the requirements for regression and mediation, specifically, is that all variables that are loaded into the equation be significantly correlated to each other (Keith, 2006). Since hypothesis 1c was not supported, meaning there was no significant relationship between classroom guidance training and the amount of classroom guidance performed, the requirements for completing a regression analysis are not met. As a result, hypothesis 1d could not be tested.

Table 3

Pearson Correlation Between Total Training and Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed

		TotTrain	CG_Sqrt
TotTrain	Pearson Correlation	1	.006
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.929
	N	236	236
CG-Sqrt	Pearson Correlation	.006	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.929	
	N	236	236

Table 4

Pearson Correlation Between Total Training and Total Self-Efficacy

		TotTrain	TotSE
	Pearson Correlation	1	.131*
TotTrain	Sig. (2-tailed)		.043
	N	239	239
	Pearson Correlation	.131*	1
TotSE	Sig. (2-tailed)	.043	
	N	239	239

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Hypothesis 2a: There will be a statistically significant relationship between years of school counselor experience and the amount of classroom guidance performed. A Pearson's correlation was used to test this hypothesis with the amount of post-graduate experience (Experience), mean 8.59, a standard deviation of 7.567, and a range of 0 to 40, correlated with the transformed average amount of classroom guidance performed (CG_Sqrt). In this case, no correlation was found between the variables, $r(231) = .074$, $p > .05$; therefore, hypothesis 2a was not supported as is shown in table 5.

Hypothesis 2b: There will be a statistically significant relationship between having an undergraduate teaching degree and the amount of classroom guidance performed. This was tested using an independent samples t-test which explored the relationship between the transformed average amount of classroom guidance performed (CG_Sqrt) and whether the participants had an undergraduate teaching degree (Undergrd_Teach_Degree). As can be seen from table 6, no significant relationship was found between those without a teaching degree ($M = 3.60$, $SD = 2.03$) and those with a teaching degree ($M = 3.75$, $SD = 1.84$); $t(231) = -.592$, $p = .554$; therefore, hypothesis 2b was not supported.

Hypothesis 2c: There will be a statistically significant relationship between the school counseling level worked and the amount of classroom guidance performed. Table 7 lists the descriptive data, with 84 participants in the elementary level, 51 participants in the junior high/middle school level, and 80 participants at the high school level. To test hypothesis 2c, a one-way ANOVA was performed to determine whether the level the counselor worked at was significantly related to the amount of classroom guidance performed. Table 8 shows a significant difference was found between the groups $F(2,$

Table 5

*Pearson Correlation Between Year of School Counselor Experience and Transformed
Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed*

		Experience	CG_Sqrt
	Pearson Correlation	1	.074
Experience	Sig. (2-tailed)		.266
	N	236	231
	Pearson Correlation	.074	1
CG_Sqrt	Sig. (2-tailed)	.266	
	N	231	236

Table 6

Independent Samples T-Test Between Undergraduate Teaching Degree and Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed, Including Group Statistics

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% CI	
									Lower	Upper
CG_Sqrt	Eq var assumed	.411	.522	-.592	231	.554	-.156	.26402	-.67660	.36379
	Eq var not assumed			-.606	202	.545	-.156	.25826	-.66562	.35282

Group Statistics

	Undergrad Teaching Degree	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CG_Sqrt	0	143	3.5973	2.03235	.16995
	1	90	3.7537	1.84480	.19446

0 = No Undergrad Teaching Degree; 1 = Undergrad Teaching Degree

212) = 81.49, p = .000. As a result of this significant finding, a post hoc analysis was performed and the results shown in the table 9. In this case elementary school counselors as a group (M = 5.23, SD = 1.85) were significantly different from both junior high/middle school counselors (M = 2.76, SD = 1.42) and high school counselors (M = 2.49, SD = 1.02). The ANOVA shows that elementary counselors perform significantly more classroom guidance than their peers at the other levels; therefore, hypothesis 2c was supported. There was no significant difference between the amount of classroom guidance performed between junior high/middle school counselors and high school counselors.

Hypothesis 2d: There will not be a statistically significant relationship between being a graduate of a CACREP program and the amount of classroom guidance performed. Table 10 shows that 63 participants indicated that they did not graduate from a CACREP program, while 165 indicated that they did graduate from a CACREP program. To test this hypothesis, an independent sample t-test explored the relationship between the transformed average amount of classroom guidance performed (CG_Sqrt) and whether the participants had graduated from a CACREP accredited program. While approaching significance, no significant relationship was found between those who did not graduate from a CACREP program (M = 3.26, SD = 1.74) and those who did (M = 3.78, SD = 2.02); t(226) = -1.8, p = .072.

Hypothesis 2e: There will not be a statistically significant relationship between the number of graduate credit hours completed (Credit Hours) with a mean of 63.02, a

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics for School Counseling Level

	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval for Mean		Minimum	Maximum
					Lower Bound	Upper Bound		
0	84	5.2314	1.84702	.20153	4.8305	5.6322	1.73	10.00
1	51	2.7557	1.42283	.19924	2.3555	3.1558	1.41	7.87
2	80	2.4883	1.01987	.11402	2.2613	2.7153	1.41	6.08
Total	215	3.6234	1.96370	.13392	3.3595	3.8874	1.41	10.00

Table 8

ANOVA Performed Between School Counseling Level and Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed

	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Between Groups	358.666	2	179.333	81.490	.000
Within Groups	466.545	212	2.201		
Total	825.211	214			

Table 9

Post Hoc Analysis of School Counseling Level and Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed

	(I) SC Level	(J) SC Level	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig.	95% Confidence Interval	
						Lower Bound	Upper Bound
Tukey HSD	0	1	2.47571*	.26334	.000	1.8541	3.0973
		2	2.74307*	.23175	.000	2.1961	3.2901
	1	0	-2.47571*	.26334	.000	-3.0973	-1.8541
		2	.26737	.26582	.574	-.3600	.8948
	2	0	-2.74307*	.23175	.000	-3.2901	-2.1961
		1	-.26737	.26582	.574	-.8948	.3600
Games-Howell	0	1	2.47571*	.28339	.000	1.8036	3.1479
		2	2.74307*	.23155	.000	2.1941	3.2920
	1	0	-2.47571*	.28339	.000	-3.1479	-1.8036
		2	.26737	.22956	.478	-.2805	.8153
	2	0	-2.74307*	.23155	.000	-3.2920	-2.1941
		1	-.26737	.22956	.478	-.8153	.2805

*. The mean difference is significant at the 0.05 level. School Counselor Level: 0 = Elementary, 1 = Middle, 2 = High School

standard deviation of 22.30, range of 12 to 180 and the amount of classroom guidance performed (CG_Sqrt). To test this a Pearson's correlation was used; as can be seen from table 11, there was no significant relationship found, $r(212) = .013$, $p > .05$; therefore, hypothesis 2e was supported.

Hypothesis 2f: There will be a statistically significant relationship between training in the ASCA National Model (ASCA_Trained) with a mean of 5.19, standard deviation of 1.87, range of 1 to 7 and the amount of classroom guidance performed (CG_Sqrt). To test this, a Pearson's correlation was used. As can be seen from table 12 below, no significant relationship was found, $r(233) = .030$, $p > .05$; therefore, hypothesis 2f was not supported.

Hypothesis 2g: There will be a statistically significant relationship between years of previous teaching experience (Prev_Teach_Exp) with a mean of 3.64, standard deviation of 1.96, range of 0 to 30 years, and the amount of classroom guidance performed (CG_Sqrt). To test this, a Pearson's correlation was used. As can be seen from table 13, no significant relationship was found, $r(218) = -.073$, $p > .05$; therefore, hypothesis 2g was not supported.

Hypothesis 2h: There will be a statistically significant relationship between counselor caseload (Case_Load) with a mean of 365.16, standard deviation of 169.13, range of 0 to 800, and the amount of classroom guidance performed (CG_Sqrt). To test this, a Pearson's correlation was used. As can be seen from table 14, there is a significant relationship between counselor caseload and the amount of classroom guidance performed, $r(209) = .238$, $p < .01$; therefore, hypothesis 2h was supported.

Table 10

Independent Samples T-Test Between Graduate CACREP Program and Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed, Including Group Statistics

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means							
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Diff	Std. Error Diff	95% CI	
									Lower	Upper
CG_Sqrt	Eq var assumed	3.184	.076	-1.8	226	.072	-.520	.287	-1.087	.046
	Eq var not assumed			-1.9	129.1	.056	-.520	.269	-1.053	.012

Group Statistics

	Undergrad Teaching Degree	N	Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
CG_Sqrt	0	63	3.2551	1.73892	.21908
	1	165	3.7756	2.01661	.15699

0 = Not CACREP Graduate; 1 = CACREP Graduate

Table 11

Pearson Correlation Between Training in the Number of Graduate Hours Completed and Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed

		Credit Hours	CG_Sqrt
Credit Hours	Pearson Correlation	1	.013
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.850
	N	236	212
CG_Sqrt	Pearson Correlation	.013	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.850	
	N	212	214

Table 12

Pearson Correlation Between Training in the ASCA National Model and Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed

		Previous_Teach_Exp	CG_Sqrt
Previous_ Teach_Exp	Pearson Correlation	1	.030
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.643
	N	236	233
CG_Sqrt	Pearson Correlation	.030	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.643	
	N	233	236

Hypothesis 3: When regressed simultaneously with significant demographic variables from question two, both school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy and classroom guidance training will remain significant. A simultaneous multiple regression was used to explore this hypothesis with total self-efficacy (TotSE), school counseling level worked (SCLevel), and case load (CaseLoad) the only significant variable from questions one and two. These three variables were loaded at the same time with the following result indicated in tables 15 and table 16. As can be seen, the current model explains 39% of the variance, $R^2 = .39$, $F (3,197) = 42.04$, $p < .001$. In this model school counseling level greatly overpowers the other variables. Yet hypothesis 3 states that classroom guidance training would remain significant. This independent variable was never significant; therefore, hypothesis 3 was not supported.

Hypothesis 4: School counselor knowledge and skill items will load onto common classroom guidance factors. A factor analysis using all 40 items from the classroom guidance self-efficacy scale was used to determine common classroom guidance factors. As can be seen from tables 17, 18, and figure 3, the results indicated that all 40 of the items load onto one main factor with correlations ranging from .601 to .862, explaining over 55.97% of the variance. The second largest factor explained only 3.53% of the variance, with the remaining factors explaining lesser amounts.

Hypothesis 5a: Participants will not be able to accurately state the average score of the school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy scale. A one-sample t-test was used to explore the relationship between the variable average self-efficacy (Average – SE) with a mean of 198.31, standard deviation of 40.79, range of and the actual self-efficacy mean for the sample (225.21) as shown in table 19. There was a significant

Table 13

Pearson Correlation Between Previous Teaching Experience and Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed

		Prev_Teach _Exp	CG_Sqrt
Prev_Teach _Exp	Pearson Correlation	1	-.073
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.284
	N	236	218
CG_Sqrt	Pearson Correlation	-.073	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.284	
	N	218	221

Table 14

Pearson Correlation Between Counselor Caseload and Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed

		Case_Load	CG_Sqrt
Case_Load	Pearson Correlation	1	.238**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.001
	N	236	209
CG_Sqrt	Pearson Correlation	.238**	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.001	
	N	209	210

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Table 15

Simultaneous Multiple Regression of School Counselor Level, Total Self-Efficacy, and School Counselor Case Load with Transformed Average Amount of Classroom Guidance Performed

Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics					Durbin-Watson
	R Square Change	F Change	df1	df2	Sig. F Change	
1.56541	.390	42.038	3	197	.000	2.072

Predictors: (Constant), SCLevel, TotSE, Case Load
Dependent Variable: CG_Sqrt

Table 16

Simultaneous Multiple Regression Coefficients Values for School Counselor Level, Total Self-Efficacy, and School Counselor Case Load

Model	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	95.0% Confidence Interval for B		Correlations			Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Lower Bound	Upper Bound	Zero-order	Partial	Part	Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	3.960	.866		4.57	.000	2.252	5.668					
Case Load	.000	.000	.024	.422	.673	-.001	.001	.187	.030	.023	.929	1.077
TotSE	.004	.004	.067	1.18	.240	-.003	.011	.198	.084	.066	.950	1.053
SCLevel	-1.365	.133	-.600	-10.2	.000	-1.628	-1.102	-.621	-.589	-.570	.901	1.110

Dependent Variable: CG_Sqrt

Table 17

Factor Analysis of 40 Items from the Classroom Guidance Self-Efficacy Scale

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	22.388	55.970	55.970	22.388	55.970	55.970	7.259	18.148	18.148
2	1.410	3.525	59.495	1.410	3.525	59.495	6.489	16.223	34.371
3	1.249	3.122	62.616	1.249	3.122	62.616	5.572	13.929	48.300
4	1.067	2.668	65.285	1.067	2.668	65.285	4.429	11.072	59.372
5	1.056	2.640	67.925	1.056	2.640	67.925	3.421	8.553	67.925
6	.938	2.345	70.270						
7	.886	2.214	72.485						
8	.839	2.097	74.582						
9	.754	1.884	76.466						
10	.696	1.740	78.207						
11	.640	1.600	79.806						
12	.623	1.556	81.363						
13	.551	1.378	82.741						
14	.537	1.342	84.082						
15	.496	1.239	85.321						
16	.446	1.115	86.436						
17	.412	1.029	87.465						
18	.392	.981	88.446						
19	.383	.957	89.403						
20	.330	.824	90.227						

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
21	.321	.803	91.030						
22	.310	.776	91.806						
23	.296	.741	92.547						
24	.283	.707	93.254						
25	.267	.667	93.921						
26	.252	.629	94.550						
27	.250	.624	95.175						
28	.232	.581	95.756						
29	.211	.527	96.283						
30	.193	.483	96.766						
31	.170	.425	97.190						
32	.167	.418	97.608						
33	.156	.389	97.997						
34	.137	.343	98.341						
35	.129	.323	98.664						
36	.122	.305	98.968						
37	.114	.286	99.254						
38	.107	.267	99.521						
39	.100	.251	99.772						
40	.091	.228	100.000						

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Figure 3

Scree Plot of Eigenvalues from the Factor Analysis of the Classroom Guidance Self-Efficacy Scale
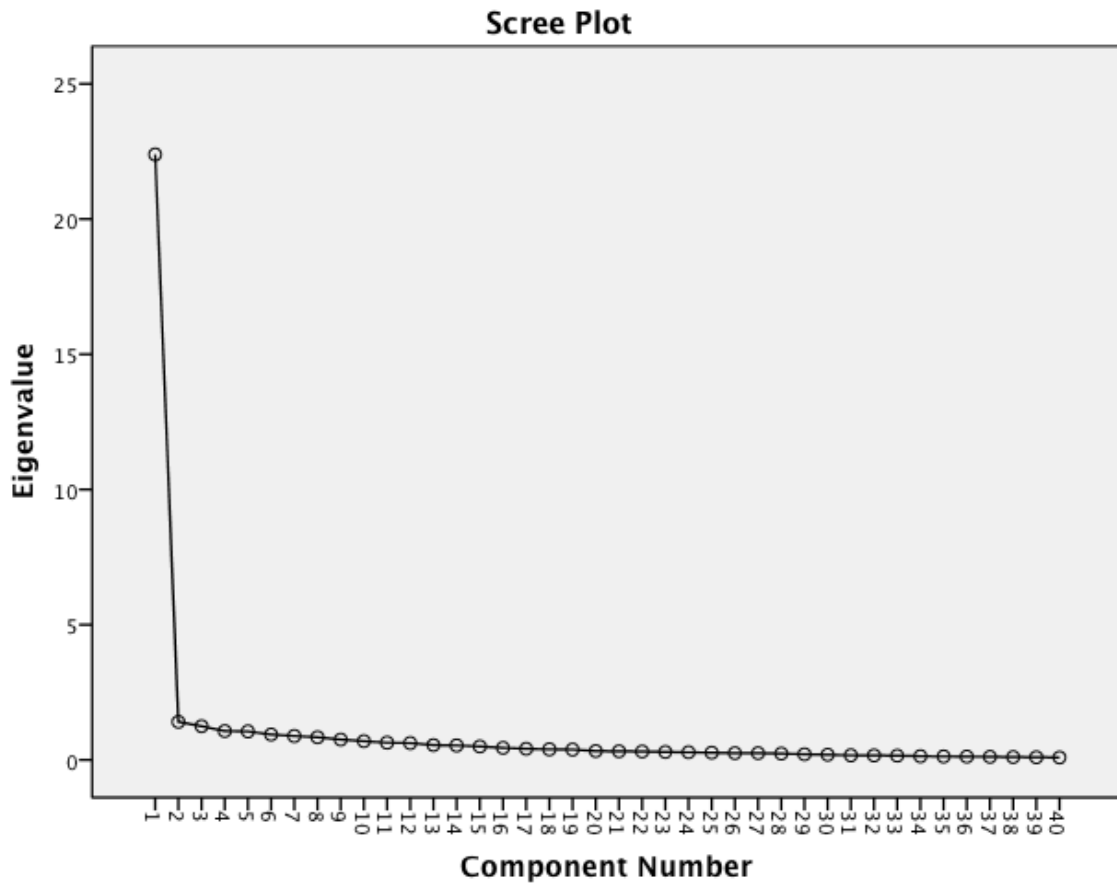
Table 18

Component Matrix from the Factor Analysis of the Classroom Guidance Self-Efficacy Scale

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Guidance/Psychoed Group	.673	.111	.081	.179	-.167
Cooperative Learning	.715	-.003	.070	.233	-.295
Multicultural Diversity	.601	-.262	.011	.448	-.072
Nonverbal Communication	.604	-.196	-.014	.281	.085
Group Dynamics	.798	.142	.046	.149	-.219
Open-Ended Questioning	.681	-.162	.221	.206	-.238
Group Final Stage	.793	.192	.137	.171	-.136
Active Listening	.718	-.183	.133	.112	-.105
Group Conflict	.651	.372	.214	-.003	.058
Group Cohesion	.714	.350	.157	-.049	-.103
Rule Setting	.720	-.225	.212	.041	.069
Group Initial Stage	.716	-.050	.360	-.121	.135
Reflecting Feelings	.753	.169	.245	-.096	.064
Group Process	.773	.394	.146	-.132	.074
Goal Setting	.702	.211	.121	-.072	.050
Wait Time	.668	-.197	.240	-.020	.222
Evaluating	.724	.090	.128	.098	.225
Group Cohesiveness	.808	.073	.041	-.062	-.147
Restating	.744	-.284	.233	-.020	.204
Drawing Out	.764	-.014	.014	-.139	.235
Group Leadership Style	.760	.094	-.076	-.218	.097
Clarifying	.793	-.219	.071	.057	.216
Acknowledging	.764	-.135	-.095	.047	.122
Summarizing	.811	-.137	-.050	-.072	.094
Initiating	.789	-.242	-.036	-.098	-.082
Supporting via Reassurance	.862	-.079	-.143	-.141	-.120
Reinforcing	.830	-.168	-.121	-.104	-.104
Blocking	.727	.017	-.314	.155	.105
Linking	.818	.095	-.225	.074	-.065
Legal Considerations For Group Work	.597	.199	-.420	.332	.345

	Component				
	1	2	3	4	5
Supporting An Individual Member	.802	-.189	-.219	-.124	.140
Giving Feedback	.800	.010	-.222	-.159	-.014
Processing	.786	.043	.024	-.232	.068
Showing Empathy	.725	-.224	-.077	-.257	-.076
Terminating	.744	-.130	-.007	.022	-.201
Protecting	.750	.089	-.356	-.110	-.259
Modeling	.805	-.112	-.108	-.199	-.158
Facilitating Group Interactions	.841	.088	-.073	-.126	-.226
Evaluation of Group	.741	.325	-.004	.183	.062
Ethical Consideration for Group Work	.753	.156	-.218	.104	.252

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

Table 19

One-Sample T-Test for the Prediction of Average Self-Efficacy

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Lower	Upper
Average - SE	-10.065	232	.000	-26.897	-32.16	-21.63

Test Value = 225.21

difference between the means, which indicates that the participants were not able to accurately predict the average score, and in fact, under predicted what the mean would be; therefore, hypothesis 5a was supported.

Conclusion

This study was focused on exploring the relationships between numerous independent variables and the dependent variable, the amount of classroom guidance performed. One of the primary areas of focus was exploring the relationship of school counselor classroom guidance self-efficacy and classroom guidance training with the amount of classroom guidance performed. Chapter Five will explore the results of the analyses presented in this chapter, including implications for the school counseling field, strengths and limitations of the study, and recommendations for future research.

Chapter V: Discussion

The extant literature on what impacts school counselors' engagement in classroom guidance reflects many significant gaps as illuminated in chapter two. These identified gaps include: a better understanding of the evolving role of the school counselor, the importance of teacher training or certification for school counselors who engage in classroom guidance, a better understanding of the impact of experiential training related to classroom guidance, and the role of self-efficacy related to classroom guidance. Since ASCA (2005) has called on school counselors to meet the needs of all students, classroom guidance plays an increasingly important role in meeting this need and, therefore, is an area worthy of continued study. There is great disparity between what ASCA (2005) recommends as best practice related to the amount of time spent on appropriate school counseling tasks and what is actually being reported as being done by school counselors out in the field (Scarborough, 2005; Scarborough & Luke, 2008). The present study was focused on identifying whether constructs like self-efficacy, experiential training, and other key demographic variables are important in regard to school counselors' engagement in classroom guidance.

Discussion of Hypothesis

In an effort to provide clarity, the research questions will be reviewed in order. The first research question focused on the impact of classroom guidance training and classroom guidance self-efficacy on the amount of classroom guidance school counselors performed. In an important finding, school counselor self-efficacy related to classroom guidance and was significantly correlated with the amount of classroom guidance performed. This indicates that when school counselors feel competent working in a

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classroom, they report actually performing more classroom guidance, although the direction of the correlation is not known. While self-efficacy related to classroom guidance has not been formally explored previously, this finding is consistent with other studies where self-efficacy was correlated with positive outcome expectancies in other counseling related tasks including working with LGBTQ students (Goodrich & Luke, 2010), school counselors' comfort with technology (Carlson, Portman, & Bartlett, 2006), school counselor multicultural competencies (Holcomb-McCoy, 2005) and other related areas (Larson & Daniels, 1998).

While self-efficacy was significant in its relationship to the amount of classroom guidance performed, experiential classroom guidance training was not. No direct relationship was identified between experiential classroom guidance training and the amount of classroom guidance performed. As there is no empirical literature directly related to experiential classroom guidance training and the amount of classroom guidance performed, there is no way to contextualize this result against previous findings. Yet when considered in the school counseling literature more broadly, this finding both supports and challenges historical aspects of the school counseling literature. These results seem to support Listers (1969) comment that the classic requirement that school counselors have teaching training is not based on empirical research. The lack of significance between experiential classroom guidance training and the amount of classroom guidance performed can be viewed to support the current trend where, with the exception of a handful of states, no teacher training or experience is required for school counselors (American Counseling Association, 2007). Yet in other respects, this finding is puzzling because strong support exists in the counseling literature that shows

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experiential training positively impacts outcomes in a variety of areas including working with LGBTQ youth (Goodrich & Luke, 2010), working with groups (Luke & Kiweewa, 2010), and as a means for enhancing awareness and personal growth in counseling students (Rowell & Benshoff, 2008; Villalba & Redmond, 2008). Therefore, the finding creates more questions in several respects, such as what is unique about classroom guidance compared to other aspects of school counseling training; and evidently, still indicates that more research focused on training related to classroom guidance is needed.

Experiential classroom guidance training was significantly correlated to classroom guidance self-efficacy. This finding has support in the literature as far back as 1967 when Antenen and Lister (1967) found that the length of the practicum and internship experiences could impact trainees' behavior. Additionally, several studies reported direct experiential learning opportunities were critical in fostering both personal and professional development (Furr & Carroll, 2003; Goodrich & Luke, 2010; Luke & Kiweewa, 2010). One possible explanation for this discrepancy is that in the qualitative research listed above, participants may have identified their experiential training in classroom guidance as critical, yet when using quantitative methods, no significance was found. While no direct relationship exists between experiential classroom guidance training and the amount of classroom guidance performed, the findings of this study seem to indicate the more training that school counselors receive related to classroom guidance, the more self-efficacy they feel. Given Peterson and Deuschle's (2006) call to maximize experiential learning opportunities throughout the training program, this seems an important area for additional study. It also reinforces Larson and Daniel's (1998)

statement that counseling self-efficacy is an important part of being an effective counselor.

The second research question addressed a variety of demographic variables and tested whether they impacted the amount of classroom guidance performed. In response to the lack of past research related to classroom guidance, the intent of this question was to gain a better understanding about whether school counselor experience, an undergraduate teaching degree, school counseling level, being a CACREP graduate, number of graduate hours completed, ASCA model training, years of previous teaching experience, and counselor caseload were significant. While most of the demographic variables did not have significant correlations with the amount of classroom guidance performed, school counseling level and caseload were significant. Previous research supported that as school counselors gain more experience, they reported an increase in comfort and greater skill related to classroom guidance (Bringman & Lee, 2008; Desmond et al, 2007; Peterson et al, 2004). However, the findings of the current study challenge these earlier findings in that school counseling experience was not correlated to the amount of classroom guidance performed. One way to understand this is that simply having more experience as a school counselor does not equate to increased time actually spent in the classroom, even if school counselors feel their abilities have grown as they become more experienced. In some respects this is a confusing finding, considering that in the current study, school counselor self-efficacy was significantly correlated with the amount of classroom guidance performed. Using future research, such as exploring the impact of experience at the different school counselor levels, to help explain and resolve these discrepancies is key, especially since school counselors' engagement in classroom

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guidance is important for the growth of the profession and adds to school counselors'
ability to serve all students (ASCA, 2005).

Having an undergraduate degree in teaching was also not correlated to the amount
of classroom guidance that is performed. This finding is again at odds with previous
research where school counselors with teaching degrees report being more comfortable
with performing classroom guidance (Bringman & Lee, 2008; Desmond et al, 2007;
Peterson et al, 2004). Although school counselors with teaching experience may be more
comfortable performing classroom guidance (Bringman & Lee, 2008), the current
findings indicated that this does not necessarily transfer to an increase in the amount of
classroom guidance they perform. This finding also reaffirms the need for more research
exploring why training and experience do not necessarily lead to school counselors
engaging in more classroom guidance.

Of note however, is that the level the school counselors worked had an impact on
the amount of classroom guidance they performed. School counselors working at the
elementary level performed, on average, twice as much classroom guidance each month
as their peers in the middle and high school levels. Elementary counselors reported that
they engaged in more classroom guidance than their peers at the middle and high school
levels. This coincides with the classroom guidance recommendations because ASCA
(2005) recommends that elementary school counselors spend a greater amount of their
time engaged in classroom guidance when compared to both middle and high school
counselors. Additionally, this result is consistent with Scarborough and Culbreth's
(2008) national study that found that school level was significant when exploring how
closely school counselors were working in their preferred role, with elementary

counselors more likely to be practicing in the way they preferred and high school counselors least likely to be practicing in the way they preferred (Scarborough & Culbreath, 2008; Scarborough & Luke, 2008). This finding is also in line with previous research that indicated that elementary school counseling programs are generally better aligned with comprehensive developmental models (Baker, 2000; Gibson & Mitchell, 1995; Myrick, 2003). Given that there continue to be differences in practice based on school level, identifying important systemic factors which contribute to these differences is vital to better understanding the amount of classroom guidance school counselors perform.

Understanding the impact of training that school counselors receive regarding classroom guidance has important potential implications in counselor education programs across the country (ASCA, 2005; CACREP, 2009). As a result, exploring training related variables such as the relationship between the number of graduate hours completed and the amount of classroom guidance performed is an important step in better understanding how school counselors should be trained to operate successfully in the classroom. The current study found no relationship between the number of graduate hours completed and the amount of classroom guidance performed. In reviewing the literature, the education level based on the number of credit hours is rarely used when studying practicing school counselors since most state level school counseling certifications require at least a master's degree and 60 credit hours for permanent certification (Education Trust, 2007). Exploring the impact of training on the amount of classroom guidance school counselors perform is a focus of the current study, therefore, the number of credit hours that participants had completed was included. As a result, it is difficult to compare the

current lack of significance regarding education level and the amount of classroom guidance performed, since there is little empirical data to compare it to. Future studies might explore specific training experiences related to the classroom to better gauge the impact of training on the amount of classroom guidance performed.

Continuing the exploration of training related variables, the influence of the level of training in the ASCA (2005) model, and the amount of classroom guidance performed was investigated. Consistent with other training variables explored in this study, no significance was found between level of training in the ASCA model and the amount of classroom guidance performed. In some respects, this is consistent with other findings related to ASCA and comprehensive school counseling models. Scarborough and Culbreth (2008) found that attempting to implement the national standards did not have a significant relationship with the curriculum component. This can be related to the current findings that training in the ASCA model, which is based on the national standards, does not correlate with an increase in the amount of classroom guidance performed. This study used a simple Likert scale to measure training related to the ASCA model, it may not have been sensitive enough. Future research might in some way test participants' knowledge of the ASCA model to obtain a clearer measure of participant understanding.

The last variable examined related to training explored whether graduating from a CACREP-accredited program had an impact on the amount of classroom guidance performed. Consistent with the other findings related to training variables in this study, graduating from a CACREP-accredited program did not correlate to the amount of classroom guidance performed. While not statistically significant, the result did approach significance and care should be used to interpret the results. A statement like - graduates

from CAREP-accredited programs did engage in more classroom guidance across grade levels - is not supported by the current findings. As with other variables, the lack of a significant body of literature on classroom guidance limits meaningful comparison with past empirical findings. However, Scarborough and Culbreth (2008) did find that graduating from a CACREP-accredited program had a significant negative relationship with school counselors being able to work in their preferred role related to the curriculum component, which included performing classroom guidance, of their school-counseling program. Scarborough and Culbreth (2008) were focused on exploring whether practicing school counselors' time spent on duties in a variety of areas, including curriculum, matched their perceived ideal for these areas. While their findings did not include the same measurements like the amount of classroom guidance performed as the current study, their result of graduating from a CACREP-accredited program being negatively correlated to school counselors working in a preferred way with curriculum, does support the current findings.

The last demographic variable explored was whether school counselor caseload was related to the amount of classroom guidance performed. Results from the current study support the relationship between caseload and the amount of classroom guidance performed. The results indicate that as school counselors' caseloads increase, school counselors are performing more classroom guidance. This is encouraging because it aligns with school counselor best practice (ASCA, 2005).

The third research question explored whether classroom guidance training, classroom guidance self-efficacy, and school counselor demographic variables were most influential in regard to the amount of classroom guidance performed. As there is little

research in this area that could provide a logical or theoretical basis for considering one variable over another, a simultaneous regression was used. One of the goals of this research is to provide a theoretical foundation for future research. As reported earlier, when the three significant variables related to the amount of classroom guidance (namely, caseload, school counseling level, and self-efficacy) are loaded simultaneously, school counseling level is the most powerful of the variables. Combined, the variables explain 39% of the overall variance. This shows that while only three of the variables in this study were significant, they account for a large portion of the variance in the model. While these variables play an important role in understanding why counselors engage in classroom guidance, further exploration is needed to have a complete model, as 61% of the variance is still unexplained. Of the three variables, school-counseling level was the most influential in regard to its impact on the amount of classroom guidance performed. This affirms other research which has shown that school counselors working at the elementary level perform more classroom guidance than their peers and the middle and high school levels (Baker, 2000; Gibson & Mitchell, 1995; Myrick, 2003; Scarborough & Culbreath, 2008; Scarborough & Luke, 2008). This is an important finding in regards to future research exploration. Since school counseling level has shown as having a consistent impact in the school counseling literature this makes breaking down and better understanding the factors that lead to these differences a key next step for school counseling research.

Research question four asked whether there were unique factors related to performing classroom guidance. This question explored whether the measure of self-efficacy used in the current study has any inherent factors or structure. As the 40 items

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from Geltner et al. (2012) related to classroom guidance had never been used as an instrument to measure self-efficacy before, obtaining a better understanding of the internal framework of this instrument was important. The fact that all of the items loaded strongly onto one factor, meaning that they are all measuring the same domain, seems to provide a level of validity for this instrument and provides increased justification for using this instrument to measure self-efficacy related to classroom guidance. There are no current measures of self-efficacy related to classroom guidance in the school counseling literature to compare and make meaning of the current results. Existing research instruments like the School Counselor Activity Rating Scale (SCARS) have items related to classroom guidance comparable to several questions on the self-efficacy scale used in the current study, yet the SCARS was designed to measure the difference between how often school counselors actually do an activity and how often they would like to do the same activity (Scarborough, 2005; Scarborough & Culbreath, 2008). As a result, the SCARS does not attempt to directly measure self-efficacy. Yet consistent with the current findings of a low average amount of classroom guidance performed when compared to best practice as given by the ASCA (2005) model, Scarborough and Culbreath (2008) found that school counselors would like to do more activities related to classroom guidance.

Another instrument, the counselor self-efficacy scale (CSS), was created to measure school counselors' self-efficacy in areas like performing a multifaceted role, individual counseling, and outcome expectancies such as the school counselor's feeling that the staff at the school has unrealistic expectations; however, questions related classroom guidance are missing or very general in nature (Sutton & Fall, 1995). A more

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recent measure of school counselor self-efficacy created by Bodenhorn and Staggs (2005) has only one question related to classroom guidance. The classroom guidance self-efficacy scale used in this study may need to be simplified. Because all forty questions load on the same factor, more research is needed to identify which items are critical and which may be redundant. This will simplify the instrument while maintaining validity and reliability.

The last research question investigated whether or not school counselors were able to accurately estimate how their peers scored on a measure of classroom guidance self-efficacy. The results seem to indicate that participants are not able to accurately judge what the group norm or average would be. Said another way, the fact that school counselors were unable to predict the score of their peers and thus contextualize their scores within their peer group has potential meaning. Recall that Dunning and Kruger's (1999) research postulated that individuals lack the insight needed to accurately gauge their performance as compared to their peers. Consistent with this, in this study, school counselors rated their own self-efficacy higher than that of their peers (Dunning, 2005; Dunning, Heath, & Suls, 2004; Falchikov & Boud, 1989; Harris & Schaubroeck, 1988; Mabe & West, 1982). Given the abundant related Dunning-Kruger research, a significant finding in this sample of school counselors suggest further exploration. School counselors in this study reported being less prepared than their peers to deliver classroom guidance, but more efficacious in doing so. This discrepancy may be influenced by the fact that this question explored self-efficacy level and not skill level, which is different from what the Dunning and Kruger effect normally postulates (Dunning, 2005; Dunning,

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Heath, & Suls, 2004; Kruger & Dunning, 1999). Because these results are preliminary, more research is needed in this area.

Implications for Practice and Future Research

This study has implications in several areas related to school counselor practice and the training of school counselors. The first implication relates to how counselor education programs go about training school counselors to work in the classroom. One of the important findings - that higher levels of self-efficacy related to classroom guidance was related to an increased amount of classroom guidance - has broad implications for counselor educators. The results suggest that school counseling students should be provided the opportunity and be exposed to activities like experiential classroom guidance training to increase their self-efficacy related to classroom guidance. If counseling educators want their students to engage in best practice as put forth by ASCA (2005) and CACREP (2009), classroom guidance is an important area that needs to be addressed.

As counselor educators are focused on the training of the next generation of school counselors, it appears that experiential learning should remain a key component of this training (Furr & Carroll, 2003; Goodrich & Luke, 2010; Luke & Kiweewa, 2010). The results of this study show that experiential training in classroom guidance increased participants' sense of self-efficacy related to classroom guidance. As a result, counselor educators may want to consider providing school counseling students experiential learning opportunities within classroom guidance activities. Examples of this might include mock classroom guidance sessions in introductory courses, as well as requiring students to create lesson plans and to perform actual classroom guidance in practicum

and internship. These sessions could be video recorded to be followed by concrete, constructive feedback and supervision provided with the intent of increasing student self-efficacy and effectiveness related to classroom guidance (Luke & Bernard, 2006). Using the school counseling supervision model, supervisors could intervene at several levels by, for instance, providing feedback in the form of a direct intervention, assisting the supervisee with conceptualizing the situation, or using personalization to help the supervisee understand the intrapersonal aspects of the situation (Luke & Bernard, 2006). Counselor educators need to examine their current training methods if school counselors are to effectively meet the ASCA (2005) recommendation that they spend from 15% to 45% of their time in classroom.

Counselor educators also need to recognize that school counselors working at different levels might be engaged in different activities. While school counseling certifications are generally K-12, the results of the current study, supported by past research, indicate that elementary school counselors generally are allowed to practice in a way that is aligned with best practice (Baker, 2000; Gibson & Mitchell, 1995; Myrick, 2003; Scarborough & Culbreath, 2008; Scarborough & Luke, 2008). Therefore, it might be prudent to explore the creation of a course that deals specifically with challenges that elementary school counselors face. Even though elementary counselors in this study indicated that they performed, on average, twice as much classroom guidance as their peers in the middle and high school levels, the amount was still well below the amount of classroom guidance recommended as best practice (ASCA, 2005).

This study also has implications for practicing school counselors as well. Exploring and finding ways to increase personal self-efficacy, especially in the area of

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classroom guidance, would seem to have an important role in helping school counselors follow best practice. Considering that most, if not all K-12 schools, have experienced, effective, master teachers from which school counselors could learn much related to working in the classroom, obtaining additional training might be as simple as walking down the hall. As supported by the current research, being aware and working to increase self-efficacy is an important part of school counselors' willingness to engage in classroom guidance. This is especially true if the classroom guidance occurs within the framework of a comprehensive developmental school-counseling program (Luke & Scarborough, 2008).

It is also important to note the potential impact that this research has directly on K-12 students. As previously discussed school counselors' engaging in classroom allows them the ability to efficiently interact with and be of benefit for all students (ASCA, 2005). This is very different than the responsive model that exists in many schools and the research has shown the benefit for students when there is a comprehensive developmental program at their school (Wilkerson et al., 2013; Whitson, et al., 2011).

An encouraging finding in this study was that larger case size was positively related to the amount of classroom guidance, perhaps indicating that participants engage in classroom guidance to efficiently meet student needs. As stated earlier in this document, classroom guidance is an efficient way to meet the ASCA call that school counselors work with and impact all students (ASCA, 2005). Given that the national average school counselor caseload increased from 459 in 2005 to 471 in 2011, the need for classroom guidance is clear (ASCA, 2011; National Center for Educational Statistics, 2006). This makes the classroom an efficient and effective way to address the ASCA

(2005) mandate to meet the needs of all students. As budgetary concerns continue with the possibility that school counseling caseloads are going to continue increase, classroom guidance remains an important option to address K-12 students' school counseling needs.

Practicing school counselors should carefully consider the difference found between the amount of reported classroom guidance taking place in elementary and middle/high schools, where elementary school counselors were reporting performing more than twice the amount of classroom guidance than their peers at the middle/high school levels. The results of the current study speak to and are a call to school counselors at all levels to better align with best practice models. School counselors' willingness to explore the differences found between the various level seems important if the profession is to move ahead. This would echo a call by Luke and Scarborough (2008) for more emphasis on developing skills like advocacy, collaboration, leadership, and perhaps most importantly, system-influencing skills. The need for school counselors to have these skills within the structure of a comprehensive developmental school counseling model, which includes classroom guidance is clear.

The strongest finding of this study was that school counselor level, specifically school counselors working at the elementary level, reported that they engage in classroom guidance at a rate of over twice of what their peers at the middle school and high school levels reported. This indicates that there are systemic variables at work which were not explored in this study. What is different at the elementary level that allows these school counselors to engage in classroom guidance more often than those working at the upper levels? This effect has been observed in other studies which found that elementary counselors are more likely to be practicing the way they prefer

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(Scarborough & Culbreth, 2008), and they are more likely to be implementing school counseling program that are in line with a comprehensive developmental school counseling model (Baker, 2000; Gibson & Mitchell, 1995; Myrick, 2003). A robust exploration of systemic barriers seems warranted because even though elementary counselors are engaging in more classroom guidance than their peers at the middle and high school level, they were still not performing the amount of classroom guidance recommended in the ASCA model. More research is indicated because, currently, there has been little empirical exploration in this area.

An important consideration is what might be the next steps regarding research into classroom guidance. Of particular interest is a focus on both qualitative and quantitative exploration of potential systemic issues that limit school counselors' ability to engage in classroom guidance. An initial qualitative study could explore the opinions and experiences of both school counselors and school administrators about how classroom guidance could be helpful in obtaining a better understanding of some of the systemic issues that are present. One potential pool of participants would include school counselors and administrators who have obtained the Recognized ASCA Model Program (RAMP) designation from ASCA. These are schools that go through a formal evaluation process by ASCA and should be aligned with best practice. By using qualitative methodology to interview constituents belonging to both RAMP and non-RAMP school districts, a clearer sense of the systemic factors involved could be ascertained. Additionally, quantitative methodologies could be used to explore group difference between the RAMP and non-RAMP school districts. Some concrete future steps might include using the Delphi method to gather expert opinions from both school counselors

and school administrators in both RAMP and non-RAMP school districts about the systemic factors that impact the implementation of both classroom guidance and comprehensive developmental counseling programs as a whole. Once these systemic factors are identified additional research using qualitative methods could be done on a larger sample to explore whether the identified, systemic issues are meaningful for school districts across the country.

It was also very interesting that none of the variables related to training were significantly correlated to the amount of classroom guidance explored. As previously discussed, this finding has mixed support in the literature. Since training, especially experiential training, makes up an important part of what counselor educators do to prepare students to work as school counselors, this finding requires further research. It may be that in the case of the current study that systemic issues, such as the level at which school counselors are working, are so powerful that they overpower the impact of training on the amount of classroom guidance performed.

<center>Strengths & Limitations</center>

As is the case with all research, this study had both strengths and limitations. This study introduced two potentially useful instruments, the first deals with measuring self-efficacy related to classroom guidance. The second assessed the experiential training school counselors received in classroom guidance. The psychometrics of both instruments were supported by the results of this study. While both need further development and refinement, they both potentially provide needed resources to explore why school counselors choose to engage in classroom guidance. An additional strength of this study is that the participants came from all areas of the country, which helps to

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strengthen external validity claims. This adds strength to the claim that the participants

of the current study are representative of the ASCA populations as a whole.

Even after considering this broad geographic sample, the main limitations of this

study center on the weaknesses related to external validity, which ultimately threatens the

generalizability of the study findings (Bellini & Rumrill, 1999). The current sample was

voluntary in nature, and it is unknown whether the study participants who chose to

answer the e-mail solicitation were different from those who chose not to answer.

As a result, the potential for self-selection and social desirability bias was a limitation of

this study. Only school counselors who were members of ASCA were invited to

participate, and those members who did volunteer to participate, may differ in a number

of ways from those individuals who did not respond. Specific demographic information

regarding characteristics of counselors with ASCA membership, in contrast to

nonmembers, is not available. It is possible that the something as simple as a membership

fee could be a barrier keeping some from joining. Counselors with higher salaries or

whose schools were willing to pay the fee may be more likely to join. Furthermore, a

possible bias of this sample could be that school counselors who chose to become

members of ASCA may vary distinctly in their willingness to engage in classroom

guidance and self-efficacy beliefs, from those counselors who chose not to become

members of the association. This can limit the generalizability of the findings both for

counselors who are ASCA members, and especially, for those who are not, since ASCA

members are a small minority when the school counseling profession is taken as a whole.

Additionally, since many of the instruments used in this study are untested, it may be that

the instrumentation used might not be sensitive enough to detect real differences.

While this study provides the basis for advancing the understanding of what variables impact school counselors' willingness to engage in classroom guidance, it is not without limitations. Perhaps one of the most concerning is the low response rate (5%) from the participant pool. However, not all of the potential participants met the study requirements of being a practicing school counselor with at least one year of experience. Based on emails received from some potential participants who were not eligible to participate, there were some individuals who were identified as being school counseling students who made up part of the sample pool. That there would be students in the sample pool is understandable since ASCA is an open organization that allows anyone, including students to join. As a result accurately gauging the response rate of eligible potential participants is challenging, which in turn, limits the generalizability of the study findings.

All the information obtained in this study was based on self-report; therefore, participants' responses were dependent on accurate knowledge of themselves coupled with a willingness to report such knowledge accurately (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999). Furthermore, the external validity of the study was threatened by the homogeneity of the sample on several demographic characteristics. Participants in the current study were also primarily female (81%) and identified themselves as White (80%); it is uncertain whether these findings generalize to other populations. However, in many ways this is consistent with other studies and seems to represent the demographic 'face' of school counseling (NOSCA, 2012; Scarborough & Culbreth, 2008).

The dependent variable, the amount of classroom guidance performed, provides important information regarding school counselor classroom guidance practices. Yet, this study is limited in that it does not attempt to measure the actual effectiveness of the classroom guidance activities. While ASCA (2005) extolls school counselors to liberally use classroom guidance as an intervention, this study does not attempt to show that engaging in more classroom guidance is necessarily better practice.

A limitation with the demographic question related CACREP is that the group of participants, who were not graduates of a CACREP-accredited program, only makes up slightly over a quarter of the sample size. Since the two groups being compared are unequal, this can reduce the statistical power of the sample. The resulting lack of statistical significance could simply be the result of too small of a sample size, after taking statistical power into consideration, to answer this specific question. While not being statistically significant, it would be important to further explore the impact of being a CACREP graduate on the amount of classroom guidance performed, since this was the only variable related to training that approached significance.

Lastly, the introduction of two new instruments, the self-efficacy related to classroom guidance scale and the classroom guidance experiential training scale, potentially further the school counseling literature by allowing us to better explore classroom guidance. The self-efficacy scale was based on an existing instrument and modified for use in this study. Modifying existing measures has support in the counseling literature (Kiweewa, Gilbride, Luke, & Seward, 2013). Yet, neither instruments psychodynamic properties were fully explored. As neither instrument was

normed, future research would need to explore issues of reliability, validity, sensitivity, and whether the instruments are inclusive.

Conclusion

The ASCA (2005) National Model recognizes classroom guidance as an integral part of being an effective school counselor. Additionally, depending on the grade level and needs of their students, school counselors should spend anywhere from 15% to 45% of their time in classroom guidance activities; thus, understanding what variables impact school counselors' willingness to engage in classroom guidance is vital. When working directly with students in a classroom environment, school counselors have expressed concern about a lack of training and experience with classroom management, making this an important area to also explore (Geltner & Clark, 2005; Goodrich & Luke, 2010). Not only does the current literature show very little exploration about school counselors' perceptions related to their effectiveness in the classroom, but the research in how best to train school counselors to perform classroom guidance has also been minimal (Geltner, Cunningham, & Caldwell, 2011). This study served to address these identified gaps through the investigation of five research questions.

The resulting findings provide empirical support for the importance of self-efficacy related to classroom guidance, the role of experiential training, and the impact of class size on school counselors' willingness to engage in classroom guidance. Perhaps most importantly, it reaffirms that school counseling level plays an important role in school counselor professional practice including how willing school counselors are to engage in classroom guidance. Additional investigation is needed to further explore

these constructs to better understand the roles of self-efficacy, experiential training, and

school counseling level in classroom guidance.

SYRACUSE UNIVERSITY

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315-443-2266

Role of Self-Efficacy and Experiential Training in Classroom Guidance Implementation
My name is Sean Finnerty, and I am a Graduate Student at Syracuse University, in the Counseling and Counselor Education program. I am conducting a research study under the supervision of Dr. Melissa Luke, an Associate Professor and Coordinator of School Counseling in the Counseling and Human Services Department. I am inviting you to participate in a research study that is examining the impact of experiential training and self-efficacy on classroom guidance implementation.

This study has been reviewed and approved by the Institutional review Board of Syracuse University. Participation in the study is voluntary, so you may choose to participate or not. All participants will have the option of excluding themselves from the study at any point without penalty.

As part of this research project, I am interested in learning more about how experiential training and self-efficacy in classroom guidance impacts school counselors' willingness to engage in classroom guidance. If you choose to participate in this study you will be asked to complete a 68 question online survey. This will take approximately 10 to 15 minutes of your time. All information will be kept anonymous, this means that your name will not appear anywhere and your specific answers will not be linked to your name in any way.

Minimal risk is presented to participants in this study. The probability and magnitude of discomfort and harm anticipated in this study is not beyond what participants would encounter in their daily job responsibilities. The risks of participating in this study are minimal, but they may include feeling discomfort about sharing information related to training and self-efficacy regarding classroom guidance. If at any time you feel uncomfortable or don't wish to answer a specific question you are free to move on to the next question. The personal benefits of this study might include getting a better understanding of how your own self-efficacy and training have impacted your classroom guidance implementation. Additionally, this area is virtually unexplored in the school counseling literature and this study has the potential to positively impact the training of current and future school counselors.

Since the data collection occurs electronically please understand that although every reasonable effort has been taken, confidentiality during actual Internet

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transfer/communication procedures cannot be guaranteed. Your confidentiality will be kept to the degree permitted by the technology being used. No guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties.
If you have any questions, concerns, complaints about the research contact me at sofinner@syr.edu or 315.525.2865. Alternately, you may contact my faculty supervisor, Dr. Melissa Luke at mmluke@syr.edu or 315.443.5265. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you have questions, concerns, or complaints that you wish to address to someone other than the investigator, if you cannot reach the investigator contact the Syracuse University Institutional Review Board at 315-443-3013.

Please print a copy of this consent form for your own records.

All of my questions have been answered, I am 18 years of age or older, and I wish to participate in this research study.

By selecting yes to the question below I am agreeing to participate in this study.

1st Email
Greetings,

My name is Sean Finnerty and I am a Graduate Student at Syracuse University. I am
emailing you to seek your participation in my dissertation study. Having worked in the
past as a school counselor, I am interested in learning more about how experiential
training and self-efficacy impact school counselors' willingness to engage in classroom
guidance. I am looking for participants who have worked at least one year as a school
counselor and are members of ASCA. If you choose to participate in this study you will
be asked to complete a 68 question online survey. This will take approximately 10 to 15
minutes of your time. All information will be kept anonymous, this means that your
name will not appear anywhere and your specific answers will not be linked to your name
in any way.

If you have any questions, concerns, complaints about the research contact me at
sofinner@syr.edu or 315.525.2865. Alternately, you may contact my faculty supervisor,
Dr. Melissa Luke at mmluke@syr.edu or 315.443.5265. If you have any questions about
your rights as a research participant, you have questions, concerns, or complaints that you
wish to address to someone other than the investigator, if you cannot reach the
investigator contact the Syracuse University Institutional Review Board at 315-443-3013.

Involvement in the study is voluntary, so you may choose to participate or not and all
participants will have the option of excluding themselves from the study at any point.
The consent form that makes up the first page of the study contains more information, yet
please feel free to ask questions about the research if you have any. I will be happy to
explain anything in detail if you wish. Thank you in advance for your willingness to
participate in research in an area that is so important to our field.

The study can be found at: <Link to Survey Monkey>

Please note: If you do not wish to receive further emails from us, please click the link
below, and you will be automatically removed from our mailing list.

[RemoveLink]

2nd Email

Greetings,

My name is Sean Finnerty and I am a Graduate Student at Syracuse University. I recently emailed you seeking your participation in my dissertation study and I am still looking for more people to participate. Having worked in the past as a school counselor, I am interested in learning more about how experiential training and self-efficacy impact school counselors' willingness to engage in classroom guidance. I am looking for participants who have worked at least one year as a school counselor and are members of ASCA. If you choose to participate in this study you will be asked to complete a 68 question online survey. This will take approximately 10 to 15 minutes of your time. All information will be kept anonymous, this means that your name will not appear anywhere and your specific answers will not be linked to your name in any way.

If you have any questions, concerns, complaints about the research contact me at sofinner@syr.edu or 315.525.2865. Alternately, you may contact my faculty supervisor, Dr. Melissa Luke at mmluke@syr.edu or 315.443.5265. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you have questions, concerns, or complaints that you wish to address to someone other than the investigator, if you cannot reach the investigator contact the Syracuse University Institutional Review Board at 315-443-3013.

Involvement in the study is voluntary, so you may choose to participate or not and all participants will have the option of excluding themselves from the study at any point. The consent form that makes up the first page of the study contains more information, yet please feel free to ask questions about the research if you have any. I will be happy to explain anything in detail if you wish. Thank you in advance for your willingness to participate in research in an area that is so important to our field.

The study can be found at: <Link to Survey Monkey>

Please note: If you do not wish to receive further emails from us, please click the link below, and you will be automatically removed from our mailing list.

[RemoveLink]

3rd Email

Greetings,

My name is Sean Finnerty and I am a Graduate Student at Syracuse University. My dissertation study will close in four days and I wanted to give you one last chance to participate. Having worked in the past as a school counselor, I am interested in learning more about how experiential training and self-efficacy impact school counselors' willingness to engage in classroom guidance. I am looking for participants who have worked at least one year as a school counselor and are members of ASCA. If you choose to participate in this study you will be asked to complete a 68 question online survey. This will take approximately 10 to 15 minutes of your time. All information will be kept anonymous, this means that your name will not appear anywhere and your specific answers will not be linked to your name in any way.

If you have any questions, concerns, complaints about the research contact me at sofinner@syr.edu or 315.525.2865. Alternately, you may contact my faculty supervisor, Dr. Melissa Luke at mmluke@syr.edu or 315.443.5265. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you have questions, concerns, or complaints that you wish to address to someone other than the investigator, if you cannot reach the investigator contact the Syracuse University Institutional Review Board at 315-443-3013.

Involvement in the study is voluntary, so you may choose to participate or not and all participants will have the option of excluding themselves from the study at any point. The consent form that makes up the first page of the study contains more information, yet please feel free to ask questions about the research if you have any. I will be happy to explain anything in detail if you wish. Thank you in advance for your willingness to participate in research in an area that is so important to our field.

The study can be found at: <Link to Survey Monkey>

Please note: If you do not wish to receive further emails from us, please click the link below, and you will be automatically removed from our mailing list.

[RemoveLink]

Appendix C: Questionnaire - Self-Efficacy Related to Classroom Guidance

Instructions: Please select the choice that best represents your personal estimate of your current abilities (self-efficacy) related to the skill/knowledge area when performing classroom guidance. A one indicates a low level of ability and a seven a high level of ability. These questions use a Likert scale with choices from 1 to 7.

1. Guidance/Psychoeducational Group (a large group to which specific knowledge or skills are taught)
2. Cooperative Learning (the use of collaborative interactions among group members to achieve learning)
3. Multicultural Diversity (the culture-based differences among individuals)
4. Nonverbal Communication (the transmission and/or receipt of messages among group members without the use of words)
5. Group Dynamics (the interactive processes among individuals in a group)
6. Open-Ended Questioning (the act of attempting to pose questions that call for other than dichotomous responses)
7. Group Final Stage (the group process period that includes accomplishment, summarization, and group termination)
8. Active Listening (the process of attending to and interpreting verbal and nonverbal messages in the group)
9. Group Conflict (the extent to which group members are oppositional to one another)
10. Group Cohesion (the level of group members' feeling of acceptance among one another)
11. Rule Setting (the establishment and communication of guidelines for appropriate behavior in the group)
12. Group Initial Stage (the beginning stage of a group in which the structure, goals, expectations, and roles are defined)
13. Reflecting Feelings (the act of attempting to point out the emotional content underlying a group member's communications)
14. Group Process (the process of change among group members over time)
15. Goal Setting (the process of deciding upon ultimate potential group accomplishments)
16. Wait Time (the time between a question and a response to it)
17. Evaluating (the process of assessing and associating values(s) with individual and/or group behaviors)
18. Group Cohesiveness (group members' sense of belonging and inclusion in the group)
19. Restating (the act of attempting to verbally paraphrase another group member's communication)
20. Drawing Out (a group leader verbalization or action intended to encourage a group member to be more participatory in the group process)
21. Group Leadership Style (a group leader's approach to facilitating groups based on her/his theoretical orientation, values, beliefs and personal style)

22. Clarifying (the act of restating a group member's words in different words to attempt to convey accurate understanding)
23. Acknowledging (the act of acknowledging a group member's contributions within the group)
24. Summarizing (the act of attempting to summarize what has been said or happened in a group process)
25. Initiating (the act of directing group discussion and behavior toward a particular topic)
26. Supporting via Reassurance (leader intervening to reassure members, encourage and reinforce participation)
27. Reinforcing (the attempt to encourage a group member to continue to speak or behave in the same way)
28. Blocking (the act of attempting to stop a group member's specific verbalizations or behaviors in a group)
29. Linking (group leader promoting interaction between group members by connecting through a common theme)
30. Legal Considerations For Group Work (the legal boundaries for group member behaviors)
31. Supporting An Individual Member (the act of attempting to provide encouragement to a group member)
32. Giving Feedback (the process a group member uses to inform a group member about the impact of a verbalization or behavior within the group)
33. Processing (the discussion among group members of what has been said and/or happened during preceding group process)
34. Showing Empathy (the attempt to use verbal and nonverbal communications to convey emotional sensitivity to a group member)
35. Terminating (the process of ending the group process)
36. Protecting (the act of attempting to safeguard a group member from emotional harm in the group)
37. Modeling (group leader demonstrating skills, attitudes or other characteristics s/he hopes to engender in group members)
38. Facilitating Group Interactions (the process of encouraging group members to communicate openly with on another)
39. Evaluation of Group (the process of measuring group outcomes)
40. Ethical Consideration for Group Work (the process of attending to and interpreting verbal and nonverbal messages in the group)

Appendix D: Questionnaire - Classroom Guidance Experiential Training

Instructions: In this section please rate how completely your training program fulfilled the following questions. A 1 would represent the lowest level of agreement and a 7 represents the highest level.

1. There were significant in class discussions related to classroom guidance in my training program.
2. There were significant assigned readings related to classroom guidance in my training program.
3. I was taught and had to create a classroom guidance lesson plan as part of my training program.
4. I received verbal and/or written feedback from my course instructor and/or classmates on my classroom guidance lesson plan.
5. I had to perform a simulated in class experience with classroom guidance (An example of this would be acting as the school counselor teaching a lesson while the remainder of the class acted as K-12 students).
6. I received verbal and/or written feedback from my course instructor and/or classmates on my simulated classroom guidance activity.
7. I was required to perform "live" classroom guidance lesson(s) with actual K-12 students.
8. I received verbal and/or written feedback from my course instructor and/or classmates on my "live" classroom guidance lesson(s).
9. I had to complete a reflection journal that focused on my experiential training in classroom guidance and I received feedback on this journal.
10. As part of my training program I received live supervision on my classroom guidance activities either individually or as part of a group.

Appendix E: Questionnaire - Demographic

1. Current Age
2. Gender
3. Ethnicity
4. Average number of classroom guidance lessons implemented each month
5. I have been trained in the ASCA model (Scale 1 - 7, 1 meaning no or a low level of training and 7 meaning a high level of training)
6. I have a undergraduate/graduate degree in teaching
7. Years of previous K-12 teaching experience
8. Years of post graduate experience as a school counselor (do not count time spent in practicum and internship)
9. Highest degree completed
10. Did you graduate from a school counselor CACREP accredited program
11. Level you currently work at as a school counselor
12. What are the total # of graduate credit hours completed
13. What is your current caseload

Appendix F: Questionnaire - Dunning and Krugger

1. In section one you were asked to rate your total self-efficacy on forty knowledge or skill items related to classroom guidance. The score range for each item was 1 to 7, making the total score range 40 to 280. Without looking back what do you think your total score was? (Please select a score between 40 and 280).
2. On this same section what do you think the average total self-efficacy score will be of all participants? (Please select a score between 40 and 280).
3. On the section related to classroom guidance training you were asked to rate your graduate training on 10 questions. The score range for each item was 1 to 7, making the total score range 10 to 70. Without looking back what do you think your total score was? (Please select a score between 10 and 70).
4. On this same section what do you think the average training score will be for all participants? (Please select a score between 10 and 70).

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CURRICULUM VITAE

Sean O'Patrick Finnerty

EDUCATION

Doctoral Candidate in Counseling and Counselor Education   June 2015
Syracuse University

M.S. in Counseling, Concentration School   1994
Niagara University

B.A. in Psychology   1991
University at Buffalo

COUNSELOR EDUCATOR EXPERIENCE

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR   2012-Present
SUNY Oswego   *Oswego, NY*

- Teaching and research is focused on school counseling program.
- Coordinator of the School Counseling Program.
- Taught variety of classes including development, orientation to the counseling profession, intro to family systems, practicum, advanced practicum, and internship.
- Proposed and created two new elective school counseling classes for the summer 2014 session; crisis counseling in the schools, and counseling adolescents.
- Moving school counseling elective classes to an online format based on student feedback.
- Created two new elective school counseling classes for the summer 2013 session; counseling for college and career readiness, and legal and ethical issues in school counseling.
- Worked as a Visiting Assistant Professor in the 2011-2012 academic year.

SCHOOL COUNSELING EXPERIENCE

SCHOOL COUNSELOR   2001-2011
New York Mills Jr/Sr High School   *New York Mills, NY*

- Responsible for all aspects of the school-counseling program.
- Worked to facilitate communication between the various parts of the school community (e.g. teachers, parents, students, etc.)
- Provided individual, group, career, college and academic counseling.
- Responsible for design and implementation of a Comprehensive Developmental School Counseling Program (currently in transition).
- Chair of high school child study team.
- Assisted student career exploration by using assessments including the MBTI and the Strong Interest Inventory.
- Worked with students from K-12.

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SCHOOL COUNSELOR/LEAD COUNSELOR   1994-1998
Woodlawn Middle School   *Mebane, NC*
- Provided school counseling services for a 670-student middle school. This included individual counseling, group counseling, classroom instruction, grant writing and program development.
- Lead School Counselor in 1997-1998

ADDITIONAL TEACHING EXPERIENCE

COU 729 - The Counselor in the Schools, Syracuse University   2009-2011
- Co-teacher and facilitator.
- Independent Lectures: Ethics, Crisis & Critical Instances in Schools; Individual Planning & Advisement; Short & Long Range Planning, Using Data & Technology.
- Provided experiential classroom activities to facilitate instruction and discussion.

COU 644 – Counseling Prepracticum, Syracuse University   2010
- Co-teacher, worked with students to provide direct feedback and instruction on basic counseling skills.

COU 624 – Theories of Counseling, Syracuse University   2009
- Guest Lecturer – Existential Therapy

COU 750 – Practicum in Counseling, Syracuse University   2009
- Guest Instructor – Provided direct student feedback and support for case conceptualizations regarding video/audio tape work with clients.

COU 614 – Group Work in Counseling, Syracuse University   2008
- Small Group Leader – Facilitated experiential group experience.

ECS 100 – Summer Start – Engineering, Syracuse University   2008
- Co-Instructor for summer start program assisting new incoming freshman in the transition to college.

SOC 102 – Social Issues – Alamance Community College   1995-1997

PSY 112 – Personal Wellness – Alamance Community College   1995-1997

CLINICAL COUNSELING EXPERIENCE
COUNSELING INTERN   2007-2009
Samaritan Counseling Center   *Utica, NY*
- Provided individual and family therapy working with children, adolescents, and adults.

STAR COUNSELOR   2007-2008
Syracuse University – School of Engineering   *Syracuse, NY*
- Provided individual counseling and support services for engineering students related to academic, intrapersonal, and interpersonal issues.

CLINICAL SUPERVISION EXPERIENCE
CLINICAL SUPERVISOR   2008-2011
Syracuse University – Counseling Education and Human   *Syracuse, NY*
Services Department
- Provided individual clinical supervision to a total of 15 masters students both in practicum and internship classes.
- Responsible for submitting supervision notes and collaborating with clinical instructors to facilitate student growth.
- Site supervisor in 2010 for a school counseling practicum student.

SELECTED PRESENTATIONS

ACES Semi-Annual Conference, Philadelphia, PA   2015
Role of Self-Efficacy and Experiential Training in Classroom Guidance
Participation – Poster Presentation (proposal submitted)

NYSSCA Annual Conference, Bolton Landing, NY   2015
School Counselors Becoming More Comfortable Using Data

Central Square School District, Central Square, NY   2014
Comprehensive School Counseling Models – A Consultation

Oswego County School Counselors Association, Oswego, NY   2014
Moving Your School Counseling Program To A Comprehensive
Developmental Model

NARACES Semi-Annual Conference, Providence RI   2014
Training Counselors to be in the Classroom

NYSSCA Annual Conference, Albany NY   2014
School Counselors Thriving in a Data Based World

ASCA Annual Conference, Orlando FL   2014
Counselors in the Classroom

ACES Semi-Annual Conference, Denver CO   2013
Death of the VCR!?! How current technology can fill the gap.
Training counselors to be in the classroom

NYSSCA Annual Conference, Syracuse NY   2013
Helping your students navigate a technology filled world

O-RITE Presentation   2013
Working with School Counselors

NYSSCA Annual Conference, Albany NY   2012
Counselors in the Classroom

NYSSCA Annual Conference, Syracuse NY
The Technically Competent School Counselor   2009

BOCES School Counselor Meeting, New Hartford NY   2010
School Counseling and Technology – Best Practice

NYM Crisis Team Meeting, New York Mills NY   2011
Student Risk Assessments – Staff Roles and Responsibilities

NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY   2010
Role of the Child Study Team in Student Development

NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY   2010
Technology as a Support to Instruction

NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY   2010
Bullying – How Does It Impact Our Students?

NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY   2009
Role of the Teacher Website – A Hands On Approach

NYM Open House, New York Mills NY   2009
The Role of the School Counselor

NYM Open House, New York Mills NY   2002-2011
Your 7th Grader and the Transition to Junior High

NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY   2008
Instructional Support Plans

NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY   2008
How to Get Parents on Your Side

                                                                   2007
NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY
Crisis Response – Staff Roles

NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY   2006
Integrating ESL Learners Into Your Classroom

| NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY | 2005 |

NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY 2005
Cooperative Learning

NYM Staff Workshop, New York Mills NY 2004
Mandated Reporter – A Review of the Current Law

Cummings HS/Graham MS, Alamance County NC 1998
Multicultural Awareness

Western MS, Alamance County, NC 1997
Helping All Students Be Successful

Woodlawn MS, Alamance County, NC 1996
Crisis Planning

Woodlawn MS, Alamance County, NC 1996
Peer Mediators – Their Role in our School

CERTIFICATION & LICENSURE

New York State Teaching Certification   Permanent School Counseling

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS

American Counseling Association (ACA)
American School Counselor Association (ASCA)
New York School State School Counselor Association (NYSSCA)
  • Webmaster
Association of Counselor Educators and Supervisors (ACES)
Association for Specialists in Group Work (ASGW)
NARACES
Oswego County School Counselor Association (OsCCA)
Transforming School Counseling College and College Access Interest Network
(TSCCAIN)
  • Webmaster