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SELECTED STUDIES ON THE EFFECTIVENESS OF COLLEGE
AND UNIVERSITY COUNSELING CENTERS

by

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A professional paper submitted to the Graduate Faculty
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

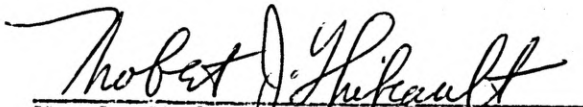
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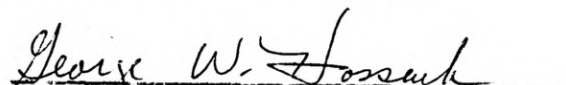
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ABSTRACT

This paper deals with college and university counseling centers as reported in current and near-current literature. A rather detailed examination of surveys taken of campus counseling centers throughout the United States was compared. The different services offered, the clientele of these centers, the physical setting, their place in the administrative structure; in short, an overview of counseling centers in their entirety was attempted.

A brief history of the guidance and counseling movement was noted.

The viewpoints and differences of four separate authors and counseling centers representing a new model of delivery of counseling services were investigated. These new models have points of view termed somewhat more innovative than the bulk of today's counseling centers which literature tags as being "traditional models."

The difficulty of accurately gauging the effectiveness of today's counseling centers was explored. Several studies whereby current and former clients themselves rated their counseling experience were utilized. Then several reports on upgrading effectiveness of centers were discussed.

CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

The young people of today are finding themselves in a society that is putting increasing pressure on them to assume the roles of adulthood at earlier and earlier ages. In the wake of a federal government decree that persons who have reached their eighteenth birthday are now allowed to vote in federal elections, many states are going ahead and granting full rights and responsibilities to persons eighteen years of age and over. This now means that for all practical purposes, students who today attend our colleges and universities are full-fledged adults.

Traditionally parents sent their children to college with the unspoken understanding that the school would act in the capacity of in loco parentis, thus relieving them some of the anxiety of releasing off-spring into the world. Today there are indications that the university does not view itself as being a parent in absentia. Coed dorms, legal drinking privileges in the dorms, and the legal adult status of students, has turned this responsibility over to the student himself. He is now expected to be the master of his own ship.

Emerging patterns of today's youth-culture adult seems to be undergoing a metamorphosis of sorts. Many young adults

are today striving to find personal meaning and fulfillment in their lives rather than the security and comforts of a previous generation. Questions such as: Who am I? Where am I going? and What shall I do with my life? are restless stirrings crying to be answered by our young adults. For some of these young people who are attending our nation's colleges and universities, the campus counseling center will be called upon to assist in the awesome decision-making process these men and women have set for themselves.

By any standard, people today of all ages are beset by concerns and problems unimagined just two or three decades ago. For increasing numbers, the need to be able to step from the crescendo of everyday living to sort one's thoughts, will become a necessity. This author will concentrate on one such haven, the college and university counseling center. Specifically, this paper will focus on the current effectiveness of the counseling center and look at possibilities for raising this effectiveness in order that its position as a viable agent in the lives of its clientele may be enhanced.

Need for the study

The services that most college and university counseling centers offer its students could be listed and described in minute detail. However, its role, responsibility, and the

individual student is much more difficult to ascertain. Although surveys indicate that the percentage of the student body who seek the services of the counseling center continues to remain at between the 9 to 15% level (Clark, 1966; Thompson, 1971) it is also indicated that there is a much higher percentage of prospective counselees who would seek counseling, were other conditions prevalent. These conditions will be examined in Chapter Two. Hopefully more adequate and effective ways can be found which will assist more students in satisfying some of their unmet needs. This author proposes to suggest some ways which recent research literature has indicated are possible avenues toward a more productive and rewarding segment of this helping profession, the counseling center.

General questions to be considered

No two counseling centers are alike or operate in the very same manner. However, there are certain consistencies found in many counseling centers across the country. This author will describe those similarities as well as some of the notable differences. What research has shown us to be the most prevalent concern students bring to their counselor, what percentage of college campuses have counseling centers, what services are offered, or even what they precisely do, will be some questions considered.

The author will also look at what new and innovative ideas are being tried at today's counseling center. Problems that are often encountered and possible solutions that have been suggested will be discussed. Ways in which counseling centers can be more effective to themselves, their administration, and the people they work for, the student, also will be explored.

General procedures

Primarily this author is trying to review all recent literature that is available at the Montana State University library dealing with the college and university counseling center. Chapter Two will be subdivided into three separate parts. First, a rather detailed description of what counseling centers have been for approximately the past 25 years, and what for many, will continue to be. Then, an exploration of what is occurring in some rather innovative and far-sighted campus counseling centers will be examined. Finally, the crux of the problem, that of increasing counseling center effectiveness will be studied in an attempt to pull together as many of the current thoughts on the subject as possible, in a clear, understandable and helpful manner.

In Chapter Three this author will make some concluding remarks and recommendations that hopefully will be realistic enough so that perhaps further ideas may be sparked that

could help make the counseling center a dynamic, growing, and vibrant buffer between a tumultuous society and an equally ebullient youth culture.

Limitations

This author has made an effort to acquaint himself with most of the recent literature, applicable to counseling centers, which may be found at Montana State University. It is realized that sources may have been overlooked; however, it is considered a limitation to confine oneself to the resources of one campus and its faculty.

There are a few studies and fewer books devoted to the junior college counseling center. Although interesting, many of their concerns are somewhat unrelated to the larger university centers. Some existing conditions found at junior college counseling centers include: almost all of the counseling staff assumes teaching duties as well; the staff are almost wholly from the master degree ranks; and it is usually very closely connected to, or a part of, the administration. Most counseling at junior colleges appears to be at the vocational level, with advisors doing the major share of it. Because of the dissimilarities, the junior college scene was not included in this review.

Finally, this author must admit to some personal limitations. He has never worked with a counseling center, so his remarks will be based on a synthesis of the material he has uncovered. A conscientious effort will be made to make the findings as realistic and applicable as possible, realizing the need to make allowances for available funding and existing administrative structure.

Definition of terms

As the term counseling center is used in this paper it is taken to mean that facility on a college or university campus that is charged with the duty of assisting students to achieve acceptable solutions with concerns of an academic nature, personal problems, or vocational choices. The counseling center may also come to be recognized by the students as a place where they can go to learn problem-solving skills within themselves, thereby taking with them a valuable ability useful throughout their lifetime.

The counseling center, or simply center, as it may be referred to from time to time, may also go under the name of a psychological counseling center. Rarely it may be called a mental health or mental hygiene clinic. Its title is usually dependent on its affiliation and philosophy. Where this distinction is of importance, it will be noted.

Effectiveness, as related to the counseling center, is taken to mean basically that helping relationship within a counseling department which is striving to provide the greatest amount of good to the greatest number of students. The ways in which counseling centers attempt to achieve this are varied and complex. For one center, increased effectiveness might mean attaining a lower percentage of counselee recidivism; for another, it could be a long sought after change in position in the administrative structure. Other centers might want to increase the percentage of students they counsel, or set up para-professional training with resident heads in the dorms.

Summary

As the pressures of everyday living continue to increase, there is every indication to assume that people will need a temporary reprieve occasionally in which to examine their course and direction. For college age people who are being asked to assume adulthood at younger ages, the need may be even more acute. This paper will examine one department within a higher education system to which college students may turn for help--the counseling center.

Current centers will be described; some different centers will be examined; and methods for increasing effectiveness will be discussed. If counseling centers are to keep abreast of current increasing needs, they must be willing to institute

some constructive changes.

Regardless of what many critics claim, academic institutions can and do change. A certain amount of change has been seen by some as a necessary prerequisite for vital, vigorous, positive growth. Others view change with a certain amount of trepidation, fear, and hostility.

College and university counseling centers, like other areas within education, have realized in recent years the necessity of establishing methods by which they can begin to constructively and objectively evaluate their own performance. Unfortunately this is often a long, tedious, and usually painful process.

Perhaps by alleviating some of the fear of the unknown, the pain and frustration of change will be lessened for the good of students, parents, faculty, and human beings everywhere.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

College and university counseling centers have a very short history in the relatively brief era of American higher education. A short synopsis of counseling center history will give some idea of its beginnings and its direction in a half-century.

During this period of time many centers have continued to operate in what has been termed a "traditional" manner. The modus operandi of centers from roughly the 1950's to the present time will be examined to learn what this traditional model has been and will continue to be.

There have been criticisms from time to time that counseling centers have been too static and resistive to change (Foulds, 1969), but this has been true of much in education. Many centers are in a process of implementing new programs, and a few may be termed innovative. In actuality most centers will not be able to be clearly labeled one type or another, but rather a little of each. A description of these centers and their services will be made. Changes taking place within centers will be examined, and the ways in which counseling centers have become more effective through change will be discussed. Also suggestions made in the literature but perhaps not tried for long enough periods of time to

ascertain their effectiveness, will be viewed.

Twentieth century guidance and counseling: A progression

As industrial technology became more complex around the beginning of the twentieth century, there became a greater need for men with diversified skills, rather than a jack-of-all-trades. In 1908 Frank Parsons established and was the first director of the Vocation Bureau in Boston, the establishment of which was generally considered to be the birth of the guidance movement. His book, Choosing a Vocation appeared the next year in 1909 (Williamson, 1964).

The year 1908 was also heralded by many to be the beginning of the mental health movement, with the publication of Clifford Beers' book, A Mind That Found Itself.

The emergence of these two events at the same time awakened a genuine concern for the problems of others. Guidance workers found that the two areas of mental health and vocational choice were not as disparate as some people might think. Actually these "two kinds of service--helping people to make wise choices and helping them to improve their emotional health and well being--have increasingly been offered by the same professional person" (Tyler, 1961).

Guidance in the secondary school systems became a reality after the formation of the National Vocational Guidance Association, at Grand Rapids, Michigan in 1913.

Its first president was Frank Leavitt. Although it was rather slow in starting nation-wide, by the 1920's a number of superior school systems across the country had admirable guidance programs.

Also during this period World War I started and intelligence testing came on the scene in the form of Army Alpha and Beta tests, followed by the Binet from France in 1916. After this period came a flourish of aptitude and vocational tests.

It was during the 1930's and the depression, that ways were sought in which to place the right person with the right job. The United States Employment Service was created by the Government in 1933 and today is an influence on counselors with its Dictionary of Occupational Titles and General Aptitude Test Battery. It was also in 1931 that the Minnesota Employment Stabilization Research Institute was formed. "Research carried on by this organization improved existing aptitude tests and produced new ones. With the studies of the relationships between aptitudes and job patterns, much-needed data on validity were provided for these tests" (Steward, 1965).

It was also during this uncertain period and up to the start of World War II, that much concern was expressed over the loss of youth from schools and meaningful employment. The

National Education Association proposed several programs aimed at recovering the lost potential of drop-outs through institutes where students could receive counseling and vocational training.

It was actually the advent of World War II and its post-era which heralded the beginning of college counseling centers on over 400 campuses, as well as in major population centers throughout the country. Many of the veterans' counseling centers accepted non-veterans for a nominal fee. The establishment of these centers stimulated a trend for more professionalism among college counselors and created a real need for more programs and students in counselor education (Stewart, 1965).

As these veterans' programs began to be shut down, pressure was brought to bear on administrators to extend counseling facilities to all students.

Actually in the early days of collegiate history, the college president was seen as "all things to all people", including counselor to the student body. Over a period of years, as these duties were assigned usually to the dean of students, the areas of concern were mostly matters of a vocational or academic nature (Siegel, 1968).

In 1939, E. G. Williamson at the University of Minnesota published his book entitled How to Counsel Students, which described a set of six steps , which was actually a

service performed for the student by his counselor in order to arrive at an accurate evaluation of the student's capabilities and limitations.

It was in 1942 that Carl Rogers introduced a different approach to counseling that was called "non-directive", or later, "client-centered." The idea was that persons had within themselves the ability and resources to resolve their own difficulties if given the nurturing environment of warmth, understanding, and a non-judgmental atmosphere in which to grow.

In 1951 came the creation of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, which is probably the foremost organization which represents today's educational counselors (Ohlsen, 1964).

Also, during the 1950's there was still debate and concern over the wastefulness of school dropouts. There was also recognized need to place people in jobs that were personally satisfying rather than simply filling slots. Then came the launching of Sputnik in 1957, which propelled in us a new awareness of science. This period was also one of impact on counselors in the sense that it became a clear mandate for them to help organize an effective model in which to obtain the most potential from the students of the day.

It was during this period that Donald Super suggested a developmental emphasis in which the development and implementation of the self concept would lead to "vocational development" rather than simply "vocational choice" (Stewart, 1965).

During the 1960's the use of group counseling became popular as a method of handling increased demands on the counselor's time. Also the use of para-professionals had become another way of using peer influence to help alleviate some pressure on the demand for the time of today's counselor.

College and university counseling centers: A description

The counseling of yesterday in colleges was seen in a different light from what we think of counseling today. Traditionally, counseling was a process of finding ways that students could stay in school in spite of financial, academic or vocational concerns (Siegel, 1968). Although these concerns are still with us today, there is a tendency to think of counseling as occurring at a more personal level with emotional, adjustment and coping problems constituting the bulk of counseling. This may or may not be true, depending upon a number of variables within a certain counseling center, the size of the campus where it is found, and the particular model that it ascribes to. Oetting (1970) reports that there are eight different types of counseling center models, any one of which

a center conceivably could be. However, many, if not most, are a combination of several of these models.

The personnel services model is usually found at smaller schools and may have a variety of duties, including: housing, financial aid, freshman orientation, freshman testing, foreign student advising, and student recruitment, in addition to counseling. The academic affairs model has very close ties with the administration. Students are routinely assigned a counselor who also functions as an advisor, assisting a student find a major, discuss study problems; and the counselor may even be in charge of admissions or readmissions. A psychotherapy model deals primarily with the emotional problems of students and little else. The training model offers experience to graduate students in the practice of counseling students. The consultation model sees highly trained professional people as being too valuable to spend all of their time in actual practice. Consequently they are used for consultation purposes in mental health as well as counseling. The research model is usually found within the counseling centers of larger universities and devotes some of its time and effort to areas of counseling research. Finally, the traditional model is a title basic to most college counseling centers. It provides counseling as well as personal counseling, usually of a short-term duration. It may do testing, set up study clinics for

students, and act as an academic counselor advisor. The staff is usually of an eclectic nature (Oetting, 1970).

Clark (1966) found that counseling centers with a student body of 10,000 or more, routinely handled many different types of problems, in line with the fact that it was found these larger centers offered more diversity of facilities than were found in smaller campus centers by other researchers (Anderson, 1970). At these larger institutions, the most frequent services delivered were given as: vocational counseling, 71%; educational and occupational information counseling, 67%; personal adjustment counseling, 60%; and testing, 14% (Clark, 1966).

In 1970 Anderson found somewhat different percentages of the services offered in the 219 college and university counseling centers from which he had obtained samples. The most prevalent services offered were counseling for personal problems, 96%; counseling for study problems, 92%; major field counseling, 91%; short-term counseling for severe emotional problems, 95%; counseling of faculty concerning student problems, 76%; group counseling, 69%; freshman testing, 64%; studies of student characteristics within their institution, 62%; counseling students' spouses, 57%; and counseling faculty regarding personal problems, 49% (Anderson, 1970).

It might be assumed that a psychological counseling center associated with the campus psychology department would be devoted almost wholly to personal and emotional problems. This appears to be the case at Oberlin College in Ohio where Thompson reports their center as seeing 40% of an on-going class for three years. For the first three years of college (1967-70) the number one problem reported by students was of a heterosexual nature. This problem was reported mostly by males in their freshman year, and females in their junior year. Depression was reported as a second, third, and second-ranked problem for the respective years by both sexes. Interpersonal problems were the second highest concern during the sophomore year, being fourth-ranked the freshman year and also fourth-ranked the junior year. Problems of an academic, family, and informational nature were scattered around fifth place through the three-year period (Thompson, 1971).

Although far from conclusive, there are indications that personal and emotional problems are coming to the forefront in terms of a counselee's priorities. In an unpublished report from the University of Maryland, it was disclosed from a survey that was taken of 193 nation-wide counseling centers, that the incidence of vocational counseling rose 2% from 1970 to 1972. Yet by the same token, on their campus they found an increase in the number of students coming to them with personal-social-emotional problems, while seeing a corresponding

decrease in educational-vocational problems. Their findings led the author to hypothesize that students were looking more inward because of: decreased pressure to find a job on graduation, fewer jobs available, more emphasis being placed on inter-disciplinary training and graduate study; drug usage had increased student awareness of personal problems and the need of counseling; students simply had more problems; people then seemed more willing to discuss personal problems; and students were looking for more meaning in all aspects of their life instead of only fragmented portions of it being satisfying (Grites, 1972).

If students are seeking solutions to their pressing problems of the day, then to whom are they turning for assistance? The indications are that only a small percentage of them are seeking help from professional counseling sources. In the early 1960's the University of Kansas reported only 4% of its student body sought professional help at the mental health clinic and/or the counseling center. During the 1960's the percentage of those using these professional resources was reported as: Harvard 9%, Columbia College 12.7%, Stanford 15%, and San Fernando State 15% (Thompson, 1971). Clark reported that his survey of universities larger than 10,000 students showed a remarkably consistent user rate of 12%. He saw this figure as being quite generally consistent with other studies

of counseling centers, regardless of student population (Clark, 1966). The director of the counseling center at Montana State University reported a user rate of 10% (Krings, 1973).

Oetting found that the percentage of students who use the counseling facilities vary with the size of the institution. The smaller a school and consequently the more personal attention a student receives, the higher the percentage will be. For those schools under 1,000 students, 58% of the student body was seen by the counseling center at some time during the student's college career. At those schools of 10,000 to 15,000 students, 27% used the center at some point in their academic career; and the big schools of 20,000 students and over showed 16% used the center over a 4-year period (Oetting, 1970). For colleges with a population of from 1,000 to 5,000 students, the position where Oberlin College with 2,500 students stood, Oetting and Thompson (1971) were in quite close agreement. The user rate of 34% vs. 40% respectively for a very similar period of time, and 3 years vs. 4 years of school, probably accounted somewhat for the minor difference.

It is interesting to speculate that if roughly 9 to 15% of the student body continues to seek the services of the counseling center during any given year, is that the total percentage of students that should ever be expected to be seen? If not, what are the remaining students doing about their

problems if they are not going to the centers? Actually a number of modern-day researchers make a strong case that counseling centers are not reaching nearly the potential clientele that they could be (Warnath, 1971; Albert, 1968).

Thompson states that doing away with waiting lists, for the most part, can increase center usage if staff is correspondingly increased to handle the added load. He stated that for the 1964-65 school year, 12% of the student body of 2,500 visited the center which had an equivalent of .8 fulltime staff. Four years later the caseload more than doubled, to 26% of the student body with the additional staff which came to 2.3 fulltime people (Thompson, 1971). Clark also came to the conclusion that if the counseling staff could be increased, the centers use rate would increase (Clark, 1966). From a questionnaire taken on Oberlin campus, it was found that 60% of the student body would like to talk with someone at the counseling center about a personal matter at some time during their college career (Thompson, 1971).

Warnath claims that most students go to people they know personally, with their concerns, not some "stranger" whose office they would not like to be seen coming out of. They talk to their friends, families, favorite faculty, family doctor or minister, but not usually a professional counselor at the center. Those who finally can bring themselves to the door of

the counseling office may be there because "they are the ones who happen to find us, or have been willing to accept a referral to us; or they have the problems which fit the skill of our staff" (Warnath, 1971). Warnath calls this faulty or inadequate reasoning on the part of counseling staff, strongly hinting that the staff is making excuses for the minor role they play in the lives of the general student population (Warnath, 1971).

However, to wallow in the belief that counselees are the unwilling partners in the counseling game may be equally faulty thinking. Clark reports that fully 78% of the clientele were self-referred at the larger universities of 10,000 students or more (Clark, 1966). This is very close to Thompson's figure of 76% self-referrals from one school year at a small college (Thompson, 1971). Other sources of referral included those by peers and friends, faculty and administration; and surprisingly, only 5% were from doctors at the campus health centers on these larger campuses (Clark, 1966).

Perhaps it would be valuable in terms of an optimal delivery system to arrive at a workable, effective, counselor/client ratio. Clark found that 90% of all large universities had one counselor for between 1,000 to 5,000 students, with the mean client load of 2,988. Four schools had ratios of one counselor for each 10,000 to 15,000 students, but were not

included in the mean computation in order to make it more realistic (Clark, 1966). Albert's survey of 415 major colleges found a range of one counselor for 100 to 8,000 students, with the median being 1 per 770 students. He felt this was an adequate ratio if only 10% of the student body continued to seek counseling (Albert, 1968). Nugent and Pareis have done one of the more comprehensive surveys of campus counseling centers across the nation. They found that 24% of the nation's campuses had either one counselor per 2,000 students or more. Another 24% of campuses had one counselor per 500 to 1,000 students. The remainder of the sample included those colleges that had less than one counselor per 500 students, 17%; 1 per 1,000 to 1,500, 16%; and 1 per 1,500 to 2,000, 15% (Nugent and Pareis, 1968). These percentages had a typographical error in the article (Grites, 1972). Of the 461 centers surveyed by Nugent and Pareis, by far the most (56%) had between 1 and 3 fulltime equivalent counselors. Those centers having less than one fulltime counselor comprised 16%, and 18% had from 4 to 6 counselors. The other 9% had from 7 to more than 12 counselors. Clark found that the school with an average of 15,000 students had at least 5 fulltime counselors (Clark, 1966).

Before it is assumed that 9 to 15% of all the nation's students are seeking assistance, it would be prudent to note

that out of 785 campuses who responded to Nugent and Pareis' study, 320 of them, or fully 40%, had no counseling center whatsoever. Nugent and Pareis sent questionnaires to all 4-year colleges and universities listed in the American Universities and Colleges named by Cartter (1964 ed.). From this manual a total of 1,166 surveyed were replies representing a 67% return (Nugent and Pareis, 1968). Albert (1968) found that 30% of the 415 colleges and universities he sampled did not have counseling centers. He stated that the 10% discrepancy between his study and the Nugent-Pareis study was presumably one of center definition and types of institutions surveyed (Albert, 1968). Although both papers were published in 1968, Albert knew of some findings from the Nugent-Pareis study from an unpublished report they had made in 1965.

This author would now like to examine various facets of the college counseling center clientele in an attempt to identify a "typical" counselee. Also a look into what the "average-type" client might expect to encounter in a visit to the counseling center will be examined.

Should it be expected that because society allows its females to more openly express their emotions, they would then be more prevalent as clients in counseling centers? The University of Chicago found in 1969 that significantly fewer males (at the .01 level) came for counseling than did females.

There was basically an equal ratio of males to females on campus. They also found that significantly fewer (at the same level) students age 21 and over went to the center. The year in school did not have any effect on those who sought services (Frankel, 1969).

During the same late 1960's period, Oberlin College found that there was no basic difference between the percentage of males or females who sought therapy. The male/female ratio was in equal proportion within the college population. The year in school did not make any difference here either; however, girls had problems that tended to be more sexually oriented. Among a class that was followed up over a three-year period, there was also no significant difference among the variables of curriculum major, parental divorce, number of siblings, or nature of high school from which they came. This was in comparison to members of the same class who did not seek counseling. Males were seen more often than females (4.3 vs. 3.2), but Thompson reasoned that an all male staff should be a consideration as a possible bias for this statistic (Thompson, 1971). Nationwide, most (40%) counselees have between 1 to 3 sessions with a counselor, followed by those having 4 to 6 sessions (34%), 7 to 9 sessions, 8%, 10 to 12 with 5%, and over 12 sessions, was 5% of the clientele (Nugent and Pareis, 1968). In general agreement with this was Clark's

finding that the mean number of hours spent with each client was 3.31 (Clark, 1966).

In the area of treatment, and regarding the old bugaboo of counseling vs. psychotherapy, the distinctions Albert found most centers to make, included length of time in therapy and the amount of unconscious material dealt with. However, inconsistencies occur in terms of definitions of unconscious or conscious material between counseling centers. It was found that 45% of the counseling centers did limit themselves to helping those with clearly conscious-level problems (Albert, 1968). Clark found that the large centers viewed psychotherapy as involving more time and getting at more "depth", too; but it also was more involved with rebuilding or modifying basic personality structure and involved dealing with the "less-well adjusted" students in more depth than would be seen in counseling. Of the 36 major university centers surveyed, 42% did not distinguish between counseling and psychotherapy, 48% did so distinguish, and 10% did not respond (Clark, 1966).

Where further intensive type treatment was indicated, and the centers felt that they could no longer provide the help a student needed, a referral was usually made. However, Clark found centers to be very sketchy about who or what they used as a referral, most saying or implying that "we get in touch with a referral source" (Clark, 1966). Albert found only 3% of

centers he surveyed offered complete psychiatric treatment (Albert, 1968). Nugent and Pareis found that 20% of their sample stated they had a psychiatric unit, but 52% of the centers felt that one needed to be available (Nugent and Pareis, 1968).

Counselors themselves did not like to be pigeon-holed to a certain theoretical position, but rather viewed themselves as being eclectic. Nationwide, only 19% of the center's staff would commit themselves to one counseling philosophy, that being Rogerian. Learning theory accounted for 8%, the Freudian approach, 3%, and various other positions 14%. Over half (52%) were presumably eclectic as they claimed no particular philosophy (Nugent and Pareis, 1968). Albert found, too, that counselors prefer to be individualistic, using those parts of a theory which seem to best fit their own personal philosophy of counseling. A full 72% of center staff stated they were eclectic, and when asked to pick a favorite position, chose again, Rogerian theory. This theory was picked by 22% of the respondents. "Directive" followed with 9%, psychoanalytic with 8%, existential with 6%, and behavioristic orientations with 5%. One center simply stated "common sense" (Albert, 1968).

These statistics show the analytic point of view to be somewhat uncommon in counseling centers; however, in the early 1960's, Brandeis University made a case for the Freudian analytic position. They were called a psychological counseling center, connected with the psychology department, and their staff were almost wholly Freudian or neo-Freudian in orientation. They described their treatment approach as "analytically oriented brief therapy", and stated that their students could go much further in a short period of time than is generally considered possible with this approach (Hanfmann, 1963).

Counselees are often concerned about the confidentiality of their relationship with the counselor. The real issue may be at times having a person's file requested by administrators for disciplinary or other purposes. Nationwide, most centers maintain complete confidentiality of their clientele's files (59%). Some administrators may obtain information but not files; in 21% of the cases and in 10% of the centers, the Dean of Students may routinely examine the files (Nugent and Pareis, 1968). In an effort to substantiate these findings, Anderson found that actually 75% of the counseling centers maintained complete confidentiality of a student's files. Also it was found that larger schools tended to have higher degrees of confidentiality than did

smaller schools. The differences in percentages were arrived at by giving centers more choices on the questionnaire in the Anderson study (Anderson, 1971).

Unfortunately, students often come from situations in high school where the counselor is seen as the right arm of the principal, and as such, part of the administration (Warnath, 1971). At the college level the counseling center was combined with the Dean of Students office and with testing at 40% of the centers surveyed, under the Dean of Students alone, in 18% of the centers surveyed, and under an academic dean in 9% of the cases (Nugent and Pareis, 1968). Again, by way of comparison, Anderson generally agreed with 41% vs. 40% of the centers in his study being combined with testing and the Dean of Students. However, he found only 11% of the centers he surveyed as being completely independent, vs. 15% being completely independent in comparison to the Nugent and Pareis study; the 4% difference being, Anderson found 22% functioned alone under the Dean of Students, compared to 18% found by the Nugent and Pareis study (Anderson, 1971).

Albert tended to agree more with Anderson's findings, stating that 12% of the centers he surveyed operated as a separate independent unit. Sixty-seven percent of the centers were operating under a student personnel division of some sort, 6% under psychology, 4% under education, 2% with health centers,

and 1% with a psychiatric service (Albert, 1968).

Counseling center staff wear other hats besides simply one, entitled "counselor." They may also be teachers, testers, recruiters, and researchers. The center staff of 37% of Nugent and Pareis' study spent between 22 and 30 hours per week in personal contacts. Twenty percent spent 16 to 21 hours with clients, 11% spent 10 to 15 hours, 10% spent 31 to 35 hours, and 9% spent 36 to 40 hours (Nugent and Pareis, 1968). Clark found that counselors averaged between 1,000 and 1,200 hours per year counseling and at 80% of the institutions surveyed, the staff taught a mean of 13.24 hours per semester per center. The mean number of hours taught per semester per counselor was 3.88 hours (Clark, 1966).

Although one-half of the counseling centers have their own psychometrist, one-half do not (Nugent and Pareis, 1968), thereby placing the role of tester in the lap of many counselors. Albert found in his survey that 84% of the counseling centers offered intelligence testing, 80% provided vocational interest testing, 79% provided personality testing, 76% did vocational aptitude testing, 76% tested academic aptitude, 73% investigated study habits, and 62% examined personal values. Although not as widely used, projective-type tests were used by 49% of the centers surveyed. Of these, 56% of the centers used the Rorschach, 56% the Thematic Apperception

Test (TAT), 24% the Sentence Completion Test, 12% Figure Drawing, and 12% used the Bender-Gestalt. Also, those non-projective personality tests that require somewhat less specialized training to administer were the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) used by 50% of the centers, followed by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule 33%, and various others also used to a much lesser degree (Albert, 1968).

A human resources center: The new way

In 1969 Foulds and Guinan wrote that the traditional model of the counseling centers on campus were continuing to "play a passive and reactive role, being relatively isolated from the mainstream of student growth and development, providing a narrow range of adjustive and remedial services to a very small percentage of the student population, serving as an arm of the administration in performing evaluative services, and are relatively uninvolved in the training of graduate students in counseling or in conducting rigorous evaluative research of their activities" (Foulds and Guinan, 1969). This is certainly strong language aimed at a profession dedicated to helping others.

Two years later in 1971, Charles Warnath offered some encouragement for the counseling centers' predicament, stating that in his estimate a few centers had recently begun to move in the direction of being true human resource center models.

However, at that time no such models had been completed. (Warnath, 1971).

This new movement, just beginning in counseling centers, has been called by a number of names, including: the "New Model", a growth center, a student development center, and a human resources center (Foulds and Guinan, 1969, Witte, 1973, Warnath, 1971). For the purpose of this paper, inasmuch as the names are all taken to represent a new, more effective model, this author will let the phrase "human resources model" stand as representative.

Perhaps the most widely publicized of the human resource models has been work done at Bowling Green State University in Ohio and written up by Foulds and Guinan. The counseling center there has been in existence since 1955 and is staffed by seven full-time counselors or clinical psychologists and four half-time graduate assistants. In 1970 the student population of Bowling Green was 13,000, making the counselor/student ratio 1 per 1,444 students, certainly a most desirable percentage, by Nugent-Pareis (1968) standards (Foulds and Guinan, 1970).

The counseling staff at Bowling Green took the view that basically many aspects of the type of life we lead today are psychologically unhealthy. Americans are living in an increasingly de-personalized, insensitive world. Therefore,

much of our behavior has become reactive and adjustive, making us unable to develop to our full potential and enjoy a full, satisfying existence. The staff at Bowling Green saw their obligation as being one in which they would become more of a preventative "human growth center", rather than a purely remedial one. They envisioned turning people back on to the joys of living by "helping the individual become fully aware of his freedom to choose and affirming his freedom and the responsibility it entails" (Foulds and Guinan, 1969).

In order to implement this innovative new program, the Bowling Green staff outlined the following three basic criteria: a) the provision of developmental and educative group experiences through a variety of outreach programs; b) expanding consultative services to the academic community; and c) expanding training programs, particularly at the internship level (Foulds and Guinan, 1969).

In 1970, one year later, Foulds and Guinan presented another article in which they outlined some of the progress made at the Bowling Green growth center.

For those students and faculty who wished to learn more about themselves and other persons, who wanted to experience increased awareness, and to increase their level of personal functioning, an evening growth group was initiated. The groups met one night a week for four hours for a total of

eight weeks. As word of the group spread, a waiting list was formed, necessitating the formation of several weekly evening groups. The staff found by experience that they could be effective with a group size of up to fifteen.

Other students and faculty who were very interested in joining a group, but who for some reason could not attend an evening session, necessitated the formation of weekend marathon growth groups. These groups met for a total of 30 hours over a Friday evening to Sunday evening period. The authors describe the demand for marathon experiences to have been "phenomenal" (Foulds and Guinan, 1970).

In an effort to be flexible to those who are unable to meet either in the evening or for a whole weekend, the Bowling Green staff set up a 24-hour marathon growth group in which the fifteen participants, along with two facilitators, would meet from 7:00 p.m. Friday until 7:00 p.m. Saturday. No one was allowed to leave the center during this period; even food was brought in and eaten together as part of the total experience. The response to this type of group was termed "extremely heavy." In addition, a mini-marathon growth group was formed for those unable or unwilling to commit themselves to either a 24-hour or 30-hour group experience. This group also consisted of 15 participants and two facilitators and met for 16 hours on the weekends.

The Bowling Green staff felt that there were perhaps large numbers of students and faculty who were interested in the workings of a group but who might feel quite sensitive to being tied down to a personal commitment within a structured group. Therefore, unstructured groups were formed so that interested persons could come merely as spectators, if they desired, so that they might overcome a fear of the unknown. People could move from group to group, as could facilitators, leaving some groups leaderless for a time. The focus of the groups was on here-and-now feelings, authenticity, openness, and human relatedness. Many of these people developed enough courage to join regularly scheduled groups. The staff felt that these unstructured groups were such a success that in addition to being open just one afternoon a week, they were contemplating opening them one evening a week as well.

Other activities that have taken place on the Bowling Green campus have been a "group-in" experience very similar to the unstructured group already mentioned, but on a smaller scale, on Saturdays, to minimize class conflicts. Sensory awareness experiences were offered by the staff, and primarily given as guest lectures at those classes on campus requesting them. One particularly satisfying development has been the addition of a staff growth group which is held for two hours each Thursday morning. It gives the staff an opportunity to

grow among themselves, to share experiences and feelings about one another. The staff could even fight among each other if necessary to achieve constructive ends.

The staff at Bowling Green realize that their model may seem too idealistic and consequently unrealistic for many counseling centers throughout the United States. However they are ardent in their belief that in order to promote more effective human functioning, some of their ideas merit consideration.

The University of Wisconsin at Green Bay has been struggling to develop an innovative counseling center. This author has a personal acquaintanceship with the Green Bay counseling center director, Dr. Bob Witte, and obtained from him an unpublished report of their center's activities.

The campus at Green Bay has a student population of 3,500 people, and during the 1971-72 school year counseled 1,170 students, which was 33% of the student body. A total of 140 group counseling sessions were conducted during the same year, as well as 750 vocational interest and personality tests being administered (Witte, 1973).

The Student Development Center, as it is called in Green Bay, is located in the center of the campus on the ground floor of a building not connected with the administration. There are three full-time counselors, five para-professional

staff members, all with B.A.'s or M.A.'s, and usually four or five students who are called "help counselors." These student volunteers spend various hours during the day talking about the concept of the development center and its activities, working in the hallways and cafeteria, providing information to students who may need assistance of various kinds. The para-professionals are usually faculty wives who do counseling, work as group facilitators, and just make themselves available for students to "rap" with. These people are supervised by the center staff. There is also one consulting psychiatrist available to the staff.

The counselors themselves all teach at least one class during the school year, in addition to their counseling duties. One course the staff is responsible for is entitled the "Psychology of Adjustment." The counselors may frequently be seen counseling students in the halls, cafeteria, or outside. Although the students can make appointments for specific counselors, they can just stop by to talk with whatever counselor may be free. The staff is quite integrated, having women, an Indian and a Negro counselor.

The center itself has a large outer-office that is called a "drop-in center", where students can come for coffee, popcorn, to eat their lunch, listen to music, and talk with the center's staff. It has an informal atmosphere aimed at

putting students at ease and informing them about counseling services.

The receptionist, whose office is in the drop-in center, is a key member of the staff. By being a warm, understanding, vibrant person, she is often able to put students at ease, gain their confidence, and help to intercept a problem before it becomes a major one.

At the start of a school year the development center conducts orientation periods for new students and their parents. Films are shown concerning college adjustment, and discussion follows. During the first semester of the 1971-72 school year there were three vocational decision groups, two self-understanding groups, a women's group dealing with the changing roles of women, and a human relations seminar. About once a month the center puts out an "info-gram" advertising the activities of the center and generally promoting increased awareness of its availability. The center staff encourages the faculty to contact them so that together they might help a student achieve more rewarding educational objectives.

The Student Development Center, as its name implies, has a developmental orientation. Its function is seen as being one of easing the burden of transition of its student clientele through that difficult period from adolescence into adulthood. It also sees its function as being more preventative than remedial, by attempting to prevent problems before

they occur, detecting existing problems early and shortening their duration, and keeping actual impairments minimal (Witte, 1973).

Not too many years ago the counselor was able to spend practically as much time on a particular client as he deemed necessary, and most of the activities between the client and counselor, in this traditional setting, were helpful. However, Oetting, Ivey, and Weigel, state that this leisurely pace of the past will not now suffice. There are too many demands being made on many of the nation's counseling centers and their staffs today, necessitating more imaginative ways of coping with the increased workload.

Oetting, et al., in their monograph entitled The College and University Counseling Center, have suggested three ways of meeting these increased needs. The first way would be to move the counseling center out into the campus community, become a consultation center for faculty, administrators, living areas, and students; and finally, become within itself, a developmental counseling model, dealing with both intellectual and personal development (Oetting, 1970).

Counseling centers have traditionally stayed very close to, or within their own confines, most of the time. But it is being found that counselors can contribute to the educational efforts within the greater campus area. The counselor can help educators make the classroom more relevant to

immediate concerns of the student. Counselors could work with other members of the campus community in ways of making the educational institution less stressful, more receptive to the needs of students as human beings, and pointing out ways of identifying problem areas before they become serious. Counselors could also move out of the sacred space where counseling almost always occurs, their office, and occasionally counsel in student unions, walkways, or at student group meetings.

Attempting to establish consultation relations with the faculty and administration of a university can be a very formidable task, admits Oetting, but the rewards can overshadow the effort. The endeavor may be particularly difficult when the staff sees no need for any assistance from the counseling center. The effort is a delicate and time-consuming one, built, not through official channels, but by personal inter-action. Faculty might be made aware of ways to become more student-orientated, rather than strictly subject matter-orientated. In this way, by coming closer to the students in a personal way, a teacher might be in a position to make a referral to the center or become something of a "mini-counselor" himself in minor areas or cases. In this way, perhaps the effect teachers have on students might go a long way toward creating a healthy campus atmosphere.

Because students spend so much of their time in residence halls, there is a need to establish consultation guidelines for advisors, supervisors, and others within these areas who come in contact with students. Problems that surface there might better be dealt with in their original setting, than at the counseling center. The training and supervision of resident hall advisors in interpersonal relations could go a long way toward minimizing possible conflicts and creating a more pleasing environment within these areas, Oetting claims (Oetting, 1970).

Planning programs and activities without the active involvement of students themselves might very well be dooming them to failure. While Oetting is not suggesting that students themselves become therapists, classmates are often the first persons to whom the student takes a problem. Certain capable and talented students within the campus community are often turned to by others in need of advice. The nurturing and training of these people in interpersonal relations as well as educating them to available resources, might also make them a valuable referral source.

Young people of college age face a great deal of developmental stress both personal and intellectual. Oetting proposes that for a developmental counseling model to be effective, it must encompass the four major areas described

in the following.

The elimination of all stress may not be a wise endeavor, much less a very practical one in today's fast-paced society. However, the elimination of unnecessary conditions that create problems on campus should be attempted. For a counseling center to help initiate this attempt, it would be practicing a mode of operation Oetting calls "primary prevention." In order to survive, a university must of necessity change; and with change will come a certain amount of stress. Part of the counseling center's obligation will be to help people deal with this developmental stress, which we face continuously, in order to learn more effective ways of coping that can be utilized in future situations.

In certain individuals there are developmental obstacles that were not successfully hurdled in the process of maturation. Consequently, these individuals are not able to be full participants in the activities of college life or living in general. These individuals were usually seen in time-consuming one-to-one counseling or psychotherapy sessions. Oetting claims that there is no longer the time or staff available to handle the bulk of these individual cases. Therefore, what he terms "developmental intervention" in the form of group programs will be relied on to provide the needed therapy for the emotional problems of students, facilitated by center staff members.

Some students do not need to change in order to adapt to college life, but from time to time do encounter temporary stress which inhibits learning and normal functioning. These people do not need deep involvement with a counselor or group, but do need "transitional support" in order to traverse a specific difficult period. This support may come from trained resident advisors, religious houses on campus or informal group sessions, which may be effective at a period before more serious and time-consuming problems develop.

Occasionally students may encounter crisis situations which they are unable to deal with effectively or rationally. Suicide attempts, psychotic reactions, or other maladaptive behavior may result unless crucially needed help is provided. "Crisis intervention" is for the most part, supportive during the critical period, but it also provides the opportunity for later developmental intervention in those cases deemed necessary. The center staff should be prepared to handle these emergency situations, "actively intervening, protecting, supporting, helping reduce anxiety, and showing (the individual) ways to overcome the difficulty" (Oetting, 1970).

Charles Warnath in his book New Myths and Old Realities (1971), also sees the need for college counseling centers to respond to the greater numbers of students who are seeking

assistance, by providing more of something. Part of this something, as Warnath sees it, as well as others, is in the increased use of group therapy among more and more of the caseload. He claims budgetary restrictions are forcing the abandonment of traditional one-to-one counseling relationships (Warnath, 1971).

Warnath calls his envisioned counseling center model a "Center for Human Resources." This model will attempt to humanize the college educational system in part by becoming a buffer between students and the administration, if necessary. By the initiation of an "early warning" system, the center can hope to mediate an amicable solution between students and an increasing bureaucratic institution, the university. The center will work toward the positive growth of the entire university. Students want more meaningful contact with professors instead of just being a student number, a face in a sea of classroom faces.

Warnath states that counseling center staff will have to work within existing structures and not attempt to rebuild them. It will be the attitude of the center's staff members that are to be of foremost importance and not the specific activities that the staff are doing or will attempt to introduce. The staff of a traditional center see themselves as offering adequate services, but if they would cease to

function, so would their services. However, the staff of a human resources center would work with and through people and hopefully, when a specific job is done, permanent change will occur and be able to be carried on by people indigenous to the situation (Warnath, 1971).

Warnath also suggests other ways of developing a more effective center for human resources that have been presented by the three previous authors (Guinan, Witte, and Oetting) in much the same fashion. Due to slight variation, they deserve mention here.

The center should get more students involved and interested in all aspects of campus life. Workshops could be presented on interpersonal relations between staff and students, including minority groups. Hopefully they could get to know one another on a more positive, meaningful level. Development of helping relationships with campus instructors would stimulate delivery of material in a creative and stimulating way. Warnath warns not to wait until invited to present new ideas and activities to the campus community. Yet, care must be taken in order that one program after another is introduced without lasting effect; in which case the counseling center's image can become severely tarnished and inhibit real progress in the future (Warnath, 1971).

Warnath realizes that it is easy to make suggestions as he has done, when it takes real struggle and effort to renovate an existing structure within an educational institution. Yet, he sees counseling centers standing at the crossroads right now. They can continue as they have for the past 25 years and let others make decisions for them; or they can make their own choices "as a result of a bold and creative effort . . . to re-define themselves in meaningful ways which contribute to the general welfare of higher education" (Warnath, 1971).

Gauging counseling center effectiveness: A dilemma

Dentists are able to judge how effective their work is by how long the fillings remain intact in their patients' teeth. Doctors are able to look under a microscope to tell if they have been successful in repelling an invading host from a patient's body. Plumbers can periodically check with their customers to see if the bathtub faucet they repaired continues to remain dripless. Most occupations have some yardstick by which to measure the effectiveness of the job they are performing. Counseling, and those occupations working to promote behavioral change in human beings, do not. By what criteria should a counseling center judge their services to be successful? How can behavioral change or an improved self-concept be measured?

Added to this bewildering thought is the evidence in the now classic study done by H. J. Eysenck in 1952, that "roughly two-thirds of a group of neurotic patients will recover or improve to a marked extent within about two years of the onset of their illness, whether they are treated by means of psychotherapy or not" (Eysenck, 1952). This figure of two-thirds appears remarkably stable from investigation to investigation and from researcher to researcher (Levitt, 1957).

In 1964 J. H. Metzler conducted a thorough review of the literature in an attempt to define what effective counseling and counseling centers were. He concluded that up to that time he saw little evidence to indicate that counseling had much effect on clients one way or another. No real guide was found for measuring counseling and counseling center effectiveness. Metzler found researchers to be sorely lacking in this area, making only minimal contributions that have proven to be of little value to existing programs. "There is no agreement as to what constitutes the goals of a guidance program, and therefore it has been impossible to determine the proper criteria by which to measure effectiveness" (Metzler, 1964). It was Metzler's opinion, however, that counselor competence was a vital prerequisite to an effective program (Metzler, 1964).

Shertzer and Stone are of the opinion that counselors in training who use tape recording sessions during their practicum are much more apt to tape sessions occasionally during actual practice, in order to more accurately gauge their continuing effectiveness (Shertzer and Stone, 1968).

A research project was conducted at the University of Missouri in 1957, attempting to find what an effective counseling session was and how it was perceived by others. Doctoral students in counseling education were observed in actual counseling situations with clients by the counseling staff. Three-fourths of the clients reported that they were "well satisfied with counseling and felt it was beneficial to them." However, one-half of the counseling sessions were seen by the counseling staff as being ineffective counseling sessions. Questioned immediately after the first session, the clients felt that talking to a counselor was not as difficult as they had expected, and they saw counseling as being a relatively serious business which could affect major choices they were to make. In terms of counselor technique, the clients did not seem to mind whether a counselor asked questions or reflected feelings. However, clients did report more positive sessions with experienced counselors as opposed to counselors who were new in the program and had little experience (Callis, et al., 1957).

A study published in 1957 attempted to ascertain the effectiveness of the counseling center at the University of Chicago campus. Forty graduate students in counseling and 10 counseling center staff members took part in the study. There was a sample of 102 clients, of which 39 were female and 63 were male. Females were seen for a mean of seven sessions and males were seen for a mean of 5.89 sessions. Of those students seeking help for the first time, of whom there were 66, 30% of them reported no need to seek further help. Twenty-five percent of the counselees reported seeking further help, and 23% contemplated looking for further help. Rating the degree of help, 37% stated the center "clearly helped" them, 61.9% stated the counseling center experience as "clearly harmful." It was found that as the number of visits to the counselor went up, the favorableness of the rating these clients gave the center also went up. There was no evidence to indicate that the sex of a client affected the rating he or she gave their counseling experience. Nor was the sex of the counselor or his experience as a counselor found to be a significant factor in the ratings given by the counselees (Porter, E. H. Jr., 1957).

An interesting study was done by David Campbell at the University of Minnesota with the results published in his book entitled, The Results of Counseling: Twenty-five Years Later.

Campbell discovered that his colleague, E. G. Williamson, had not thrown away any data throughout his long and fruitful career, so Campbell decided to do a study on the effects of counseling 25 years after those who had been counseled had left the university. A sample of students who attended the university during this period (1933-40) but had not been counseled was also taken for comparison. It was found that those who had received counseling achieved more accomplishments in their life, earned about \$1,200 per year more, received more honors and degrees, and were elected to more leadership posts, than the comparable sample of students who had not received counseling. On the other hand, the same group who had received counseling expressed greater degrees of dissatisfaction with their jobs, their marriages, their social life, and in general were less satisfied with their station in life, as compared to those who had not received counseling. Campbell stressed that the degree of these noted differences was not usually very marked; they were, nevertheless, remarkably consistent. Counseled women also reported higher degrees of anxiety than did non-counseled women. Students who sought counseling were most often first born. Those students receiving counseling had a 25% higher graduation rate than did the non-counseled. In terms of rating the effect counseling had on those receiving it, 57% remembered counseling to be favorable or very favorable, as opposed to

12% who remembered counseling as being unfavorable or very unfavorable (Campbell, 1965).

In 1973 the California Chancellor's Study Team presented to a joint legislative budget committee, their detailed report on university counseling and career guidance centers found within their state. They found the most effective centers to have good administrators who were good counselors as well. The study team found that in order to build effective programs, more selective recruitment should be instituted as well as upgrading the selection committee, by making it more diversified, which included allowing some students on the committee. The study team also found that there was a very noticeable lack of stated goals and purposes among many of the states' counseling centers. They had not established an over-all contextual philosophy base. This, in the study team's opinion, seriously hampered centers' efforts in setting up a system or method of self-accountability. Because the product of counseling centers is often nebulous, it makes it easier for centers to not be accountable to anyone (Chancellor's Study Team, 1973). Confidentiality is seen by one author as being a great inhibitor to accurate self-appraisal and accountability, simply because if something is supposed to be kept secret, it becomes an easy alibi to hide behind (Warnath, 1971).

The counselor's setting should enhance his effectiveness in a college counseling role, for he can only be as effective as his setting permits. Ruth Gross states that for college counseling centers to be truly effective they must have two basic concepts at work in their setting. First, the center must have the support and protection provided by the administration for the work the center and its staff does. This includes respect for the counselor's work and his judgment, the center's right to maintain confidentiality of records, the realization that a counselor is not responsible for how a client leads his life; and that in the event of counselor error, professional discussion of the error can lead to real learning on both sides. The second concept is that the center's staff should operate in an atmosphere Gross calls "openness-to-learning." Her reasoning is that in order to maintain quality counseling at a center, its staff must not be tied down to giving service to clients 100% of the time. A counselor needs the freedom to develop new programs and approaches; he needs further training on occasion and the opportunity to attend seminars and conferences. An "experimental" attitude is necessary for the center, as well as the staff (Gross, 1968).

Gross sees effective counseling as being based on two working principles. The first is that the primary goal of

the counselor is to reach the client at a psychological level. The second is that the counselor is responsible for his client from the point of initial contact until termination is effected or responsibility is transferred through an appropriate referral. However, she warns against referring a client too soon, especially if the counselor has not given 100% in behalf of his client and been willing to go the extra mile or two. Also, in order to be truly effective, the receptive counselor must at times be on call 24 hours a day during a client's crisis period (Gross, 1968).

To increase effectiveness, a counselor must have a working knowledge of the culture his client lives in. If a counselor remains bound to one counseling theory, Gross feels this severely restricts how effective he can be. College counseling tends to be short term, so the counselor must often move quickly and more directly than he might otherwise move. "If a counselor fears total commitment, he is not likely to be successful"(Gross, 1968).

Summary

In this chapter a brief history of the guidance and counseling movement was traced from its founding by Frank Parsons in 1908, up to the present time. The history has been short, but not uneventful.

A detailed description was given of the functions and duties of college and university counseling centers found in the United States from the latter 1950's to the present time. The different ways in which centers delivered their services and a description of their clientele were viewed. The types of tests most used by centers, as well as the counseling philosophy preferred by counseling center staff were discussed.

In an attempt to discover what was occurring around the nation in the way of making counseling centers more receptive and innovative to the needs of students, four separate authors and/or counseling centers were examined. All of them found the demand for center services to outweigh available resources. Consequently they all recommended increased use of para-professionals and the training of residence hall advisors. A preventative approach rather than the traditional remedial model was suggested.

Finally, a look was taken at the difficulty of objectively evaluating the effectiveness of today's counseling center. One way of evaluating the effectiveness of a center is to ask its clients to rate the experience they had during counseling. Several studies which attempted to measure this were investigated. Then a survey was made of what a California study and an individual saw as necessary to increase the effectiveness of the college and university counseling center.

CHAPTER III

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Most college and university counseling centers across the United States today remain, for all practical purposes, a traditional model. This author proposes that a major reason for this inability or unwillingness to change, stems from the fact that today's college counselors are uncertain of the real role they are expected to fulfill (Witte, 1973). Today's college counselor has no clearly delineated role that he is expected to carry out. He is a "marginal man", drawn between a number of conflicting roles and allegiances. The counselor is expected to cater to the needs of the students, the wishes of an administration, carry out certain social functions and obligations, and acknowledge his own role perceptions and pressures (Warnath, 1971). It is no wonder that the role of such a counselor is very much in flux. He simply has no solid foundation to stand on.

In view of his professional uncertainty, Warnath claims that some counselors are given to "lie-swapping" sessions at conventions where they meet. They tell each other about all the client-contact hours they must spend each week, and relate the amount of research they are engaged in, in what amounts to justify their professional existence (Warnath, 1971).

However, in one sense, the fault does not lie within the counseling center itself, but rather lies, in part, within counselor education training programs that lead their students to believe that first and foremost they are therapists; whereas in real life, counselors are expected to assume a multitude of other tasks, including certain administrative duties, working with the teaching staff, as well as assuming teaching duties for himself in some settings, training and supervising counseling students and para-professionals, licensing, orientation, testing, etc. Some graduate programs may actually leave graduating students with anti-authority feelings, not realizing that an effective counselor has organizational guidelines to abide by (Warnath, 1971). The first duty of today's counselor must be to "work toward facilitating a positive environment in the institution he is working at" (Witte, 1973).

The "band-aid" or remedial approach used in our traditional college counseling centers has been helpful to its clientele in the past, but it is becoming increasingly evident that this "fixed-service" approach to counseling, where counselors feel duty-bound to sit in their offices recording client-contact hours on paper, is not sufficiently meeting the needs of an increased demand for its services. And as long as counselors point to their full calendar and say they have

no more time, this traditional model will persist.

Counselors need to get out of their offices and become more flexible to outside counseling contributions. For instance, a counselor could take a handful of students' probationary grade slips to the dorms where the students live and establish academic groups among those students. Warnath did this and found that most of these students were the "hermit" types, who stayed mostly in their dorm rooms when not in class, and were not aware of the availability of the counseling center (Warnath, 1971). The Chancellor's Study Team in California found that a full 30% of the students on their campuses who had not been to the counseling center were not aware of its existence (Chancellor's Study Team, 1973).

Lenora Hylander states that the reason students are unaware of the campus counseling center is that it maintains, all too often, an extremely low profile. Counselor ethics frown upon blatant advertising of their own services. So, Hylander suggests a more strategic placing of the center so that students are continually aware of its presence. The same goes for counselors who could do scheduling and presenting of career choice programs at places where students are; for instance, during registration and career days, rather than in their offices (Hylander, 1972).

Dugald Arbuckle feels that the proper physical setting is a vital prerequisite to the structure of a viable counseling center, and without it, "little can be done in the way of effective counseling" (Arbuckle, 1970). Privacy is of the utmost importance, and separation from the administration is imperative. Although Arbuckle realizes that it is probably unrealistic, he recommends that the counseling office be made as home-like as possible, in opposition to the usual sterile institutional-type office (Arbuckle, 1970).

Another area which could strengthen the over-all effectiveness of counseling centers is the improvement of outreach services. A recent study which surveyed outreach programs on 397 of our nation's college campus counseling centers, found that 18% of them did not offer any outreach services or interact with any other department on or off campus (Morrill and Oetting, 1970). For 71 centers to thus exist completely isolated within their own department, represents wasteful and unfortunate utilization of services in this author's opinion.

In presenting information from the literature regarding counseling centers, this author realizes that many of the situations are representing more metropolitan points of view; if not in the proximity of large cities, then certainly in terms of student populations. Therefore, the studies reported are probably somewhat atypical to certain schools located in

sparsely populated regions of our nation which have rather small student populations; yet, from the tenor of many articles, this author feels that there are some recommendations that are applicable to smaller schools. Take, for example, the overwhelming recommendations regarding the increased utilization of counseling groups.

This author is of the opinion, after spending seven years on college campuses, that there are significant numbers of students who experience loneliness, confusion, or despair, at some point in their educational career and would benefit greatly from an interpersonal group experience. But these must be made available to students. The students must be made aware of the availability of such group interaction. One study has shown the effect low-key advertising has on the perceptions incoming freshman students have of a counseling center by the activities and image a center's staff promotes at registration (Frankel and Perlman, 1969). This approach might effectively be used to promote whatever counseling activity a center's staff feel is worthwhile.

Any new activity, and especially one dealing with small group interaction, may be seen as threatening by some people either within or outside the university setting. Several authors have alluded to this (Foulds and Guinan, 1970; and Warnath, 1971). However, to be most effective, the group

leaders must work through existing structures, itself an indication that this is not to be a radical development; and communicate on personal levels with people about the proposed program.

Finally, this author subscribes to the notion put forth by Warnath, that students must have faith in the ability of a counseling center and its staff to be a beneficial facet in their lives. The staff must not be thought of as a group of people who are doubtful and somewhat critical of what students see as being their own unique culture. Counseling centers may have to take a risk by becoming more revolutionary and forward-looking, in presenting more innovative ways of meeting the increased needs of their clientele. The life of the counseling center and the future lives of some students may depend on it.

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