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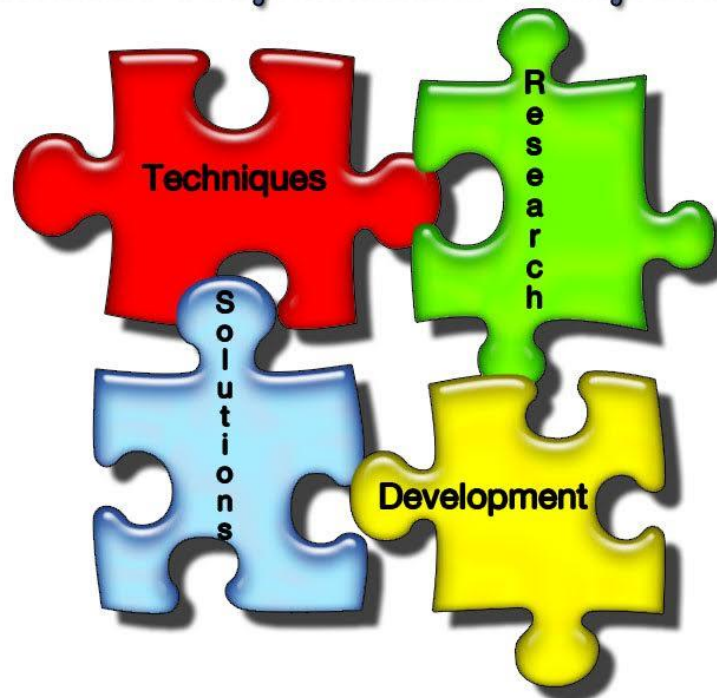
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There are six general categories that help focus the content of the journal.

Research. These articles focus on research (qualitative, quantitative, mixed) in counselor preparation, professional development, supervision, and professional practice.

Techniques. These articles focus on professional models for teaching empirically grounded techniques used by professional counselors, as well as teaching and supervision techniques used in professional preparation programs.

Counselor Development. These articles include insightful commentary on means by which professional counselors can continue to develop professionally. Effective teaching strategies for counseling students as well as continuing education for experienced counselors will be highlighted.

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Editorial Notes

The Winter 2016 issue provides information and research for counselors and counselor educators. Given the importance of advocacy in our profession, counselors and counselor educators will be particularly interested in Decker, Manis, and Paylo's discussion on empirically based pedagogical practices to infuse social justice advocacy into counseling curriculum. Harris, Hines and Hipolito-Delgado explored counselor educators' perceptions of training school counselors for college and career readiness for African American men. Similarly, Celinska and Swazo investigated counselor-in-training self-perceptions of openness and comfort in interactions with diverse populations and possible counselor education program changes. Merlin discusses flipped learning in counselor education, and provides specific examples of learning activities for courses involving helping relationships, group work, career development, and social and cultural diversity. Iarussi, Tyler, Crawford and Crawford investigated the effectiveness of teaching counselor trainees motivational interviewing and cognitive behavioral therapy techniques over the course of three semesters. As funding in universities, schools, and clinics continues to be reduced, many counselors and counselor educators are seeking grant funding. Delaney's article helps de-mystify the grant identification and writing process. Kostohryz studied faculty members' perceptions of the purpose of doctoral comprehensive examinations and found some very interesting differences in perceptions.

As editor, I thank the editorial staff for their continued hard work to produce quality manuscripts for JCPS especially as the submissions continue to increase. My associate editor, Michael Mariska, will be stepping into his role as President of NARACES so this will be his last JCPS issue. Thank you, Mike, for your humor, your support and your hard work. I also want to thank my Graduate Assistant, Massiel Rosario, for her many hours of editing, as well as for keeping me on track and organized. As always, I thank the NARACES board for their constant and enthusiastic support.



Edina Renfro-Michel, **Editor**

Infusing Social Justice Advocacy into Counselor Education: Strategies and Recommendations

Journal of Counselor Preparation and Supervision, Volume 8, Number 3, Winter 2016

Karen M. Decker , Amie A. Manis, Matthew J. Paylo

As the counseling profession calls counselors to act as social justice advocates, it is imperative that they are prepared for this role. This places responsibility on counselor education programs to incorporate the necessary training into existing programs. There are strategies for infusing social justice advocacy instruction throughout the existing curricula with reasonable investments of time, energy, and funds. The purpose of this article is to offer practical strategies and recommendations, grounded in critical pedagogy and supported by a growing evidence base, which can be implemented in existing counselor education programs in order to provide a strong foundation for social justice advocacy work.

Keywords: advocacy, critical pedagogy, multicultural competence, social justice

Although there has always been a strong connection between social justice advocacy and counseling (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001), recent literature has renewed the emphasis on the importance of advocacy within the profession (Chang, Crethar, & Ratts, 2010; Steele, 2008). Now, social justice advocacy is being viewed as an integral part of the counselor's professional identity (Chang, Crethar, & Ratts, 2010; King, 2012; Kiselica & Robinson, 2001; Ratts & Wood, 2011; Toporek, Lewis & Crethar, 2009). This increased attention has come about due in part to the multicultural counseling competency movement. Attention to the Multicultural Counseling Competencies (MCCs) developed by Sue, Arredondo, and McDavis (1992) and revised in 2016 (Ratts, Singh, Nassar-McMillan, Butler, & McCullough, 2016) has led to increased awareness of the impact of oppression, prejudice and inequality on diverse clients at multiple levels. For example, at the individual level clients may experience internalized oppression around biopsychosocial characteristics that do not reflect mainstream norms; appropriate and relevant services may be unavailable in schools and communities, or worse clients may experience

outright discrimination in education or employment; and state or national policies and laws may exclude protections or rights for vulnerable populations.

Advocates for social justice seek to change the institutional oppression that is present in society (Shin, 2008). This type of advocacy requires counselors to confront oppression on the individual (micro), community (meso) and public policy (macro) levels as outlined in the ACA Advocacy Competencies (Lewis, Arnold, House, & Toporek, 2002). Through codes of ethics, professional mandates, and training standards, counselor educators are called to train students across counseling specializations (i.e., addiction counseling, career counseling, clinical mental health counseling, marriage and family counseling, school counseling, student affairs/college counseling), to be equipped to assume a role of a social justice advocate (American Counseling Association [ACA], 2014; American Mental Health Counselors Association [AMHCA], 2010; American School Counseling Association [ASCA], 2010; Chang & Gnilka, 2010; Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs [CACREP], 2009; Gehart & Lucas, 2007). All counselors must be prepared to address systems of oppression, discrimination, and privilege at multiple levels, and this requires that they have the necessary awareness, knowledge, and skills to do so.

Yet this task of preparing counselors to be social justice advocates may also seem daunting in terms of resources. With universities facing budget cuts and rising costs that mandate the implementation of cost-saving measures, adding new courses or new faculty may not be a reasonable expectation for many programs. However, there are several ways that advocacy instruction can be infused throughout existing curricula. The purpose of this article is to offer practical strategies and recommendations, grounded in critical pedagogy and supported

by a growing evidence base-that can be implemented in existing counselor education programs in order to provide a strong foundation for social justice advocacy work.

Counselors and Advocacy: An Integrated Identity

Counselor education programs provide multicultural education, which prepares counselors to work with diverse clients, but this is just a small piece of the necessary preparation. In order for counselors to be culturally competent, they must be prepared to take on advocacy and leadership roles (CACREP, 2009; Chang & Gnilka, 2010; Gehart & Lucas, 2007). Culturally competent counselors must be able to address systems of oppression, discrimination, and privilege at multiple levels, and this requires that they have the necessary awareness, knowledge, and skills to do so. In a concerted effort to advance the counseling profession and promote greater social justice, counselor education programs are being urgently called upon to foster a unified professional identity and train counselors with leadership and advocacy knowledge and skills (Chang et al., 2012; Ratts & Wood, 2011).

Yet while the charge is clear and congruent with the history and current development of the counseling profession, there are a number of identified factors that contribute to a slow move to action. Smith, Reynolds & Rovnak (2009) asserted that social justice advocacy represents a fundamental change to the counseling profession by requiring counselors to go beyond work with individual clients in order to promote societal change. They cautioned that there are limitations and potential problems associated with adopting an advocacy agenda that may conflict with individual politics and values, and call for more “research, tested methodologies, and identified best practices” (p.490). Chang & Gnilka (2010), Gehart & Lucas (2007), and Steele (2008) indicated that counselors feel unprepared to address social justice advocacy

because many counselor education programs fail to provide adequate preparation in advocacy theory and practice.

While the charge to promote social justice does confront counselor educators and trainees with sociopolitical issues, the very essence of the field of professional counseling is aligned with Watts' (2004) assertion that the sociopolitical realm cannot be ignored as a "vital aspect of human development" (p.861). In fact, King's (2012) qualitative analysis of how ethical codes define professional identity across the mental health professions identified growth, development and wellness as distinguishing the work of professional counselors. Furthermore, recent consideration of counseling and advocacy with diverse populations who are often cited as challenging to counselors' individual beliefs, such as gay, lesbian or bisexual clients, stipulates that counselors are bound to uphold the values of the counseling profession and bracket their individual beliefs (Francis & Dugger, 2014; Herlihy, Hermann, & Greden, 2012; Kocet & Herlihy, 2014). This requires confronting societal forces that result in marginalization and increase the risk of mental health problems for diverse populations.

Furthermore, Decker (2013) recently examined the relationships between social justice advocacy training as part of a master's-level counselor education program, ratings of competence in social justice advocacy, and the likelihood to advocate. Evidence was found to support the inclusion of social justice advocacy training in counselor education programs. Decker (2013) found that there is a significant relationship between social justice advocacy training and ratings of social justice advocacy competence. The findings also indicated that advocacy training leads to an increased likelihood to advocate particularly at community and societal levels and that counselor trainees who report greater advocacy competence are more likely to engage in advocacy activities at the three levels of advocacy as defined by the ACA Advocacy

Competencies (Lewis, Arnold, House, & Toporek, 2002). This is consistent with the findings of Miller et al. (2009) who concluded college students' beliefs about social justice self-efficacy and outcome expectations were significantly correlated with social justice interest and commitment. The authors noted that an increased interest in social justice was related to the students' commitment to future social justice advocacy efforts.

Notwithstanding the ambivalence and misconceptions about the sociopolitical nature of social justice advocacy, or the dearth of evidence based strategies (Bemak & Chung, 2011; Brubaker, Puig, Reese, & Young, 2010; Odegard & Vereen, 2010; Ratts & Wood, 2011), there is compelling evidence to move forward decisively in integrating advocacy training in the counselor education curriculum (Decker, 2013; Manis, 2008; Paylo, 2007). Yet the task of preparing counselors to be social justice advocates may also seem daunting in terms of resources as universities confront limited and even reduced resources. However, there are several ways that advocacy instruction and practice can be infused throughout existing curricula.

Theory and Research Point to Critical Pedagogy

Critical pedagogy has often served as the theoretical grounding for multicultural education, which is increasingly recognized as synergic with social justice advocacy (Ratts & Pedersen, 2014). Lather (1998) described critical pedagogy as a "big tent" for all educational perspectives that have social justice as a goal (p. 498). Strategies grounded in critical pedagogy offer an intuitive fit for raising awareness of culture and the related societal dynamics of privilege and oppression among counselor trainees given the roots of the theory in civil and human rights movements (Brubaker et al., 2010; Enns & Forrest, 2005; Steele, 2008).

The essential feature of critical pedagogy is that it seeks to raise social consciousness and promote social action. Central to this process is the development of self-awareness relative to

one's social position and societal dynamics of privilege and oppression through dialogue and reflection (Chang & Gnilka, 2010; Freire, 1970). Evidence suggests that counselors in training should be guided to explore their cultural identities and related experiences of privilege and oppression to practice effectively (Enns & Forrest, 2005; Hays, Chang, & Dean, 2007; Manis, 2008).

The development of this social consciousness, or critical consciousness, is viewed as a process (Glossoff & Durham, 2010; Sleeter, Torres & Laughlin, 2004). In order to support students throughout this process, a developmental approach in which the educator facilitates activities to promote awareness and knowledge, then experience is recommended to empower students to become independent in their advocacy efforts (Bemak, Chung, Talleyrand, Jones, & Daquin, 2011; Marbley, Steele, & McAuliffe, 2011; Murray, Pope, & Rowell, 2010). Faculty competence, modeling, and provision of support are essential to the process as students develop greater social consciousness and begin to practice advocacy skills (Brubaker et al., 2010; Decker, 2013; Glossoff & Durham, 2010; Sleeter, Torres & Laughlin, 2004).

The principles of critical pedagogy are congruent with the objectives of professional counseling and counselor education programs and provide a theoretical grounding for infusing advocacy education into already existing curricula. The continuum of development beginning with increased self-awareness and leading to social consciousness and social action theorized by Freire (1970) is consistent with a constructivist-developmental approach to counselor education (McAuliffe & Eriksen, 2011). Critical pedagogy posits that individuals develop social consciousness, and ultimately engage as social change agents through gaining self-awareness, as well as awareness of others through reflection and dialogue with others (Enns & Forrest, 2005). Quasi-experimental research with master's level counselor education students employing a brief,

workshop intervention grounded in critical pedagogy resulted in student recognition of the synergy between cultural competence and social justice advocacy, or in Freirian terms, catalyzation of critical consciousness (Manis, 2008).

Critical pedagogy also emphasizes praxis or social justice advocacy in a manner that is congruent with the needs and culture of marginalized populations (Brubaker et al., 2010; Freire, 1970). Supervised practice in graduated steps of fieldwork offers ample opportunity for application and evaluation of advocacy skills and outcomes (Bemak et al., 2011; Murray et al., 2010; Rasheed Ali et al., 2008). Strategies and recommendations for infusing advocacy instruction and practice throughout the counselor education curriculum grounded within a critical pedagogical approach are presented below, beginning with the simple idea, supported by evidence that merely bringing a focus to advocacy can be a significant step (Paylo, 2007).

Infusing Advocacy into Counselor Education Programs

Many counselor education programs have already adopted an infusion approach to promoting multicultural competence (Dinsmore & England, 1996). Extending this infusion approach to include more explicit attention to how counselors may be alert to and assess for advocacy needs, integrate advocacy theories into their practice, and develop advocacy skills is needed. Infusion of advocacy in the counselor education curriculum should begin with students' orientation to the profession, permeate their coursework, and continue through supervised fieldwork.

Critical Strategies and Activities

There are several activities that can be incorporated across the didactic curriculum which are consistent with critical theory, and hold the potential to support the development of critical

consciousness, as well as ethical and effective practice as advocates. Some are documented in the literature, and others are born from the authors' collective experience as faculty.

Address roles and mandates early and often. It is imperative to introduce students to the role of advocacy within the profession as a whole, and as it pertains to their counseling specialization (Hof, Dinsmore, Barber, Suhr, & Scofield, 2009; Miller et al., 2009; Paylo, 2007; Rasheed Ali et al., 2008). It is essential to their professional identity development that students recognize how the history of the profession is intertwined with social justice advocacy and counseling's focus on promoting optimal human development and wellness (King, 2012). In addition, students must develop an understanding of the development of the profession and how advocacy for the counseling profession is intertwined with advocacy for its clientele (Chang et al., 2012). Furthermore, introduction to the ethical codes and best practices guiding the profession should be made immediately, and attended to in depth through coursework on professional ethics.

Foster multicultural awareness, knowledge and skill. Infusing attention to biopsychosocial considerations in addition to cultural awareness and skills into every aspect of counseling represents a critical step in counselor training that has been achieved by many programs. Yet according to Cates et al. (2007), and in our experience, similar attention to awareness and knowledge related to counselors' roles as leaders and advocates and competent advocacy practice is lacking. Similar to the infusion of cultural considerations across the curricula, attention may also be brought to advocacy considerations.

Courses that address multicultural competence may be most adaptable, thereby filling an existing gap in attention to culturally competent counseling skills. Including attention to identification of advocacy needs, advocacy strategies and challenges to advocacy in existing

assignments like case analyses focused on application of MCT (Multicultural Counseling Therapy), class discussions, and personal reflections on becoming a counselor is easily accomplished and provides students with a more complete exercise for developing ethical practice. In this vein, it is also recommended that careful consideration to course names be considered to include attention to counselors' role in advocacy. For example, rather than referring to a course as "counseling diverse populations" consider "counseling and advocacy with diverse populations" which reflects the synergistic relationship between cultural competence and social justice advocacy.

Include social change and advocacy theories. While there is an opportunity to address MCT (Sue & Sue, 2008) within a multicultural counseling course, and as a meta-theoretical approach to counseling, it is important that additional attention is given to social change and advocacy theories. Just as exploration and application of counseling theory touches on many aspects of a counseling curriculum, so should attention to social change and advocacy theories. It may be most important to introduce MCT along with empowerment and community engagement theories in the context of the theories course rather than exclusively in a counseling and advocacy with diverse populations course. This situates MCT as central to a professional counseling identity that promotes client wellness through a social and cultural perspective. Reflection and dialogue about theoretical grounding related to advocacy needs assessment and intervention should also be encouraged in the context of skills practice and fieldwork.

Incorporate reflective exercises. It is agreed that reflection of experience promotes self-awareness and the processing of learning opportunities (Tobin, Willow, Bastow, & Ratkowski, (2009). These can be short papers or even audio or video recordings in which students share their thoughts, feelings, ideas, and concerns as they process this new learning and

experience. Recent evidence suggests unique benefits to the use of audio-visual reflection exercises, yet does not specifically address reflection on advocacy development (Parikh, Janson, & Singleton, 2012). One way to do this is to have students write their autobiography and then discuss the concepts of oppression, privilege, and power. Counselor educators can then ask students to rewrite their autobiography addressing these new variables (e.g., oppression, privilege) and ask students to compare and contrast the two autobiographies. Students could also write a biography for someone from a different culture or interview and spend time (e.g., 4 hours) with someone of a different culture, religion, ethnicity, sexual orientation or social economic status. Students could also read an autobiography of someone from a different culture and write a paper comparing and contrasting the experience of the subject to their own experiences.

Draw on modern media. To raise awareness of social injustice students could find stories or articles in the media that demonstrate oppression and share these stories as well as reflect on them in their own reflection papers. This activity can be extended using the Liberation Model proposed by Steele (2008). Within this model, students build on their basic knowledge of social issues within the classroom through research and collaboration using current professional counseling literature to identify themes related to societal issues. In groups, students identify a problem, research it beyond the counseling literature to look for broader views of the issues, and work together to develop and propose a plan that addresses the identified problem. This model encourages students to not only to look beyond the field of counseling, but also to think in broader terms about what is necessary to implement change on a societal level (Steele, 2008).

Invite guest lecturers. To increase students' awareness of situations and resources within their community, guest lecturers can be invited into the classroom. The intention is to

have the individual discuss a need or an injustice within the community (e.g., SES issues, gay rights issues, access to care issues) that can be brought into the students' awareness. Students can then reflect through writing. This may include their own initial reaction to the information, their reactions after thinking about and researching the issue/situation, and their plan for what to do with this new knowledge as well as what can be done to aid or advocate for this issue/population. Guest speakers, case vignettes, and videos have been identified as positive learning experiences that increase knowledge of privilege and oppression (Hays, Dean, & Chang, 2007). Volunteering can also be an additional expectation or component of this idea, but will be more thoroughly discussed in the fieldwork section.

Assign real life advocacy work. An activity that encourages students to challenge systems of oppression and social injustice is to write letters to members of local, state, and national government on an issue that motivates them to take social action. Many counselors do not advocate beyond the client level because they do not feel prepared for this type of advocacy (Gehart & Lucas, 2007; Roysircar, 2009; Steele, 2008). By providing this preparation within the counselor education program, students will learn the skills necessary to locate the information and resources to advocate for an issue at the societal level while also gaining increased knowledge of public policy and the political system (Murray et al., 2010). This activity can be used early in the program to introduce students to advocacy at this level and used again when students are more advanced in their program and have found issues they feel passionate to change. Additionally, instructors can have students attend state legislative days either as a part of a classroom assignment or as an extra-credit opportunity.

Another option for incorporating advocacy experiences is to allow students to present on a topic that addresses a need within their community (e.g., homelessness, poverty). This

presentation should highlight the oppression, privilege, and power connected with that issue and resources that are lacking and/or obstacles that are hindering this population. Additionally, this presentation could be taped and edited into a three to five minute video, which could then be sent to people with power or stakeholders within that community (e.g., legislators, superintendents, committee members).

Incorporate case studies. Case studies and films that highlight issues of oppression can be used within the classroom to help students identify systems of oppression and privilege and develop advocacy skills (Lopez-Baez & Paylo, 2009). In using a case study, students can identify themes of oppression and privilege. The educator should encourage the student to brainstorm and theorize how they would advocate for the client(s) at the individual, community, and societal level. These learned skills can then be further refined when conceptualizing cases while in fieldwork courses.

Incorporate experiential learning. The inclusion of a carefully planned experiential learning component as part of a counselor preparation program leads to a higher degree of comfort and increased commitment to social justice advocacy (Bemak et al., 2011; Murray et al., 2010; Rasheed Ali et al., 2008). Experiential learning activities provide students with the opportunity to apply the material they are learning to real world situations. Benefits of this educational tool include increased advocacy competence, self-efficacy, and self-awareness. Also, students who have participated in experiential learning experiences report increased awareness about oppressive systems, barriers to change, and practical advocacy strategies (Bemak et al., 2011; Murray et al., 2010; Rasheed Ali et al., 2008). Ethical consideration must be given regarding the potential benefits to clients and communities, as well as to advocacy training practices.

There are different models for incorporating experiential learning in counselor preparation programs. Murray et al. (2010) described service-learning projects that are attached to specific courses within the counselor education program. In this model, students are exposed to various experiences at specific developmental levels throughout their program. Rasheed Ali et al. (2008) provided a model for incorporating a service-learning project into a career interventions course. The course builds a three-week service project into the context of the course giving students the opportunity to learn about theory and then apply the learning in real world situations. Jett and Delgado-Romero (2009) offered an approach to counselor preparation that utilizes pre-practicum service learning (PPSL). A PPSL requires students to do outreach and provide a service within the community to meet the needs of the individuals within that community. When requiring a service learning component it is important that the activities are appropriate to the developmental level of the trainee, provide clear objectives and instructions, and offer a balance between the academic requirements and the service component (Murray et al., 2010; Rasheed Ali et al., 2008).

Incorporate volunteering. Goodman, Liang, Helms, Latta, Sparks, and Weintraub (2004) provided a model for incorporating advocacy instruction into counseling programs. Based on the principles of feminist and multicultural counseling theories, they implemented a program at Boston College that integrated social justice work into the doctoral program in counseling psychology that could be easily adapted for students in a Master's level counselor education program. As part of the requirements, students must spend six hours each week working in a variety of community sites engaged in professional development, prevention, collaboration, and advocacy. The authors found that many students continued their volunteer work beyond the requirement and noted that the students gained experiences with advocacy,

which helped to promote both competency and feelings of self-efficacy. In alignment with Decker's (2013) more recent findings, Goodman et al. hypothesized that this would promote ongoing engagement in advocacy efforts upon their entry to the field.

Fieldwork Supervision

In order to support supervisors in their efforts to provide supervisees with a strong foundation for social justice and advocacy, Glosoff and Durham (2010) offered specific strategies that can be used in supervision. They suggested that supervisors use Bloom's taxonomy to assess what level supervisees are at in discussions of social justice issues and structure discussions to meet supervisees at this level and assist them to move to higher or lower levels as appropriate. Additionally, these authors indicated supervisors must be deliberate and consistent in initiating discussions of power and privilege. Often supervision focuses on case review, and it can be easy to miss these discussions if they have not been scheduled into the supervision sessions. Finally, supervisors should provide opportunities for supervisees to reflect on practices in order to identify systems of power, privilege and oppression encountered by their clients. Reflective practices may include case review and conceptualization that encourages supervisees to identify systems of oppression and develop advocacy strategies and action plans (Glosoff & Durham, 2010; Hays, Dean & Chang, 2007).

One additional consideration for counselor education programs is to evaluate the type of supervision being provided by their internship site supervisors. Counselor education programs should consider providing professional development opportunities for internship site supervisors on the rationale, behaviors, skills, and knowledge for advocating for clients on the individual, community, and societal level. Providing this type of training, along with the university supervisor practicing social justice sensitive supervision, would provide counselors in training

with a consistent and uniformed approach to the implementation of advocacy and social justice counseling.

Continuing Education for Faculty

These strategies and recommendations place responsibility for advocacy instruction as well as supervision of advocacy work on counselor educators, therefore relying on them to be knowledgeable, competent, and committed to social justice advocacy practices. However, Ratts and Wood (2011) indicated that a factor contributing to counselor education programs not providing social justice advocacy training is that there is a lack of training among the faculty. Decker (2013) found that only slightly more than half of the counselor educators who participated in a study of social justice advocacy in counselor education programs reported having any master's or post-master's training in social justice advocacy. It cannot be assumed that all counselor educators are knowledgeable, competent, and committed to social justice advocacy practices.

As professional mandates have come about in the last 10 years, some counselor educators and supervisors may not have had this training as part of their doctoral studies and may not feel prepared to do this type of advocacy training without continuing education and professional development. This will be another area that counselor education programs will need to address as they move forward with infusing social justice advocacy instruction and supervision into their programs.

Conclusion

As the counseling profession calls all counselors to act as social justice advocates, it is imperative that they are prepared to meet this role without hesitation or reservation. This places the burden of responsibility on counselor education programs. Therefore, counselor education

programs must infuse advocacy and social justice instruction throughout their curricula (i.e., didactic courses, fieldwork, professional development). For a program to meet this challenge, bringing all faculty members within a department into this charge is important to assuring consistency and continuity (Bemak et al, 2011; Lewis, Lenski, Mukhopadhyay & Cartwright, 2010). Although this is a significant undertaking that will require leadership and commitment, it is necessary and warranted if our desire as a field is to align with our historic roots, embrace our distinct orientation toward growth, development and wellness, and prepare future counselors across the counseling specializations to be social justice advocates.

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Counselor Educator Perceptions: College and Career Readiness of African-American Males

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This paper presents the findings of a pilot quantitative study, investigating counselor educators' perceptions of the importance of pre-service school counselor training in college and career readiness of African American males, and the ability to train pre-service counselors to facilitate the college and career readiness of African-American males. A significant difference was detected between groups in terms of their perceived ability to prepare school counselors who could implement college and career readiness programs for African American males.

Keywords: African-American, males, counselor, college, career

In the age of innovation and technology, it is critical that interventions to prepare students for college and career are purposeful and deliberate. To that end, the college and career readiness process is a K-16 process. Conley (2007) defines college readiness as the level of preparation and skills necessary to qualify for and succeed in entry-level, credit-bearing college courses at a postsecondary institution without the need for remedial coursework. School counselors can be incredibly helpful with postsecondary planning, as they engage students in thinking about and planning for their future (Savitz-Romer, 2012).

School counselors are being appropriately called upon through national initiatives to engage the college readiness process of all students more purposefully and intentionally (The White House, 2014). As critical as school counselors are to facilitating the college and career readiness of students (Harris, Myers, Appel, Han, Warren, Ware, Talmage, & Addison, 2013), the revealed dissatisfaction of school counselors with their graduate training (Savitz-Romer, 2012) in this regard is cause for concern. Post-secondary education is seen as a pathway to increased economic opportunities (e.g., higher salaries), benefits (e.g., healthcare and vacation

time), and career mobility (Oreopoulos & Salvanes, 2011). It is important, then, for school counselors, teachers, and administrators to create a college-going paradigm and culture within their school, and especially for African American males.

One reason for specific attention to be given to African American males is that fifty-two percent of African American males graduate from high school in four years compared to 78% of their White counterparts (Holzman, Beaudry, & Jackson, 2012). Further, only 46% of African American males enrolled as a full time undergraduate student while 51% of White males enrolled as full time during the 2007-2008 academic year (Ross et al., 2012). For counselor educators, it is imperative that college and career readiness counseling of African American males be infused into the training for pre-service school counselors. This study aims to explore differences across race for counselor educators' perceptions regarding the importance of, and efficacy in, the training of pre-service school counselors to facilitate the college and career readiness of African American males.

College and Career Readiness

Policy initiatives require that college and career readiness efforts be implemented in schools across the country (U.S. Department of Education, 2010ab). In 2014, President Obama and First Lady Obama issued a call to expand opportunity for students to enroll and succeed in college, particularly underrepresented populations (The White House, 2014). A series of convenings were sponsored in 2014, in partnership with the White House, all of which galvanized efforts to create and implement action plans to support the overall mission of increasing college and career readiness (The White House, 2014). First Lady Obama's Reach Higher initiative, specifically, partnered with the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) to support school counselors in their efforts to expose students to college and career

opportunities, help them understand the financial aid process, and encourage academic planning (ASCA, n.d.). The first and second author participated in the White House Convening in San Diego in November 2014, and assisted their respective state teams in forging partnerships and creating action plans.

College and career readiness can be defined as: "...a high school graduate having the English and math knowledge and skills needed to qualify for and succeed in the postsecondary job training and/or education necessary for their chosen career (i.e. community college, university, technical/vocational program, apprenticeship, or significant on-the-job training) (Achieve, 2014, para 1). Conley (2007) defines college readiness as the level of preparation and skills necessary to qualify for and succeed in entry-level, credit-bearing college courses at a postsecondary institution without the need for remedial coursework., Twenty-five percent of public high school students graduate on time, and of those who do, one-third must enroll in remedial courses upon entering college (Bruce and Bridgeland, 2012). While specific content knowledge is important for college and career readiness, cognitive strategies such as interpretation, problem solving, and reasoning have been consistently identified as being even more important than specific content knowledge (Conley, 2007). According to Conley (2007), large differences often exist between the amount and type of reading and writing required in high school versus college classes as well as the analytic and thinking skills required.

In addition to subject-focused content knowledge and cognitive strategies, non-academic skills and behaviors including self-awareness, self-monitoring, and self-control are necessary for academic success (Conley, 2010; Farrington, Roderick, Allensworth, Nagaoka, Keyes, Johnson, & Beechum). Also, mastery of skills such as study and organizational skills are critical for college success, including mastery of key material and successful completion of academic tasks

(Conley, 2007). Study skill behaviors incorporate necessary skills such as time management, exam preparation, seeking and using resources, taking notes, and communicating with teachers. Furthermore, the ability to work with others, coordinate and recognize the importance of study groups, and successfully participate in study groups is a study skill behavior that may contribute to college success. Many of these academic behaviors also allow students to prioritize study time in relation to work or social activities. Strong interpersonal skills and social skills also enable students to interact with a diverse group of professors and peers, thus enhancing success in college (Martinez & Klopott, 2005).

Students also need to have an understanding of the complex college admission and selection process, the academic requirements for college work, the options available to them, how to pay for postsecondary education, and the cultural differences that exist between high school and postsecondary education (Bradshaw, Waasdorp, Debnam, & Johnson, 2014; Conley, 2010; Hooker & Brand, 2010; Savitz-Romer). Although many students aspire to attend a four-year college and understand the opportunities an advanced degree will allow, they have little understanding of the academic and social preparation necessary to actually enter a four-year college and to be successful in such a setting. Many students also do not receive counseling on the range of postsecondary options or are given limited guidance on how their individual academic plan matches their postsecondary aspirations (Hooker & Brand, 2010).

African American Males

African American males, in particular, are at risk of not receiving equitable educational and career opportunities. Statistics related to academic achievement, graduation rate, incarceration, college matriculation and career achievement of African American males are indicative of a serious issue with the education and preparation of these students (Wyatt, 2009).

African American males have historically been an underserved population within education. Per Jenkins (2006), 57% of African American males were unable to read in 1900, and in 2001 44% remained illiterate, according to data taken from the U.S. Census. Consequently, African American males lag behind their counterparts in academic achievement (Baker, 2005; Noguera, 2003). Further, the gap between African American males and females with regard to college enrollment, is the largest of all racial groups, with African American males significantly lagging (Bryan, Holcomb-McCoy, Moore-Thomas, & Day-Vines, 2009). The disengagement of African American males from education often occurs by the time they are in 4th grade (Noguera, 2003). This should be disconcerting for all who work with this population. Jenkins (2006) posits that African American males are disproportionately represented among those students who are forced to withdraw, have low academic performance, and, for those who persist to college, report negative college experiences. All such data lends further credence to concerns about an educational crisis affecting African American males (Hendrie, 1998), and the need for targeted intervention with regard to the college and career readiness of this group.

Given the increased attention to the importance of a college degree and the persistent lagging of underrepresented groups in degree attainment, there is particular concern about the training available for school counselors to effectively serve historically marginalized groups. African-American males, in particular, are increasingly alienated from their schools, inappropriately assigned to special education classes, are dropping out of schools at a high rate, are illiterate, and ultimately, are not career and college ready (Moore, Henfield, & Owens, 2008).

School Counselor Training Programs

School counselors are being called upon through national initiatives to engage the college readiness process of all students more purposefully and intentionally (The White House, 2014).

Given the national conversations about increasing the percentage of students across all subgroups that will be prepared for postsecondary education and employment (Martinez & Klopott, 2005), it seems appropriate that educators-in-training be trained to facilitate this development in K-12 students. Policy recommendations based on a national study of school counselors included providing counselors, teachers, and administrators with pre-service and in-service training on aligning counselors' work with students' college and career readiness (Bruce & Bridgeland, 2012). School counselor training programs, in particular, would be an ideal space within which such dialogue and training would occur, given the significant role that school counselors play in the college and career readiness of all students (ASCA, 2012).

Counselor preparation programs have an enormous amount of content to cover with too little time to do so. School counselors, in particular, are often left to learn about how schools work when they matriculate to their first job. School counselor participants in a study conducted by Savitz-Romer (2012) described their graduate training programs as having emphasized clinical counseling, for which they were grateful, but which left very little time to focus on topics germane to public education, such as college and career readiness.

The Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP, 2009) plays a significant role, as its requisite standards for the accrediting of programs calls for graduate course content that will enable students to facilitate the social/emotional, academic, and career needs of students. The recently released 2016 CACREP standards (2015) contain even more specific language about supporting the college and career readiness of students. Further, advocacy efforts from entities such as College Board's National Office for School Counselor Advocacy (NOSCA, 2010) and the American School Counselor

Association (ASCA, 2014; 2012) have also prompted that more attention to be given to how pre-service school counselors are being trained in facilitating college and career readiness as well .

According to Savitz-Romer (2012), it is very rare for postsecondary education to be included in career development courses, and much of the vocational theory appears removed from facilitating the college and career readiness of underrepresented K-12 students, in particular. To that end, evidence-based counseling practices with African-American males seem sparse (Harper, Terry, and Twiggs, 2009). The traditional theories discussed in counselor education programs, though noteworthy, were normed mostly on White populations. As such, they don't always translate to effective application with African-American males. According to Harper et al (2009), approaches that give attention to the systemic oppression that African American males endure are especially important. NOSCA, for example, (2010) provides a framework, comprised of eight components of college and career readiness counseling, through which attention to specific cultural and ethnic experiences can be given. They are: 1) College Aspirations; 2) Academic Planning for College and Career Readiness; 3) Enrichment and Extracurricular Engagement; 4) College and Career Exploration and Selection Processes; 5) College and Career Assessments, 6) College Affordability Planning; 7) College and Career Admission Processes; and 8) Transition from High School Graduation to College Enrollment (NOSCA, 2012). However, regardless of the framework through which services are delivered to promote college and career readiness, it is important that school counselors be trained to understand the marginalized lived experience of African American males, and to carefully analyze the cultural, social, and political barriers they face (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007).

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was two-fold: 1) To explore differences across race of counselor educators' perceptions of the importance of pre-service school counselors being trained in college and career readiness for African American males, and 2) To explore differences across race of counselor educators' perceived ability to train pre-service school counselors to facilitate the college and career readiness of African-American males. Specifically, the research questions guiding this study were as follows:

Research Question 1: What is the relationship between counselor educators' race and their belief in the importance of pre-service school counselors being trained in promoting the college and career readiness of African-American males?

Research Question 2: What is the relationship between counselor educators' race and their perceived ability to train pre-service school counselors to promote the college and career readiness of African-American males?

Method

Procedure

Prior to pursuing this study, approval was granted from the University institutional review board. Upon approval, various counselor educator listservs were accessed and utilized to survey participants. Specifically, the following listservs were used: Counselor Education and Supervision, also known as CESNET (over 2,500 subscribed counselor educators), AMCD (Association for Multicultural Counseling and Development), and Diversecounselor (Counselor educators of color). Multiple emails were sent to each listserv to secure participants. Ten questions, devised by the authors and piloted with a focus group of three counselor educators, were administered via Survey Monkey to facilitate the surveying of participants: demographic

questions, as well as questions regarding the beliefs of counselor educators in the importance of college and career readiness for African-American males, and the perceived ability of counselor educators to train pre-service counselors to facilitate such college and career readiness for African-American males (see Appendix).

Participants

After multiple emails sent to various listservs that contained broad swaths of counselor educators across the country, a total of 47 responses were received for this study. Once these responses were screened for gender, 15 responses from male counselor educators were excluded from the analysis, given their lack of significance in initial statistical tests. The participants in this study consisted of 32 female counselor educators (see Table 1): 22 (68.8%) self identified as White and 10 (31.3%) self identified as a person of color. Participants reported a wide age distribution: one participant (3.1%) was between 21 - 29 years of age, nine participants (28.1%) were between 30 - 39 years of age, 11 participants (34.4%) were between 40 - 49 years of age, seven participants (21.9%) were between 50 - 59 years of age, and four (12.5%) reported being 60 years of age or older. In terms of years of experience as a counselor educator, 16 participants (50.0%) reported between 1 - 5 years of experience, five participants (15.6%) had 6 - 10 years of experience, eight participants (25.0%) had 11 - 15 years of experience, two participants (6.3%) had 16 - 20 years of experience, and one participant (3.1%) had 20 or more years of experience.

Table 1

Demographics for counselor educator sample

| Variable | Number N = 32 | Percent 100 |
|-------------------------------------|------------------|----------------|
| Gender | | |
| Female | 32 | 100 |
| Race | | |
| White | 22 | 68.8% |
| Person of Color | 10 | 31.3% |
| Age | | |
| 21-29 | 1 | 3.1% |
| 30-39 | 9 | 28.1% |
| 40-49 | 11 | 34.4 % |
| 50-59 | 7 | 21.9% |
| 60 and older | 4 | 12.5% |
| Experience as Counselor Educator | | |
| 1 - 5 years | 16 | 50% |
| 6-10 years | 5 | 15.6% |
| 11-15 years | 8 | 25% |
| 16-20 years | 2 | 6.3 % |
| 20 or more years | 1 | 3.1% |

Data Analysis & Results

Prior to conducting any data analysis all assumptions associated with *t* - tests were examined. Normality was established by examining the skewness and kurtosis of the dependent variables (Lomax, 2007). Skewness statistics were -1.12 for beliefs in the importance of college and career readiness and -0.08 for ability to train for college and career readiness--both well within the accepted range of normality (Lomax, 2007). Kurtosis statistics were 0.33 for beliefs in the importance of college and career readiness and -0.74 for ability to train for college and career readiness--also within the accepted range of normality (Lomax, 2007). Equality of variance was established by non-significant Levene tests for importance of college and career readiness ($F = 2.80, p = .11$) and ability to train for college and career readiness ($F = 0.30, p = .59$). Since all assumptions were met, data analysis proceeded as planned.

This study sought to examine if differences existed between counselor educators across race in their (a) beliefs of the importance of college and career readiness for African American males and (b) ability to train school counselors who can implement college and career readiness programs for African American males. To evaluate these questions two *t* - tests were conducted. No difference was detected between the groups in terms of beliefs of the importance of college and career readiness of African American students $t(30) = -0.84, p = .41, 95\% \text{ CI } [-0.68, 0.28]$. As such, both groups felt it was equally important to provide African American males with college and career readiness information. A significant difference was detected between the groups in terms of their ability to prepare school counselors who could implement college and career readiness programs for African American males $t(30) = -2.05, p = .04, 95\% \text{ CI } [-1.31, -0.01]$. In this study, female counselor educators of color ($M = 3.20, SD = 0.79$) felt more confident in their ability to train school counselors to implement college and career readiness programs for African American males than did White female counselor educators ($M = 2.55, SD = 0.86$).

Discussion and Implications

There has been much discussion about importance of college and career readiness of students in our increasingly global society. The challenges between and within groups are unique, and awareness of such, along with targeted efforts is critical. Statistics related to academic achievement, graduation rate, incarceration, college matriculation and career achievement of African American males are indicative of a serious issue with the education and preparation of these students (Wyatt, 2009).

The finding, then, that the counselor educators in the study valued such training for pre-service school counselors should be encouraging, because it hopefully points to an

acknowledgement of the challenges that exist in this regard and the need for more attention to be given it. The disparity of confidence between female counselor educators of color and White female counselor educators is certainly worth further exploration, as it could potentially highlight the need for more empowerment of White counselor educators to implement such training in their classes and programs. Given that high self-efficacy correlates with successful accomplishment of a task, for example, one possible implication from the study's findings is that pre-service school counselors may not be trained well in the area of college and career readiness for African-American males. This would be critical to explore further, as counselor educator programs could be significantly improved by making any appropriate adjustments in the training of doctoral students who will train pre-service school counselors upon their entry to academia.

A focus on the increased empowerment of African American males is critical. Turner and Ziebell (2011) posit that students believe their success is not related to their efforts in school. This implies that there are other factors beyond their control that inhibit their success academically as well as career development. This feeling of powerlessness is fairly common in minority groups due to overt and covert forms of oppression that still exist despite the efforts to expunge them. The literature often focuses on negative stereotypes, which disproportionately affect African American males and the lack of culturally competent supports for these students. (Holcomb-McCoy, 2007). While it is important to have an awareness of an individual's lack of resources, it is just as important to address the strengths of an individual and how he can use those strengths to overcome obstacles.

“Empowerment can be defined as a process of increasing personal, interpersonal, or political power so that individuals, families, and communities can take action to improve their situations” (Holcomb-McCoy, 2007, p. 40). Empowerment theory, which has roots in early

feminist theory, is often used when counseling minorities or other populations who may face oppression from society (Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007). The driving force behind this theory is to facilitate the empowerment of the client, which Gutierrez (1995) defines as “the process of increasing personal, interpersonal, or political power so that individuals, families and communities can take action to improve their situations” (p. 229). The three types of power listed by Gutierrez (1995) represent control of oneself, equity in relationships with others, and the power to make systemic change. One of the most distinguishing features of this theory is the counseling relationship, which is viewed as a partnership, thus, giving the client more control by eliminating power differentials.

Through their data-driven comprehensive programming, school counselors are key to ensuring that the empowerment of these students are the priority instead of the deficits that are correlated with them being there.

The National Association for College Admission Counseling (NACAC, 2014) has published a text, *Fundamentals of College Admission Counseling*, that can easily be incorporated into counselor education curricula to help facilitate this portion of pre-service school counselor training . Such a resource should be discussed at some point during the doctoral process, along with how to facilitate such information to master’s level students who will work with diverse K-12 students. The American School Counseling Association National Model (ASCA, 2012) is another resource and framework that can guide the training of future counselor educators in this regard. Further, ASCA’s recently released mindset and behavior standards (ASCA, 2014), which focus on college career readiness, provide targets for the training of pre-service school counselors.

Limitations and Directions for Future Research

This study was limited to a small sample of only female counselor educators. Further, only listservs were utilized for purposive and snowball sampling. However, the results are still worth considering and pursuing further, given the critical nature of the college and career readiness of African American males and the lack of training that exists in school counselor training programs in this regard. Future research should endeavor to include a larger number of counselor educators, in general, and more male counselor educators, in particular. Future research should explore the differences across gender, in addition to race. Further, studies should explore the differences between CACREP accredited programs, and those not accredited. Added to such comparisons should also be those programs who explicitly tie their programmatic efforts to frameworks such as those espoused by the National Office for School Counselor Advocacy (NOSCA) and the American School Counselor Association (ASCA). Future research should also include doctoral programs who already implement practices that yield positive results related to the confidence of counselor educators to facilitate college and career readiness training of pre-service school counselors.

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Appendix

Survey Questions

1. Informed Consent
2. What is your gender?
3. Which category includes your age?
4. How many years have you been a counselor educator?
5. Please describe your race/ethnicity.
6. In what settings do your students typically work upon graduation?
7. Of the courses you teach, which ones (if any) do you incorporate college and career readiness training?
8. How important do you believe it is for pre-service to be trained in college and career readiness of African-American males?
9. How confident are you in your ability to facilitate the training of pre-service school counselors in college and career readiness counseling of African American males?
10. Additional comments?

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Grant Writing for the Counseling Professional

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This article provides an overview of grant writing for the counseling professional. The information presented is a combination of several sources including recent literature; current government regulations, policies and submission guidelines; information from foundations and non-profit funding agencies; and the author's own ten years in grants administration. The aim of this article is to provide counselors and counselor educators new to grant writing a better understanding of the typical processes and procedures in proposal preparation. Concepts discussed include identifying a strong need, working with a team, finding the right funder and the fundamentals of writing a successful proposal.

Keywords: grant writing, proposal development, external funding, research

There is an ongoing movement in the counseling discipline to produce more empirical evidence for counselors and counselor educators (Kline, 2003; Borders, Boul & Horton, 2013). At the same time, counselors are directly working with clients that may lack resources and need ongoing support (Kaplan, Tarvydas, & Gladding, 2014). Producing quality research and implementing effective programs requires logistical and financial resources. Grant funding can provide the time and capital needed to support research and programmatic activities. Many counselors and counselor educators must find external funding through government, foundations, or corporate sources in order advance their initiatives (Daniel, West, Daniel & Flowers, 2006), yet they may not have been trained nor have any experience in pursuing grant funding (Lambie & Vaccaro, 2011; Villalba & Young, 2012). With an understanding of the grant writing process, thoughtful planning, and persistence, receiving grant funding is attainable.

The American Counseling Association (ACA) Code of Ethics (2014) states the importance of a thorough understanding of use of research in evidence-based practice and an understanding of proper methodology and principles. Yet only the standards for doctoral study

indicate that the student “demonstrates the ability to write grant proposals appropriate for research, program enhancement, and/or program development” (p. 56). While there is discussion in the counseling profession on the quality of research (Wester & Borders, 2014; Wester, Borders, Boul, Horton, 2013), including a recent dedication of an edition of the *Journal of Counseling & Development* (summer 2011) to preparing and publishing research, there is little in the counseling literature that discusses grant writing and external funding. Therefore, the purpose of this article is to provide an overview of the grant writing process with the aim of encouraging and demystifying the process for counselors and counselor educators. The information provided is garnered from the author’s ten years of experience in university grants administration which successfully secured over \$15 million dollars in federal, state and foundation grants, combined with recent literature, government and non-profit policies and submission guidelines.

Counselors and External Funding

There is a push in the discipline to further develop and enhance counselors’ research identity through education and research opportunities (Heppner, Wampold & Kivlighan, 2007; Kaplan et al., 2014; Reissetter et al., 2004). Whether qualitative, quantitative or mixed methods, the need for empirically-based research is critical for continued momentum in the counseling profession. A recent review (Ray et al., 2011) of over 4,000 articles published in ACA journals found only 31% of the articles to be research-oriented, with the remaining based on theory and practice. This is especially true for practical applications as only 6% of all articles focus on effective counseling interventions (Ray et al., 2011). Since research is the foundation of understanding the human condition and the knowledge that drives work and practice, there is need in the counseling profession to produce more empirically tested research (Elliot & Swerchuk, 1999; Reissetter et al., 2004; Villalba & Young, 2012).

Counselor Educators and External Research

In most institutions, counselor educators must engage in teaching, service, and scholarship, which include the publication of scholarly works (Davis, Levitt, Glothlin, & Hill, 2006). Many within the discipline argue the need for counselors and counselor educators to expand their researcher identity (Heppner et al., 2007; Reissetter et al., 2004; Wester & Borders, 2014) in order to produce more evidence-based work as well as to propel the discipline. Having the time and monetary resources are important consideration for counselors/counselor educators who wish to conduct research. Grant funding can provide not only the funding but also allow accommodations for the time needed to conduct research (such as in course release buy-out and summer salary to focus summer activities on research endeavors).

Practicing Counselors and Grant Funding

Since counselors frequently work on important and needed programs which are often under-funded (Kettner, Moroney & Martin, 2013), finding funding from external sources can be critical to the development, success and sustainability of a project. In the author's own experience working with counselors at non-profit agencies, many state that they did not expect to be writing grants when they were initially planning their careers or in their counseling masters programs. Some find, however, that grant writing becomes a part of their job responsibilities and an acquired and necessary skill. Grant funding can often provide the ongoing sustainability of needed programs and projects (Posavac, 2011).

Proposal Development and Grant Writing

While the idea of grant writing may seem overwhelming, it is actually quite achievable with some planning and direction. The key is to find funding opportunities that best match a research or program interest and then take the time to write and submit a quality proposal (Lusk,

2004). This manuscript outlines three critical steps to the grant writing process: (1) identifying and describing a compelling need, (2) identifying the appropriate funder and (3) developing the key components of the grant proposal. With this information, new grant-seekers can begin the process of writing and submitting grant proposals.

Identifying and Describing a Need

Experience combined with a thorough review of the literature reveals the gaps in services, treatment, or research. Grant funding is awarded to organizations, researchers, or agencies seeking to address the gaps and provide potential solutions to societal problems or scientific questions (Posavac, 2011). A school counseling professional, for example, may notice that her/his students often leave school and have no supervision nor productive after school activities. As a result, they often get into trouble. She/he may have a unique idea on how to approach and transform the problem that is based on her knowledge of the subject, current research and her understanding of the unique needs of her community. Her/his idea requires start-up funds, however. So how does she/he then take her/his idea and produce a fundable proposal? First, she/he must have a compelling statement of need that is well researched, thorough and compelling. For example, she/he could state: *the purpose of this project is to provide an afterschool mentoring program for 9-10th graders at Regional High School*. While this does summarize the overall purpose of the project, it does not provide any real perspective of need or potential impact. Or she/he could provide a stronger statement of need and purpose:

Regional High School is made up of middle to lower income working class families with a large population of first generation immigrant families. Regional High School has over 900 students, of which approximately half qualify for free and reduced lunch. Through parent surveys, it is known that while parents would like to send their children to

afterschool programs, most cannot afford the additional costs. Through the same survey, it is also known that parents are most interested in mentoring programs, especially if presented in a bilingual (Spanish/English) format. Research shows that high-quality peer-to-peer mentoring provides support and positive role modeling which in turn improves academic performance and increases graduation rates (Murman et al., 2014; Price & Jones, 2001; Wahl, Susin, Kaplan, Lax, & Zatina, 2011). Therefore, the purpose of this proposed project is to provide a high-quality bi-lingual afterschool mentoring program two times per week to eligible 9-10th graders in Regional High School.

In the latter statement, our school counselor is able to paint a more compelling picture. The statement also shows that the grant writer conducted a survey of participants to gauge actual interest in the proposed project which presents a clearer understanding of both the need and goals of the project.

Grant funders reading and scoring grant applications look for a comprehensive assessment of the population's specific need and whether or not the proposed project can successfully fill that gap (Kettner et al., 2013). Identifying and describing a need begins with a thorough review of the current literature. The literature review must include the most current research on the topic and outline what strategies and interventions have shown to be effective (Coley & Scheinberg, 2007). A successful proposal builds upon the existing literature but extends the literature with a unique concept, idea or intervention (Gerin, Kapelewski, Itinger, & Spruill 2010; Heppner, et al., 2007). In addition to the literature review, grant writers must outline what is known about the population and resources currently. For example, if a proposed program was to expand services to include counseling at a homeless shelter, the grant writer would conduct a thorough literature review about the specific mental health needs of those who

are homeless as well as the influence of counseling on mental health. The grant writer also needs to provide specifics of the proposed recipients of the intervention, which may include how many people are in this particular homeless shelter, what are their current mental health issues (and how the data collected) and what programs are currently offered including mental health services, if any.

Working with a team. It is critical to identify partners and collaborators before submission. Using the above example of providing counseling within a homeless shelter, the grant writers would speak specifically with shelter administrators and secure a written agreement of collaboration for the project. Often these are called letters of agreements or memorandum of understanding and are typically included within the appendix of a grant application. In our example above, grant writers and shelter administration would set clear guidelines, roles and responsibilities, anticipated outcomes and budgetary requirements. This would be outlined in the letters of agreements or memorandums of understanding and signed by officials from both agencies.

Funders are more likely to support a team with a project that is well established and demonstrates the capability to start working immediately (Lusk, 2004). In our counseling/shelter grant, the writers demonstrated that they have an established partnership with a homeless shelter, so time does not have to be spent finding a site, establishing relationships and negotiating details. Instead, counseling services can begin almost immediately allowing grant funding to be used for direct services.

Identifying the Appropriate Funder

There is a great deal of variability within funding sources. As such, it is important to understand differences in funding options in order to successfully identify which agency and/or

foundation is most appropriate to target and navigate options. Federal, state, foundation and corporate funding opportunities exist for mental health, school counseling and addiction-related research, projects, and programs (Vernon & Rainey, 2009; Villalba & Young, 2012).

Grant funders. Federal agencies are large government-run organizations that receive funding from legislative appropriations. Examples include the National Institutes of Health (NIH), U.S. Department of Education (USDOE) and National Science Foundation (NSF). Federal government grants are typically the most complex, competitive and lengthy type of proposal. For multi-year projects that require a considerable budget, federal agencies are often the best option for funding. That being said, federal agencies, such as the NIH and USDOE, do provide funding for small projects and new investigators.

State and local government grants are also excellent resources for funding. Some state and local funding are federal pass-through money (funding received by the state from proposals to the federal government) or through special appropriations and/or tax allocations. Often states have designated websites for different departments and links to funding opportunities. Typically grants are awarded one year at a time and renewable based on continued state funding appropriation. Local government grants typically are funded from monies received through block grants and tend to be small and allocated annually (Coley & Scheinberg, 2007). The appeal of state and local grants is that they are often location specific and can be a perfect match for geographically-bound initiatives.

Another area of funding includes independent, community or company-sponsored foundations. Independent foundations are established to aid an educational or charitable activity or a social cause and are typically endowed by a single source such as an individual or family (Coley & Scheinberg, 2007). Community foundations are publicly-supported and provide grants

for charitable purposes, again, usually in specific geographic areas. Company-sponsored foundations are typically endowed by a profit-making corporation (such as the Walmart Foundation or the Coca-Cola Foundation). Company-sponsored foundations may support activities occurring in the location of the corporate offices and/or they may fund programs that impact communities near a store or a branch location. Corporations may be interested in creating or increasing public awareness by being associated with a particular cause or assisting a local community. (Posavac, 2011).

Where to look for funding opportunities. Starting the search for funding can seem overwhelming at first. The grant seeker should take sufficient time to think about the size and scope of the project and to which funders it may appeal. Is it a large multi-year project possibly affecting a large geographic area? Then federal grant opportunities might be the place to start. If the project is geographically bound or a pilot project, a state agency or local foundation might be the best place to contact. The following section provides information on where to begin the search for funding.

Federal grant announcements are compiled at the clearinghouse called Grants.gov (www.grants.gov). This comprehensive site enables searching for funding opportunities by using keywords or more specific information. Discretionary grants (grant awards made on the basis of a competitive process) from the 26 federal grant-making agencies can be found on this website. Federal opportunities are submitted electronically, most through the grants.gov portal. If the grant seeker works at an academic institution, the sponsored programs office, a department dedicated to grant administration, most likely already has a grants.gov registration and will submit on the applicant's behalf. Otherwise, plan accordingly to allow time for the grants.gov registration to be completed (obviously well in advance of a grant deadline).

There are specific federal departments and divisions that are more applicable to counselors and counselor educators. The following table provides a brief overview of federal grants most applicable to counseling:

| Agency Name | Funding Priorities | Website |
|--|---|--|
| Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA) | | |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Center for Substance Abuse Prevention, the Center for Substance Abuse Treatment Center for Mental Health Services | Addiction and mental health issues | www.samhsa.gov/grants |
| National Institutes of Health | | |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> National Institute of Mental Health | Mental health research and programming | www.nimh.nih.gov |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities | | www.nimhd.nih.gov |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Eunice Kennedy Shriver National Institute of Child Health and Human Development | Supports projects in support of children, families, and communities | www.nichd.nih.gov |
| US Department of Education (USDOE) | | |
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Elementary and School Counseling Program | | www2.ed.gov/programs/elseccounseling |

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) is a complex and intricate grant funding organization consisting of 27 different specialized institutions; each provide many different funding opportunities at various levels. The complexities of federal grants are beyond the scope of this article, but there are excellent resources available to learn more about federal funding opportunities, especially at agency websites.

| Agency Name | Website |
|---|--|
| Grants.gov | www.grants.gov/web/grants/learn-grants |
| Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration | www.samhsa.gov/grants |
| National Institutes of Health* | www.grants.nih.gov/grants www.grants.nih.gov/grants/grants_process.htm |
| US Department of Education | www2.ed.gov/fund/grants-apply |

*The NIH website in particular is also extremely helpful and provides information, podcasts and videos on how to best navigate the complexities of the organization.

One of the best resources available to find information regarding foundation and corporate grant giving is the Foundation Center (foundationcenter.org/). The Foundation Center has been providing information about philanthropic activities for over 50 years. There are five offices nationwide (New York City; Washington, DC; Atlanta; Cleveland; and San Francisco) that provide free access to information, resources and educational activities. In addition, the Foundation Center’s website is comprehensive and includes many resources. Some of the information is limited to those with a paid subscription, however, there is an abundance of free resources including a searchable database, information about different organizations and foundations and online webinars including several free tutorials such as “Introduction to Fundraising Planning” and “How to Approach a Foundation” (see <http://foundationcenter.org/getstarted/training/online/>).

Additionally, searching for projects similar to your own is a good way to find information about different foundations and organizations. Begin by reaching out to peers who have had funding success. Most researchers, program directors and grant writers are willing to share experiences, offer strategies and discuss challenges. Websites of similar projects or programs are also invaluable resources. Most funded projects are required to provide information about funding sources directly on their website. For example, an applicant looking for funding for

mental health counseling for at-risk children/teenagers can look at similar local projects or even bigger organizations such as the Boys and Girls Club. A school counselor within a school district may have an office dedicated to grant writing or may even provide small amounts of funding to hire a grant writer for a bigger project. Counselor educators who work in higher education typically have sponsored programs offices committed to helping faculty find funding, providing examples of other successful projects and offering direct feedback and assistance on proposals.

Request for proposals. Funding agencies typically announce funding opportunities through Request for Proposals (RFPs), also called Requests for Applications (RFAs). Depending on the funder, RFPs can look very different and be either simple or complex. Federal proposals tend to be more complicated while foundation proposals typically are more straightforward. The RFP contains all of the pertinent information needed to submit a complete proposal. Details within the RFP include funding goals and objectives, eligibility requirements, deadline information, formatting restrictions, submission requirements, contact information for program officers and very detailed instructions on what is required for a complete submission. It is important to read an RFP in its entirety before submitting a proposal.

This opportunity looks good, now what? When reviewing potential funding opportunities, be sure to determine whether or not your project fits within an organization's funding goals and objectives. With most organizations, this involves thoroughly reading their mission statement and funding priorities. Looking through recently funded projects helps to determine whether the funding agency has supported projects similar in type, size, locations and amounts. For example, if a project needs \$300k to run but the foundation typically funds projects closer to \$25k-50k in size and scope, it would be better to consider proposing a part or component of the project and/or continuing to look for another funder who supports larger

budgets. It is equally as important that your organization is eligible to apply. Most grant funders do not accept proposals from individual applicants. Check the eligibility requirements for specific information, for example grant funders may require the applicant to be a 501c3 (a non-profit organization), or may only allow affiliates of Institutes of Higher Education (IHE) such as faculty members or affiliates of Local Education Agencies (LEA) such a school counselor. If unsure, contact the funders directly.

After determining if you and/or your organization are eligible to apply, look at deadlines and determine the likelihood and reasonability of completing a proposal on time. Allow sufficient time before the deadline to give the grant writing team the ability to bring all of the partners together for thoughtful writing and review. Too often proposals are written at the final hour, resulting in high anxiety for all involved. For complex federal grants, it is optimal to plan at least 12 months in advance of the deadline. Smaller grants may not need as much time but it is best to be thoughtful in the planning process and give ample time for revisions and more revisions. Finally, keep in mind that, similar to academic journal submissions, you may not submit the same grant application to more than one funding organization at a time.

Developing the Key Components of a Grant Proposal

Grant writing has similarities to academic writing but it is more technical and precise in nature (Porter, 2007). Most often with proposal preparation, writing is done with a team. It is best for the team to collaboratively create a timeline, divide responsibility and establish deadlines. Assign one person to act as the “leader” to be responsible for the overall management of the proposal process. Be sure to have multiple people edit the final draft for any content, grammatical issues, or typos but also for compliance with grant guidelines. Furthermore, be concise with the overall writing and be sure to substantiate any assertions.

It is also critical to find someone who will be willing to read and provide feedback on the proposal. This can be someone who has written successful proposals in the past, a colleague or a grants administrator at an academic setting. You can also reach out directly to the funding agency for feedback. Keep in mind that foundations will answer technical questions but not typically provide any direct proposal feedback. However, government entities, for example program officers in National Institutes of Health, encourage reviewing abstracts in advance in order to ensure that the application is appropriate for their funding mechanism as well as provide valuable feedback and guidance (Gerin et al., 2010).

Take the time to read the funding request (RFP) in its entirety. Create an outline of all of the different required components and double check that list with a grants administrator or a colleague. Transforming the outline into a working document before starting can be a very useful way of organizing and ensuring that each component is completed. It also ensures that the reviewers will be able to follow and score a proposal in alignment with the stated guidelines and procedures. Also, note the details of the formatting requirements. Often RFPs include instructions on page numbers, font size and type, margin width, character limits (if applicable), formatting and sequencing. A proposal can be completely rejected even if only one little aspect is done incorrectly. For example, the author had a lengthy proposal returned without review because it was missing one required letter of support. Grants offices or administrators are available for support and guidance for applicants at most college and universities.

Common elements of a proposal. While foundations and government agencies may have formats in which to submit a grant proposal, the contents of a grant application are usually consistent. The information provided next is gathered from the author's decade long grant writing and administration experience, from texts on grant writing (Coley & Scheinberg, 2007;

Gerin et al., 2010; Kettner et al., 2013), as well as excellent online resources (see Appendix A for more information). Sections to be described include cover letters or abstracts, project descriptions and narratives, management plan and key personnel, evaluation plan, dissemination and sustainability plan and a budget and budget justification.

Cover letter. Sometimes the instructions of cover letters are very specific and often include applicant, institution/organization, and contact information, the specific title of the RFP, the project title and a very short paragraph about the goals and objectives of the project. This is an important document, and in combination with the abstract, is often the gatekeeper for the rest of the proposal. A well-written cover letter (and abstract) will create a first impression and set the tone for the rest of the proposal.

Abstract. Often the funder outlines what is to be included in the abstract and typically it is limited to one page. The abstract is an important component of a proposal as it is, in essence, the “sales pitch” (Coley & Scheingberg, 2007). The abstract is a very concise outline of the entire proposal. It must include the most relevant information and data about the need or problem statement, the research question or programmatic information, an overview of the methodology or work plan and an outline of the overall goals, objectives and broader impacts of the project. This is a document that is best drafted first but refined after the proposal is completed. Be sure that the abstract is complete, compelling and clear in order to entice the reviewer to continuing evaluating the rest of the proposal.

Project description/narrative. The sequencing of the project description or narrative may be predetermined by the RFP and it is important to follow the order as outlined in the proposal. Typically, a project description includes an introduction, including the research questions or

program aims; specific aims including goals and objectives; a relevant literature review and a detailed work plan or research methodology.

It is important that the goals and objectives be clear, measurable and concise. The goals are the overall and broad purpose of the project and the objectives are specific ways each goal will be met. The goals and objectives must be realistic and achievable within the timeframe presented in the proposal. They must also be measurable. For example, if a program goal is *reduce depression in military veterans on a university campus*, the objective is *provide weekly individual and biweekly group counseling by Licensed Professional Counselors from the University Counseling Center to reduce depression as measured by the Beck Inventory*. Goals and objectives must correlate to the objectives of the evaluation section.

A relevant literature review must also be included. Often because of page limit restrictions, the literature review must be succinct. This does not mean that it is not comprehensive, but deliberate and concise with all of the significant information and sources included. It is imperative to cite the most current research on the subject and reiterate how the proposed project extends and/or addresses a gap in the literature. Check with RFP guidelines for formatting of references.

Following the literature review, a work plan or the research methodology is outlined. Here, a detailed plan of how the project will be implemented is presented. If the proposal is for a programmatic project, it is important that the stages of the proposal are outlined and that they are logical and realistic. It is helpful to also include a visual representative of the timeline if space allows. Another option is to include a timeline in an appendix. For research proposals, a well-thought-out research methodology is explained and includes the theoretical model, participant recruitment and sampling procedures, survey or assessment instruments, quantitative, qualitative

or mixed methodology procedures and a power analysis (if applicable) (Gerin et al., 2010). Often a proposal will include a separate section for the protection of human subjects, but regardless it is important to include the human subject and consent form procedures. This includes potential risk and the protocols in place to minimize or prevent risk to participants. It is important that the methodology section be as detailed as possible, as it shows reviewers that the proposal is comprehensive (Coley & Scheinberg, 2007; Kettner et al., 2013).

Management plan/key personnel. The RFP or grant application may provide an opportunity to outline a management plan. A management plan is the organizational chart for the project and gives the applicant an opportunity to provide details about key personnel. In this section leadership structure and roles and responsibilities are delineated. This section also allows the applicant to expand on the information found in a curriculum vitae or a résumé thereby providing further detail about the specific expertise of the key personnel. A grant application with a detailed management plan allows grant funders to be confident that the project would start on day one with the personnel team intact (Kettner et al., 2013). This provides the maximum time for grant funding to be used for its intended purpose rather than being delayed hiring staff.

Evaluation plan. In programmatic grants, the evaluation section is one of the most important sections of the entire proposal. The general purpose of an evaluation is to determine whether project goals and objectives have been met as well as the overall effectiveness of the project. In the evaluation section of a grant proposal, a detailed plan is outlined including who is conducting the evaluation, their qualifications, the data collection instruments that will be used and data collection and analysis procedures. A good evaluation helps to discover any problems to fix and improve the quality of a program. Furthermore, the evaluation helps project administrators

ensure accountability and organize key findings to share with stakeholders and the community (Posavac, 2011)

If possible, it is best to hire an outside evaluation firm or individual evaluator that will work with the grant writing team from the start of the proposal (Posavac, 2011). If using an outside evaluator is not possible, be sure to discuss how the evaluation process will be conducted as impartial as possible. Evaluators typically provide formative, program and/or summative evaluations. Formative evaluation is provided during the program development and implementation and helps shape the program in order to maximize performance. Process evaluation looks at how program activities are performed and makes recommendations on how to optimize the program delivery. Summative evaluations are provided at either the end of a program year or when the program is finished. The summative evaluation provides a thorough report of the performance of the overall program (Kettner et al., 2013; Posavac, 2011). The evaluation plan should have its own timeline which includes delivery dates for reports, a separate human subjects section and a detailed budget and justification of the expenditures. Depending on the scope of work, the cost of the evaluation can be up to 10% of the total project budget.

In the case of the school counselor seeking funding for an after-school mentoring project, she/he might reach out to a local university to work with a faculty member with research expertise. In this situation, the faculty member would be hired as the contracted evaluator and would write the evaluation section of the proposal. This faculty member would design surveys and/or choose validated instruments that would be used for data collection and/or conduct focus groups/interviews of participants. By using the faculty member to evaluate her/his program, the school counselor would be able to get valuable feedback as well as provide grant funders an impartial report of the outcomes of her/his program. The school counselor and faculty member

would negotiate responsibilities and fees in advance and document all in a letter of commitment included in the appendix of the proposal.

Dissemination/sustainability plan. It is also important for a grant proposal to include detailed information about how results and findings are going to be shared with stakeholders and the public. In academic research, dissemination includes published articles, conference presentations or workshops. The more detail provided, the better, including the names of the journals in which articles will be submitted or the organizations or conferences where findings will be presented. Furthermore, it is important to provide a plan for sustaining the project if it does not have a finite end. For example, if a grant is awarded to establish a counseling center in an area that lacks any mental health services, how will services continue to be provided when the grant funding period is complete. This might involve seeking additional support from current funders or finding additional and separate funding. If the project is able to generate revenue in order to be self-sustaining, be certain to provide information and timing about the plans to do so. Funding organizations are interested in supporting projects that will create new information, generate additional ideas, lead to new proposals as well as provide knowledge and advancement in the field.

Budget and budget justification. A precise and detailed budget demonstrates good planning and foresight on the part of the grant writing team. Begin the budgeting process with the staff and other stakeholders involved by outlining the needs of the project. This can be accomplished by creating a spreadsheet, thinking about any start-up costs and then going through the project and outlining the expected expenses for each item. Read through the RFP for guidelines and restrictions regarding budgeting. For example, some grant funders do not support particular items (such as furniture or office supplies), may cap the amount used for particular line

items (such as salary) or may stipulate that a certain percent of the budget must be for participants (such as incentives or direct service costs). Be sure that the project budget follows the guidelines exactly and does not go above funding limits. It is helpful to talk to others that have similar projects and/or have had grant-funded projects. Furthermore, reach out to those experienced with grant management. Often they can speak to expenditures that may not have been anticipated when the project was originally planned and are helpful in brainstorming budget items and approximating amounts for different categories.

An overview of the information typically needed in a grant budget including personnel, fringe, supplies, travel, incentives, consultants, evaluation costs, indirect costs/overhead and in-kind contributions is provided here:

Personnel. Be sure to include all personnel costs associated with the project. Typically the personnel section is designated for key personnel; consultants are listed in a separate line item. Personnel must match what is listed in the management plan/key personnel section of the proposal. Include salary information and/or outline how compensation is calculated (that is, using an hourly rate or percentage of annual salary). For example, if a faculty member is going to devote 10% effort (or 10% of contracted annual time) to a proposed project and their annual salary is \$65,000, they should request funding for \$6,500. If salary request within a budget is for a full annual amount, or 100% effort, be sure that the salary requested is reasonable with consideration to scope or responsibility and comparable to others doing similar work.

Fringe. Fringe rates are costs associated with personnel expenses such as federal and state taxes, unemployment, social security and benefits (Quick & New, 2001). Check with your institution, organization, agency or school districts on rates charged for full-time and part-time employees. Typically fringe is not charged for consultants.

Supplies. This section includes supplies needed for the project such as pens, paper, copying costs, books, postage for mailing and other necessities. Keep in mind that the supply category may also include items such as computers, software, printers and ink. Check the RFP for details about whether to list particular items in the supply line or as a separate category. Equipment is a separate section and reserved for items that are over \$5,000 (be sure not to include computer supplies in equipment but rather in the supplies budget).

Travel. Travel costs that are associated with the project including mileage costs, airfare, hotel, rental cars, public transportation, incidentals (such as food costs), or other travel expenses. Often federal rates associated with travel for hotel, incidentals and mileage are required and can be found at the U.S. General Services Administration website (www.gsa.gov) under per diem rates or mileage costs.

Incentives. Incentives are often an important consideration especially when it is necessary to recruit and retain participants for a project. Incentives must be appropriate to the amount of time associated with participation. Consider how many hours a participant must commit to the project and estimate an appropriate hourly rate for their time. This is a good approximation on how much the incentive should be for each person. Incentives that are too large are considered coercion and are often not allowed by funding agencies. Incentive options can include cash (if applicable), gift cards, books or materials. Sometimes participant names can be placed in a raffle for a large ticket item, such as an iPad, so long as confidentiality is maintained. Often simply providing food such as pizza or snacks can work well, especially when programs involve children or students.

Consultants. Depending on the size and scope of the project, consultants or per diem employees may need to be included. Consultants are not considered key personnel and typically

this is reflected in the scope of their responsibilities. Often consultants are brought in for specific tasks, such as providing feedback or expertise for a particular part of a project, or to do a set amount of training or professional development. Consultants are typically paid an hourly rate that is comparable to what they would earn if the consultant was full-time. Sometimes this hourly rate is inflated to consider other costs such as any pre-planning, travel or other associated costs. Consultants should provide a letter of commitment that will be included in the proposal. The letter should outline their scope of work as well as the agreed upon fee arrangement.

Evaluation costs. Evaluation costs cover the monetary amount needed to perform an evaluation of the proposed program. If an outside evaluator is being hired, that individual or firm should create his or her own budget based on the proposed evaluation plan. Typically evaluators have hourly rates that incorporate all other incidentals (such as fringe, indirect costs, travel, supplies etc.). The rates often reflect the expertise of the evaluator as well as the complexity of the evaluation to be conducted. Depending on the RFP stipulation as well as the scope of the project, the evaluation costs is typically 10- 20% of the total project budget (Posavac, 2011).

Indirect costs or overhead. This category may be referenced as indirect costs, overhead or facility and administrative (F&A) costs (Quick & New, 2001). Indirect costs are those costs associated with the institution or organization supporting the project and are more typically seen in university proposals. Indirect costs cover expenses associated with facilities, operations and maintenance, financial or procurement offices, computers and technologies. Often institutions have a federally-negotiated indirect cost rate that is used in a budget. Foundations, however, often predetermine allowable indirect costs (such as 10% of the direct costs) or may even stipulate that indirect costs are not allowable. Be sure to check the RFP for exact details involving indirect costs.

In-kind contributions. Depending on the scope of the proposal, resources that are already available and provided may be included as in-kind contributions to a budget. In-kind contributions can also be called matching funds. To many funders, this looks more appealing as it shows that if an institution or organization is partially funding an initiative, it is committed to its success. Often funding organizations do not want to think that they are the only source of funding for a particular project. Providing in-kind support or demonstrating funding from other sources shows that the project is solid and sustainable. In-kind support from the institution can be provided in several different ways such as, a certain percentage of a researcher or staff member's time; a discount in, for example, tuition costs; institutional travel reimbursement. Other in-kind support can come from volunteers or donations. Be sure to be realistic in what is proposed as in-kind contributions as grant funders request detailed evidence of these contributions at the end of the grant project period.

Budget justification. After everything has been outlined and categorized, it is important to include a narrative that provides a detailed account of the expenses. Detail is important as it shows that the budget items are justified as well as appropriate. The budget justification should follow the organization of the budget; for example, if a line-item budget begins with personnel and then is followed by fringe, supplies, travel, etc., the budget justification is organized in that order as well. Often a budget justification is not counted in the overall page limitation and so it provides additional space to further explain particular aspects of the project. Be sure, however, not to use the budget justification (or appendix for that matter) to circumnavigate any project narrative page limitations. Finally, double check that the numbers and categories in the budget justification add up to the same amounts outlined in the line-item budget.

Revise and Resubmit

Tenacity is the most important skill needed for grant writing. If your initial proposal is not accepted on the first submission, ask for and read through reviewer comments and feedback. The clues of what would make a successful proposal are in these comments (some foundations do not provide feedback or reviewer comments but federal agencies typically do). Revise and resubmit based on the comments. Often it is possible to directly respond to the reviewer feedback in a cover letter or an additional document with a resubmission. Furthermore, a revised and resubmitted proposal may be reviewed by the same committee. If the original project showed potential and the resubmission incorporates the suggested changes, additions and/or edits, it is more likely that it will be funded on the second or third submission (Gerin et al., 2001). In the author's experience, once an applicant or researcher is funded the first time, they begin a track record of successful grant submissions going forward.

Conclusion

This manuscript serves as an initial guide for counselors and counselor educators new to pursuing external funding. By providing the basic concepts of grant terminology plus the typical pieces included in a grant proposal, it is the hope of the author that readers will realize that obtaining grant funding is an achievable pursuit. Readers are encouraged to review the additional resources provided as well as to reach out to colleagues and peers who have sought grant funding to learn more about different experiences, perspectives, and receive guidance and assistance. Ultimately, funding important research and programs within the counseling discipline provides services and support to those in need as well as furthers the knowledge and evidence base in the field.

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Appendix: Grant Resources

Websites

Foundation Center, complete source foundations and philanthropy: www.foundationcenter.org
Foundation Center free newsletters: <http://www.foundationcenter.org/newsletters/>
Grants.gov, clearinghouse for government grants: www.grants.gov; information about grants: www.grants.gov/web/grants/learn-grants
NEA Foundation, provides funding for educators: www.neafoundation.org
National Institutes of Health, the nation's medical and health research agency: www.nih.gov
National Institute of Mental Health: www.nimh.nih.gov
National Institute on Minority Health and Health Disparities: www.nimhd.nih.gov
National Institute of Child Health and Human Development: www.nichd.nih.gov
Information and resources for NIH grant applications: www.grants.nih.gov/grants
Tips and other resources: http://grants.nih.gov/grants/grant_tips.htm
National Science Foundation, federal agency devoted to science: www.nsf.gov
Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA): www.samhsa.gov
U.S. Department of Education: <http://www2.ed.gov/fund/grants-apply.html>

Books

Coley, S. M., & Scheinberg, C. A. (2007). *Proposal writing: effective grantsmanship*. Washington D. C. Sage Publications.
Gerin, W., Kapelewski, C., Itinger, J. B., & Spruill, T. (2010). *Writing the NIH grant proposal: a step-by-step guide*. Thousand Oaks, CA. Sage Publications.
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Curriculum Designs in Counselor Education Programs: Enhancing Counselors-in-Training Openness to Diversity

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Multicultural competencies are critical elements in both counselor preparation and practice. In accordance with the standards of the Council of Accredited Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), counselor education programs must implement multicultural competencies as one of core curriculum areas. Although research evidences the positive impact of multicultural training, it remains a challenge to establish which curriculum designs and pedagogical approaches are most effective. This study compares self-reported openness and comfort in interactions with diverse populations of 87 counselors-in-training across two distinct multicultural curriculum designs (i.e., single multicultural course vs. infusion through the curriculum) in a CACREP accredited counselor education program in the Midwest. Implications for counselor education programs and counselors in the field are provided.

Keywords: grant writing, proposal development, external funding, research

Several approaches to promote the self-awareness, knowledge, and skills needed to be a multiculturally competent counselor have been established in accordance with the multicultural counseling standards and recommendations of the Council of Accredited Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP, 2009). Strong evidence exists in support of the positive impact of multicultural training within counselor education programs on increasing trainees' multicultural competencies regardless of the pedagogical approach (Brown, 2004; Castillo, Brossart, Reyes, Conoley, & Phoummarath, 2007; Cates, Schaeffle, Smaby, Maddux, & LeBeauf, 2007; Chu-Lieu Chao, Wei, Good & Flores, 2011; Malott, 2010; Pack-Brown, Thomas, & Seymour, 2008; Sammons & Speight, 2008; Tomlinson-Clarke, 2000). However, it remains a paramount challenge to find the curriculum designs for implementing the multicultural standards

that most effectively enables counselors in the field to apply their multicultural knowledge and skills with diverse populations.

In particular, there is no evidence to indicate whether or not a single multicultural course (i.e., explicit multicultural curriculum design) is superior to the infusion of multicultural content throughout the counselor education program (i.e., implicit multicultural curriculum design). To address this gap in the multicultural literature, the current study compares the effects of these two curriculum designs (i.e., explicit-single multicultural course versus implicit-infusion throughout the curriculum) on trainees' openness and comfort in interactions with diverse populations.

Single Multicultural Course - Explicit Curriculum Design

Several studies support the use of one specific course dedicated solely to multicultural training as an effective curriculum design (Castillo et al., 2007; Coll, Doumas, Trotter, & Freeman, 2013; Malott, 2010; Sammons & Speight, 2008). The authors of the aforementioned studies assert that this curriculum design allows students to gain knowledge about culturally different groups, examine cultural biases, and develop multicultural skills. The acquisition of these competencies are assumed to reduce culturally insensitive behavior and aid in the ever-growing span of multicultural competencies that counselors need in order to work with a diverse clientele.

Similarly, a study on introductory multicultural counseling courses conducted by Priester, Jones, Jackson-Bailey, Jana-Masri, Jordan, and Metz (2008) reported that the counselors-in-training in these courses augmented their multicultural knowledge base and self-awareness competencies. On the other hand, based on minimal skill development resulting from these courses, the authors urged further research on multicultural counseling training to expand its current overemphasis on philosophical conceptualizations. In a similar fashion, to assess a

counseling psychology training program's capacity to increase multicultural competencies, a series of qualitative methods were used to evaluate the immediate and longer term impact of a multicultural counseling course taught within a training program (Tomlinson-Clarke, 2000). Through a series of written evaluations completed immediately after course completion combined with various follow-up interviews approximately four months after course completion, the participants reported feeling inadequate in terms of multicultural competencies and indicated the need to extend their current professional development into new areas pertaining to multicultural competencies. In particular, the participants emphasized the need for further training initiatives and experiences under the umbrella of a supportive climate that promoted professional and personal cultural self-awareness and self-knowledge.

Extrapolating the concept of teaching multiculturalism via single course, Pieterse, Evans, Ristner-Butner, Collins, and Mason (2009) conducted a descriptive content analysis of 54 multicultural and diversity-related course syllabi from diverse counseling and counseling psychology programs accredited by the American Psychological Association (APA) and the Council of Accreditation of Counseling and Related Programs (CACREP). They reported that the majority of the courses observe the multicultural paradigm of development of knowledge, awareness, and skills. However, they stated that there are considerable gaps in the areas of social justice and multicultural competence in terms of how these particular components are included in the curriculum and how they are delivered. This issue by itself represents one of the predominant challenges concerning the degree of efficacy of a single multicultural course design or explicit curriculum design.

Additional research by Sammons and Speight (2008) and Stadler, Suh, Cobia, Middleton, and Carney (2006) found similar results from single multicultural courses in counselor education

programs, and emphasized the importance of the explicit multicultural design for an initial encounter with diverse clients and open dialogue surrounding multicultural issues. They reported that the utilization of the single multicultural course is not the end, but the beginning of a multicultural process of growth and development.

According to Bidell (2014), it is a daunting task for educators to cover multicultural theory, research, practice, and discuss multiple groups within one course. In this study, the author examined how multicultural courses impacted students' LGBT and multicultural competencies. The study showed that self-reported multicultural and LGBT competencies varied significantly depending on the number and types of diversity education reported. Specifically, multicultural courses significantly predicted students' multicultural but not LGBT competency. In essence, a single course (explicit curriculum design) seems to provide the general multicultural principles and concepts needed to be in compliance with major accrediting bodies such as the Council of Accredited Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) and professional organizations such as the American Counseling Association (ACA). However, it appears that this model lacks depth and the scope needed to fully equip counselors-in-training to become multiculturally competent practitioners.

Multicultural Infusion through the Program - Implicit Curriculum Design

The research conducted by Sammons and Speight (2008) supports the infusion of multicultural curricula after finding that 70% of the total personal changes reported by students involved increased level of knowledge and self-awareness, while attitudinal and behavioral changes were reported less frequently. The authors suggest that training beyond a single multicultural counseling course may be necessary to promote change in attitudes and behavior. In support of this assertion, Cates and Schaeffle (2009) found that students who had multicultural

training infused into practicum coursework had greater increases in perceived multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills throughout the duration of the course than students who did not have a multicultural component in their practicum course. Further, Stadler et al. (2006) stressed the importance of infusing multicultural training throughout counselor education curricula. Subsequently, the authors recommended that policies be designed to implement, support, and maintain an environment that promotes diversity, perhaps by engaging both students and faculty in culturally relevant experiences.

Similarly, Dickson and Jepsen's (2007) inquiry of the breadth and depth of multicultural curricula lead to a conclusion that the current conceptualization of multicultural competencies may oversimplify the complexities of actual multicultural interactions, followed by a suggestion that further examination of multicultural training implementation is needed. In a similar vein, Seward (2013) documented that ethnic minority students reported gains in their overall knowledge during the non-multicultural courses but found them unsatisfactory due to their limitations in addressing multicultural issues. Many of these students felt as though the courses were catered to their White/Euro descent counterparts. One student was quoted as stating: "...I guess it's hard to teach multicultural students to be multicultural because it's something you grew up with and it's something that you automatically do" (Seward, 2013, p.70).

Outcomes of Multicultural Training: Cognitive, Affective and Behavioral Domains

Research findings are unclear as to what types of impact multicultural counseling trainings implemented throughout CACREP-accredited counselor education programs have on counselors-in-training and counselors in the field. While several studies explored the overall impact of various curriculum designs for multicultural training on trainees' multicultural

competencies, there is limited research focusing on specific outcomes of multicultural training on trainees' cognitive, affective, and behavioral domains.

Cognitive-Knowledge Domain

Castillo et al. (2007) and Kiselca, Maben, and Locke (1999) reported that students who participated in a multicultural training course gained insight into cultural biases and self-awareness of their own cultural identity. Similarly, students in CACREP-accredited programs who received multicultural training in the form of either a multicultural counseling course or program-wide infusion of multicultural content increased their multicultural knowledge (Cates et al., 2007). Taken together, these studies indicate that multicultural training enhances the knowledge-base for counselors-in-training, and may subsequently increase the level of multicultural effectiveness for counselors in the field.

Chao (2013) found that multicultural training enhances school counselors' multicultural counseling competence (MCC) by assisting counselors to become more aware of their own racial/ethnic backgrounds while advancing their knowledge of color-blind racial attitudes (CoBRA). This study stressed the importance of a 3-way interaction among race/ethnicity, training, and CoBRA in order to increase their MCC. The author argued that school counselors who attend multicultural training will gain higher racial/ethnic identity and have a greater self-understanding about their own worldview when working with culturally diverse students. With high levels of training and low levels of CoBRA, school counselors will be able to have greater MCC thus allowing them to effectively assist students of diverse backgrounds. Dickson, Jepsen, and Barbee (2008) also found that "perceptions of a culturally sensitive program ambience were the only significant predictors of positive cognitive attitudes toward issues of racial diversity" (p. 36).

Affective Domain

Limited research has been conducted on the affective impact of multicultural training on counselors-in-training. Based on an analysis of the outcomes of three different courses typically offered in most CACREP programs, Coll, Doumas, Trotter and Freeman (2013) evidenced significant changes in attitudes, empathy, and willingness to adapt to a client's cultural background as a result of multicultural counseling training. Consistently, Dickson, Jepsen, and Barbee (2008) found that participatory training strategies (e.g., role plays and processing of reactions) predicted positive affective attitudes toward racial diversity and greater comfort with interracial contact. According to Arredondo and Arciniega (2001), in order for mental health professionals to be culturally competent they must be able to understand and accept alternative worldviews. In order to do so, counselors must be aware of their own cultural values and biases as well as develop culturally appropriate intervention strategies when working in a diverse setting.

Chao (2011) surveyed a sample of school counselors in order to determine the impact of multicultural courses on their cultural identity and color-blind racial attitudes. The study found increased racial and ethnic identity and decreased color-blind attitudes in counselors who took more multicultural courses, especially in White/Euro counselors. These changes were interpreted as indicative of more open minded attitudes toward the experiences of others and are congruent with previous studies that yielded similar results (Brown, Parham, & Yonker, 1996; Castillo et al., 2007; Parker, Moore, & Neimeyer, 1998).

Collectively, the aforementioned studies suggest that students who participate in multicultural training increase self-awareness of racial identity, overall self-awareness and compassion in working with diverse clients. However, research on the affective domain changes

as a result of multicultural training remains limited due to its reliance on self-report data as outcome measures. The real exposure to diverse populations in the field and observable data of these interactions by neutral observers are necessary to assess the impact of multicultural training on affective domain of multicultural competence.

Behavioral Domain

The manifestation of behavioral changes as a result of exposure to knowledge and/or a clinical intervention is an important factor in the counseling field for both clients and counselors. Therefore, during a counselor's multicultural training it is imperative to become aware of one's own behavior as well as that of others. Sammons and Speight (2008) found that students' behavioral changes comprised only 13% of self-reported personal changes resulting from exposure to multicultural curricula. The multiple behavioral changes reported after multicultural training included increased activism, enhanced relationships, expanded professional competency, decreased use of biased language, and seeking further multicultural training and social interactions. Unfortunately, there are no longitudinal studies supporting an assertion that as a result of multicultural training, counselors in the field changed their lifestyles and approaches to counseling.

Method

Purpose and Research Questions

This study was designed to analyze the effects of the multicultural curriculum design on overall multicultural growth of counselors-in-training. Specifically, the study compares self-reported openness and comfort in interactions with diverse populations of trainees exposed to two different multicultural curriculum designs: (1) the explicit design comprised of a single multicultural course (MC course) and (2) the implicit design in which multicultural content is

infused into coursework designed to teach curriculum typically not associated with multicultural concepts and skills (MC infusion).

In order to compare the impact of the two curriculum designs (MC course vs. MC infusion) on the trainees' openness and comfort in interactions with diverse populations, the following research questions are addressed: Does the level of openness and comfort in interactions with diverse populations differ between trainees enrolled in MC course design and trainees enrolled in MC infusion design at the beginning of the courses? Does the level of openness and comfort in interactions with diverse populations differ between trainees enrolled in MC course design and trainees enrolled in MC infusion design at the conclusion of the courses?

Study Design

All courses across the two curriculum designs (MC course and MC infusion) were required for a master's degree and licensure in the counseling field and were delivered in the traditional on-campus, face-to-face formats. The instructors were two faculty members of the same program who taught in both curriculum designs (MC infusion and MC course), with one instructor teaching exclusively on the suburban campus and the other on the urban campus. To control for a possible impact of the instructor's characteristics, the two instructors selected were male and full time, tenured professors with a record of multi-year experience in teaching multicultural courses, published research in the area of human diversity/multiculturalism, and active commitment to the multicultural/diversity agenda. In addition, the instructors followed the program-approved syllabi for all courses. Each syllabus outlined the program-approved course objectives, relevant CACREP standards, and activities and assignments in accordance with the program's accreditation framework.

The curriculum of MC course entailed both in-class and out-of-class activities and assignments designed to facilitate the acquisition of cultural self-awareness, understanding of others, and foundational multicultural concepts and skills. Among a variety of in-class learning activities, the most substantial included extensive instructor-led interactive lectures and discussions and student presentations on a variety of multicultural topics (e.g., characteristics of minority groups and cultural biases). In addition, panel presentations by individuals representing diverse backgrounds (e.g., LGBT, Muslim, African American, Latinos/as, and Asian) were arranged using the interactive exchange format. The MC course assignments were designed to enhance multicultural understandings and skills and guide reflections on personal multicultural growth. Further, students were required to engage in service learning activities focusing on active engagement within communities with underserved populations (e.g., homeless shelters). Throughout the course, students wrote entries in their reaction journal that utilizes an open-ended response format for students to communicate to the instructor their reactions toward the content of class and personal struggles to incorporate new knowledge into personal lives and clinical experiences.

The students were required to write a minimum of one entry per class and submit their journals at the course's conclusion. While assessing the quality of the journal entries, the instructors analyzed cognitive, affective, and behavioral multicultural growth, extrapolation of newly acquired multicultural knowledge to novel cultural contexts, and commitment to multicultural agenda, diversity and social justice. As the course's cumulative assignment, students visited an unfamiliar cultural setting and wrote a reflective paper in which they represented the worldview of an unfamiliar culture in an unbiased manner, analyzed the discrepancies between this culture and their own culture, and concluded on how they would

work with a member of the visited cultural group. In assessing the paper, the instructors analyzed personal multicultural growth, ability to take on multiple perspectives in addition to own preconceptions, engagement in exploring unfamiliar cultures, and connecting class concepts to field experiences.

The MC infusion curriculum design spanned a wide range of courses that focused on the following areas of counselor education: foundations of counseling, counseling theory and practice, theories and dynamics of group counseling, career and lifestyle development, and ethical, legal and professional issues in counseling. These courses aimed at achieving a variety of CACREP standards through a wide range of activities (e.g., lectures, group projects, field observations, and service learning) and assignments (e.g., research papers, reflections, and diagnostic and treatment plans and reports). Multicultural content and interpretative frameworks were embedded in the course content on the incidental basis per the instructor's judgment and interests. Neither of the courses in this curriculum design included activities or assignments that were exclusively designed to develop multicultural competencies.

Participants

The participants were 87 graduate students in a counseling training program who attended urban and/or suburban campus of a private university located in a Midwest metropolitan region of the United States. The participants represented diverse backgrounds in terms of gender, age, and ethnicity. Seventy nine percent of the participants were females and 21 percent were males. The age of the participants ranged from 23 to 56 years, with the cumulative 84% of the participants younger than 35 years old. The participants represented a variety of ethnicities as follows: 58% White/Euro descend, 24% Asian, 12% African-American, and 6% Multiracial or Other. Forty-three of the students who attended the suburban campus were females of

predominantly White/Euro descent from middle-class suburban communities, whereas 44 students who were enrolled on the urban campus reflected ethnically diverse urban population.

Following the study's IRB-approved protocol, all participants were recruited on a voluntary basis from students enrolled in graduate counseling courses taught by the two instructors and all responses to the study instrument (see below) were anonymous. The students were introduced to the study's purpose and procedures by the first author who had no affiliation with potential participants (i.e., a faculty member in a separate program). The students who opted to participate in the study signed the consent form (approved by the IRB) and responded to the study instrument (see below).

Procedure and Measure

The participants were asked to respond to the Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale (M-GUDS) at the beginning (pre-test) and the end (post-test) of a course. The first author, a faculty member not affiliated with the program, administered the scale to all participants with a prior explanation of the study purpose and consent procedures. The Miville-Guzman Universality-Diversity Scale (M-GUDS) involves 45 items, 6-point Likert self-report rating scale that purports to measure general openness and comfort level in interactions with persons from diverse ethnic, cultural, and linguistic backgrounds (Fuertes, Miville, Mohr, Sedlacek & Gretchen, 2000; Krentzman & Townsend, 2008). The scale's theoretical model postulates that the process of acquiring intercultural awareness and skills necessary for effective intercultural endeavors is critically dependent on the ability to tolerate similarities and differences between oneself and another. Thus, a counselor's level of tolerance of human differences is assumed to be one of the foundational components of his/her multicultural competency. In support of this assertion, Constantine, Arorash, Barakett, Blackmon, Donnelly and Edles (2001) showed that the

universal-diverse orientation, as measured by the M-GUDS, was a significant factor in predicting counselors' multicultural counseling knowledge and awareness, along with multicultural self-efficacy.

The M-GUDS was designed as a reflection of the Universal-Diverse Orientation (UDO) concept defined as “an attitude toward all other persons which is inclusive yet differentiating in that similarities and differences are both recognized and accepted” (Miville, Gelso, Pannu, Liu, Touradji, Holloway & Fuertes, 1999, p. 292). The UDO encompasses an overarching awareness and appreciation of human similarities and differences comprised of the interrelated cognitive, affective and behavioral components. These components are represented in the M-GUDS's three scales: (1) Diversity of Contact that reflects the extent to which the respondent seeks diversity in contact with others, (2) Relativistic Appreciation that represents the respondent's sense of connection with larger society or humanity, and (3) Comfort with Differences that shows the respondent's appreciation of self and others. However, studies of the internal structure of the UDO indicated that it is best conceptualized as a single construct reflective of intersecting cognitive, affective and behavioral layers (Miville et al., 1999).

The results of the studies on the psychometric properties of the M-GUDS evidenced acceptable levels of the scale's reliability and validity (Miville et al., 1999; Krentzman & Townsend, 2008). The test-retest reliability of the M-GUDS ($r=.93$) was established using a heterogeneous sample of college students. The scale's convergent and discriminant validities were supported by theory-congruent significant relations with measures of racial identity, homophobia, dogmatism, feminism, and androgyny. Further, the UDO was established to be an important factor accounting for the openness and comfort level reported by college students in counseling. The scores on the M-GUDS have also been found to relate to self-efficacy and

effective coping skills. Importantly, in a review of measures of cultural competence (Krentzman & Townsend, 2008), the M-GUDS was one of the few measures that met the highest standards on at least 7 out of 10 rating scale quality criteria, with the particular strengths in the areas of overall validity (content, construct, or criterion-related), validity with diverse respondents, and reliability (test-retest reliability and internal consistency).

Results

The total of 169 responses to the M-GUDS were collected, 87 at pre-test and 82 at post-test. The responses were collected across three consecutive years as follows: 44 in first year, 39 in second year, and 86 in third year. Across the three years, responses were collected during both fall and spring semesters, resulting in 93 responses in fall semesters and 76 in spring semesters. Table 1 outlines the distribution of responses across the two curriculum designs (MC course and MC infusion) and two instructors (Instructor 1 and Instructor 2). Overall, 75 (44%) responses were obtained in the multicultural courses (MC course=Group 1) and 94 (66%) in other five program courses (MC infusion=Group 2). Responses were almost equally distributed across two instructors, with 83 and 86 responses for Instructor 1 and Instructor 2, respectively.

Table 1. Pre- and post-test response distribution across the curriculum designs (MC course and MC infusion) and instructors (Instructor 1 and Instructor 2).

| MC course (Group 1) | | | | MC infusion (Group 2) | | | |
|-----------------------------|----|------------------------|----|------------------------|----|------------------------|----|
| Pre-test/Instructor # | | Post-test/Instructor # | | Pre-test/Instructor # | | Post-test/Instructor # | |
| #1 | #2 | #1 | #2 | #1 | #2 | #1 | #2 |
| 19 | 19 | 19 | 18 | 24 | 25 | 21 | 24 |
| Total 38 | | Total 37 | | Total 49 | | Total 45 | |
| Total MC course = 75 | | | | Total MC infusion = 94 | | | |
| Grand total = 169 responses | | | | | | | |

ANOVAs were conducted to compare the groups (MC course=Group 1 and MC infusion=Group 2) on the total M-GUDS score, separately for pre-test and post-test (see Table 2). At pre-test, there was no significant difference [$F(1,85)=.907, p=.344$] between Group 1 (mean=215.21, SD=21.40, n=38) and Group 2 (mean=219.66, SD=21.58, n=49). Thus, the students enrolled in courses across the two multicultural curriculum designs (MC course and MC infusion) reported similar levels of their overall openness towards diverse populations at the beginning of courses. In contrast, at post-test, Group 1 (mean=225.03, SD=17.75, n=37) obtained significantly higher score [$F(1,81)=10.18, p=.002$] than Group 2 (mean=211.36, SD=18.89, n=45). Thus, at the conclusion of the courses, students in multicultural courses (MC course) self-reported significantly higher level of their overall openness towards diverse populations than their counterparts in other program courses (MC infusion). These results suggest that the explicit multicultural curriculum design (MC course) is more effective, compared to the implicit

curriculum design (MC infusion), in terms of increasing student openness and comfort with diverse populations.

Table 2. The results of ANOVAs on the M-GUDS total score across the curriculum designs (MC course and MC infusion) at the pre-test and post-test.

| | MC course (Group 1) | | | MC infusion (Group 2) | | | <i>F</i> | <i>p</i> |
|-----------|---------------------|--------|-------|-----------------------|--------|-------|---------------|----------|
| | n | M | SD | n | M | SD | | |
| Pre-test | 38 | 215.21 | 21.40 | 49 | 219.66 | 21.58 | (1, 85)=.097 | .344 |
| Post-test | 37 | 225.03 | 17.75 | 45 | 211.36 | 18.89 | (1, 81)=10.18 | .002 |

Implications for the Counselor Education and Counseling Disciplines

The following is a series of recommendations based on the current study's results consistent with the existing literature, which have implications for counselor education programs, counselors-in-training, and practitioners in the field of counseling.

Counselors-in-training in the current study who were taught multicultural competencies in the form of a single multicultural course (explicit curriculum design) self-report significantly higher levels of openness and comfort in interactions with diverse populations than their peers taught through infusion of multicultural concepts and skills into other counseling courses (implicit curriculum design). Consequently, counselor education programs should implement and/or continue teaching multicultural competencies via a single multicultural course that exclusively focuses on these competencies without the interference of other content areas.

Importantly, from a chronological curricular standpoint, the multicultural course should be inserted during the initial phase of the counselor education training rather than at the end of

the trainees' preparation. The multicultural counseling course must set the diversity/multicultural compass that will shape the academic lenses from which the students see the content areas taught in other courses throughout the program. Isolation of a single multicultural course to cover the "quota" established by the accrediting and licensing bodies is not only insufficient but also professionally irresponsible.

It remains unclear whether the advantage of the explicit curriculum design (i.e., a single multicultural course) in increasing student openness and comfort towards diverse populations is evident in the current study and is related to any factors associated with the instructors. The instructors in this study possessed more extensive expertise, experience, and interest in the multicultural content compared to other counseling faculty members whose areas of expertise are not multiculturalism. Several previous studies indicated that the instructor's competence in terms of his/her multicultural awareness, identity development, and skill level may have an impact on student multicultural outcomes. Further, Fier and Ramsey (2005) and Henriksen (2006) established the importance for counselor educators to maintain an ongoing self-awareness of their own multicultural issues that must be aligned with the course's content and the changes in the field of multiculturalism. In congruence with this imperative, Seward (2013) reported that students were more satisfied with an instructor who had more multicultural experience compared to others who lacked authentic multicultural experience. The levels of passion, commitment, and lifestyle aligned with the multicultural agenda can potentially affect the way students learn about diversity and multiculturalism.

The difference between an inspiring and motivating instructor versus an uncommitted counterpart may shed some additional light in the way diversity and multiculturalism are viewed by counselors-in-training. This can be summarized by a quote from Lang (2013, p.2): "I would

love to be able to tell you that the research literature on teaching and learning in higher education—or at any educational level—provides a clear demonstration that teachers' enthusiasm and passion for their subject matter translate into greater student learning. It seems like such an intuitive conclusion: Our enthusiasm for the subject matter will motivate our students to work harder, which will then translate into deeper learning and longer retention of course material. Unfortunately, as even the most superficial of searches in the literature will reveal to you, no real evidence exists for that connection.”

This study utilized a measure of openness and comfort in interacting with diverse populations that integrates the cognitive, affective and behavioral components of multicultural competence. Consequently, it remains unclear which of the trainee’s domains, cognitive, affective and/or behavioral, were influenced by the multicultural curriculum. Furthermore, this study’s results do not offer an insight into the impact of multicultural curricula on trainees’ long-term multicultural personal and professional changes. Clearly, the manifestation of long term changes in counselors’ cognitions, emotions, and behaviors necessitates the use of multiple research methodologies and longitudinal studies. In particular, longitudinal studies stressing permanent and consistent changes in multicultural behaviors while in training and in the field are needed to expand the scope of evidence of the effectiveness of the multicultural curriculum designs.

Perhaps in the absence of extrinsic training factors such as course lectures, activities, assignments, readings and the influence of a professor in the classroom, counselors may be capable of maintaining their level of openness to diversity and transcend the daily challenges posed by their multicultural encounters with ethnically and racially diverse clientele. Yet, it will remain uncertain whether the phenomenon of transcendence, longevity, and permanency of

knowledge as evidenced by their daily professional interactions and behavior result from exposure to multicultural counseling course (i.e., explicit multicultural curriculum design) or courses containing information about diversity in the curriculum (i.e., implicit multicultural curriculum).

The proposed recommendations must be considered with caution given several methodological limitations of the study. Importantly, the results were obtained from a single graduate counseling program at a Midwest metropolitan private higher education institution. Consequently, the size of the study sample and the demographic characteristics of the participants were limited. In this context, the generalizability of the results may be compromised and the results may not be applicable to counseling programs that serve different student populations.

Conclusion

The effectiveness of multicultural curriculum design is critical to ensure that counselors-in-training acquire a minimal skill set to work with an increasingly multicultural population of the 21st century. Consequently, counselor education programs must evaluate the existing assumptions and pedagogies that traditionally are assumed to promote multicultural learning. With multicultural training established as an integral part of all counselor education programs, multiple pedagogical strategies and curricular designs supporting the acquisition of multicultural competencies shape the way multicultural training is delivered. While both explicit and implicit curriculum designs for multicultural training seem to be beneficial to counselors-in-training, the explicit design appears to lead to more impactful multicultural learning outcomes.

The current study evidenced that explicit multicultural curriculum design (i.e., a stand-alone multicultural course) is an effective approach to facilitate trainees' overall multicultural

development reflected in their openness and comfort in interactions with diverse populations. However, further research is needed to explore the impact of the multicultural curriculum designs on trainees' domain-specific changes (i.e., cognitive, affective and behavioral) in order to effectively facilitate comprehensive, multi-dimensional multicultural learning. Furthermore, a variety of assessment methods (i.e., tests, quizzes, reports, presentations, reflection journals, service learning activities) should be used to demonstrate that counselors-in-training will become multiculturally skilled professionals when working with diverse populations. This premise needs to be further investigated via longitudinal studies in the field after the completion of trainees' degrees in order to explore the long-term impact of different types of multicultural curriculum designs.

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Flipping the Counseling Classroom to Enhance Application-Based Activities

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Flipped learning is an instructional approach that employs asynchronous video lectures as homework and active, group-based activities in the classroom (Bishop, 2013). During the past decade, this teaching approach has increased in popularity among K-12 teachers and higher education instructors. Though one model of flipped learning is traditionally described in the literature, several models exist and are detailed in this article. Flipped learning is particularly beneficial to counselor education as it can help increase available class time for practicing counseling skills, engaging in application-based activities, and participating in class discussions. Four specific CACREP core curricular areas are addressed: Helping Relationships, Group Work, Career Development, and Social and Cultural Diversity, as the CACREP standards in each of these areas require learning both information and skills

Keywords: flipped learning, flipping, counselor education, teaching, technology, experiential activities

Despite recent increased attention to teaching in counselor education (Orr, Hull, & Hulse-Killacky, 2008) counselor educators often face a teaching-related dilemma that has not yet been resolved. When deciding how to teach a given class, counselor educators frequently must choose between lecturing about content or facilitating application-based activities, which can highlight the relevance of content in practical application (Gladding & Ivers, 2012; Sommers-Flanagan & Heck, 2012). Counselor educators are often torn between how much factual information students need exposure to versus how much counseling practice they should have in class (Gladding & Ivers, 2012). In skill-based counseling classes in particular, such as Counseling Techniques or Group Counseling, counselor educators must balance substantial course content with application-based activities so that students can practice counseling skills in a supervised context (Sommers-Flanagan & Heck, 2012). Because both application-based activities and thoughtfully-planned lectures can serve to benefit students' learning (McAuliffe, 2011), choosing

only one of these teaching approaches is not sufficient. To date, no literature has suggested how to solve this predicament for counselor educators.

Flipped learning offers a potential solution to this dilemma and a dilemma many instructors face—freeing up class time (Wallace, Walker, Braseby, & Sweet, 2014). In flipped learning, students view pre-recorded video lectures for homework, thus freeing up most of class time for application-based activities (Gerstein, 2012; Grant, 2013). Flipped learning can allow counselor educators to distribute content to students via pre-recorded video lectures to watch outside of class, making most of class time available for practicing counseling skills, group discussions, answering students' questions, reflections on content, and other activities. Although the ideas underlying flipped learning are not new—asking students to learn content prior to attending class—the addition of pre-recorded video lectures in flipped learning offers students a new way to prepare for class and make better use of time in class (Sams & Bergmann, 2013). Indeed, many counselor educators already spend some of their time in class engaging students in experiential activities (Emmett & McAuliffe, 2011; Gladding & Ivers, 2012; Young & Hundley, 2013). Flipped learning allows counselor educators to fill nearly all of class time with application-based activities, providing even more time for students to apply the content they are learning. In this way, flipped learning is a pedagogical approach better aligned with current educational practices that already incorporate the use of collaborative, experiential activities (Grant, 2013). By providing students with more class time to apply course content, flipped learning allows counselor educators to act as facilitators during class, guiding classroom discussions, activities, and the application of content (Grant, 2015). This facilitation of content application could lead to an improved understanding of counseling topics among students and potentially, more competent and effective professional counselors.

The purpose of this article is fourfold. First, the author clarifies the definition of flipped learning by differentiating between flipped learning and other online teaching terms, then presents four flipped learning models. Second, she reviews current empirical studies about flipped learning in higher education. Third, the author introduces free digital tools used in implementing flipped learning. Finally, she presents four examples of the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs' (CACREP) core curricular areas in which flipped learning is most applicable. These explanations include suggestions for in-class and out-of-class activities for each core curricular area.

Flipped Learning

Flipped learning uses digital technologies in conjunction with face-to-face classroom instruction so that educators can make the most of in-class time with students by reserving it for activities that require interpersonal interaction (Hamdan, McKnight, McKnight, & Arfstrom, 2013). In the most common form of flipped learning, course content is given to students as homework via pre-recorded video lectures so that all of class time can be used for application-based activities (Hamdan et al., 2013; Seery, 2015). In doing so, flipped learning provides time for educators to deliver important content to students (outside of class) and engage students in higher-order thinking (during class) (Sams & Bergmann, 2013). Thus, flipped learning can allow counselor educators to maintain a critical balance between lecture and application-based activities so that students have adequate time to learn course content and apply and practice counseling skills. Flipped learning also allows for differentiation (Sams & Bergman, 2013) and supports the learning needs of diverse learners, such as non-native English speakers (Berge, 2015). It does so by providing pre-class content via both print materials and videos, which assists students in learning content in a manner that suits them best (Berge, 2015). Furthermore,

separating content delivery from content application may benefit the learning process (Hamdan et al., 2013). As Berge (2015) explained, “All students benefits from a reduction in cognitive load by learning basic material in advance, instead of learning that knowledge in the same class where they are expected to apply it” (p. 167). Although most research on flipped learning contains similar definitions of the approach (Bishop & Verleger, 2013; Davies, Dean, & Ball, 2013; Moran & Milsom, 2015), an in-depth examination of flipped learning literature reveals several different flipped learning models. The following is a description of four of these models.

Models

Much of the current interest in flipped learning can be traced to high school science teachers Jonathan Bergmann and Aaron Sams, who began flipping their classes in 2006 and have since published their experiences (Bergmann & Sams, 2012; Moran & Milsom, 2015). Their original model of flipped learning is referred to as the *Traditional Flipped Learning Model*, and includes previously described components such as students watching prerecorded video lectures outside of class and engaging in application-based activities in class. In this model, time is restructured so that what is traditionally done during face-to-face class meetings is now done at home, and what is traditionally done at home is now done in class. An adapted version of this model, *The Flipped Mastery Model*, combines principles of mastery learning (students learning at their own paces towards predetermined educational objectives) with the flipped classroom. Students watch pre-recorded video lectures both inside and outside of class at their own pace, then engage in application-based activities in the classroom asynchronously, with teachers and other students available to assist with this self-paced learning (Bergmann & Sams, 2012).

Explore Flip Apply is a flipped learning model that merges inquiry learning with flipped learning by having students initially investigate a topic in class using an exploratory activity,

then watch pre-recorded lecture videos outside of class about basic aspects of that same topic, followed by application-based activities in class pertaining to the topic (Musallem, 2011). Similarly, *Experiential Flipped Learning* is a model that begins with an experiential activity to engage students' exploration of a topic, followed by viewing a pre-recorded video lecture, website, online reading, or online simulation about the topic asynchronously. Students then reflect on the purpose or relevance of the topic and create written or recorded projects such as blogs or audio recordings explaining their grasp of the topic. Lastly, students demonstrate what they learned about the topic by creating an individualized project that applies what they have learned to their everyday lives (Gerstein, 2012).

The remainder of this article applies Bergmann and Sam's Traditional Flipped Learning Model to counselor education, as it is the most relevant flipped learning model for the field. Though the other models described warrant merit, the Traditional Flipped Learning Model is most similar to how typical counselor education courses are taught. Transitioning from a non-flipped counseling class that already employs application-based activities and lecture during class time to a flipped counseling class using the Traditional Flipped Learning Model (employing pre-recorded video lectures for homework and application-based activities in class) is a simpler transition to a still-familiar way to teach compared to the other flipped learning models. It is therefore a more feasible endeavor for most instructors as a first approach to flipping their classrooms than using the other flipped learning models described above.

Definitions

Given multiple models of flipped learning, defining the approach can be challenging. In general, flipped learning is a teaching approach in which direct computer-based individual instruction occurs outside of class, and most interactive group learning activities occur in class

(Bishop & Verleger, 2013). Thus, in a flipped classroom, “Class becomes the place to work through problems, advance concepts, and engage in collaborative learning” (Gerstein, 2012, Location 61). Some authors have proposed that flipped learning can be defined by assigning paper-based readings outside of class and implementing activities during class, however, the author and other researchers conclude that definitions like this become too broad and merit rejection (Bishop & Verleger, 2013) when considering flipped learning in counselor education. This is not to say that readings no longer belong in counselor education; counselor educators using flipped learning may benefit from assigning pre-recorded video lectures to students for homework in addition to selected reading assignments. Both traditional and flipped classrooms may use out-of-class activities to facilitate student learning, however in flipped classrooms, those out-of-class activities include some form of computer-based instruction, such as video lectures (Bishop & Verleger, 2013).

Terms like *online learning*, *distance education*, *hybrid learning* and *blended learning* are commonplace these days. Although these terms are not synonymous with flipped learning, they are related. For example, blended learning is also known as hybrid learning, and refers to a teaching method in which instructors integrate face-to-face learning experiences with online learning experiences (Garrison & Kanuka, 2004; Helms, 2014). Flipped learning represents a type of blended or hybrid learning because students engage in learning both in person during class sessions, and online, outside of class session (Berge, 2015; Lankford, 2013). Flipped learning differs from blended learning, however, because the former primarily emphasizes how to address different types of learning in class, whereas the latter primarily focuses on using technology to engage students (Berge, 2015; Lankford, 2013). Distance education, also known as online learning, occurs remotely and students never meet face-to-face (Hamdan et al., 2013).

Because flipped learning involves an essential in-person classroom component, it is not considered online learning or distance education (Hamdan, et al., 2013). In flipped classrooms, class activities or sessions are not replaced by technology, but rather, enhanced by it. By distributing course content outside of class, flipped learning allows educators to spend all of their class time implementing application-based experiential activities, discussions, and group work (Gerstein, 2012).

Research on Flipped Learning

The prominence and frequency of flipped learning in K-12 schools and higher education has increased during the past several years (Educause, 2012; Moran & Milsom, 2015). Empirical research on the outcomes of flipped learning has followed suit, but is still nascent. A 2012 review of 24 empirical studies analyzing outcome data of flipped learning in higher education and high school settings found that student perceptions of flipped classrooms tended to be positive, with a consistent few dissenting students (Bishop & Verleger, 2013). Additional studies not included in the review also suggest that most students have positive reactions to flipped learning (Davies et al., 2013; Khanova, Roth, Rodgers, & McLaughlin, 2015; Lage, Platt, & Treglia, 2000; McLaughlin et al., 2014; Seery, 2015; Strayer, 2012). Research on instructor reactions to using flipped learning suggest positive responses overall (Brown, 2012; Lage et al., 2000). Furthermore, some research indicates that flipped learning may improve student achievement (McLaughlin et al., 2014; Seery, 2015; Tune, Sturek, & Basile, 2013) or produce student achievement equal to achievement in traditional classrooms (Davies et al., 2013; Jensen, Kummer, & Godoy, 2015). These findings of achievement are especially of note. If future research can confirm increases in student achievement due to flipped learning, then the case for

flipped learning will be a strong one. Until then, despite similar findings from these studies, final conclusions cannot be drawn from only several, small-scale studies.

To date, only two peer-reviewed articles have described flipped learning in counselor education. In 2015, Moran and Milsom published a case study of a flipped counseling classroom. In their case study, Moran and Milsom described a master's-level Foundations of School Counseling Course with 15 students that was flipped to present "webinars, narrated PowerPoints, readings, and discussion questions or reflective writing activities" to students before class, and guest speakers, discussion, projects, and group activities in class. Students' self-reported feedback indicated that the majority of students believed that the pre-class and in-class activities facilitated their learning. For example, 12 of 15 students reported that reviewing narrated PowerPoints before class facilitated their learning "somewhat" or "very much." Similarly, 12 students reported that participating in small group experiential projects in class "very much" facilitated their learning (Moran & Milsom, 2015). This case study demonstrates the relevance and feasibility of using a flipped learning approach in counselor education. However, due to the limited sample size, formal analyses could not be conducted.

Fulton and Gonzalez (2015) studied flipped learning in two Career Counseling courses. They conducted a pre-experimental study measuring students' attitudes and values for career counseling before and after participating in a flipped Career Counseling course. As expected, researchers found significant positive changes in students' Career Counseling values and attitudes after completing the flipped course. This study suggests the value of a flipped approach when teaching Career Counseling, however without a control group, this study did not compare the flipped Career Counseling course to a traditional Career Counseling course (Fulton & Gonzalez, 2015).

Because empirical studies on flipped learning in counselor education are limited, the field can benefit from looking to flipped learning outcomes in other practitioner-focused disciplines, as flipped learning has gained considerable attention in fields such as medicine, dentistry, nursing, and pharmacy education (Khanova et al., 2015). Since 2012, Stanford Medical School has used a flipped learning model in its core biochemistry course. Research comparing Stanford's flipped classrooms to their previous traditionally structured classrooms showed an increase in course test average (from 41% to 74%) and attendance rate (from 30% to 80%), despite the fact that attendance in class was optional (Prober & Heath, 2012). At the UNC-Chapel Hill Eshelman School of Pharmacy, professor Russell Mumper has flipped a first-year pharmacy class annually since 2011. Outcome data found statistically significant gains in student performance in the flipped classroom (average final exam scores were five percentage points higher than the average final exam score for students in the traditional classroom), as well as 90% of students who preferred flipped learning to traditional learning (McLaughlin et al., 2014). The successful implementation of flipped learning in schools that prepare professionals in medicine and pharmacy suggest that the teaching approach warrants consideration in counselor education as well, given its professional preparation emphasis.

Moreover, the crux of flipped learning lies in the application-based activities that occur during class (Wallace et al., 2014). Research on such experiential activities in counselor education can suggest the benefit of flipped learning, too. Experiential learning strategies, those based on a cycle of experience and reflection, appear common in counselor education, across courses such as group work, multicultural counseling, and couples/family counseling (Fulton & Gonzalez, 2015). Experiential learning strategies are effective methods to educate students about counseling knowledge, skills, and populations (Warren, Hof, McGriff, & Morris, 2012). Role

play, for example, is one common experiential activity in counselor education courses that is an engaging activity, effective in helping students feel more comfortable in the role of counselor (Smith, 2009). Given research indicating the value of experiential learning strategies in counselor education, and the primary use of experiential activities in flipped classrooms, flipped learning in counselor education also appears beneficial.

Technological Resources for Flipped Learning

In flipped learning, content is delivered to students prior to class meetings, and typically consists of short video lectures recorded using video-capture software, then uploaded to the Internet for students to view (Grant, 2013). Free technological tools are available to educators in order to record these video lectures so that students can view, pause, fast-forward, and rewind in order to better understand concepts (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). These tools allow users to record on-screen presentations and voice over PowerPoints. The availability of screen cast software is ever changing, some examples are: Quicktime, Profcast, Educreations, and Screencast-O-Matic, but it is recommended that readers complete online searches for additional software for educators. In order to use flipped learning, pre-recorded video lectures do not always have to be created, however. Counselor educators can use previously published webinar videos from relevant online sources. Table 1 lists online sources for recorded videos to use in flipped learning. As flipped learning increases in prominence, counselor educators will benefit from collaborating and sharing their videos with one another through tools like these. Moreover, other online resources, such as “wikis, blogs, discussion forums, social media sharing, and social networking sites,” can also supplement pre-recorded video lectures as pre-class content (Grant, 2015, p. 5).

Table 1
Online Sources for Relevant Videos

| Source for Videos | Website |
|---------------------------------|--|
| American Counseling Association | www.counseling.org/continuing-education/webinars |
| YouTubeEDU | www.youtube.com/t/education |
| Khan Academy | www.khanacademy.org |
| Videojug | www.videojug.com |

In addition to designing video-based lectures, counselor educators benefit from putting equal amounts of thought and time into planning high-quality, engaging in-class activities. As Bergmann and Sams (2012) reminded their readers, “Despite the attention that the videos get, the greatest benefit to any flipped classroom is not the videos. It’s the in-class time that every teacher must evaluate and redesign” (p. 47). In counselor education, much of class time can be well-spent allowing students to observe, model, and practice counseling skills using application-based learning activities such as role plays, fishbowl exercises, counseling simulations, and demonstrations of counseling techniques. The CACREP core curricular areas can help guide the content addressed in specific application-based activities used in classes.

Applying Flipped Learning to Counselor Education

CACREP delineates eight common core curricular areas in which all students in accredited programs must be knowledgeable (CACREP Standards, 2016). Though flipped learning can offer benefits to students’ learning in all of these areas, four of the common core curricular areas are particularly appropriate curricular contexts in which to flip the counseling classroom. These areas are explained in-depth next, in order to demonstrate how any core curricular area could be addressed using flipped learning. Two of these areas, Counseling and Helping Relationships (II.F.5) and Group Counseling and Group Work (II.F.6), are appropriate for flipping because their standards require teaching information that is best presented via lecture, as well as learning counseling skills, which is best learned through hands-on practice.

Career Development (II.F.4) and Social and Cultural Diversity (II.F.2), the other two areas recommended for flipping, include some standards that are best presented via lecture (such as information to be learned, like counseling theories) and other standards that are best understood through experiential activities and exploration in class. The area descriptions below highlight these four areas and how flipped learning can be used in each.

Helping Relationships

The Helping Relationships (II.F.5) common core curricular area includes standards designed to introduce students to core counseling skills while also teaching how to make meaning in the context of counseling relationships (Eriksen & McAuliffe, 2011). Teaching a Counseling Techniques course can be daunting because counselor educators must balance providing students with a substantial amount of course content while providing opportunities for counseling practice, experiential activities, observation, feedback, and supervision (Sommers-Flanagan & Heck, 2012). One recommended sequence of learning in a Counseling Techniques course includes students learning about a skill, practicing the skill, discussing the skill in class, watching a demonstration of the skill and evaluating the demonstration, trying the skill in class in practice counseling sessions, evaluating their own and others' performances, and discussing the experience as a class (Eriksen & McAuliffe, 2011). Flipped learning can facilitate this learning sequence by teaching about counseling skills in pre-recorded video lectures, then allowing students to practice, discuss, observe, and evaluate skills in class.

To establish minimal counseling skills competency, students need exposure to basic information about counseling skills (Sommers-Flanagan & Heck, 2012). This information can be presented to students via pre-recorded video lectures that they watch outside of class. These lectures can include information about basic interviewing and counseling skills, wellness and

prevention in counseling, beneficial counselor characteristics and behaviors, and counseling theories that provide students with models for case conceptualization (CACREP Standards, 2016). Additionally, students can benefit from observing counseling skills in action (Sommers-Flanagan & Heck, 2012). Video recorded lectures can include counseling demonstrations so that students can view and consider specific counseling skills prior to attending class.

Activity is essential for students to retain knowledge of the counseling skills they are taught (Eriksen & McAuliffe, 2011). Flipped learning allows counselor educators to allot most or all of class time to such active learning by having students watch pre-recorded video lectures outside of class. Class time in a flipped Counseling Techniques course can be used for students to discuss the counseling skills they have learned, practice them with classmates, evaluate their own and others' performances, and discuss their experiences with the class. Students can act out fictitious counseling role-plays, observe or enact live demonstrations, and create planned scripts to demonstrate techniques to the class (Eriksen & McAuliffe, 2011). Table 2 illustrates the CACREP National Standards (2016) that a flipped counseling techniques course can present via pre-recorded lectures, as well as an example of a traditional classroom schedule and a flipped classroom schedule that address Helping Relationships standards.

Table 2

Helping Relationships: CACREP Standards and a Flipped Classroom Example

| CACREP Common Area | CACREP National Standards (2016) that can be addressed in pre-recorded video lecture | Traditional Classroom Example | Flipped Classroom Example |
|------------------------------|--|---|--|
| Helping Relationships | F5a. Theories and models of counseling F5f. Counselor characteristics and behaviors that influence the counseling process F5g. Essential interviewing, counseling, and case conceptualization skills | <i>Homework: Read book chapters about summarizing and paraphrasing</i> Lecture of content (60 minutes) Question-and-answer about the lecture (15 minutes) Group activity practicing summarizing and paraphrasing (30 minutes) Partner activity practicing summarizing and paraphrasing (30 minutes) | <i>Homework: Watch 20-minute pre-recorded video lecture, Read 1 book chapter</i> Question-and-answer about the video lecture and readings (15 minutes) Group activity practicing summarizing and paraphrasing (30 minutes) Partner activity practicing summarizing and paraphrasing (30 minutes) Student role-play demonstrations of skill to class and receive feedback (30 minutes) Fishbowl activity observing classmates practice summarizing and paraphrasing (30 minutes) |

Table 2 shows that by flipping a Counseling Techniques course, a counselor educator can expand the amount of class time available for more counseling skills practice, while still giving students content about counseling skills via pre-recorded video lectures. The example in Table 2 demonstrates how a flipped Counseling Techniques course can gain an additional hour

of class time for application-based activities such as role-play demonstrations and a fishbowl activity, for which there may not be time in a traditionally designed class session.

Group Work

Like Helping Relationships, the CACREP common core curricular area of Group Work (II.F.6) requires that students learn and practice counseling competencies and skills, but in a group counseling setting. Group Counseling courses expose students to what it is like to be in a group, and what group process is (Eriksen & Bruck, 2011). Counselor educators often face a dilemma in deciding how much factual information to present in Group Counseling courses versus how much experiential practice to provide (Gladding & Ivers, 2012). Flipping a Group Counseling course allows counselor educators to present a sufficient amount of information about group counseling via pre-recorded lectures, while reserving most of class time for experiential activities and counseling practice. The video lectures that students watch outside of class can include content about the principles of group dynamics, group leadership styles, theories of group counseling, and group counseling methods (CACREP Standards, 2016). Time outside of class can also be used to watch group counseling demonstrations via video.

Group Counseling class time can be further limited because students typically participate in experiential growth groups for an hour each week (Young & Hundley, 2013), which in some counseling programs occupies course time that could be spent educating students about group counseling. Though engaging in an experiential growth group is beneficial to learning, counselor educators can use flipped learning to expand available class time for hands-on group counseling practice. Having watched pre-recorded video lectures, students can apply what they have learned from the lectures by engaging in role plays, simulations, and live demonstrations using group counseling skills, as well as observe classmates and instructors do the same (Eriksen

& McAuliffe, 2011). Table 3 shows how counselor educators can incorporate selected CACREP National Standards (2016) into a flipped Group Counseling course and how a flipped class schedule compares to a traditional classroom schedule in this core curricular area.

Table 3
Group Work: CACREP Standards and a Flipped Classroom Example

| CACREP Common Area | CACREP National Standards (2016) that can be addressed in pre-recorded video lecture | Traditional Classroom Example | Flipped Classroom Example |
|---------------------------|---|--|--|
| Group Work | F6a. Theoretical foundations of group counseling and group work F6b. Dynamics associated with group process and development F6d. Characteristics and functions of effective group leaders | <i>Homework: Read book chapters about drawing out, cutting off, and linking</i> Lecture of content (60 minutes) Question and answer about the lecture (15 minutes) Experiential Growth Group (60 minutes) | <i>Homework: Watch 20-minute pre-recorded video lecture, Read book chapters about drawing out, cutting off, and linking</i> Question and answer about the lecture and readings (15 minutes) Small group activity role-playing group counseling skills of drawing out, cutting off, and linking (30 minutes) Fishbowl activity evaluating classmates group counseling skills of drawing out, cutting off, and linking (30 minutes) Experiential Growth Group (60 minutes) |

Table 3 demonstrates how a flipped Group Counseling course can increase the amount of class time available for students to practice group counseling skills. In a traditional classroom setting, many counselor educators incorporate a one-hour experiential growth group into the

class time of their Group Counseling course. This group experience, combined with the lecture portion of a class, may occupy all of the available class time. By distributing information to students via pre-recorded lectures outside of class, the flipped learning approach can provide counselor educators with extra time to engage students in group counseling skills practice and activities.

Career Development

Though flipped learning is beneficial in counseling skills areas like Helping Relationships and Group Work, other common core curricular areas can also benefit from increased class time for activities and discussion. In Career Development (II.F.4), one such area, standards prescribe learning about career theory, career assessment, career information resources, and the career counseling process (Emmett & McAuliffe, 2011). This requires learning both the content and skills of career counseling. Of all counselor education courses, Career Counseling is often the most dreaded by students due to expectation that the course material is boring, dry, or repetitive of information they already know (Toman, 2012). Flipped learning can be used in Career Counseling classes to better engage students so that negative expectations are not met (Fulton & Gonzalez, 2015).

Much of Career Counseling content can be taught to students via pre-recorded video lectures. CACREP standards (2016) that can be addressed in this area via video recorded lectures are career development theories and decision-making models, occupational and labor market information, career resources, career planning and evaluation, assessment instruments and techniques relevant to career planning, and career counseling techniques.

In-class activities in a flipped Career Counseling course can allow students to practice career counseling techniques. For example, students can practice taking, administering, and

interpreting career assessments. Students can also role-play and practice applying specific career counseling theories with classmates and explore occupational information resources instead of only learning about them. Lastly, counselor educators can lead students in discussing case presentations related to career counseling and exploring their own life stories through the lens of career counseling (Marbley, Steele, & McAuliffe, 2011). Table 4 demonstrates the CACREP National Standards (2016) that a flipped Career Counseling course can present in pre-recorded lectures, as well as an example of a traditional classroom schedule and a flipped classroom schedule for this course.

Table 4
Career Development: CACREP Standards and a Flipped Classroom Example

| CACREP Common Area | CACREP National Standards (2016) addressed in pre-recorded video lecture | Traditional Classroom Example | Flipped Classroom Example |
|---------------------------|---|--|---|
| Career Development | F4a. Theories and models of career development, counseling, and decision making F4c. Processes for identifying and using career, avocational, educational, occupational and labor market information resources, technology, and information systems F4e. Strategies for assessing abilities, interests, values, personality and other factors that contribute to career development | <i>Homework: Read book chapters about career resources and career assessments, Research career resources online</i> Lecture of content (60 minutes) Question and answer about the lecture (15 minutes) Demonstration of career counseling assessment (30 minutes) Demonstration of career counseling resource (30 minutes) | <i>Homework: Watch 20-minute pre-recorded video lecture, Read book chapters about career resources and career assessments</i> Question and answer about the video lecture and readings (15 minutes) Practice administering career counseling assessments with partners (45 minutes) Exploration of career counseling resources and application to case study (45 minutes) Role playing with partners applying career counseling theory (30 minutes) |

When counselor educators teach students about career counseling content in class via lecture, they typically only have enough available time in class to demonstrate career counseling assessments and resources to students. As Table 4 shows, a flipped Career Counseling course increases available class time by an hour so that students can interact with career counseling assessments and resources by practicing administering those assessments, exploring resources and applying them to case studies, and role playing with partners to apply career counseling theories. These activities allow students to engage with career counseling in a more immersive way than they may be able to do in a traditionally designed Career Counseling course, due to time constraints.

Social and Cultural Diversity

Social and Cultural Diversity (II.F.2) is a CACREP common core curricular area with standards that typically are included in courses such as Theories and Techniques of Multicultural Counseling. This area of coursework seeks to foster the development of culturally competent and intentional counselors. It does so by urging students to become socially critical and aware of discrimination, privilege, and oppression (Marbley et al., 2011). Traditionally, student learning in this area focuses on three competencies: personal attitudes/awareness, knowledge, and skills (Marbley et al., 2011; Young & Hundley, 2013). In a flipped multicultural counseling course, pre-recorded video lectures can provide students with much of the knowledge that is central to cultural competency, such as multicultural trends among diverse groups, theories of multicultural counseling, identity development, and social justice, and counseling strategies for working with and advocating for diverse populations (CACREP Standards, 2016).

If video lectures focus on the knowledge required for cultural competency, in-class activities can concentrate on increasing student awareness and practicing multicultural

counseling skills. When executed in a comfortable, encouraging space that promotes participation and learning, experiential activities can be used in multicultural counseling course to inspire student reflection (Bell, Love, & Roberts, 2007). The skills competency in multicultural counseling courses is often neglected (Young & Hundley, 2013), but with increased class time available in flipped learning, counselor educators can also facilitate multicultural counseling skills practice among students. Role-plays, simulations, and live demonstrations can be used for students to practice advocating skills and counseling skills with diverse clients. Table 5 highlights the CACREP National Standards (2016) that a flipped counseling Multicultural Counseling course can present in pre-recorded lectures, as well as an example of a traditional classroom schedule and a flipped classroom schedule. This table shows how more class discussion, experiential activities, and processing can be done using a flipped course schedule in a flipped multicultural counseling course.

Table 5

Social and Cultural Diversity: CACREP Standards and a Flipped Classroom Example

| CACREP Common Area | CACREP National Standards (2016) addressed in pre-recorded video lecture | Traditional Classroom Example | Flipped Classroom Example |
|--------------------------------------|--|---|--|
| Social and Cultural Diversity | <p>F2a. Multicultural and pluralistic characteristics within and among diverse groups nationally and internationally</p> <p>F2b. theories and models of multicultural counseling, cultural identity development, and social justice and advocacy</p> <p>F2e. the effects of power and privilege for counselors and clients</p> | <p><i>Homework: Read book chapters about power, privilege, and oppression</i></p> <p>Lecture of content (60 minutes)</p> <p>Question and answer about the lecture (15 minutes)</p> <p>Experiential Activity 1 (re: privilege) and processing (30 minutes)</p> <p>Experiential Activity 2 (re: oppression) and processing (30 minutes)</p> | <p><i>Homework: Watch 20-minute pre-recorded video lecture, Read book chapters about power, privilege, and oppression</i></p> <p>Question and answer about the video lecture and readings (15 minutes)</p> <p>Class discussion of power, privilege, and oppression (30 minutes)</p> <p>Experiential Activity 1 (re: privilege) and processing (30 minutes)</p> <p>Experiential Activity 2 (re: oppression) and processing (30 minutes)</p> <p>Role play with partners to practice multicultural counseling skills (20 minutes)</p> <p>Closing discussion about thoughts and feelings about power/privilege/oppression (10 minutes)</p> |

Table 5 demonstrates how a flipped Multicultural Counseling course provides an extra hour of class time that would have been spent on lecture in a traditional counseling class, but in a flipped classroom can be spent on additional class discussions, counseling practice, and increased time processing experiential activities with students. By reserving most content for pre-recorded video lectures for students to watch outside of class, counselor educators can have more adequate time to engage students in application-based activities so that topics are explored and discussed to the depth they warrant.

Limitations

Despite the relevant application of flipped learning to counselor education, flipped learning has several drawbacks (Moran & Milsom, 2015). One common objection is the extensive time required to prepare and execute a flipped classroom (Grant, 2013; November & Mull, 2012). Although the initial investment of time required to prepare a flipped classroom may be greater than that of a traditional classroom, once an educator is fluent in the flipped learning approach, the preparation time needed for a flipped classroom may be equal to that of a traditional classroom, which could require developing a full-length lecture (Grant, 2013). Lengths of pre-recorded lectures vary, but research indicates that most are significantly shorter than in-class lectures, which may correspond with shorter preparation times, as well (Seery, 2015). In addition, flipped learning requires that students have access to technology to participate in pre-class activities (Grant, 2013). Although this is a valid limitation of the approach, especially when considering low-income students who may have restricted technological resources (Berge, 2015), counselor educators can be a voice of advocacy for university resources to be directed towards free, on-campus computers and high-speed Internet access for students to use. Student compliance may also be a limitation for flipped learning.

When students do not view assigned video lectures for homework, their ability to fully participate in in-class application-based activities is limited. This problem may result in informal consequences, such as students struggling to understand the activities. Formal consequences, however, can include requiring students who have not viewed assigned video lectures for homework to view those video lectures during class time instead of participating in class activities. Bergmann and Sams (2012) report that providing such a consequence typically reduces future student non-compliance, as students prefer to not miss out on class activities with peers.

Flipped learning is also not an appropriate teaching approach for all courses. Inquiry-based classes or those without heavy content are not ideal for the approach (Sams & Bergmann, 2013). In counselor education, for example, clinical courses such as practicum and internship are not well-suited for flipped learning. Similarly, flipped learning may not be well-suited to all topics within a course, as some topics may be more appropriate for an in-class lecture format. These topics include those that are especially complex or sensitive, which benefit from more in-class explanation and interactive discussion with students during lecture. Finally, students in courses with new and different course formats may provide more critical course evaluations than those in traditional classrooms (Grant, 2013). University administrators that encourage teaching innovations can address this limitation by ensuring that educators who embrace an innovative approach like flipped learning are protected from critical student evaluations, if they result solely because of student resistance to change (Grant, 2013). Seery (2015) further noted that despite the commonly increased student workloads in flipped classrooms, students across studies overwhelmingly endorsed the teaching approach.

Conclusion and Implications

Though flipped learning is a promising approach for improved content and application-based learning in counselor education, flipped learning should not be considered a panacea (Hamdan, et al., 2013) for solving the dilemma counselor educators face when choosing to lecture about content or lead application-based activities in class. However, counselor educators are encouraged to take the first step in flipped learning by flipping selected class sessions over the course of a semester, as “a flipped classroom does not need to be flipped 100 percent of the time” (Berge, 2015, p. 167; Sams & Bergmann, 2013). Topics that require some explanation of content, but profit from application-based activity and practice in the classroom, are the best choices for flipped class designs. Topics within the four common core curricular areas in this article may be best suited to these initial experiments, though flipped learning can also be beneficial in other courses such as Counseling Theories, Marriage and Family Counseling, Research Methods, and Human Growth and Development.

Careful consideration of context is essential to ensure success in flipped learning. Educators should not create and assign video lectures for the sake of using this approach, but instead should consider assigning viewing of video recorded content if the topic at hand is appropriate for doing so (Bergmann & Sams, 2012). Moreover, counselor education students benefit from their instructors thoughtfully selecting in-class activities in flipped learning. Tucker (2012) emphasized this point when stating, “It’s not the instructional videos on their own, but how they are integrated into an overall approach, that makes the difference [in flipped learning]” (para. 3). Counselor educators should also consider the context of their own institutions and the needs of their students when deciding whether to flip certain classes. Though nascent literature suggests that flipped learning is a promising approach in higher education, counselor educators

ought to consider their own students' needs and preferences when designing flipped classrooms and respond appropriately to student reactions to this new teaching approach.

Moving forward, educators who are expected to implement flipped learning are increasing in numbers (Hamdan et al., 2013), thus, empirical literature addressing the effects of flipped learning is warranted and expected. Counselor education would benefit from being a part of this growing empirical literature base. Both student perception data and student achievement data in flipped counseling classrooms will better inform the use of this teaching approach. Research on flipped learning can also provide insight into which students benefit most from flipping, as well as in which counseling programs or classes more learning gains are apparent than others. For instance, it is currently unclear if full-time and part-time counseling students can benefit equally from flipped learning. Additionally, though the four core curricular areas highlighted in this article appear to be most relevant to flipped learning, research on flipping these classes can shed light on which specific curricular areas benefit most from flipped learning. Lastly, longitudinal studies can inform the field on whether or not flipping counseling classrooms ultimately produces more competent and effective professional counselors as determined by licensure exams and employer ratings.

Flipped learning is in its infancy in education and is even younger in counselor education. However, given its applicability to counselor education and existing research supporting its use in related fields, counselor educators would be wise to begin incorporating flipped learning into their work with counselors-in-training.

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The Doctoral Comprehensive Examination in Counselor Education: Faculty Members' Perception of its Purposes

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This research focused on faculty members' perceptions of the comprehensive examination in counselor education doctoral programs. A between-within repeated measure analysis of variance was computed to evaluate significant differences in perceptions of faculty toward five stated purposes of the comprehensive examination related to their current format of the comprehensive examination. Findings showed significant differences in perceptions within the five stated purposes of the comprehensive examination. There was no significant mean difference between faculty's perceptions of the stated purposes and the current format of the comprehensive examination; however, a significant interaction was found between the format and purposes of the exam. Implications for the profession as well as future research are presented.

Keywords: comprehensive examination, counselor education, assessment, doctoral degree, faculty perceptions

According to *Counselor Preparation: Programs, Faculty, and Trends*, the comprehensive examination is required in 94% of all doctoral counselor education programs (Schweiger, Henderson, McCaskill, Clawson, & Collins, 2012) yet literature is limited (Cobia et al., 2005; McAdams & Robertson, 2012; Schweiger, Henderson, Clawson, Collins, & Nuckolls, 2007) and outdated regarding the purpose of this assessment (Burch & Peterson, 1983; Peterson, Bowman, Myer, & Maidl, 1992; Manus, Bowden, & Dowd, 1992; Thomason, Parks, & Bloom, 1980). While there are multiple meanings and formats, global assumptions exist regarding the comprehensive examination as an assessment given to students preceding graduation. Widespread controversy, folklore, and students' horror stories exist about these examinations partly due to a dearth in the literature (Anderson, Krauskopf, Rogers, & Neal, 1984). Though ubiquitous in higher education, there is a lack of consensus on the comprehensive examination's

purpose within doctoral counselor education programs and across disciplines (Furstenberg & Nicholas-Casebolt, 2001; Ponder, Beatty, & Foxx, 2004).

The philosophical underpinnings of the comprehensive examination have changed over the decades, ranging from a need for students to publically distinguish themselves as future educators (Jones, 1933), to a rite of passage (Molbert, 1960), to facilitating cognitive complexity (Loughead, 1997), to preparing students for future scholarship (Ponder et al., 2004), and program evaluation (Cobia et al., 2005). Though prominent in higher education, Cobia et al. (2005) question if the historical purposes and formats of the comprehensive examination are consistent with current expectations and training in doctoral counseling programs, particularly in light of the shift within higher education toward outcome-based education (OBE), where the focus of curriculum and accreditation is on measuring and documenting student learning (CACREP, 2015; CHEA, 2010). As part of the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs' (CACREP) Assessment Phase (CACREP, 2015), programs are looking for a systemic approach to program evaluation and student learning outcomes. This article attempts to clarify the purpose of the comprehensive exam in counselor education doctoral programs as a first step in documenting their identified learning outcomes.

Scholars' primary recommendation for future research with respect to the comprehensive examination has been to identify and clarify the purpose of the exam (Peterson et al., 1992; Thomason et al., 1980). A lack of consensus about purpose often leads to an interpretation that comprehensive exams are a rite of passage (Tinker & Jackson, 2004). However, in counselor education, McKee, Smith, Hayes, Stewart, and Echterling (1999) defended a traditional purpose of comprehensive exams as an integral part of a program's culture which had positive benefits. Conversely, comprehensive examinations can be seen by students as "intellectual torture" due to

the vagueness of both the purpose of the exam and how to best prepare for it (Anderson et al., 1984, p. 81).

As a milestone in a students' progression towards their degree, Thomason et al. (1980) acknowledged a need to study the comprehensive examination in doctoral level counseling programs. Although exams may serve multiple purposes, Thomason et al. (1980) found the ultimate goal of the comprehensive exam was not clear. The authors suggested that the process should ultimately be a valuable learning experience for students. Peterson et al. (1992) followed up Thomason et al.'s (1980) profession-wide call and reported the top three purposes of the exam included: (a) integrating graduate education, (b) screening for minimum knowledge, and (c) learning experience for students. The inability to separate counselor education data from counseling psychology in both Thomason et al. (1980) and Peterson et al.'s (1992) research becomes problematic when attempting to study the examination in counselor education. It is important to note that both Peterson et al. (1992) and Thomason et al. (1980) based information from doctoral liaisons and department chairs, and did not include input from program faculty members' perceptions. Thus, this study attempts to understand faculty perceptions of the purpose of the comprehensive exam. Additionally, the authors explore the relationship of the purpose of the exam to the existing format and examine the interactions between the two.

Scholars have emphasized Bloom's taxonomy (Bloom, Madaus, & Hastings, 1981) as a framework for enhancing cognitive complexity throughout a doctoral counselor education program (Choate & Granello, 2006; Granello, 2010; Granello, Kindsvatter, Granello, Underfer-Babalis, & Moorhead, 2008). Loughead (1997) recommended utilizing Bloom's taxonomy as the primary purpose for designing the comprehensive examination, evaluating, and providing

feedback to students to facilitate higher order thinking. Loughead (1997) attempted to clarify uncertainty in the exam by stating,

In answering doctoral comprehensive examination questions, students are expected to recall knowledge and citations for that knowledge, be able to comprehend or understand material in their field of expertise, apply the knowledge to practical situations, analyze how various elements in concepts relate to one another, synthesize various types of information into a well-organized set of ideas, and evaluate what they have learned or developed based on some delineated criteria. (p. 143)

An extensive review of the literature within counselor education and across disciplines yielded five main purposes for the comprehensive examination: (1) *to assess lower levels of cognitive complexity* (Anderson et al., 1984; Burch & Peterson, 1983; Khanna & Khanna, 1972; Loughead, 1997; Manus et al., 1992; Peterson et al., 1992; Ponder et al., 2004; Saraf, 1985); (2) *to assess higher levels of cognitive complexity* (Anderson et al., 1984; Boes, Ullery, Millner, & Cobia, 1999; Estrem & Lucas, 2003; Fox, 1985; Loughead, 1997; Manus et al., 1992; Peterson et al., 1992; Ponder et al., 2004; Saraf, 1985); (3) *to promote a beneficial learning experience* (Cobia et al., 2005; Fox, 1985; Furstenberg & Nicholas-Casebolt, 2001; Peterson et al., 1992; Schafer & Giblin, 2008; Thomason et al., 1980); (4) *to prepare students for future scholarship* (Burch & Peterson, 1983; Cobia et al., 2005; Estrem & Lucas, 2003; Ponder et al., 2004; Thyer, 2003); and (5) *to maintain tradition* (Anderson et al., 1984; Beck & Becker, 1969; Eisenburg, 1965; McKee et al., 1999; Molbert, 1960; Saraf, 1985; Schafer & Giblin, 2008; Tomeo & Templer, 1999; Wolensky, 1979).

A variety of comprehensive examination formats are present in counselor education doctoral programs ranging from the customary onsite closed book written comprehensive

examinations to nontraditional formats, such as take home written exams, portfolios, submission for publication, or some combination of these formats (CACREP, 2011; Cobia et al., 2005; Peterson et al., 1992; Schweiger et al., 2007; Thomason et al., 1980). For the purpose of this study, the written examination was categorized into two separate formats: traditional and nontraditional. What was considered traditional and nontraditional was defined in literature by Fox (1985), Peterson et al. (1992) and Ponder et al. (2004). The Traditional Comprehensive Examination refers to a closed-book, onsite, written comprehensive examination. The Nontraditional Comprehensive Examination refers to any alternative format to the traditional exam (e.g., take home written examinations, portfolios, research paper, or a combination of these). Data from the current study serves to fill the gap in the literature regarding a more thorough understanding of faculty members' perceptions of the purposes of comprehensive examinations and will assist in guiding students through the comprehensive examination process.

Method

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Are there significant differences *among* faculty members' perceptions of the five purposes of the comprehensive examination?

Research Question 2: Are there any significant differences *between* faculty members' current format with respect to their perceptions of five purposes of the comprehensive examination?

Research Question 3: Is there a significant *interaction* between the format of the comprehensive examination and perceived purposes of the comprehensive examination?

Identification of the Population

The target population for this study was the entire pool of accessible faculty members teaching in doctoral counselor education programs. The sampling of programs were derived

from the CACREP directory of 58 accredited doctoral Counselor Education and Supervision programs (CACREP, 2011) as well as seven non-CACREP programs reported in *Counselor Preparation* (Schweiger, Henderson, McCaskill, Clawson, & Collins, 2012; Schweiger et al., 2007). Utilizing the CACREP website (2011), the researcher located 571 email addresses of current faculty members. Additionally, the researcher located 62 email addresses from the seven non-CACREP accredited doctoral programs.

Sample Characteristics

A total of 554 participants, all faculty members from CACREP and non-CACREP accredited programs were invited via email to complete the survey. The remaining faculty members' addresses were invalid. A total of 125 participants (22.2%) responded, however, only 95 (17.1%) of the invited participants were included for the statistical analyses due to incomplete data or faculty not teaching in counselor education. Of the respondents, 82 (86.3%) were from CACREP accredited programs, four (4.2%) were from non-CACREP accredited programs, two (2.1%) are currently in programs in the process of applying for accreditation, and seven (7.4%) did not respond to the question. Of those from CACREP accredited programs, participants are from the following regions: 39 (41.1%) Southern, 31 (32.6%) North Central, 16 (16.8%) North Atlantic, seven (7.4%) Rocky Mountain, and one (1%) Western.

Fifty-four (57.4%) females and 40 (42.5%) males responded to the question of gender. Among the participants, 81.1% identified as White or Caucasian, 8.4% Black or African American, 6.3% Hispanic or Latino, and 4.2% Asian. The mean number of years of previous experience as a counselor educator was 13.39 years ($N = 92$, $SD = 9.13$). The mean number of years of experience teaching at their current position in a doctoral counselor education program was 10.50 years ($N = 93$, $SD = 8.00$). Of the 94 respondents to professional status, 22 (23.2%)

identified Professor, 32 (33.7%) Assistant Professor, 31 (32.6%) Associate Professor, and nine (9.5%) other (i.e., Research Associate Professor, Clinical Associate Professor).

Instrumentation

A single survey instrument containing open-ended and Likert-scale questions was created for this study (see Appendix A for items). At the outset, content validity of the instrument was determined through the compilation of literature, resulting in the five identified purposes of doctoral comprehensive exams. Concurrently, the first author informally interviewed five counselor educators utilizing convenience sampling from the North Central Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (NCACES) region on the purpose of the examination. The researchers also reviewed previous surveys conducted by Nicolas-Casebolt and Furstenberg (2001), Peterson et al. (1992), Ponder et al. (2004), and Saraf (1985) regarding the comprehensive examination and utilized their purpose statements as well as open ended questions from the instruments. Permission to use and/or modify items was obtained from Peterson (personal communication, June 25, 2010) and Ponder (personal communication, October 7, 2010). Additionally, the researchers examined online information and handbooks for the 16 CACREP accredited Counselor Education and Supervision doctoral programs in the North Central Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (NCACES, 2011) for updated information on the purpose and format of the comprehensive examination.

After the instrument was developed, an exploratory pilot study was performed to increase reliability and enhance face validity (Light, Singer, & Willett, 1990), consisting of a convenience sample of ten individuals asked to cluster the 25 purpose statements into five categories. To increase item reliability, each of the identified five purposes was assessed with five separate statements, for a total of 25 survey items, listed in Appendix A. The quantitative items utilized a

5-point rating scale ranging from 1 (*important*), 2 (*somewhat important*), 3 (*neither important nor unimportant*), 4 (*somewhat unimportant*) to 5 (*unimportant*) to measure faculty members perceptions of the importance of each purpose of the comprehensive examination. Additional open-ended questions were included to address perceived strengths and limitations of the examination, current policies and procedures, and how faculty members planned to integrate the exam as an assessment addressing the 2009 CACREP standards.

A second pilot study was administered to 17 participants to test the psychometric properties and increase the reliability of the instrument. Due to the limited total number of faculty currently teaching in doctoral counselor education programs and response rates needed to provide statistical significance, 12 participants in three university settings included doctoral candidates who had already completed their comprehensive exams and were preparing for roles as counselor educators were utilized for item reliability in this pilot study. Additionally, five graduates of a doctoral Counselor Education and Supervision program who were not currently teaching in a doctoral program responded to the survey. Although a limitation, these individuals served to identify any key reliability item issues before administering to faculty members without taking away the limited number of participants. The internal-consistency of the instrument was assessed by calculating the Cronbach's alpha where coefficient alphas ranged in the study from .76 to .95. For a between subjects factor, repeated measure ANOVA, this study required a total sample size of 90, which ran with a medium effect size ($f = .25$), power ($1-\beta$ err prob) = .90, $\alpha = .05$, $r = .4$, with two groups and five measures (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007).

Data Collection Procedures

An online survey tool, Qualtrics, was used for data collection in this study. A link containing the survey was sent to email addresses obtained from department websites. The survey, informed consent, introduction letter and procedures were approved Institutional Review Board (IRB) prior to conducting this research. Researchers also adhered to the American Counseling Association and Association for Counselor Education and Supervision ethical codes. Data were analyzed using the computer software program SPSS V.17. All of the statistical hypotheses were tested at the alpha (α) = .05 level of significance to control for Type I error. To maintain statistical power, Light et al. (1990) recommend moderate to high power as well as a medium effect size to detect significant results. Outliers and other potential influential data were screened using scatter plots and additional post-hoc tests.

Results

This study examined faculty members' perceptions of the five stated purposes of the comprehensive examination. Furthermore, interactions were explored between the format of the examination and perceived purposes. The research analysis used in this study was a between-within repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA). With two groups and five measures, this study operated as a two-way ANOVA due to investigation of the between and within factors, in addition to the interaction effect.

Research Question 1: There was a significant mean difference in faculty members' perceptions of the five stated purposes of the comprehensive examination. Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been violated ($\chi^2(9) = 111.77, p < .05$); therefore degrees of freedom were corrected using Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity ($\epsilon = .65$). There was a significant group difference across the dependent measures, $F(2.6, 243.19) = 163.01$,

$p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .64$. Faculty rated *to assess higher levels of cognitive complexity* as the most important purpose of the comprehensive examination ($M = 7.17$ (1.4), $SD = 2.36$). Furthermore, respondents reported the individual item *to assess student's ability to synthesize and integrate* as the most important purpose statement ($M = 1.13$, $SD = .41$) and *to assess student's ability to evaluate and critique ideas* as the second most important ($M = 1.33$, $SD = .57$). Faculty rated the remaining purposes as follows: *to assess lower levels of cognitive complexity* ($M = 7.53$ (1.5), $SD = 2.77$), *to promote a beneficial learning experience* ($M = 8.78$ (1.7), $SD = 3.11$), *to prepare students for future scholarship* ($M = 9.66$ (1.9), $SD = 4.01$), and *to maintain tradition* ($M = 17.42$ (3.4), $SD = 5.13$). Finally, participants rated “an historic ritual in academia” as the least important purpose of all single item statements ($M = 3.63$, $SD = 1.19$).

Research Question 2: Findings yielded no significant mean difference in faculty's perceptions of the five stated purposes and the current format of the comprehensive examination. Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been violated ($\chi^2(9) = 111.77$, $p < .05$); therefore degrees of freedom were corrected using Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity ($\epsilon = .65$). Results showed that the purpose of the comprehensive examination was not significantly affected by the format, $F(1, 243.19) = .01$, $p > .05$.

Research Question 3: A significant interaction effect was found between the purpose of the comprehensive examination and format, $F(2.6, 93) = 10.14$, $p < .001$, partial $\eta^2 = .09$. A visual observation illustrates the interaction between purpose and format in Figure 1. To further explain the interaction effect, using a Bonferroni adjustment, ($\alpha = .05/5 = .01$) independent t-test were conducted. On average, faculty using a traditional format reported *to assess lower levels of cognitive complexity* was more important ($M = 6.70$, $SD = 1.72$), than faculty using nontraditional formats ($M = 8.41$, $SD = 3.37$). The difference was significant $t(93) = -3.09$, p

<.01, $d = .65$. On average, faculty using a nontraditional format reported *to prepare students for future scholarship* was more important ($M = 8.17$, $SD = 3.68$), than faculty using traditional formats ($M = 11.06$, $SD = 3.83$). The difference was significant $t(93) = 3.73$, $p < .001$, $d = .77$.

Figure 1

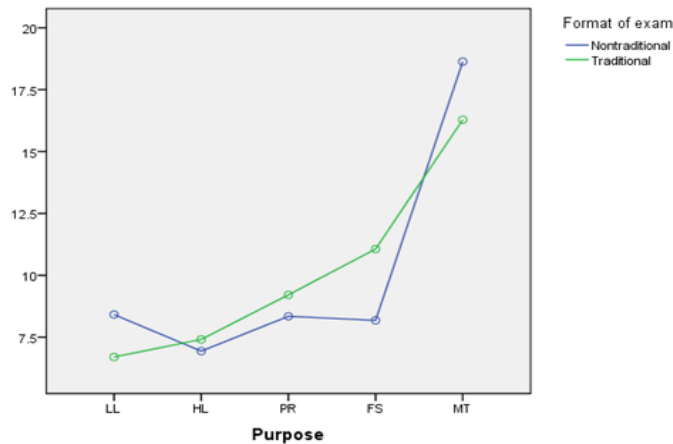


Figure 1. Mean scores for the format and five stated purposes: to assess lower levels of cognitive complexity (LL), to assess higher levels of cognitive complexity(HL), to promote a beneficial learning experience(PR), to prepare students for future scholarship (FS), and to maintain tradition (MT).

Of the respondents, 49 (51.6%) utilize a traditional format and 46 (48.4%) utilize a nontraditional format. Of the 46 who report using a nontraditional format, 16 (34.7%) report using a combination of formats. Of these 16 respondents, 11 use a combination of the traditional format with a nontraditional format (i.e., requiring a traditional exam in addition to a take home exam) and five use a combination of two nontraditional formats (i.e., requiring a portfolio and submission for publication). The remaining 30 are split between these nontraditional formats: 17 take home, six portfolios, and one research paper submitted for publication. Six other responses include a critical literature review, onsite open-book, oral case studies, videotape excerpts,

multiple research papers, and in-person presentation of professional competence in the areas of supervision, teaching or clinical work with a background paper to support.

Fifty-eight (61.1%) participants reported their program has a written purpose statement, for the comprehensive examinations, 15 (15.8%) reported their program does not, and 22 (23.2%) are unaware of any written purpose statement. Ninety-four participants responded to the questions regarding written policies for evaluating comprehensive examinations. Sixty-one (64.9%) reported their program has a written policy for evaluating comprehensive examination questions, 20 (21.2%) reported their program does not, and 13 (13.7%) are unaware of a written policy.

Limitations of the Study

There are several limitations to be considered in this study. The first limitation is attempting to differentiate between a faculty members' perceptions of the purpose of the comprehensive examination as it relates to their program's current format, versus their own individual preference of what a proper purpose or format should look like. Additional limitations include response rates, instrumentation, survey design, sample and sampling plan, and generalization. Previous online survey response rates for counselor educators ranged from 23% (Smith, 2004) to 44% (Wartinger, 2005), whereas this study produced a response rate of 22.2% with 17.1% valid responses. This study was conducted on a web-based site so troubleshooting problems could not be immediately addressed by the researcher. An instrument was created for this study and thus, could be another identified potential limitation. Future research is needed on the validity and reliability of the instrument. This might be done both inside and outside of the Counselor Education discipline. A factor analysis of individual scale items would be useful in identifying variables that are correlated with one another but

independent of other subsets. The independent variable was defined by literature (Fox, 1985; Peterson et al., 1992; Ponder et al., 2004); however, numerous variations were reported in the nontraditional format. This may limit the results found. Additionally, participants who reported utilizing a portfolio commented that some of the questions on the survey were not applicable due to their format.

Cautious interpretations are made with the descriptive data regarding the comprehensive examination because the study is not a representative sample of the profession. Due to maintaining confidentiality, specific school and department details were not included on the survey. Generalization is limited by not sampling one representative (i.e., department chair or liaison) from each institution. A misrepresentation is possible of the total number of faculty in counselor education doctoral programs because there is no complete, updated list available in *Counselor Preparation* (Schweighter et al., 2007) or Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (2011).

Discussion

Multiple purposes were found for the comprehensive exam and the majority of purposes were found to hold merit. Consistent with previous research (Loughead, 1997; Peterson et al., 1992) and regardless of format, the primary purpose found for the comprehensive examination by faculty in doctoral counselor education programs was *to assess higher levels of cognitive complexity* which is the most salient educational purpose mentioned for doctoral comprehensive examinations across disciplines (Estrem & Lucas, 2003; Ponder et al., 2004).

Faculty using traditional formats rated *to maintain tradition* and *to assess lower levels of cognitive complexity* as more important than faculty using nontraditional formats. On the other hand, faculty using nontraditional formats rated *to assess higher levels of cognitive complexity*,

to promote a beneficial learning experience, and to prepare students for future scholarship as more important than traditional formats. This supports Ponder et al.'s (2004) findings in doctoral marketing programs where the number one purpose of the traditional exam in doctoral marketing programs was to test lower levels of Bloom's taxonomy. Schafer and Giblin (2008) reported that the format of traditional exams often makes it difficult for students to demonstrate higher levels of cognitive thinking. Furthermore, Ponder et al. (2004) found *to test a student's ability to conduct independent research* was the top purpose for programs with a nontraditional exam. In order to promote higher levels of cognitive complexity and to better prepare students for independent research, representatives of the programs in Ponder et al.'s study reported an increase in movement from traditional to nontraditional exams.

Data indicated that 39% of faculty reported they either did not have a written purpose statement or do not know the purpose. A lack of stated purpose may support the assumption that the comprehensive examination is a rite of passage (Anderson et al., 1984). Although there are different philosophies regarding the traditional purpose of the comprehensive examination, this study provided an insight in the level of importance (ranging between *neither unimportant nor important* and *somewhat unimportant*) of maintaining a traditional purpose of the comprehensive examination. These results conflict with previous literature that stated a primary purpose for the comprehensive exam was tradition (Anderson et al., 1984; Manus et al., 1992; McKee et al., 1999; Saraf, 1985; Schafer & Giblin, 2008; Tomeo & Templer, 1999).

Implications for the Counseling Profession

The results of the study have several implications for counselor educators, students, and individual programs. Similar to McAdams and Robertson's (2012) look at the oral examinations, clarity is needed throughout the entire comprehensive examination process for

faculty and students beginning with the purpose of the exam. Although not a representative sample of all doctoral counselor education programs, the fact that 15 faculty (15.8%) reported their program does not have a written purpose statement and 22 (23.2%) were unaware of any written purpose statement, raises concern. As a result, we encourage programs to take a careful look at their examination purposes, policies and procedures. Clearly stating the comprehensive examination purpose and evaluation criteria may help students to perform better and enhance the learning process. Cobia et al. (2005) shared how CACREP objectives are made explicit to students before learning and assessment begins in their centerpiece evaluation. Rubrics, similar to the one Loughead (1997) created with the purpose of assessing both lower and higher levels of Bloom's taxonomy, can be one mean to outline expectations and grading procedures.

Burch and Peterson (1983) and Cobia et al. (2005) recommend creating a comprehensive examination committee consisting of faculty members and doctoral students to re-evaluate their purpose and goal in counselor education to make expectations more clear to both faculty and students. After deciding on a purpose, Peterson et al. (1992) recommended doctoral counseling programs host training or workshops for evaluating comprehensive examination questions to increase reliability. Additionally, Nicholas-Casebolt and Huber (2001) recommend using four aspects of program evaluation (utility, accuracy, feasibility, and propriety) to improve the validity and reliability of the comprehensive exam in doctoral social work programs.

No operational definition for the comprehensive examination is readily available for counselor educators. CACREP clearly defines that assessments need to be tailored to individual institutions but does not prescribe a universal framework for evaluation procedures, including the comprehensive examination (Urofsky, 2009). In recognition that 58 (89.2%) of doctoral counselor education programs located in the United States are CACREP accredited (CACREP,

2011; Schweiger et al., 2007), more research in aligning the comprehensive examination with the CACREP Doctoral Standards may prove useful. Since the comprehensive examination already exists in the majority of doctoral counselor education programs, questions arise as to how these practices might meet the changing needs of doctoral counselor education programs and support the growing trend of measuring Student Learning Outcomes (SLO). The implementation of both the 2009 and 2016 CACREP standards, require Counselor Education and Supervision programs to provide evidence of documenting SLOs as it relates to their assessment plan (Urofsky, R., 2009; Urofsky, Bobby, & Ritchie, 2013).

As the accreditation standards evolve and change, it is important for the purpose of the comprehensive examination to reflect the current focus of programs. Adkison-Bradley (2013) explored the development of the CACREP doctoral standards and provided recommendations to creatively think about doctoral study in counselor education moving forward, including increasing expectations and learning for scholarship separate from the dissertation process. Although there is no mention of the comprehensive examination in Adkison-Bradley's (2013) article, the suggestions encourage programs to reexamine their purpose, mission, and goals moving forward. Can counseling faculty integrate this traditional form of assessment in doctoral programs to meet the changing accountability requirements of accreditation? Based on an investigation of graduate level comprehensive exams, Brito, Sharma, and Bernas (2004) asked a key question that can be generalized across education levels, "could your department benefit from a comprehensive, cost-effective, curriculum-driven exam that would provide a direct assessment of student learning?" (p. 209).

A healthy perception of the comprehensive examination is conducive to a productive learning environment for the student. Koltz, Odegard, Provost, Smith, and Kleist (2010)

explored the traditional comprehensive examination process for doctoral students in counselor education programs in a qualitative study using photo-voice and found four main themes for students: self-doubt, tension, industry, and motivation. A more clearly defined and transparent purpose for the comprehensive examination will yield an environment that will allow students to take ownership and become creators and designers of their learning (Anderson et al., 1984; Cobia et al., 2005). Additionally, outcome based education supports the position that when students have choices and options, they perform at higher levels of competency. Golde and Dore (2001) encouraged students to ask more questions regarding expectations about all parts of a doctoral program, including the comprehensive examination. Koltz et al. (2010) and Bartle and Brown (2006) recommended faculty take a more active role in mentoring doctoral advisees in the process of comprehensive examinations.

After deciding on a novel purpose, Cobia et al. (2005) found a portfolio, as opposed to the traditional comprehensive examination, could assist in documenting learning outcomes. The authors' self study of a CACREP-accredited Counselor Education doctoral program identified a novel purpose of program evaluation, where students' performances are used to pinpoint areas of weaknesses in the curriculum, a specific course, or in the students themselves. However, this does not imply that a portfolio is the only way to measure student learning as CACREP (2011) clearly defines that assessments need to be tailored to individual institutions. Cobia et al. (2005) reported an "ideal" evaluation model would be comprehensive; include both a formative and summative method; actively involve students in decision making; link to skills, knowledge, and competencies necessary to be a successful counselor educator; and be flexible enough to incorporate emerging professional trends.

Future research

Initially, a profession-wide survey on purposes and formats of the comprehensive examination from department chairs or a comprehensive examination liaison from individual counselor education programs would prove useful in determining a starting point of what currently exists in the field. Further refining the scale created for this study could increase understanding of the multiple purposes of the comprehensive examination. A factor analysis of individual scale items for this study would be helpful in identifying variables that are correlated with one another but independent of other subsets. Furthermore, research could examine how well the comprehensive examination measures the stated purpose. Additionally, research could look at the different levels of faculty (assistant, associate, full) and how they rate the purposes.

It could be beneficial for future research to study the purpose and corresponding format of the comprehensive examination in relation to job preparation, scholarly productivity, quality of work, and permanence of the qualities measured by the exam. Cobia et al. (2005) recommended future studies to examine whether job-seeking graduates are advantaged in some way that could be attributed to the portfolio, as opposed to other formats. Future investigation is needed to understand how well different formats of the exam meet the stated purpose of the exam. This includes exploring the strengths and limitations of existing examination formats and how it relates to an individual program's purpose and learning objectives. With the adoption of the 2009 CACREP standards and the subsequent 2016 standards, future research could focus on the five Student Learning Outcomes as measured by the exam.

After establishing clear research on the purpose and format, future research could focus on the content (specialty vs. general exams), creation of effective examination questions, evaluation criteria, remediation, and reliability. The oral examination's purpose, format, and

evaluation criteria would be beneficial to examine as it is an important aspect of nearly all comprehensive examinations reported by Schweiger et al. (2007; 2012). Predictors of success on the comprehensive examination (i.e., GPA, instruction or preparation received, student's relationship with faculty, etc.) may also be useful to students and faculty. Further qualitative research focusing on the student's experiences while preparing for and taking the exam may also be beneficial to the field.

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Appendix A: Purposes of the Comprehensive Examination

1. To assess lower levels of cognitive complexity (LL)
 - a. To assess student's fundamental knowledge
 - b. To assess student's comprehensive knowledge
 - c. To identify students who do (or do not) have adequate knowledge
 - d. To assess student's ability to comprehend material
 - e. To assess student's ability to apply knowledge to novel situations
2. To assess higher levels of cognitive complexity (HL)
 - a. To assess student's creative thinking skills
 - b. To assess student's ability to synthesize and integrate
 - c. To assess student's critical thinking skills
 - d. To assess student's ability to evaluate and critique ideas
 - e. To assess student's ability to analyze concepts
3. To prepare student for future scholarship (FS)
 - a. To prepare student for scholarly academic life
 - b. To prepare student for dissertation and future scholarly research
 - c. To prepare student to conduct independent research
 - d. To develop student's professional writing skills
 - e. To prepare students for future careers as scholars
4. To promote a beneficial learning experience (PR)
 - a. The comprehensive examination process is a beneficial learning experience for students
 - b. The comprehensive examination process provides educational value for students
 - c. The comprehensive examination process motivates student learning
 - d. The comprehensive examination process provides an opportunity for student growth
 - e. The comprehensive examination process enhances student learning
5. To maintain tradition (MT)
 - a. A rite of passage
 - b. A historic ritual in academia
 - c. Maintains a tradition
 - d. An initiation into the field
 - e. A hurdle for students to successfully overcome in obtaining the degree

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Counselor Training in Two Evidence-Based Practices: Motivational Interviewing and Cognitive Behavior Therapy

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This study served as a preliminary investigation of training counseling students in two evidence-based practices: motivational interviewing and cognitive behavior therapy. Students' skill demonstrations were assessed for competency at three data points during students' graduate training program. Results showed modest success in students learning to competently practice both evidence-based approaches.

Keywords: evidence-based practice, counselor training, psychotherapy integration, cognitive behavior therapy, motivational interviewing

Counselor training programs are encouraged to integrate evidenced-based practices (EBPs), or counseling approaches that have demonstrated efficacy via clinical trials, into program curriculum (Patel, Hagedorn, & Bai, 2013). For example, the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP, 2009) and the American Counseling Association (ACA, 2014) have addressed the responsibilities of counselor educators to provide an educational foundation and train students in EBPs. Specifically, CACREP standard II.G.5.d notes that “students will be exposed to models of counseling that are consistent with current professional research and practice in the field” (p. 12), and Code C.7a in the ACA ethical guidelines states that counselors are required to “use techniques/procedures/modalities that are grounded in theory and/or have an empirical or scientific foundation” (p. 10). Despite this, there has been a dearth of information about how counselor educators teach EBPs (Patel et al., 2013). In this study, we conducted a preliminary investigation of the practice outcomes of graduate

student counselor training over the course of three semesters in two evidence-based practices: motivational interviewing and cognitive behavior therapy.

Counselor Training in Evidence-Based Programs and Practices

By training students in EBPs, counselor educators bridge the gap between research and practice (Sexton, 2000) and help promote the profession, as counselors who implement EBPs are taking steps to better serve their clients, and therefore demonstrate leadership and advocacy (Hays, Wood, & Smith, 2012). Literature suggests that counselor training in EPBs is happening in a number of ways. For example, Martino (2010) found that addiction counselors were provided training on EBPs utilizing several modalities (i.e. workshops, clinical supervision, distance learning, and blended learning). School counselors are approaching the urgency for the use of EBPs by means of data to identify problems, implementing EBPs, identifying evidenced-based curricula, and evaluating the effectiveness of chosen EBPs (Carey & Dimmitt, 2008). Additional modalities being utilized to train counselors in EBPs include didactic lectures, training manuals, and active learning opportunities such as modeling, clinical practice, and behavioral role-plays (Beidas & Kendall, 2010). Although training and pedagogy in EBPs has increased, there continues to be a lack of research regarding best practices in the pedagogy of EBPs, as well as evaluation methods.

Training in Two Evidence-Based Practices

When contemplating training students in EBPs, counselor educators must consider to which approaches to expose students and the growing trend of psychotherapy integration (Norcross & Halgin, 2005). In the current study, students learned two EBPs that have an established research base supporting their integration. Here, each counseling approach is briefly described followed by a description of the MI+CBT integration.

Cognitive behavior therapy. Cognitive behavior therapy (CBT) encompasses a wide range of practices that incorporate both cognitive and behavioral conceptualizations and interventions. Psychological distress is considered a result of dysfunctional cognitive processes, and change is believed to occur by identifying and restructuring distorted ways of thinking. CBT interventions are typically educational in nature, wherein clients learn that thoughts precede behaviors, and are the trigger to emotions that determine a behavior response (Beck, 2011).

CBT is one of the most extensively used and researched therapeutic approaches, and it has been found to be efficacious in the treatment of a range of issues including anxiety disorders, mood disorders, substance use disorders, eating disorders, and relationship conflicts (Beck, 2005; Nathan & Gorman, 2007). Outcome studies have consistently found CBT to be superior or equal to alternative treatments (Butler et al., 2006), and various CBT practices and programs have been deemed evidence-based by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration's (SAMHSA) National Registry of Evidenced-Based Programs and Practices (www.nrepp.samhsa.gov).

Motivational Interviewing. Counselor educators have been encouraged to seek training in motivational interviewing (MI) in order to further disseminate EBPs in counselor education curriculum (Patel et al., 2013). MI is a humanistic style of counseling designed to evoke clients' own motivations for change in an empathic and compassionate environment (Miller & Rollnick, 2013). MI was developed to work with problem drinkers who were in early stages of change (Miller, 1983), including those who entered counseling via an outside force (e.g., court mandate, family member's coercion) and those who are ambivalent about change. MI practice consists of an essential spirit that is comprised of a partnership with the client, acceptance of the client (including absolute worth, accurate empathy, supporting autonomy, and affirmation),

compassion toward the client, and evocation in that the counselor seeks to draw out and understand the client's perceptions, experiences, and motivations. In addition to its spirit, MI practice consists of basic skills (i.e., open questions, affirmations, reflections, summarizations, and providing information with permission) that are used strategically throughout the four phases of MI: engaging, focusing, evoking, and planning (Miller & Rollnick, 2013).

Hundreds of clinical trials have been conducted using MI (Miller & Rollnick, 2013), and it has been deemed an evidence-based practice (SAMHSA, 2007). MI has demonstrated efficacy across diverse populations, symptoms, and behaviors including chronic mental disorders management, enhancing treatment adherence, problem gambling, smoking cessation, generalized anxiety disorder, co-occurring mental health and substance use disorders, and various health issues (Cleary et al., 2009; Hettema et al., 2005; Lundahl et al., 2010; Westra et al., 2009). MI can be used as a stand-alone intervention as well as used as a pretreatment or integrated with other treatments (Miller & Rollnick, 2004). MI is specifically useful with clients who experience ambivalence, and as such, it was never intended to be a panacea (Miller & Rollnick, 2009). Counselors who practice MI are not expected to abandon prior methods; rather, they are encouraged to incorporate MI into existing practices such as CBT. Overall effects of MI and another approach (e.g., CBT) have been characterized as synergistic (Miller & Rose, 2009).

Integrating MI and CBT. In the current study, counselor trainees learned MI and CBT for their clinical utility as independent approaches as well as an integrated practice. When integrated, MI is used to engage the client and enhance client readiness to change, and CBT is used to help clients actively change their behaviors (Kertes et al., 2011). MI supplements CBT by encouraging counselors to meet clients in their unique process of change and address motivational issues. As Geller and Dunn (2011) stated, "A skillful CBT therapist may intuitively

manage their pacing and interventions to patient readiness but MI makes these goals explicit and provides a language and set of techniques to assist in the process” (p. 13). CBT supplements MI by providing action-based interventions to help clients learn how to modify their thoughts and behaviors. The MI+CBT integration thus creates a comprehensive, personalized treatment experience that is responsive to the specific needs of each individual.

There is a growing research base to support the efficacy of the MI+CBT integration in the areas of substance abuse and addiction, co-occurring disorders, and mental health. For example, in regard to treating alcohol dependence, the COMBINE Research Study Group (2003) found that MI+CBT with medical management was as efficacious as naltrexone and medical management in reducing drinking (Anton et al., 2006). Research has also supported the use of MI+CBT integration with adolescents who abuse cannabis (Dennis et al., 2004). Beyond substance use disorders, among persons experiencing pathological gambling MI+CBT has been found to reduce gambling urges and behaviors, lower gambling severity, reduce depression and anxiety symptoms, and improve psychosocial functioning more effectively than Gamblers Anonymous (Grant et al., 2009). Pertaining to co-occurring disorders, Cleary et al. (2009) conducted a systematic review of MI, CBT, MI+CBT, and six other treatment approaches. Findings showed that MI was the most effective in reducing substance use and that MI+CBT led to the greatest improvements in mental health symptoms as well as reductions in substance use problems. Cornelius et al. (2011) investigated treatments for adolescents (ages 15-20) who were diagnosed with an alcohol use disorder and major depressive disorder. They found that participants improved more with MI+CBT on symptoms of depression and alcohol use compared to fluoxetine, and that these differences were maintained at the two-year follow-up.

Concerning mental health, among persons with generalized anxiety disorder, research has

found that four sessions of MI prior to eight sessions of CBT resulted in greater reduction in worry and increased homework compliance compared to CBT alone (Westra, Arkowitz, & Dozois, 2009) as well as reduced resistance and greater engagement in the CBT treatment (Aviram & Westra, 2011). There has also been some empirical support for the MI+CBT combination for social anxiety (Buckner & Schmidt, 2009), obsessive-compulsive disorder (Meyer et al., 2010), anxiety related to traumatic brain injury (Hsieh, Ponsford, Wong, Schönberger, Taffe, & McKay, 2012), and eating disorders (Dean, Touyz, Rieger, & Thornton, 2008). Arguments have been made for the CBT+MI integration to be used with depressed (Flynn, 2011) and suicidal clients (Britton, Patrick, Wenzel, & Williams, 2011), but research is needed in these areas.

Counselor training in EBPs is an important practice in counselor education, and research is needed to inform pedagogical practices. MI and CBT are both well-established EBPs with growing support for their integration. This study served as a preliminary investigation of the impact of counselor training in these two evidenced-based practices.

Method

In this study we sought to respond to the research question, “Can counselor trainees learn to competently practice two evidence-based practices, MI and CBT, in their graduate training program?” In addition, we investigated whether or not counselor trainees used both MI and CBT in a mock counseling session after learning both approaches. The Human Subjects Review Board approved each component of this study, and it was conducted in compliance with the American Counseling Association’s ethical guidelines (2005).

Procedures

Participants' (counselor trainees) mock counseling sessions from three sequential semesters were used as three separate data points for this study. The first data point was a recorded mock counseling session that served as the final assignment in a basic counseling skills course that included training in MI. These recordings were evaluated for MI competency for the purpose of this study. The second data point was a recorded mock counseling session that served as participants' final assignment for a course on CBT. The third and final data point was a recorded mock counseling session that served as an extra credit assignment for an addictions counseling course that students enrolled in concurrently with practicum. The second and third data points were evaluated for MI and CBT competency for the purposes of this study. The recorded mock counseling sessions were in video format for class purposes, but converted to audio files for research purposes in order to protect the identity of participants.

Description of counselor training and data collection. Due to its humanistic spirit and essential skills that overlap with the content typically taught in a basic counseling skills course (see Iarussi, Tyler, Littlebear, & Hinkle, 2013), MI was incorporated into a required three credit-hour basic counseling skills course that was taught by the first author who is an assistant professor and who completed intensive training to train others in MI. Specific classes focused on the spirit and basic skills of MI, understanding and responding to ambivalence, identifying and strengthening clients' own arguments for change, and diminishing relationship discord (e.g., resistance). MI-specific readings were required and video demonstrations of MI skills were utilized. Skill development and practice were emphasized throughout the course in that for each skill presented, a video or interactive demonstration was shown, students practiced the skills using role-plays, and then feedback was provided from classmates and the instructor. Class

assignments included four recorded demonstrations of their counseling skills using role-play with a classmate, the fourth of which was used as data in this study.

The semester after they completed the basic counseling skills course, six students completed a three credit-hour course on CBT that was required for their academic program. This course focused on learning and applying CBT and incorporated required readings and video demonstrations. Students practiced implementing CBT skills using role-plays with classmates and they received feedback on their skills as part of the course. Students completed two recorded mock counseling sessions as part of their required assignments, the second of which was used as data for this study.

The semester following the CBT course, these same six students completed a three credit-hour course specific to addiction counseling that was required for their academic program. Students were concurrently enrolled in practicum and seeing clients at their community-based site placements. As MI and CBT are evidenced-based practices in addiction counseling, their use and integration were discussed as part of the addictions course. A student actor who was not involved with participants' coursework role-played a standard client with each participant in a recorded mock counseling session. A standard client was chosen due to policy restrictions that prevented students from providing their actual audio-recorded counseling sessions with their practicum clients for research purposes. After completing this assignment, students were provided with feedback on their use of MI and CBT with a client experiencing addiction.

Participant Recruitment. To reduce coercion potential considering that the primary researcher was also the course instructor of the three courses from which data was collected, participants were invited to participate in this study after final grades had been posted following the conclusion of the basic counseling skills and the CBT courses. For the third data point,

students had the option to complete the counseling demonstration for extra credit in the course without consenting to participate in the study. Therefore, no incentives were offered for students' participation in any portion of this study.

Participants

Sixteen students consented to use their final recorded assignment as data from the basic counseling skills course. They were all second semester graduate students in various counselor training programs: six were enrolled in the Clinical Mental Health Counseling program, six in the School Counseling program, and four in the Counseling Psychology program. Participants were 87.5% female ($n=14$) and 68.8% Caucasian/White ($n=11$) and 31.2% African-American/Black ($n=5$). The six students who were enrolled in the Clinical Mental Health Counseling program enrolled in the CBT and addictions course, which were required for their program of study. Each of these six students consented to use their recorded mock counseling sessions from the CBT and addictions courses. Four of these students identified as Black/African-American and two as White/Caucasian and their mean age was 23 years old.

Data Analysis

Instruments

The research team utilized the Motivational Interviewing Treatment Integrity (MITI 3.1.1; Moyers, Martin, Manuel, Miller, & Ernst, 2010) to determine the level of MI competency attained by participants and the Cognitive Therapy Scale (CTS; Young & Beck, 1980) to determine the level of CBT competency attained. The MITI is a behavioral coding system that provides benchmark scores for "beginning proficiency" and "competency." The MITI consists of two main components: global scores and behavior counts. The global scores are each evaluated on a five-point scale and include five dimensions: evocation, collaboration, autonomy/support,

direction, and empathy. The MI spirit is calculated by averaging the scores for evocation, collaboration, and autonomy/support. Behavioral counts are tallied and include seven categories: giving information, open questions, closed questions, MI-adherent, MI non-adherent, and simple and complex reflections. As recommended by Moyers et al., (2010), random 20-minute segments of participants' 45-50 minute counseling demonstrations were extracted and evaluated for this study.

The CTS is organized into four parts: (a) general therapeutic skills; (b) conceptualization, strategy, and technique; (c) additional considerations; and (d) overall ratings and comments. General therapeutic skills include setting the agenda, feedback, understanding, interpersonal effectiveness, collaboration, and pacing and efficient use of time. Conceptualization, strategy, and technique includes guided discovery, focusing on key cognitions or behaviors, strategy for change, application of cognitive-behavioral techniques, and homework. Additional considerations involve any special problems and unusual factors of the session. Finally, overall ratings involve the rater's overall perceptions of the therapist and the difficulty of the client's presentation. The rater uses a 0 to 6 scale (0 being poor and 6 being excellent) to assess each of the areas in the first two parts of the CTS. Parts three and four include a variety of items including yes/no questions and scaling questions.

Raters and interrater reliability

Three raters, who were doctoral students at the time of the study (second, third, and fourth authors), were trained by the first author to use the MITI using a MITI coding training program and materials provided by the Motivational Interviewing Network of Trainers. Two of these raters (third and fourth authors) were also trained to use the CTS using the CTS manual and practice sessions. The raters did not begin rating data until they reached consistent reliability

as a group. The raters met with the first author every other week when evaluating data in order to maintain interrater reliability and to ensure fidelity to the MITI and CTS.

Twenty five percent of tapes were double coded for interrater reliability (eight of the 28 tapes coded for MI competency and two of the 12 tapes coded for CBT competency). Percent agreement was calculated among global scores of the MITI and the CTS scores due to not enough variation between scores to calculate ICC. Percent agreement for each of the five global scores of the MITI within one rating point was 100%. Similarly, concerning the CTS, percent agreement within one rating point was 100%. The ICCs for specific behavior counts were as follows: Giving information = .836, MI Adherent = .715, MI Nonadherent = .773, Closed questions = .946, Open questions = .960, Simple reflections = .887, Complex reflections = .086. The average ICC was .74 (good) including complex reflections and .85 (excellent) without complex reflections per Cicchetti (1994).

Results

In order to respond to the research questions, the research team evaluated participants' recorded mock counseling sessions for MI and CBT competency using the MITI and the CTS. MI competency was assessed at each of the three data points: 1) in the basic counseling skills course, 2) in the CBT course, and 3) while enrolled in practicum. CBT competency was assessed in the CBT course and while participants were enrolled in practicum. Descriptive statistics were run to determine level of competency achieved in each counseling approach at the varying data points. Nonparametric Wilcoxon signed rank tests (due to small sample size) were run to detect significant differences in levels of competency between semesters.

MI Competency

Overall, 81.25% of participants reached “competency” (average score of 4 or greater) across the global dimensions of MI in the basic counseling skills course. Table 1 presents the group mean scores each global dimension per semester. The mean score for the MI Spirit was 4.34 (SD=0.45), suggesting competency. In the CBT course, participants scored an average of 4.22 (SD=0.27) for MI spirit with each participant scoring at or above the benchmark for competency. While enrolled in practicum, participants’ mean score was 3.95 (SD=0.25) for the MI spirit with two participants scoring at the beginning proficiency level (scores 3.50 – 4.00) and the remaining four scoring competently.

Table 1

Groups Means (and Standard Deviations) for MI Global Scores

| Semester | Evocation | Collaboration | Autonomy | Direction | Empathy | MI Spirit |
|----------|-------------|---------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| 1 | 4.25 (0.68) | 4.06 (0.77) | 4.25 (0.77) | 4.88 (0.34) | 4.25 (0.45) | 4.34 (0.45) |
| 2 | 4.00 (0.00) | 4.50 (0.55) | 4.33 (0.52) | 5.00 (0.00) | 4.00 (0.00) | 4.22 (.027) |
| 3 | 4.00 (0.00) | 3.83 (0.75) | 4.00 (0.00) | 4.67 (0.52) | 4.33 (0.52) | 3.95 (0.25) |

Note. According to the MITI, for Global Scores below proficiency is < 3.5, beginning proficiency is 3.5 - 4.0, and competency is 4.0 and above.

Table 2 shows the percentage of participants who demonstrated “below proficiency”, “beginning proficiency”, and “competency” in the seven dimensions of behavior counts in MI across semesters. In the basic skills course, participants had mean scores of 58.94% (SD=19.78) open questions (50% is considered beginning proficiency), 43.06% (SD=13.25) complex reflections (40% is beginning proficiency), 83.42% (SD=20.72) MI-adherent behavior (90% is beginning proficiency), and 0.99 (SD=0.36) reflection-to-question ratio (1.00 is considered

beginning proficiency). In the CBT course, participants scored means of 44.38% (SD=19.95) open questions, 22.95% (SD=11.80) complex reflections, 68.97% (SD=19.15) MI adherent behaviors, and 0.64 (SD=0.09) reflection-to-question ratio. In the third semester, participants scored means of 47.03% (SD=15.28) open questions, 42.28% (SD=19.91) complex reflections, 94.87% (SD=12.56) MI adherent behaviors, and 0.72 (SD=0.32) reflection-to-question ratio.

Table 2

Percentages of Participants who Achieved Competency of MI Skills

| Semester | Skill | Below Proficiency | Beginning Proficiency | Competency |
|----------|------------------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|------------|
| 1 | Open Questions | 37.6% | 31.5% | 31.5% |
| | Complex Reflections | 31.5% | 25.1% | 44% |
| | MI Adherent | 43.9% | 12.6% | 43.8% |
| | Reflection to Question Ratio | 56.3% | 43.7% | 0% |
| 2 | Open Questions | 50% | 33.3% | 16.7% |
| | Complex Reflections | 100% | 0% | 0% |
| | MI Adherent | 100% | 0% | 0% |
| | Reflection to Question Ratio | 100% | 0% | 0% |
| 3 | Open Questions | 50% | 50% | 0% |
| | Complex Reflections | 33.3% | 0% | 66.7% |
| | MI Adherent | 16.7% | 0% | 83.3% |
| | Reflection to Question Ratio | 83.3% | 16.7% | 0% |

Note. According to the MITI, for open questions, below proficiency is < 50%, beginning proficiency is 50% - 69%, and competency is 70% and above of total questions asked. For complex reflections, below proficiency is < 40%, beginning proficiency is 40% - 49%, and competency is 50% and above of total reflections made. For MI Adherent, below proficiency is < 90%, beginning proficiency is 90% - 99%, and competency is 100% of total MI Adherent and MI nonadherent utterances. For reflection-to-question ratio, below proficiency is < 1.00, beginning proficiency is 1.00-1.99, and competency is 2.00.

Table 3 presents the results from the nonparametric Wilcoxon signed rank tests. Findings showed that the MI spirit significantly declined between semesters one and three ($Z=-2.201$, $p=.028$). For complex reflections, a significant difference was detected between semesters one and two ($Z=-1.992$, $p=.046$) in that participants had lower percentages in the CBT course (semester one median = 48.22 and semester two median = 26.80); however a significant

difference was also detected between semesters two and three ($Z=-1.992$, $p=.046$) in that participants increased their percentage of complex reflections while enrolled in practicum (semester two median = 26.80 and semester three median = 52.27). A significant difference was also detected between semesters two and three for percent MI adherent behaviors ($Z=-1.992$, $p=.046$) wherein this percentage increased from a mean of 68.98 ($SD=19.15$) in the CBT course to 94.87 ($SD=12.56$) while in practicum. Two participants tied and three participants increased their percentages from semester one to three for MI adherent behaviors. Finally, there were no significant differences detected in percent open question or reflection-to-question ratios across the three semesters.

Table 3

Group Means and Changes Between Semesters

| Skill | Semester 1 | | Semester 2 | | Semester 3 | | Z | Z | Z |
|-------------------|------------|-------|------------|-------|------------|-------|----------|----------|----------|
| | M | SD | M | SD | M | SD | (Sem2-1) | (Sem3-2) | (Sem3-1) |
| MI Spirit | 4.57 | 0.29 | 4.22 | 0.27 | 3.95 | 0.25 | -1.476 | -1.414 | -2.201* |
| % Open Questions | 50.97 | 19.68 | 44.38 | 19.95 | 47.03 | 15.28 | -0.943 | -0.314 | -0.314 |
| % Complex Reflect | 44.77 | 16.26 | 22.95 | 11.80 | 42.28 | 19.91 | -1.992* | -1.992* | -0.105 |
| % MI Adherent | 84.15 | 16.21 | 68.98 | 19.15 | 94.87 | 12.56 | -1.153 | -1.992* | -1.095 |
| R-Q ratio | 0.94 | 0.35 | 0.64 | 0.10 | 0.72 | 0.32 | -1.572 | 0.000 | -1.214 |
| Agenda | -- | -- | 4.17 | 0.75 | 1.83 | 1.60 | -- | -1.903 | -- |
| Feedback | -- | -- | 4.00 | 0.63 | 4.17 | 0.41 | -- | -0.577 | -- |
| Understanding | -- | -- | 4.17 | 0.41 | 3.83 | 0.41 | -- | -1.414 | -- |
| Interpersonal | -- | -- | 4.17 | 0.41 | 4.17 | 0.41 | -- | 0.000 | -- |
| Collaboration | -- | -- | 4.17 | 0.41 | 3.67 | 0.52 | -- | -1.732 | -- |
| Pacing | -- | -- | 4.00 | 0.63 | 3.50 | 1.05 | -- | -1.134 | -- |
| GuidedDisc | -- | -- | 3.67 | 0.52 | 3.83 | 0.41 | -- | -0.577 | -- |
| KeyCog&Beh | -- | -- | 4.50 | 0.84 | 3.50 | 1.05 | -- | -1.656 | -- |
| Strategy | -- | -- | 4.00 | 0.63 | 3.50 | 0.84 | -- | -1.134 | -- |
| Application | -- | -- | 4.17 | 0.75 | 3.17 | 1.33 | -- | -1.289 | -- |
| Homework | -- | -- | 4.50 | 0.84 | 1.83 | 2.04 | -- | -1.826 | -- |

Note. $N = 6$. Z-statistic calculated using Wilcoxon signed-rank test.

* $p < 0.05$.

CBT Competency

From the CBT course, general therapeutic skills (agenda, feedback, understanding, interpersonal effectiveness, collaboration, and pacing) each had a median and mode score of 4 (Good) and mean scores ranging from 4.00 to 4.17. In conceptualization, strategy, and technique, participants scored highest in focusing on key cognitions and behaviors with a mean score of 4.5 (SD=0.84) and mode and median of 5 (Very good). Homework also had a mean score of 4.5 (SD=0.84) but had a median and mode of 4 (Good). The mean scores of the remaining skills were as follows: Application = 4.17 (SD=0.75), strategy = 4.00 (SD=0.63), and guided discovery = 3.67 (SD=0.52).

While enrolled in practicum, participants' highest mean scores were in feedback and interpersonal effectiveness (both 4.17, SD=0.41), whereas the lowest mean score was in agenda setting (1.83, SD=1.60). Mean scores for understanding, collaboration, and pacing hovered between "satisfactory" and "good" (3.83, 3.67, and 3.50 respectively). Students mean scores ranged from 1.83 (SD=2.04) in homework to 3.83 (SD=0.41) in guided discovery. Focusing on key cognitions and behaviors, strategy for change, and application of CBT techniques hovered between "satisfactory" and "good" (3.50, 3.50, and 3.17 respectively). No significant differences were detected between semesters by the Wilcoxon signed rank tests, as displayed in Table 3.

Discussion

Overall, findings from this preliminary study show that counselor trainees can learn to practice two evidence-based practices, MI and CBT, with modest success while in their graduate training program. Further, students' practice of MI and CBT was largely retained while they were enrolled in practicum, one semester after learning CBT and two semesters after learning

MI. The significant decrease in students' execution of the MI spirit between semesters one and three is noteworthy, although without any follow-up training in MI, a decrease in skill demonstration is consistent with the findings of previous MI training studies (Miller & Mount, 2001; Miller, Yahne, Moyers, Martinez, & Pirritano, 2004). Participants demonstrated competency in the MI global scores in each of the three semesters. However, students struggled to adopt some of the MI consistent skills including open questions, complex reflections, MI-adherent behaviors, and using more reflections than questions. Interestingly, students improved in executing complex reflections and MI-adherent behaviors when they were enrolled in practicum (third semester).

Concerning CBT competency, in the CBT course students demonstrated "good" practice across the general therapeutic skills per the CTS. Students ranged from "satisfactory" to "very good" for focusing on key cognitions and behaviors, strategy for change, and application of CBT techniques. Scores for guided discovery ranged from "satisfactory" to "good" and for homework students scored in the range from "good" to "excellent." While enrolled in practicum, although no significant differences were detected, students' execution of setting the agenda, understanding, collaboration, pacing, focusing on key cognitions and behavior, strategy, application, and homework decreased. On the other hand, students' execution of feedback and guided discovery increased.

Study Limitations

The small sample size and single cohort design limits the generalizability of this study, and as such, it is a preliminary study. In addition, participants' skills were assessed using student role-plays and actors whereas, ideally, actual counseling sessions would be accessed to assess which approach(es) students were practicing with their clients. Further, participants were

engaged in other coursework and supervision experiences, which likely impacted their counseling practice. Notwithstanding these limitations, this preliminary study offers implications and considerations.

Implications and Considerations

Given the potential benefits of using an integration of MI and CBT with broad range of clients, counselor educators may consider teaching this integration as part of counselor training programs. How this training transpires warrants further consideration as teaching psychotherapy integration requires an investment of the faculty and training program (Norcross & Halgin, 2005). In the current study, MI was taught as part of a basic counseling skills course and CBT was of focus in its own course, and thus, these two approaches were taught separately with little continuity between courses. Moreover, participants were supervised by university and practicum site supervisors during the third semester, and this supervision was not specifically related to these two approaches. The findings of this study suggest that counselor trainees can be modestly successful in learning to execute an integration of these two approaches with this pedagogical method, yet retaining MI and CBT skills and integrating these two approaches was largely left up to the student, as specific training (e.g., practice feedback, supervision) was not provided beyond the courses in which the students learned these approaches. Alternative pedagogical methods warrant consideration and research is needed in this area. For example, a counselor training program might assess the impact of students learning these approaches in relation to each other or in a course in which psychotherapy integration is of focus. Further, assessment of the impact of supervision specific to the implementation of the EBPs and their integration on counselor trainee practice competence is needed.

Another area of consideration is whether or not this training is required or elective for students. In the current study, students were required to learn these approaches, leaving little room for students to explore other approaches in depth. As an alternative, faculty may allow students to choose the counseling approaches in which they wish to pursue training as opposed to choosing empirically supported treatments for them.

In addition to pedagogical methods, faculty resources is another essential consideration when teaching these EBPs, meaning faculty must have the desire and expertise to guide students in learning the intricacies of each approach and their integration. Literature has documented counselor educators' hesitancy to teach EBPs over more traditional counseling practices due to resistance to curriculum changes, perceived rigidity of EBPs, or lacking understanding and competence in EBPs (Patel et al., 2013; Wester, 2007; Whiston & Coker, 2000). Specific to the MI+CBT integration, counselor educators and supervisors would need to be able to help students resolve MI and CBT's potential to conflict with each other as the client-centered components of MI can conflict with the directive components of CBT and the goals of treatment can differ between the approaches. For example, MI would focus on resolving ambivalence whereas CBT treatment might move ahead with behavior change despite the presence of unresolved ambivalence about change (Moyers & Houck, 2011). Students may benefit from specific guidance or decision rules pertaining to how to mitigate these potential conflicts (Moyers & Houck, 2011).

Overall, the results of this preliminary study showed that counseling students of this study were able to learn and demonstrate beginning levels of competence in MI and CBT across three semesters in their graduate training program. More research is needed to further inform the effectiveness of various pedagogical practices for teaching EBPs and psychotherapy integration

in counselor education.

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