COUNSELLOR TRAINEE REPORTS: EFFECTIVE AND
INEFFECTIVE EDUCATOR BEHAVIOURS

By

JANET BETTY FINLAYSON

B.A., McGill University, 1972

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS

in

THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES
(Department of Counselling Psychology)

We accept this thesis as conforming
to the required standard

THE UNIVERSITY OF BRITISH COLUMBIA

April 1984

©Janet Betty Finlayson, 1984
In presenting this thesis in partial fulfilment of the requirements for an advanced degree at the University of British Columbia, I agree that the Library shall make it freely available for reference and study. I further agree that permission for extensive copying of this thesis for scholarly purposes may be granted by the head of my department or by his or her representatives. It is understood that copying or publication of this thesis for financial gain shall not be allowed without my written permission.

Department of Counselling Psychology

The University of British Columbia
1956 Main Mall
Vancouver, Canada
V6T 1Y3

Date April 4, 1984
ABSTRACT

Critical incidents (Flanagan, 1954) reported by counsellor trainees were used to investigate which educator behaviours had facilitated or hindered students' professional growth. The resulting trainee reports were categorized and subsequently compared to the domain of effective educator behaviours identified in the literature. Moreover, the investigator questioned whether incidents reported by trainees would occur in supervised settings and in settings related to supervision (e.g., courses and interviews with educators).

Critical incident interviews lasting one-half hour were conducted with a volunteer sample of 24 counsellor trainees (6 males and 18 females) enrolled in a masters-level counselling program at a large university situated in an urban center on Canada's west coast. In all, 84 incidents were reported; 77% of the incidents described effective or facilitative educator behaviours and 23% described ineffective or hindering behaviours. In addition, it was found that 53% of incidents occurred in a supervised setting, 36% in a classroom setting, 11% in a private interview, and 1% in a social setting.

Five basic categories of incidents were found: Category I: Teaches New Counselling Skills, Techniques, and Theories to Trainees; Category II: Gives Concrete Feedback about Trainees' Counselling Behaviours within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship; Category III: Models by Demonstrating Counselling Interventions with Trainees as Clients; Category IV: Offers Facilitative Conditions (i.e., Genuineness, Respect) to
Trainees; and Category V: Encourages Trainee Self-Exploration within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship. These categories demonstrated acceptable levels of reliability. The findings suggest that integrative approaches to counsellor training (i.e. combined didactic and experiential approaches) are more effective than unitary theoretical approaches.
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ABSTRACT</td>
<td>ii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TABLE OF CONTENTS</td>
<td>iv</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>LIST OF TABLES</td>
<td>vi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS</td>
<td>vii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER I. SCOPE AND FOCUS OF THE STUDY</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Background of the Study</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statement of the Problem</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Definition of Terms</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assumptions Underlying the Study</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Delimitation of the Study</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Significance of the Study</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainee Experiences, Perceptions, and Preferences</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationship-Experiential Training Approach</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didactic-Systematic Training Approach</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated Training Approaches</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Didactic-Experiential Approach</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychoanalytic Approach</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Developmental Approach</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Incident Technique</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Categorization</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reliability and Validity</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Applications</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjects</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Critical Incident Interview</td>
<td>44</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Summary of Data Collection and Procedures</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
LIST OF TABLES

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Table 1</td>
<td>Outline of the Critical Incident Interview</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 2</td>
<td>Categories and Subcategories of Effective Educator Behaviours</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 3</td>
<td>Category of Incident by Positive and Negative Nature of Incident</td>
<td>52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Table 4</td>
<td>Category of Incident by Setting of Incident</td>
<td>54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to express my gratitude to the chairman of my committee, Dr. L. Cochran, for his guidance, patience, and assistance; and to Dr. R. Armstrong and Dr. R. Young for their interest in this research endeavour.

Many thanks to the counselling students who so generously shared their time and experience with me. I trust that their experiences have been faithfully represented in this thesis.

To my family and friends, I owe more than I can express. I am deeply grateful to my mother who has supported and believed in me in all ways possible. I thank my father for teaching me to strive for excellence in all that I do. Finally, I wish to express my heart-felt thanks to my wonderful friends who have accompanied and strengthened me throughout a growthful and challenging time in my life.
CHAPTER I.

SCOPE AND FOCUS OF THE STUDY

Background of the Study

The task of counsellor educators is to train counselling students to become effective facilitators of human change and development (Peavy, Robertson, & Westwood, 1982). Friesen (1983) recently defined the role of a counsellor as one who assists people in dealing with the problems of daily living as they are found "in the natural contexts of school, family and workplace" (p. 148). Another broad definition of the counsellor's role is one who attempts to free people from immobility and increase their "response capacity"; in other words, to increase their ability to generate new sentences, constructs, behaviours, or thoughts (Ivey & Simek-Downing, 1980).

Given the magnitude of the role of professional counsellors as described above, it is not surprising to find that the training of counsellors has emerged as an important topic of research over the last twenty years. In the early 1960's, a journal devoted to this topic, Counselor Education and Supervision, began publication in the United States. Other professional counselling journals have also been concerned with counsellor education and supervision.

The proliferation of theory and research in this area is dominated by a concern with process: that is, the identification of those variables that produce desirable trainee change (Seligman & Baldwin, 1972). Two questions which pertain to process are: What are the components of an effective training program? What specific educator or supervisor
approaches and behaviours facilitate the professional growth of counsellors-in-training? The latter question is the topic of the present study with a focus on the experiences and perceptions of counsellor trainees.

Differing approaches to the education and supervision of counsellors-in-training have been proposed by proponents of the client-centred, psychoanalytic, skills training, and stage theory models of change. In the section which follows, each approach will be briefly summarized and reviewed in order to generate a context of theoretically effective educator and supervisor behaviours against which to compare student reports.

Educators and supervisors concerned with counsellor training have traditionally focused on either a relationship-oriented and experientially-based approach to training or a didactic-systematic and pedagogic approach to training. In the first approach, typified by the client-centred school, the relationship aspects of the educators' behaviours are emphasized. Rogers (1951, 1957a, 1957b) specified the necessary and sufficient conditions for therapeutic change. These conditions are considered by the client-centred school of therapists to be universally important in the creation of a facilitative environment where an individual's personal growth and change can take place. In their view, counsellor educators and supervisors must also provide such conditions to trainees in the context of a deep and meaningful relationship. In this way, trainee openness to experience and self-exploration is promoted, leading towards professional growth. The educator-trainee relationship is analogous to the counsellor-client relationship. In addition, trainees both observe and personally experience the therapeutic effects of their supervisors as powerful models.
An alternate class of effective educator behaviours comprises the didactic-systematic and pedagogic approach to counsellor training. The emphasis is on the direct teaching of skills and the shaping of trainees' counselling behaviours in accordance with clearly defined goals. Microcounselling training (Ivey, 1971; Ivey & Authier, 1978; Ivey, Normington, Miller, Morrill, & Haase, 1968) is an example of a learning theory approach to teaching basic interviewing skills. Discrete objective interviewer behaviours are taught to novices in a systematic and progressive fashion. The learning processes are experiential, cognitive, observational, and self-observational. The appropriate relationship analogue is teacher-student. Haley (1976) also advocates an instructional model of training in which the task is to teach therapy as a skill. Supervisors teach specific skills to trainees in application to clearly defined client problems. The supervisor-trainee relationship is analogous to a journeyman-apprentice relationship.

There are also supervision models which integrate the above two approaches in various ways. For example, the psychoanalytic approach involves both a didactic and a relationship orientation to training. The didactic-experiential approach to training (Carkhuff, 1969; Truax & Carkhuff, 1967; Truax, Carkhuff & Douds, 1964) requires an effective educator to provide Rogerian facilitative conditions designed to nurture trainee self development, to model effective functioning, and to didactically impart and reinforce specific skills. Their integrative position is that supervisors of the experiential orientation would become more effective if they recognized and used their role as direct influencers or controllers of trainees' behaviours. On the other hand, supervisors of
The didactic school would become more effective if they recognized the capacity of a supervisor-offered meaningful therapeutic relationship to elicit from trainees greater personal involvement and exploration, and hence, greater professional growth.

Other integrative approaches include a situation-specific discrimination model in which a supervisor deliberately selects and functions in one of three roles: teacher, counsellor, or consultant. A role is chosen in order to most effectively meet the training needs of a student at any one point in time (Bernard, 1979). Finally, a developmental supervision model incorporates a variety of didactic and relationship-oriented behaviours, adopted to meet the needs of trainees as they progress through clearly identifiable stages of development (Littrell, Lee-Borden & Lorenz, 1979; Stoltenberg, 1981).

Very little research attention has been devoted to the perceptions, experiences, and concerns of the counsellors-in-training. The researcher's interest in this topic arose from experience as a counsellor-in-training as well as from experience as a public school teacher. How to teach effectively and how students learn are questions which have long attracted the interest and imagination of the researcher. The researcher assumes that humans are active, seeking, organizing processors of information (versus "empty organisms"). This position has led to a concern with individual interpretations of the environment and its differential effects and to an interest in qualitative and exploratory research. In the present study, the critical incident technique (Flanagan, 1954) was selected to collect and categorize student reports of effective and ineffective educator and supervisor behaviours.
Counsellor educators and supervisors are both teachers and counsellors. As teachers, they have learning objectives for their students and use specific educational approaches to reach those objectives. For example, a supervisor might gather a clinic team together and demonstrate a counselling technique in order to enhance the trainees' repertoire of responses to a particular aspect of client behaviour. As such, knowledge of how students perceive the effectiveness of such approaches is an important source of feedback to educators.

Counsellor educators and supervisors are also counsellors. Whatever theory of change one adheres to as a counsellor, a fundamental first step for many clinicians is to enter the world of the client in order to understand how he or she uniquely construes and organizes the world (Ivey & Simek-Downing, 1980). By determining the client's unique constructions, the counsellor can better devise suitable interventions. Similarly, counsellor educators might view the present study as an opportunity to gain access to the construct world of counsellors-in-training. By establishing a detailed map of the trainee's world, the educator as counsellor may be better equipped to intervene and facilitate the learning, growth, and professional development of trainees.

Statement of the Problem

Although theorists and researchers describe a range of behaviours which they consider facilitates student professional growth, most research focuses on one aspect of a training program: namely, the clinical supervising of counsellors-in-training, investigated most often from the point of view of educators. The purpose of this study is to formulate
counselling students' reports of effective and ineffective educator behaviours in supervised settings and in settings related to supervision (i.e. courses, interviews) and to evaluate these reports within the framework of current research findings.

The researcher asked counsellors-in-training to recall incidents when a professor said or did something which had an impact on them in terms of facilitating or hindering their professional growth. Subjects were then asked to describe these incidents in detail. The incidents were summarized and categorized by the researcher in order to identify themes of effective and ineffective counsellor educator behaviours from the point of view of trainees.

Definition of Terms

Operational definitions of terms critical to this study are given below.

1. Counsellor trainees or counsellors-in-training are students enrolled in a Master of Education or Master of Arts Counselling Psychology program at a large university. Both sexes are represented.

2. Counsellor educators and supervisors are faculty members who teach and supervise courses, labs, or clinics in the above-mentioned program. Both sexes are represented. The terms "educators" and "supervisors" are applied interchangeably throughout the study.

3. Professional growth as a counsellor, for the purposes of this study, refers to the multi-level learnings experienced by trainees in their movement towards increasing competency as counsellors. Growth might be evidenced, for example, as demonstrating effective communication skills
in interpersonal relationships, applying individual counselling methods, identifying client needs, or applying group counselling methods (Peavy, Robertson, & Westwood, 1982). In this study, significant changes in students' attitudes, beliefs, and thoughts also constitute professional growth.

4. **Impact** refers to the critical significance or salience of incidents (both positive and negative) for facilitating changes in students' beliefs, thoughts, or behaviours as counsellors. Hence, educators' behaviours that are regarded as merely enjoyable or annoying are not included.

5. **Behaviours of counselling educators and supervisors** refer to such possible global activities as teaching in classroom settings, clinical supervision of trainees' in-therapy behaviour, assignment of term papers, counselling of students, interviewing students, and engaging in social contact with students. Specific behaviours were unknown and it was the purpose of the study to discover what they might be.

**Assumptions Underlying the Study**

It is assumed that the behaviours of counsellor educators do indeed have an impact on the professional growth of trainees (in addition, for example, to the impact of peers, clients, and events in the personal and work lives of students). Further, it is assumed that trainees are capable of understanding the researcher's instructions, of recalling significant incidents, and of verbally describing their experiences and perceptions.
Delimitation of the Study

This research study focused on students enrolled in a masters program (M.Ed. or M.A.) in a counselling psychology department, at a large university located in an urban center on the west coast of Canada. Two-thirds of the subjects were females and one-third were males. Subjects' average age was 36 years with a range of 23 years to 51 years.

The counselling program involved in the study employed approximately 20 faculty members, including both males and females. The overall orientation of the program was eclectic, with some faculty members adhering to specific schools of therapy (e.g. Adlerian, Jungian, Phenomenological-Humanist, Gestalt, Reality Therapy, and Strategic Therapy). The basic counselling skills taught to all students in a prepracticum or supervised training laboratory were those outlined by Egan (1975), extending from the work of Rogers and Carkhuff. The supervision approach was generally didactic-experiential. All students were enrolled in a core group of required courses such as a quasi-group therapy experience, a skills lab, counselling theories course, and a testing and measurement course. Remaining courses varied according to students' specialty areas, such as school, college and adult, family, women, and rehabilitation counselling. The results of this study are generalizable only to similar groups of masters-level counsellors-in-training enrolled in similar counselling programs.

Significance of the Study

The training of counsellors is a complex and significant task; counsellor educators and supervisors seek to accomplish this task as effectively as possible. Research in this field has been plagued by
methodological weaknesses and a slow rate of progress (Hansen, Pound, & Petro, 1976; Hansen & Warner, 1971; Lambert, 1980; Matazarro, 1978). Some investigators have pointed to the lack of research studies which focus on the perceptions and point of view of trainees (Lambert, 1980; Littrell, 1978; Nelson, 1978; Worthington & Roehlke, 1979). The present study was undertaken as a first step toward addressing the methodological weaknesses characteristic of previous research and to redress the lack of focus on trainees' perceptions and experiences.

Studies such as this one provide educators with behavioural reports of trainees' perceptions of effective and ineffective behaviours. Trainees' reports serve the purpose of directing the attention of educators to many facilitative aspects of their behaviour. In addition, trainee reports are compared with previous research findings and serve an heuristic function. In summary, the present study can provide counsellor educators with knowledge of both their impact as teachers upon students and of trainees' constructs and concerns or 'map of the world'. With this enhanced awareness, counsellor educators can be better equipped to effectively train students.
CHAPTER II.
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The review of related literature is organized around three general headings, two of which have subdivisions. The chapter begins with a presentation of research and articles on trainee experiences, perceptions, and preferences regarding effective supervision and continues with an examination of counsellor training models in order to outline the major dimensions of effective educator behaviours prevalent in the literature. The chapter concludes with a review of the critical incident technique.

Trainee Experiences, Perceptions, and Preferences

A small number of researchers have directly investigated the concerns of counsellors-in-training. Littrell (1978) suggested that teachers and supervisors may provide a more effective learning environment if they fully understand and make use of trainees' concerns. This approach serves a dual purpose. First, student frustrations and concerns would be reduced and, second, educators would be modelling effective helping skills. Littrell developed a 56-item concerns checklist in order to assess concerns of counsellor trainees. It was found that beginning trainees were primarily concerned with learning counselling techniques, determining client needs, and meeting client needs.

A frequently cited study by Worthington and Roehlke (1979) investigated effective supervision as perceived by both beginning counsellors-in-training and supervisors of trainees. Subjects were asked to rate the frequency and effectiveness of 42 supervisor behaviours.
compiled from interviews with experienced supervisors. Students rated the behaviours on three dimensions: the frequency with which supervisors performed these behaviours, their satisfaction with supervision, and the degree to which supervision had contributed to an improvement in their skills. Worthington and Roehlke's results indicated that supervisor behaviours such as: helping supervisees develop their own style, establishing good rapport with supervisees, helping supervisees develop self-confidence, using humour during supervisory sessions, and calling supervisees by name were positively correlated with student satisfaction and the attainment of a good student-supervisor relationship. Furthermore, direct demonstration and discussion of counselling skills and issues were also positively correlated with satisfaction. These behaviours included the following: modelling task-oriented behaviour during supervision, sharing the supervisor's counselling experiences, evolving case conceptualizations jointly with supervisees, giving feedback about counselling strengths and positive counselling behaviours, knowing the difference between the way supervisees talk about counselling and the way they behave during counselling, reassuring counsellors that new skills seem awkward initially, providing literature about assessment and treatment techniques, and providing structure during early supervision sessions.

Worthington and Roehlke also correlated the frequency of supervisor behaviours with trainees' ratings of supervision's contribution to their own improvement in counselling. Three groups of behaviours emerged that were predictive of improved counselling: first, supervisors giving supervisees direct help with counselling skills; second, supervisors supporting supervisees during risk-taking endeavors (e.g. reassuring
supervisees that new counselling skills often seem awkward initially, being available for consultation during emergencies, helping supervisees develop confidence and their own style); and third, developing a good relationship with supervisees.

Nelson (1978) surveyed trainees' preferences regarding various aspects of supervision in the belief that "trainee feedback, both positive and negative, may provide important information leading to refinements in supervisory strategy" (p. 539). Nelson found that gaining therapeutic competence was the preferred goal of most trainees, followed by the goals of gaining professional confidence and independence, self-awareness, and theoretical knowledge. It was noted that self-awareness was judged more important (ranked second) by beginning trainees than by advanced level trainees (ranked fourth).

The preferred supervisory methods for monitoring trainee performance were videotaping and direct observation of sessions. Trainees indicated that their preferred method of being taught therapy techniques was to observe the supervisor conducting therapy. This preference was strongest among beginning trainees, whereas more advanced trainees often placed observation of the supervisor second behind the supervisor functioning as a cotherapist or the supervisor verbally describing therapy techniques. Both beginning and advanced trainees indicated that the most important supervisor characteristic was interest in supervision. This was followed by experience as a therapist, possession of theoretical or technical knowledge, and ability to provide feedback. Other characteristics included being flexible, self-revealing, and permissive.
Finally, trainees rank-ordered their preferences for specific supervisor behaviours. The four most preferred behaviours were: "Let me develop my own style of therapy", "Explore my feelings towards clients and their problems", "Conduct therapy with one or two clients on a regular basis", and "Observe my interviews in terms of where I need to make improvements" (p. 546). Students indicated preferences that included both relationship-experiential and didactic-systematic approaches.

Several articles and studies conducted by researchers in related fields may provide additional information about the trainee viewpoint. Goin and Kline (1974) used student ratings of their psychiatric supervisors to determine which supervisors were most effective. It was their belief that: "the effectiveness of a teacher is presently best evaluated by students themselves" (p. 209). Those supervisors rated as "outstanding" were observed in detail via videotape in order to see what they talked about and how their emphasis might differ from supervisors rated as "good". A content analysis of videotaped supervisory sessions revealed that outstanding supervisors made more didactic comments about patients and technique than did their good counterparts. Students most appreciated helpful comments from supervisors that imparted information about psychotherapeutic principles as applied to specific patients. The outstanding supervisors were neither extremely passive nor authoritatively directive, but had managed to find a middle ground of activity.

Clinical psychologists, Cherniss and Equatios (1977) investigated preferred styles of clinical supervision in community health programs. They found that clinical staff members preferred the "didactic-consultive" supervisor who offers advice, suggestions, and interpretations concerning
client dynamics and technique; the "insight-oriented" supervisor who stimulates the supervisee to think through and solve problems on his or her own; and the "feelings-oriented" approach where the supervisees become aware of their own emotional responses to the clinical process. Staff indicated that the didactic-consultive style was actually the most common. Two least preferred styles of supervision were "laissez-faire" where the supervisee is mostly left on his or her own, and "authoritative" where the supervisee is told what to do and how to do it in specific terms.

Student experiences and concerns have been explored in a personal and literary manner by an author trained in psychoanalysis. Barnat (1973) wrote of the process he experienced as a student of "internalizing" his supervisor:

I have known myself to borrow the attitudes, tone of voice, sometimes regional inflections, and even the slouch of the supervisor as I approached the client hour. After some time I could relinquish these characteristics for the initially discomforting reality of facing the client as myself. (p. 18)

Barnat bore witness to the initial dependence upon supervisors often experienced by students as they struggle to survive those early, anxious client sessions. He continued to write humorously about himself in the waiting room, half hoping that his client wouldn't show, and anxiously feeling himself to be a sham because the client at least was a "real" client, whereas he was not yet a "real" therapist (Barnet, 1977).

Cohen's (1980) reflections on his earlier experiences as a trainee highlighted students' discomfort with the evaluative aspects of the supervisory relationship. For the beginning student, judgment about performance is very tied up with self-image. Cohen wrote: "Being rated as
a therapist is often tantamount to being rated as a person at this point in
the young therapist's career" (p. 79). Greenberg (1980) observed that
impactful supervisor behaviours include how much the supervisor confronts
students, how he or she confronts, and how fair and consistent the
supervisor appears to be. These behaviours determine in part the degree to
which a student will feel safe to self-disclose and explore his or her own
blocks as a therapist. If a student expects negative consequences for
self-disclosing, the student will likely limit self-disclosure due to the
fear of feeling uncomfortable, of feeling devastated, of losing favour with
the supervisor, of receiving a negative grade, or of receiving a negative
professional evaluation. Similarly, in an unsafe environment, the student
tends to present only those samples of counselling sessions that make the
student look good, rather than risk showing sessions that went poorly and
where help is most needed.

In summary, these writers from the psychoanalytic school have found
that training is a highly-charged experience for trainees; that they tend
to feel insecure and highly vulnerable; and that supervisors' behaviours
effect the degree of perceived safety felt by students during supervision.

**Relationship-Experiential Training Approach**

Carl Rogers (1957a) identified the "necessary and sufficient"
conditions for constructive personality change to occur: When two persons
are in psychological contact (i.e. counsellor and client), the counsellor
experiences and communicates to the client a state of congruence or
genuineness, unconditional positive regard for the client, and an empathic
understanding of the client's internal frame of reference. The
client-centred therapist's view of human nature is that a basic positive growth motivation exists, pushing the client toward differentiation, autonomy, and new experience. Therefore, if a therapist can facilitate the client-centred process of self-exploration, the client will move in positive directions.

Client-centred supervisors attempt to offer the same facilitative conditions of genuineness, respect, positive regard, and empathy to counsellors-in-training. Several positive outcomes are considered to result from this approach. The student engages in self-exploration which is related to constructive personality change and growth. The safety of the therapeutic relationship provides the trainee with a means of working through feelings, values, and attitudes and for discovering his or her most effective self as a therapist. An interesting feature of this approach is that the student is encouraged to develop into an effective therapist, regardless of orientation. Rogers wrote:

It has become apparent that the most important goal to be achieved is that the student should clarify and understand his own basic relationship to people, and the attitudinal and philosophical concomitants of that relationship. Therefore the first step in training client-centered therapists has been to drop all concern as to the orientation with which the student will emerge. The basic attitude must be genuine. If his genuine attitude leads him in the direction of some other orientation, well and good. (p. 432)

The positive outcomes derived from the client-centred training approach are twofold: students benefit from experiencing the therapeutic relationship as a client while simultaneously observing the supervisor as a role model. Rogers (1957b) described this process as follows:
The general principle which seems to apply here is that if the climate of the teaching situation, and the relationship between the teacher and the beginning counsellor are the same as the climate and the relationship which exist in therapy, then the young therapist will begin to acquire a knowledge in his viscera of what the therapeutic process is. (p. 81)

A currently practicing client-centred therapist and supervisor, Rice (1980), wrote of the need for experiential learning in the following way:

Although the kind of listening and responding we are talking about can be studied, and even be translated into "techniques", it can never become an empty push-button device because it requires the therapist's whole processing capacity, the whole self. It cannot be learned perfunctorily; it cannot be faked. (p. 146)

For client-centred supervisors, the teaching of techniques is only a small part of their task.

An effective supervisor in the client-centred school engages in the following kinds of activities: requiring students to observe recorded interviews of experienced therapists; to role-play therapist with a fellow student; and to engage in personal and group therapy. The supervisor demonstrates for the student by conducting therapy, listens to tapes of students' sessions, and discusses these sessions while offering the facilitative conditions described above. The effective supervisor attempts to develop a deep and meaningful therapeutic relationship with the student.

Researchers attempting to validate the Rogerian principles of therapy have not found substantive evidence to support this position (Matazarro, 1978). Lambert, DeJulio, and Stein (1978) have concluded that only a modest relationship between the facilitative conditions and therapy outcome
has been found, despite more than 20 years of efforts to improve research methodology. Nevertheless, Matazarro credits the client-centred school of therapists for having provided a strong influence "toward making psychotherapy observable, its practice and training techniques and attitudes specifiable, and its results measurable" (p. 943).

A brief summary of two studies of client-centred supervision follows. Pierce and Schauble (1970) found that the supervisees of a supervisor functioning at high levels of empathy, regard, genuineness, and concreteness improved significantly on these same facilitative conditions. Those supervisees who had supervisors functioning at low levels on these dimensions did not change and even declined slightly. Thus Pierce and Schauble concluded that modelling and therapeutic effects could account for supervisee growth and change. Moreover, they stated that "the individual supervisor has a great deal of impact, for better or for worse, on trainee behaviour" (p. 215). This finding is frequently cited in supervision research.

Pierce and Schauble assumed that supervision and therapy are similar processes. They assessed supervisors as being high and low functioning during supervision on the basis of samples of their counselling sessions with clients. Lambert and Beier (1974) questioned this assumption and compared the process of supervision with that of counselling by examining the behaviour of supervisors in both situations. They found that supervisor-offered levels of respect and genuineness were constant across supervision and counselling, but that levels of empathy and specificity were significantly lower in supervision than in counselling. This finding led Lambert and Beier to suggest that an experiential process may not
account for trainees having learned to perform at higher levels of facilitative conditions. Regardless of the conflicting findings regarding the effectiveness of client-centred therapy and supervision, this approach continues to influence therapists and supervisors and, as Matazarro (1978) wrote: is "felt to be clinically useful" (p. 947).

The Didactic-Systematic Training Approach

In their five year review of research on practicum supervision, Hansen, Pound, and Petro (1976) concluded that specific training programs had been most successful in teaching basic communication skills, usually to novice trainees. The most common program of this type is microcounselling training (Ivey, 1971; Ivey & Authier, 1978; Ivey et al., 1968). Step-by-step techniques are used to teach such skills as attending (e.g. making eye contact, paraphrasing, reflecting feelings); influencing (e.g. summarizing, interpreting); focus dimensions (e.g. identifying and maintaining focus on a subject); and qualitative dimensions (e.g. immediacy, warmth, genuineness, positive regard). Interviewer behaviour is divided into small units and the student acquires discrete skills in a role-play situation. The aim is to bridge the gap between classroom theory and actual practice.

A supervisor conducting microskills training presents one skill at a time, modelled live or on videotape, coupled with a brief written manual. Trainees are required to practice the skill, observe themselves on videotape, receive feedback from the supervisor, and to continue this cycle until the skill is mastered. The supervisor makes specific suggestions for achieving trainee improvement. It is noteworthy that Ivey (1971) did
mention the need for relationship skills on the part of the supervisor, defined as "a friendly, warm and genuine attitude" (p. 7). Ivey and Authier (1978) wrote: "The supervisor/trainer maintains a warm, supportive relationship with the trainee" (p. 11). While these elements were mentioned, they were not elaborated by these writers.

Many researchers have investigated the efficacy of the microcounselling training model. Matazarro (1978) summed up her conclusions about this research:

Microcounseling skills can be taught effectively in a relatively small number of teaching hours to appropriately selected students... To me, the important contribution of microcounseling is that, like the client-centered programs, it has defined what is to be taught; devised appropriate research-based teaching methods; and used measurement, feedback, and reinforcement of skills. (p. 954)

Matazarro concluded that a carefully programmed teaching method is superior to one that is more loosely conducted. It is noteworthy that microtraining is aimed at prepracticum counsellors and does not address more complex counselling processes.

Several studies will be reviewed in which didactic and experiential training methods have been compared. The term "experiential" as used here refers to relationship-oriented experiential training. The term can be misleading since microskills didactic training is also experiential in nature, requiring active involvement on the part of trainees.

Ronnestad (1977) found that short-term instructional methods involving modelling and feedback succeeded in teaching beginning trainees to communicate empathic understanding in response to videotaped client statements. The modelling method of supervision was more effective than
feedback, and feedback was more effective than the experiential method. In fact, there were no differences between students in the experiential and control groups. Modelling entailed students observing a supervisor who offered alternate responses to the client presentation. Feedback entailed a brief training period on levels of empathic understanding, followed by supervisors rating and briefly commenting on students' responses to the client statements. In the experiential treatment, supervisors attempted to create a meaningful facilitative relationship with students in two 12- to 15-minute sessions. Supervisors explored students' emotions, the feelings of the client, and explained the importance of communicating empathy to the client. Ronnestad cautioned that the experiential treatment would likely require a considerably longer time to effect changes in student learning. However, in very short-term supervision, explicit modelling of appropriate behaviour and immediate reinforcement of correct responses were effective training methods.

In another study using brief supervision with inexperienced subjects (i.e. undergraduate students), Goldfarb (1978) found that specific skills could be taught using either a didactic or combined didactic-experiential supervisory approach. Subjects received one of five treatments and were pre- and post-tested on their level of empathic responses to actresses simulating clients. Their two 15-minute supervisory sessions involved one of the following conditions. In the high didactic—low experiential (HL) condition, the supervisor provided positive feedback for the desired student responses and gave samples of more appropriate responses where a student gave less desirable responses. Discussions of the counsellor's feelings and personal reactions were kept to a minimum. In the low
didactic-high experiential (LH) condition, the supervisor attempted to create a relationship with the student that was similar to the counselling relationship. The supervisor reflected, clarified, and interpreted the experience and feelings of the student without offering suggestions or examples. The high didactic-high experiential (HH) condition involved an attempt to combine all the features of the two previous treatments so that positive feedback and alternate responses were offered within a good relationship. Student self-exploration and openness to experience were also reinforced. The goal in the low didactic-low experiential (LL) condition was to give the student an opportunity to talk about the session with a friendly professional, yet to provide as little actual supervision as possible. Finally, in the no-supervision condition (NS), the student simply waited for 15 minutes between sessions.

The results of Goldfarb's study were two-fold. The first three supervision groups, the HL, LH and HH groups, showed significantly higher post-treatment ratings on the Counselling Evaluation Inventory than did the LL and NS treatment groups. There was no difference between the three effective conditions. However, the rank order of the conditions on a second rating scale, the Barrett-Leonard Relationship Inventory, favoured the highly didactic approach, HL, with the highly experiential group, LH, showing no difference from the LL and NS groups. The researcher concluded that differing levels of didactic and experiential supervision did produce changes in subjects' behaviour.

Finally, in a study in which they sought to differentiate between several didactic techniques, Gulanick and Schmeck (1977) investigated the effects of all possible combinations of modelling, praise, and criticism.
The goal was to teach empathic responding to undergraduates. Subjects responded to client stimulus statements on audiotape in a similar procedure to the previous two studies, receiving two brief supervisory sessions in one of the following conditions: praise only, criticism only, praise-criticism only, no praise-no criticism-no modelling, praise-modelling, criticism-modelling, praise-criticism-modelling, and modelling only. In the praise condition, the experimenter focused only on the specific elements of the subjects' responses that were correct in that they contributed to the empathy of the response. The criticism condition was the reverse with a focus on elements that subtracted from the empathy. In the modelling condition, subjects heard a taped alternative empathic response. It was found that modelling was the only effective component of any of the training procedures and none of the feedback techniques (i.e. praise, criticism) was more effective than no feedback at all.

Further support for the didactic training approach is found in the theory of the school of strategic therapy. Haley (1976) described a supervision approach in which the supervisor is responsible for what happens with a student's cases and intervenes directly when necessary to help the student solve the clients' problems. Training student therapists is conceived of as teaching specific skills. In contrast to the Rogerian approach, Haley stated that a supervisor:

does not assume that the therapist will be more effective if he understands himself or freely expresses his emotions. Instead, [the supervisor] assumes that [the student] will only improve as a therapist by doing therapy under supervision and improving his skills. (p. 176)
Therefore, an effective problem-solving supervisor works with students in a group; teaches them specific skills, such as giving directives; observes students in action either live or on videotape; guides the students' actions (sometimes by the interruption of live sessions); and matches clients to students' particular training needs.

Integrated Training Approaches

Didactic-Experiential Approach

The didactic-experiential training approach integrates the relationship-oriented experiential models and didactic-systematic training approaches. Carkhuff (1969) suggested that "the level of the counsellor-trainer's functioning appears to be the single most critical aspect of effective training" (p. 157). Trainers' level of functioning on the interpersonal dimensions of empathy, respect, concreteness, genuineness, and immediacy are considered to be the cornerstone of effective training. When these facilitative conditions and a supervisor-offered therapeutic relationship are present, the trainer then attempts to systematically impart learnings concerning these dimensions through didactic, experiential, and modelling sources of learning.

Proponents of the didactic-experiential approach have incorporated ideas from social learning theory, behaviour modification theory, and programmed instruction into their training approach. Effective supervisors teach a few behaviours at one time, provide feedback, and gradually refine a student's performance to a desired level. Students are exposed to brief
recorded samples of most effective therapeutic conditions. Trainees role-play being therapist and the supervisor interrupts when necessary to model more effective responses. Those elements that are central to the approach were summarized by Truax and Carkhuff (1967) as follows:

(1) a therapeutic context in which the supervisor himself provides high levels of therapeutic conditions; (2) a highly specific didactic training in the implementation of the therapeutic conditions; and, (3) a quasi-group therapy experience where the trainee can explore his own existence, and his own individual therapeutic self can emerge. (p. 242)

In this way, the didactic-experiential approach is an attempt to benefit from and implement the most effective supervisor behaviours of the two basic training approaches.

Methodological problems have characterized research efforts to show the effectiveness of the didactic-experiential training approach (Matazarro, 1978). However, Matazarro suggested that this approach has been innovative and has stimulated a body of research. Matazarro credited these counsellor trainers with having contributed significantly to the development and definition of effective training methods.

Psychoanalytic Approach

The supervisor-trainee relationship is considered to be of prime importance by proponents of the psychoanalytic school of therapy. They contend that interactions between supervisors and trainees "must be characterized by the marks of a deeply significant human relationship" (Mueller & Kell, 1972, p. 16). Although the psychoanalytic school has not generated much actual research (Matazarro, 1978), the present researcher
considers their theory and practice to be sufficiently influential for the related discipline of counsellor supervision to warrant presentation of relevant psychoanalytic training approaches.

The history of supervision sheds some light on present day issues, particularly on the ways in which the processes of therapy and supervision are differentiated. Ekstein and Wallerstein (1972) traced the practice of supervision to the early psychoanalytic institutes in Europe where formal training was first established. An early debate arose between the institutes in Hungary and Vienna. Although both groups agreed that an experience of personal analysis was a basic requirement in one's training to become a therapist, they differed on how the young analyst should be supervised. The Hungarian school barely differentiated between the personal therapeutic experience and supervision. Supervision was a form of therapy where the trainee's conflicts with and reactions to the patient were analyzed with the supervisor. The Viennese school, on the other hand, separated supervision and personal analysis, considering the former to be essentially a teaching or didactic experience. The analyst in training was, and still is, required to undergo personal analysis with an individual other than the supervisor as an adjunct to supervision. Thus the processes of supervision and therapy came to be differentiated in the psychoanalytic school.

Ekstein and Wallerstein (1972) made a distinction between the "professional self" and the "personal self" of the trainee. Change in the former is brought about by supervision while change in the latter is accomplished through psychotherapy. They wrote:
Both supervision and psychotherapy are interpersonal helping processes working with the same affective components, with the essential difference between them created by the difference in purpose. Though both are helping processes, the purpose of the helping experience is different. Whatever practical problems the patient may bring to his psychotherapist, they are always viewed in the light of the main task: the resolution of inner conflict. Whatever personal problems the student may bring to his supervisor, they are likewise seen in terms of the main task: leading him toward greater skill in his work with patients. (p. 254)

These authors described supervision as combining an affective interpersonal component with a didactic component. The tendency for a supervisor to think of him or herself as doing psychotherapy is the tendency to fall back onto a familiar role. Likewise, the supervisor who consciously tries to avoid such a relationship may remain purely didactic, to the detriment of the supervision. Ekstein and Wallerstein contended that supervisors can best convey their body of knowledge to trainees in such a way that it is most usable to the learners by drawing on all their skills as therapists.

Bordin (1983) also works within the psychoanalytic tradition and detailed a "supervisory working alliance" where the bonds fall somewhere between "those of teacher to class members and therapist to patient" (p. 38). When a supervisor turns to such tasks as helping students overcome personal and intellectual obstacles toward learning and mastery, the supervisor may act as psychoanalyst or psychotherapist, but always bearing in mind the goals of supervision and bringing the student's focus to mastery of therapy. At other times, the supervisor is like a coach, didactically helping a student master a specific skill by giving feedback or modelling the ideal behaviour.
According to Bordin, the key issue of evaluation forces the differentiation of the supervisor from the psychotherapist. The supervisor is a "gatekeeper" for the profession and the public. As such, he or she has been entrusted with considerable responsibility and power over the student's professional future. The degree to which the student feels free to confront his or her innermost experiences during supervision is related to the way in which the supervisor handles the evaluative element in their relationship. Rioch (1980) discussed the dynamic of the "up-down" power situation that is inherent in this relationship. When the supervisor is seen as the all powerful expert and is in a one-up position, several scenarios can be expected to ensue. If the supervisor leaves it to the students to bring him or her one-down, students may engage in such activities as not changing in any way during supervision so as to make the supervisor feel ineffectual. The supervisee may, on the other hand, come on as such a brilliant therapist already that nothing the supervisor says is new or necessary. Finally, the supervisee can make sure that the supervisor's treatment suggestions fall flat (e.g. when the supervisor is hopeful, the client gets worse). In any event, as long as the supervisor is seen as the expert, Rioch suggested:

the supervisor finds himself sometimes to be in a very lonely position opposite faces which often in their inscrutability conceal hostility, boredom, or some other variation of how to move up when someone senses that he is down. (p. 78)

Or, as Marshall and Confer (1980) put it: When supervisors behave condescendingly from their one-up position, they "breed either resentment or sycophants" (p. 98).
Another consequence of the supervisee remaining in the one-down position is that he or she often experiences such high anxiety levels that the supervisor is not heard at all. Evaluation is seen as potentially threatening. Rioch suggested that good supervisors can reduce students' anxiety by freely admitting their own doubts about the therapeutic process and by admitting that they make mistakes and sometimes don't know what to do either. In this way, students feel less anxious, more comfortable, and freer to take risks. Such effective supervisors feel confident and secure enough to relinquish the one-up position and enter into a consultative relationship with students.

Developmental Approach

Lambert (1980) ended his review of supervision studies by calling for research in the future that will "identify in a prescriptive sense the ideal learning environment for given students at particular times" (p. 434). Recently, numerous studies have appeared which attempted to match stages of counsellor development with supervisory environments and behaviours.

The concept that supervision is a developmental process arising from changing trainee characteristics and needs has long been recognized by supervisors in the psychoanalytic school of training. Mueller and Kell (1972) wrote that the supervisor first works to establish a trusting relationship with the beginning trainee. Then, as the relationship matures, the supervisor works more and more deeply with the trainee so that by the time the relationship terminates, the trainee has come into his or her own with the supervisor in a consultant role. Miars, Tracey, Ray,
Cornfeld, O'Farrell, and Gelso (1983) found that supervisors with a psychoanalytic orientation varied the supervision process across different trainee levels of experience more than did supervisors of other orientations (e.g. humanistic or cognitive/behavioural). The authors cited Mueller and Kell when they wrote that "a psychodynamic perspective of supervision is inherently developmental in nature" (p. 411).

In another study by researchers in the psychoanalytic tradition, Gaoni & Neumann (1974) posited a four-stage theory of the supervisory process, presented from the point of view of the supervisee. In the first stage, the trainee is very dependent on the supervisor, seeking practical help and theoretical explanations within a teacher-pupil relationship. In the second stage, the real work begins as trainees evolve into apprentices, settling into regular sessions with clients and gradually acquiring the tools of their trade. Supervisors at this point place their focus on the patient, providing theoretical information, and model by interviewing patients themselves. In the third stage, the supervisor shifts the emphasis from the patient to the trainee as a person and as a therapist. The goal now is to help the student develop self-observation and self-awareness and his or her own therapeutic style. The fourth stage is one that continues throughout the professional life of the therapist. It consists of mutual consultation: the supervisor exchanges opinions and experiences with the trainee as more and less experienced equals.

Bernard's (1979) discrimination model is a variation of the developmental model of supervision. Bernard identified three basic roles or approaches that a counselling or clinical psychology supervisor might adopt: the teacher-student approach, the counsellor-client approach, or
the consultant-counsellor approach. Bernard suggested that whereas
supervisors tend to rely heavily on only the role which feels most
comfortable, supervisors should instead react in a "situation-specific" way
to meet the immediate needs of a trainee. He wrote that the strength of
the model is that:

with a discrimination model for supervision, supervisors are
asked to add to their idiosyncratic strengths by becoming
comfortable with contrasting roles and using data at hand to
select the most appropriate role for a supervision contact. (p. 64)

Stenack and Dye (1982) attempted to develop behaviourally oriented
role descriptions that clearly discriminated among Bernard's three
supervisor roles. They found the clearest distinctions between teacher and
counsellor roles, with the consultant role overlapping with the teacher
role. Supervisor goals, control, and focus of the interaction appeared to
be important dynamics that could change the same supervisor behaviour from,
for example, a teaching to a counselling role. In a later study (Stenack &
Dye, 1983), they applied supervisor behaviours in the three roles to
trainees and found that the content of trainee verbalizations was
influenced by supervisor roles in the following way:

A study of results indicated strong relationships between the
teacher role and action and thought statements, the counsellor
role and feeling statements, and the consultant role and thought
statements... Clearly, the method of supervision can have a
profound effect on the overall practicum experience and thus on
the development of student counsellors. (p. 166)

Littrell, Lee-Borden, and Lorenz (1979) proposed a sequential
four-stage developmental framework for supervision. Stage I concerns the
establishment of a working relationship between supervisor and trainee, goal-setting, and the development of a mutual contract. In Stage II, the supervisor employs both the counselling-therapeutic and teaching models of supervision, similar to those presented earlier in this review. Stage III involves a move to the consultative approach. By Stage IV, a self-supervising model is employed where the counsellor has internalized the supervision process and become the principle designer of his or her own learning.

Littrell and colleagues posited several advantages to adopting a developmental framework in supervision. A developmental approach is seen as a more comprehensive and accurate description of the process of supervision than a one or two model approach. Completion of the stages can serve as supervision subgoals by which both the supervisor or trainee can assess their progress. At different times, supervisors engage in goal-setting, evaluation, counselling, teaching, and consulting. The strength of this approach lies in its recognition of the complexity of counsellor training and integration of all types of effective supervisor and educator behaviours, as opposed to taking an exclusive 'either-or' approach in which one type of training behaviour is favoured.

A four-stage supervision approach was proposed as early as 1964 by Hogan (cited in Stoltenberg, 1981). Stoltenberg (1981) designed a model in which he sought to combine Hogan's stages with a teaching stage approach. Stoltenberg described essentially the same four stages hypothesized by Littrell, Lee-Borden, and Lorenz (1979). Counsellor characteristics are matched with corresponding optimal supervision environments. At Level I, the trainee is dependent on the supervisor and the task of the latter is to
encourage autonomy within a normative structure. The supervisor uses instruction, interpretation, support, awareness training, and exemplification. At Level 2, the counsellor experiences a dependency-autonomy conflict as he or she becomes more self-confident. The supervisor provides a highly autonomous environment with low normative structure. At this level, the supervisor uses less instruction and structure, continues to use support and exemplification, and adds ambivalence and confrontation. At Level 3, the student characteristic is conditional dependency and the optimal environment provides autonomy, with the structure provided by the student. The supervisor treats the student more as a peer and uses sharing, mutual exemplification, and confrontation. By Level 4, the counsellor is a master and can function adequately in most environments. Supervision may or may not be sought out; when it is, the style is collegial.

In the first attempt to objectively investigate Stoltenberg's counsellor complexity model, Miars et al. (1983) used supervisor self-report and asked supervisors whether they perceived themselves as adjusting their own behaviour to the trainees' level of experience. The authors found that the following occurred:

Those items stressing active direction, support, teaching, and close monitoring on the part of the supervisor attained the highest scores with respect to supervising inexperienced students (first or second semester practicum). On the other hand, supervisor responses indicated that supervisees with more experience (advanced practicum and intern levels) were given significantly less structure, direction, support, and direct teaching. With this experienced group of supervisees, more emphasis was placed on personal development, tackling client resistance, and dealing with transference/counter-transference issues. (p. 406-407)
These results suggest that supervisors did not view supervision as a uniform process, or supervisees as a uniform group. The supervisors did make distinctions between trainees and the implicit notion is that these were developmental distinctions based on changing trainee needs and characteristics. There appears to be an interesting movement from a more didactic approach in early supervision to a more relationship-experiential approach with advanced trainees. In the light of this progression, it seems likely that research on beginning trainees and undergraduate students would most likely find that didactic methods of supervision are most effective.

**Critical Incident Technique**

The objective of this study is to identify critical educator behaviours which facilitate or hinder the professional development of counsellor trainees. As such, the critical incident technique as described by Flanagan (1954) was selected as the most appropriate method for achieving this objective. The technique consists of collecting a series of incidents in the form of observed behaviours from people in an appropriate position to make observations. The data, or incidents, are subjected to an inductive categorization process with the aim of rendering the data more cogent. The resulting categories aid in the formulation of the critical requirements of the activity being observed.

**Categorization of Critical Incidents**

Modern category formation theory provides guidelines, in addition to those designated by Flanagan, for formulating categories from a set of
critical incidents. Beginning with Flanagan's approach, it was found that the collection of a large sample of incidents in itself provided a functional description of the activity being investigated. Flanagan wrote that further data analysis is carried out, however, in order to:

summarize and describe data in an efficient manner ... making it easier to report these requirements [of an activity], to draw inferences from them, and to compare them with other activities. (p. 344)

Therefore, categorization increases the usefulness of the data. Categories arise through an inductive process from the incidents themselves, with nothing lost and nothing added. First, a relatively small sample of incidents are sorted into piles or headings that are related to the frame of reference (e.g. facilitative behaviours of professors). Brief definitions are made of these tentative piles or categories. Then, new incidents are added to them with categories being redefined and formulated as needed. This process continues until all the incidents have been placed in categories.

Difficult decisions arise, of course, during the categorization process. Traditional category formation theory holds that category membership is an all-or-none phenomenon such that all members of a category possess an equal number of critical or defining features. In this view, all members of a category are equally good examples of that category. In everyday life, however, those criteria are seldom, if ever, met. Wittgenstein (1953) argued that a set of objects would show a pattern of overlapping similarities or "family resemblances", rather than one set of features shared by all objects. This viewpoint suggests a continuum of
category membership, leading to the notion of "fuzzy sets" (McCloskey & Glucksberg, 1978; Rosch, 1975; Rosch & Mervis, 1975). Objects that are highly typical of a category (e.g. a saiboat) possess a higher degree of salience or category membership (e.g. in the larger family of boats) than do less typical objects (e.g. a surfboard). Furthermore, there is no clear boundary between categories so that some of the fuzziest objects can be category members and non-members at the same time.

Building upon the notion of fuzzy sets, Rosch (1975) found that natural categories are formed around a clear case or best example of a category, which she refers to as a "prototype". Nonprototypic members are judged against the prototype to determine whether they are better or poorer points. Rosch wrote that:

the more protoypical a category member, the more attributes it has in common with other members of the category and the less attributes in common with contrasting categories. (p. 602)

Cantor and Mischel (1979) extended the concepts put forward by Rosch into the area of prototypes in person perception. They found that the rules we use for categorizing people (e.g. extraverts as distinguished from introverts) are also prototypicality judgments, similar to those rules we use for distinguishing objects (e.g. cars from trucks). In addition, Cantor and Mischel and Rosch have made useful distinctions regarding the level of abstraction used in category formation. Recognizing that objects or persons can be categorized at varying levels of inclusiveness, Rosch identified a "basic" category level as the optimal one for most categorization tasks. The basic level has a moderate level of inclusiveness. Categories at this level, therefore, are both rich in detail and yet well differentiated from one another.
At the more abstract inclusive level, termed superordinate, categories are well differentiated from one another, but richness of detail is lost. In other words, categories contain such a mixture of different members that it is difficult to predict what attributes a typical category member might possess. On the other hand, categories at the less inclusive level, termed subordinate (i.e. subcategories), require many fine discriminations to be made in order to distinguish one from the other. Here we find tremendous richness of detail but differentiation among categories is lacking. In summary, for Rosch, the optimal level of category headings for an effective presentation of data is the basic level.

Notions of fuzzy sets, prototypicality, and levels of inclusiveness are offered to the reader as an attempt to explain the processes that the researcher considers while categorizing a set of critical incidents. Cognitive psychological research into category formation indicates that the categorization process is not merely subjective or haphazard. It is assumed that a set of critical incidents contains incidents that form a continuum of category membership ranging from prototypical incidents easily categorized by independent raters to fuzzy incidents which possess attributes of more than one category, and hence, produce less agreement among independent raters.

**Reliability and Validity**

The most common method of checking the reliability of a categorization system in the critical incident technique is to submit the incidents and categories to one or more independent raters. The raters should be trained in the method of categorization that was used by the researcher and be
instructed to sort the incidents into the categories provided. This was the check on reliability made in the present study. If the categories are well formed and the raters adequately trained, a good degree of agreement can be expected to occur between raters and the criterion.

Validity of the incidents obtained through the critical incident technique is partly assumed by the fact that many individuals have reported upon an activity independently. In this way, a variety of observations are obtained and individual biases are eliminated. Another validity check is the comparison of the data with the critical requirements of an activity as they have been reported in the research literature. While one may obtain new information about an activity by means of the technique, it is also to be expected that there will be similarities in content between the incidents reported and the relevant research literature. A comparison of the effective and ineffective educator behaviours reported in this study with those found in the literature is made in the final chapter of this paper.

Andersson and Nilsson (1964) specifically researched the reliability and validity of the critical incident technique; a presentation of their findings follows. They began by analyzing the job of store manager in a Swedish grocery company, collecting approximately 1800 incidents from four groups of people considered to be in a good position to make observations: supervisors, store managers, assistants, and customers. Approximately two-thirds of the incidents were positive (i.e. referred to units of successful behaviour) and the remaining one-third were negative. The incidents were classified into a three-level taxonomy with three superordinate headings or areas, 17 basic categories, and 86 subordinate categories.
The researchers subjected the data to several reliability and validity checks. Their first check referred to the saturation and comprehensiveness of the data: When have enough incidents been collected to exhaust the universe of behaviour that the technique is expected to cover? They found that the number of subcategories formed very quickly during the beginning of classifying the incidents, with later incidents tending to fall within existing categories. By the time two-thirds of the incidents had been classified, 95% of the 86 subcategories had been established. In this way, the researchers determined that a sufficient quantity of incidents had been collected.

Andersson and Nilsson tested the reliability of their categorization system by submitting random samples of incidents to independent raters, with subcategories provided. There were 61% to 68% levels of agreement found among raters and between raters and the criterion. A higher level of agreement (75% to 85%) was found for the 17 basic categories. This finding may be explained in terms of Rosch's research (1975) where the basic category level produces incidents with more differentiation and less overlap than the subordinate level (in this case, 86 subcategories). The submission of data to independent raters confirmed the objectivity and lack of bias in the categorization process.

A content analysis of the training literature for store managers was conducted to answer the question: Has the critical incident technique succeeded in including all critical aspects of the activity? This is a question of validity. Good agreement was found between the data and literature in that both described similar activities for store managers. A related question was also posed: Are the incidents representative of
behaviours that are truly important or critical for the work at hand? It could be challenged that the critical incident technique gathers extreme, dramatic, or unique incidents that are of little practical importance or are an incomplete description of the activity. In addressing this central question, the researchers submitted their data to 300 people comprising four rating groups. The 86 subcategories were rated on a six-point scale from 0 (unimportant) to 5 (of the greatest importance for a store manager's work). It was found that only five of the 86 subcategories were rated as unimportant by all four rating groups. An additional finding was that subcategories with few incidents were also rated as important by the four groups. It appears, therefore, that frequency is not a measure of the critical nature of a behaviour.

In conclusion, Andersson and Nilsson subjected their data to various checks and found results which supported the validity and reliability of the critical incident technique.

Applications of the Critical Incident Technique

The critical incident technique was developed during early aviation studies in the United States Air Force for the purpose of selecting and training pilots and combat leaders during World War II (Flanagan, 1954). More recently, Flanagan (1978) conducted a major research effort, in conjunction with the American Institute for Research, toward improving the quality of life of Americans. Over 6500 incidents were recorded from a large and varied sample in an attempt to define the critical requirements of a person's quality of life. These incidents were sorted into 15 basic categories falling under three general headings. They were subsequently
rated on their importance to subjects' quality of life and assessed as to "needs met" satisfactorily. Flanagan found that subjects' recalled events provided a rich and useful source of information essential to the purposes of the study.

Several other recent applications of the technique are as follows. Cohen and Smith (1976) employed the critical incident technique to study ongoing group processes. They suggested that at one or more points during the interactions of group members, critical situations or incidents arise where the group leader must choose an appropriate response. The authors found that certain common critical situations emerged regardless of the group's orientation. The critical incident technique was used as a way of arranging data in sequence, from the events leading up to a critical incident (i.e. the possible choices for action of the group leader) to those events that resulted from the possible group leader interventions. Kaczkowski, Lieberman and Schmidt (1978) developed a handbook and videotape based on Cohen and Smith's study in which the critical incidents were enacted and videotaped for use in counsellor training and research.

Using the critical incident technique, Dachelot, Wemett, Garling, Craig-Kuhn, Kent, and Kitzman (1981) examined the conditions which facilitated the clinical training of nurses. Critical incident data was collected from three groups and then classified into 18 basic categories with three general headings. These categories provided a broad picture of activities which occurred in the clinical settings and of ways in which these activities were perceived by both students and educators.

Similarly, Rimon (1979) examined nurses' perceptions of critical aspects of their role in providing for the psychological and physical care
of patients in hospital. Researchers in cognitive psychology (Weiner, Russell, & Lerman, 1979) collected critical incidents in a study of the linkages between cognitions and emotions in achievement-related contexts. In the area of counsellor education, Spivack (1973) developed videotaped vignettes of critical incidents that may occur during the various phases of establishing and maintaining a helping relationship. The tapes were designed to be used as a stimulus in counsellor training.

In summary, the critical incident technique continues to provide a useful methodology for studies in a variety of fields, nearly 30 years after its initial introduction by Flanagan.
CHAPTER III.

METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the methodological and procedural considerations involved in the present study are outlined under three headings: a description of the subjects, the critical incident interview, and a summary of data collection and procedures.

Subjects

A total of 24 graduate counselling students participated in this study. Subjects ranged in age from 23 to 51 years of age with a mean age of 35.8 years. Eighteen, or 75% of the subjects, were female; six, or 25%, were male.

Subjects were recruited from a masters-level counselling program (including both M.Ed. and M.A. candidates) offered by the Department of Counselling Psychology, Faculty of Education, at a large university located in a major western Canadian city. They were enrolled in both part- and full-time programs of study. All subjects were required to complete a core group of courses including a counselling skills training laboratory, a supervised clinic, and a basic theories of counselling course. In addition, subjects had completed or were enrolled in a wide range of specialty courses such as family counselling, testing, school counselling, counselling women, research methods, and group counselling.

Subjects were recruited by two methods: (a) by means of a letter (see Appendix A) and (b) by means of a brief oral presentation of the same letter given by the researcher to a summer session class. In the former
method, 32 letters were mailed in the spring of 1982 to students who were identified by name as having been members of clinic teams during the proceeding winter session. The researcher made follow-up phone calls to these 32 students. Seventeen students agreed to participate; two students were unwilling to participate. The remaining 10 students were not contacted due to changes of residence. Seven additional subjects responded to an oral presentation of the research project and submitted their names and telephone numbers for future contact. Follow-up phone calls were successfully made to each of these seven subjects.

In summary, 17 subjects were recruited by letter and 7 subjects by means of an appeal to a class. All but 2 of those subjects who were successfully reached by telephone readily agreed to participate in the study. The volunteer sample obtained in the present study represented a cross-section of the students enrolled in the masters level program.

**Critical Incident Interview**

In this study, the data was collected by means of semi-structured interviews lasting one-half hour per subject. The critical incident interview follows a standard format, as outlined by Flanagan: (a) a statement of the aims of the research, (b) the question and request for recall, (c) a criteria check, and (d) a request for details. (See Table 1). The interviewer monitors the data recalled by the subject and evaluates it according to the following criteria of significance and accuracy:
TABLE 1
Outline of the Critical Incident Interview

Aim Statement

The aim of my study is to explore some experiences that students have in our program. Specifically, I want to find out in what ways students find that their professors either help or hinder them in their growth as professionals.

Request for Recall

Think back over the past year to the different experiences that you've had with your professors. Think of the highlights or highpoints and lowpoints in your experiences when something that a professor said or did really had an impact on your growth as a professional (i.e. counsellor). This impact can be positive or negative. You may recall one or several of these incidents. I'd like to ask you to describe them in detail in the time that we have.

Criteria Check

Think of a particular incident. Would you say that what this professor said or did led to a lasting change in your attitudes, beliefs, or behaviours as a counsellor?

Stimulus Questions to Elicit Details

What were the general circumstances leading up to this incident? Tell me exactly what this professor said or did that helped you (held you back) at that time. Why was this incident helpful (hindering)? What were you thinking and feeling at the time?
(a) is the actual behaviour reported; (b) was it observed by the reporter; (c) were all relevant factors in the situation given; (d) has the observer made a definite judgment; (e) has the observer made it clear just why he believes the behaviour was critical. (p. 342)

In addition, the accuracy of the subject's report is judged on the basis of whether full and detailed accounts are given.

An incident is considered to be critical if it makes a significant contribution, either positively or negatively, to the general aim of the activity. In the present study, the general aim of counsellor educators was defined as facilitating the professional growth of counsellor trainees. An incident was critical when an educator's behaviour had facilitated or hindered this aim by effecting an impact or lasting change on a student's attitudes, beliefs, or behaviours as a developing professional counsellor. This lasting change or impact was reported subjectively by the student counsellors themselves.

It is important in a study of this nature that anonymity of the subjects and counsellor educators be strictly maintained. In the present study, subjects were assured of their anonymity and were requested not to reveal the identity of any counsellor educators. Subsequent treatment of the data also ensured anonymity. Interviews were taped and then transcribed. Subject numbers rather than names were assigned to the typed interviews and incidents. Finally, when incidents were extracted from the interviews and recorded on cards, the researcher attempted to delete any details which might suggest the identity of a student or an educator.

The researcher conducted all of the critical incident interviews. Flanagan's guidelines for the interviewer state that he or she remain
neutral and permissive, treating the subject as the expert on his or her own experiences. Reflection or paraphrasing of the subject's report and the posing of clarifying questions were the basic tools of the interviewer. Training in the use of these interpersonal interview skills was acquired through completion of a masters-level counselling program as well as through consultation with a methodologist skilled in the use of the critical incident technique.

Summary of Data Collection and Procedures

Subjects were students enrolled in a masters-level counselling psychology program at a large university. Subjects were initially contacted by the researcher by means of a letter or a brief oral presentation to a class. Follow-up phone calls were made to potential subjects. An appointment was arranged with those people who agreed to participate in the study. The time and location of the interview were arranged at the convenience of the subjects (e.g. at varying times of the day and evening, either at the home of subjects or on campus). At the start of each interview, subjects signed a consent form (see Appendix B) and the tape-recording equipment was introduced and switched on. Interviews lasted approximately one-half hour.

The completed tapes were transcribed by the researcher and by two paid typists (working off campus). Incidents were extracted from the interview transcripts by the researcher and typed onto 3x5 index cards. From this set of incidents, categories were formed according to the procedures described in the preceding chapter. The categorization system was checked for reliability by two independent raters. Raters were briefly trained and presented with the basic level categories and subcategories into which they
sorted all of the incidents. Upon completion of this process, the rater and researcher noted together which incidents had been categorized differently from the criterion.
CHAPTER IV.
RESULTS

In this chapter, the results obtained from the investigation are reported under three headings: descriptive data, definitions and examples of categories and subcategories, and results of the independent rater reliability check.

Descriptive Data

A total of 84 incidents were collected from 24 subjects. Subjects each reported an average of 3.5 incidents with a range of 2 to 8 incidents per person. The modal number of incidents per subject was 4. The categorization process produced 5 basic level categories and 19 subcategories. A list of the categories is found in Table 2. Basic level categories contained a range of 7 incidents to 28 incidents with a median of 14 incidents per category. The 19 subcategories contained as few as 2 and as many as 17 incidents. The median was 3 incidents per subcategory.

In Table 3, numbers of positive and negative incidents as well as total numbers of incidents per category are shown. Sixty-five or 77% of the total incidents concerned effective or positive educator behaviours; 19 or 23% concerned ineffective or negative educator behaviours. Therefore, approximately three-quarters of incidents were positive and one-quarter was negative. Total numbers of incidents per category were as follows: Category I contained 22 or 26.2% of total incidents; Category II contained 28 or 33.3%; Category III contained 7 or 8.3%; Category IV contained 13 or 15.5%; and Category V contained 14 or 16.7%.
**TABLE 2**

**Categories and Subcategories of Effective Educator Behaviours**

**CATEGORY I: Teaches New Counselling Skills, Techniques, and Theories To Trainees**

- **Subcategory 1:** Effectively teaches new skills, techniques, and theories.
- **Subcategory 2:** Teaches interventions and theories in direct application to trainees' cases.
- **Subcategory 3:** Provides structure and direction for trainees.
- **Subcategory 4:** Presents subject matter nondogmatically.
- **Subcategory 5:** Assigns group projects and presentations.
- **Subcategory 6:** Gives extensive feedback on written assignments.

**CATEGORY II: Gives Concrete Feedback about Trainees' Counselling Behaviours within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship**

- **Subcategory 1:** Couples feedback about trainees' ineffective counselling behaviours with feedback about their effective counselling behaviours.
- **Subcategory 2:** Encourages trainees by giving feedback about their effective counselling behaviours.
- **Subcategory 3:** Instructs trainees by giving feedback about their ineffective counselling behaviours.
CATEGORY III: Models by Demonstrating Counselling Interventions

with Trainees as Clients

Subcategory 1: Demonstrates counselling techniques with trainees as clients.

Subcategory 2: Demonstrates the basic counselling interview to novices with trainees as clients.

Subcategory 3: Models group leadership skills with trainees as group members.

CATEGORY IV: Offers Facilitative Conditions (i.e. Genuineness, Respect) to Trainees

Subcategory 1: Genuinely self-discloses and shares personal experiences with trainees.

Subcategory 2: Shows respect for trainees and is a fallible human being: avoids the one-up position.

CATEGORY V: Encourages Trainee Self-Exploration within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship

Subcategory 1: Facilitates trainees' exploration of problematical feelings and behaviours.

Subcategory 2: Explores with trainees their personal reactions to issues from counselling sessions.

Subcategory 3: Confronts trainees when appropriate.
Subcategory 4: Requires trainees to explore in written assignments their counselling-related attitudes, values, and experiences.

Subcategory 5: Requires trainees to participate in counselling as clients and report their experiences.

**TABLE 3**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of Incident</th>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Negative</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Category % No.</td>
<td>% No.</td>
<td>% No.</td>
<td>% No.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I: Teaches New Counselling Skills, Techniques, and Theories to Trainees</td>
<td>20.2 17</td>
<td>6.0 5</td>
<td>26.2 22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II: Gives Concrete Feedback about Trainees' Counselling Behaviours within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship</td>
<td>21.4 18</td>
<td>11.9 10</td>
<td>33.3 28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III: Models by Demonstrating Counselling Interventions with Trainees as Clients</td>
<td>8.3 7</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>8.3 7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV: Offers Facilitative Conditions (i.e. Genuine ness, Respect) to Trainees</td>
<td>10.7 9</td>
<td>4.8 4</td>
<td>15.5 13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V: Encourages Trainee Self-Exploration within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship</td>
<td>16.7 14</td>
<td>-  -</td>
<td>16.7 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>77.3 65</td>
<td>22.7 19</td>
<td>100.0 84</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The setting of incidents for each category is presented in Table 3. It was found that incidents concerning the teaching of new skills, techniques, and theories occurred primarily during a course. Concrete feedback given within the context of a facilitative relationship occurred most often in a course or a training lab. Educators offered facilitative conditions in all five settings, but these occurred most frequently in the clinic. Trainee self-exploration was encouraged frequently during a course. In summary, it was reported that a total of 30 or 35.8% of incidents occurred during a counselling course; 22 or 26.2% of incidents took place in a clinic setting; and 22 or 26.3% of incidents occurred during a training lab. Together, they accounted for 44 or 52.5% of all incidents. An additional 9 or 10.8% of incidents took place in a private interview with an educator and 1 or 1.2% of incidents occurred in a social setting.

**Definitions and Examples of Categories and Subcategories**

Each of the five basic level categories has been given a descriptive title which conveys the essential features of the category's incidents. Although categories and subcategories may include both effective and ineffective behaviours, descriptive titles reflect only effective behaviours. They have been worded positively in order that, when read as a whole, they provide a summary of students' perceptions of effective educator and supervisor behaviours.

Subcategory titles were chosen and defined in order to represent critical behaviours in more detail. Examples of incidents were included in order to give the reader an impression of the nature of those behavioural
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Category</th>
<th>Course %</th>
<th>Course No.</th>
<th>Clinic %</th>
<th>Clinic No.</th>
<th>Training Lab %</th>
<th>Training Lab No.</th>
<th>Private Interview %</th>
<th>Private Interview No.</th>
<th>Social Setting %</th>
<th>Social Setting No.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>6.0</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>11.9</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14.3</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>35.8</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>26.2</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>26.3</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reports upon which the classification scheme has been based. Incidents were quoted when they exemplified their subcategory. Each basic category is concluded with a summary of the outcomes (i.e. ways in which trainees were effected by educator behaviours) reported by trainees during the critical incident interview. This anecdotal information is included in order to add richness and detail to the general outcome characteristic of all categories: the professional growth of trainees.
Category I: Teaches New Counselling Skills, Techniques, and Theories to Trainees

The incidents in this category involve didactic educator behaviours. Subcategories describe the aspects of this instruction that were considered to be critical by counselling trainees.

Subcategory 1: Effectively teaches new skills, techniques, and theories. The incidents in this group concern events when trainees acquire useful knowledge from an educator. Trainees mention the helpful ways in which instructors facilitate this learning (e.g. provide detailed information, use case studies, filter jargon into everyday language, present theory vividly and thoroughly).

Example: A professor taught detailed information about when and how to use a particular counselling technique.

Subcategory 2: Teaches interventions and theories in direct application to trainees' cases. Educators identify and teach appropriate approaches for trainees to use with specific clients. This includes times when professors interrupt counselling sessions to give instruction to trainees.

Example: A professor identified the point at which a student was "stuck" with a client and required the student to role-play an appropriate new skill until it was mastered.

Subcategory 3: Provides structure and direction for trainees. Incidents in this group concern only ineffective educator behaviours. Educators do not believe that they are in a position to teach students anything of use. They do not provide structure or direction for trainees, do not talk about course content, and are disorganized.
Example: A professor taught with the belief that he or she couldn't teach students anything, saying, "It's a farce. Logically, what do you think I can teach you? Your experiences will teach you out there".

Subcategory 4: Presents subject matter nondogmatically. When teaching new techniques to students, educators allow students to make their own decisions regarding the usefulness of the techniques.

Example: A professor taught a controversial technique in counselling with a nondogmatic approach, applying no pressure on a student to adopt the technique, saying, "You can make your own decisions".

Ineffective behaviours concern times when educators communicate their biases to students. In one case, an educator expresses a personal bias against the racial group of which a student is a member.

Example: A professor communicated a bias against the use of some counselling techniques that he or she was teaching to students.

Subcategory 5: Assigns group projects and presentations. The educator facilitates the processes of group growth, sharing of insights, and mutual support versus competition.

Example: In a course about a set of counselling theories and techniques, a professor gave group assignments, saying students should learn from one another rather than compete for marks.

Ineffective behaviours concern times when frequent student group presentations seem to replace teaching by educators.

Example: In a course about counselling, a professor gave assignments which required students to make presentations to each other; the professor seldom taught the class.
Subcategory 6: Gives extensive feedback on written assignments. In this group of incidents, educators meet with students privately and give point-by-point feedback about their written assignments.

Example: A professor discusses at length both strong and weak points in a student's paper after a counselling course was completed.

Category I: Summary of trainee outcomes. Trainees reported that they learned how to use new skills and techniques and incorporate them into their counselling repertoire. They gained insight into theories and acquired a strong theoretical base for their own counselling. In cases where students were employed, their on-the-job performance improved. They felt challenged by educators to take risks. Their professors were models for them. When there was a lack of structure, students floundered and did not learn. Group presentations were experienced as helpful when they reduced anxiety and encouraged student exploration. They were not helpful when trainees felt that inexperienced peers could only teach so much and they wanted more expert instruction from professors. Finally, educators' negative biases were "lapped up" by trainees, resulting in a loss of interest and learning.

Category II: Gives Concrete Feedback about Trainees' Counselling Behaviours within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship

The incidents in this category involve a didactic element where educators give trainees concrete feedback about their effective and ineffective counselling behaviours; and an experiential element where educators offer trainees a facilitative relationship characterized by genuineness, positive regard and support.
Subcategory I: Couples feedback about trainees' ineffective counselling behaviours with feedback about their effective counselling behaviours. Educators balance their comments about where students go wrong in their counselling sessions with comments about their successful behaviours.

Example: A professor balanced critical, confrontative comments about a student's counselling with supportive, positive comments.

Subcategory 2: Encourages trainees by giving feedback about their effective counselling behaviours. Educators make supportive, encouraging remarks to trainees about their performance and accomplishments. They reassure trainees that it's normal to be nervous and make mistakes. They express interest in and acceptance of trainees as people.

Example: A professor gave a student positive feedback and encouragement such as, "Look at what you've accomplished", and, "It's normal to make mistakes".

Subcategory 3: Instructs trainees by giving feedback about their ineffective counselling behaviours. Educators point out where trainees go wrong in their sessions and suggest what they could do differently. Mistakes are used in a matter-of-fact way to teach more effective approaches. Negative feedback is given gently, caringly, often with humour. At times, educators confront students with their lack of progress and need to change.

Example: A professor viewed a student's counselling tape and pointed out where the student had gone wrong in a supportive way and suggested what could be done differently.

Ineffective behaviours involve negative confrontative feedback to individual students or groups that is often unexpected. Educators have a manner that is threatening, critical and superior. Other ineffective
behaviours include a lack of evalutative feedback altogether or comments that are vague.

Example: A professor unexpectedly told a counselling class that they weren't making satisfactory progress, their performance in counselling was not up to standard, and that some people would fail.

**Category II: Summary of trainees outcomes.** When positive and negative feedback was given at the same time, students reported that they learned about themselves, both in and out of the counsellor role. Feedback about their positive counselling behaviours also resulted in learning and growth. Trainees felt comfortable to take risks, make mistakes, and bring up issues without feeling judged. They gained confidence in themselves. When they received feedback about their ineffective behaviours within the context of a caring relationship, trainees reported feeling receptive and able to learn from the feedback. When the facilitative conditions were not present, they felt unsafe and closed. Students described feeling exposed, humiliated, threatened, raped, shocked, angry, and afraid. They tended to withdraw for self-protection, lost confidence, and did not learn the counselling skills. Moreover, students who received vague or little feedback felt that they had missed out and learned less.

**Category III: Models by Demonstrating Counselling Interventions with Trainees as Clients**

In the incidents in this category, the critical element involves educators teaching trainees by means of modelling. Trainees both observe the demonstration of skills and learn experientially by participating as clients.
Subcategory 1: Demonstrates counselling techniques with trainees as clients. Educators teach trainees how to use techniques by conducting actual counselling sessions with trainees as their clients.

Example: A professor demonstrated a counselling technique to a student by going through it with the student as a client.

Subcategory 2: Demonstrates the basic counselling interview to novices with trainees as clients. Educators show novices what counselling can be by having them participate in sessions as clients.

Example: A professor demonstrated a counselling interview with a student as the client during the first hour of a course.

Subcategory 3: Models group leadership skills with trainees as group members. Educators lead groups and demonstrate the skill of effective group leadership with trainees as group members.

Example: A student was a member of a group which a professor led very skillfully.

Category III: Summary of trainees outcomes. Students reported that they successfully learned how techniques worked when educators modelled them. They also acquired ideas about how to run groups effectively. Novice counsellors realized the real power and value of counselling when they found themselves responding more openly in the basic (Egan) interview than they might have expected. Their fears were allayed and they were more open to learning the skills. Trainees learned about themselves on a personal level while participating as clients.
Category IV: Offers Facilitative Conditions (i.e. Genuineness, Respect) to Trainees

Incidents assigned to this category describe situations where educators openly share their personal experiences with trainees, are fallible human beings, and avoid taking a one-up position with trainees. They show respect for trainees.

Subcategory 1: Genuinely self-discloses and shares personal experiences with trainees. Educators share with trainees their personal life experiences and philosophies. They indicate to students that it is alright for students to ask them personal questions. In social settings, educators remain genuine and natural.

Example: A professor spoke about or 'shared' his or her personal life experiences and philosophy with students, particularly while undergoing a painful experience in his or her personal life.

Subcategory 2: Shows respect for trainees and is a fallible human being: avoids the one-up position. After educators harshly disagree with students, they come back later and apologize, making an effort to understand the students' point of view. In conflict situations, they explore issues without necessarily having to be right. They invite feedback about themselves as counsellors and teachers and laughingly admit their own mistakes.

Example: After a poor relationship between a professor and student erupted in the professor verbally attacking the student, the professor later apologized and took the time to try and understand the student and eventually to respect the student's counselling style.
Ineffective behaviours include such events as educators telling students that they don't have a right to disagree with them. When students are involved in a conflict or difficulty of some kind with educators, educators are not open to students' feedback and points of view. They show insensitivity toward students by giving students excessive favours and compliments in front of other students.

Example: When a professor's behaviour toward a student had become a problem for the student, the latter discussed this privately with the professor. The professor responded by throwing it back onto the student with comments such as, "You are being silly and over-reacting".

Category IV: Summary of trainee outcomes. When educators offered facilitative conditions to trainees, trainees experienced the educators as models. They saw ways of being open, compassionate, understanding, and genuine. Educators modelled methods of integrating the counsellor role into one's personality. The non-stratified relationship resulted in students feeling comfortable, non-threatened, freer to take risks, and more open to discussion and learning. Students felt accepted by and closer to educators when the latter self-disclosed. When educators told students that they didn't have a right to disagree, students were embarrassed in front of their peers, uncertain, and felt put-down. This proved to block their learning. When educators did not accept student feedback, the problems between them were not resolved, again resulting in a loss of learning. Students who were highly favoured were isolated by their peers, withdrew in class, skipped classes, and lost the opportunity to learn.
Category V: Encourages Trainee Self-Exploration within the Context of A Facilitative Relationship

Incidents within this category concern relationship-oriented experiential interactions and events. Educators facilitate trainees' exploration of personal and sometimes problematical feelings and behaviours, related directly or indirectly to the counsellor role.

Subcategory 1: Facilitates trainees' exploration of problematical feelings and behaviours. Educators focus on trainees' issues such as feelings of inadequacy as counsellors and difficulties in communication. They explore with students alternate ways to effectively handle disagreements. When appropriate, they counsel students.

Example: A professor explored with a student the latter's feelings of inadequacy and frustration in the counsellor role.

Subcategory 2: Explores with trainees their personal reactions to issues from counselling sessions. Educators focus on ways in which trainees deal in their own lives with the issues that clients present. They explore how trainees feel during sessions as they respond to clients.

Example: When giving feedback to a student, a professor encouraged the student to focus on his or her personal experience with the client's issue (e.g. anger).

Subcategory 3: Confronts trainees when appropriate. When the moment is right, educators confront and push trainees toward growth and change. They tell trainees when the latter have personal problems that need attention.

Example: A professor privately confronted a student about the latter's inappropriate behaviour in class, suggesting that the student should seek help for personal problems.
Subcategory 4: Requires trainees to explore in written assignments their counselling-related attitudes, values, and experiences. Educators assign trainees the task of examining their own experiences and reactions in relation to specific areas in counselling.

Example: A professor gave an assignment that forced a student to examine his or her personal experiences and values in relation to an area of counselling.

Subcategory 5: Required trainees to participate in counselling as clients and report their experiences. Students become members of a group or seek out a particular type of counselling and then report their experiences.

Example: A professor gave an assignment which required students to experience a type of counselling for several sessions and then write about it.

Category V: Summary of trainee outcomes. When educators explored with trainees their problematical feelings and behaviours, trainees saw their professors differently: trainees gained relationships with educators. Students became more open about discussing their feelings in the counsellor role and learned how to become more effective as counsellors. When trainees focused on their personal reactions during sessions with clients, they felt as though they were fully participating as equals in the feedback sessions. This was a powerful learning experience for trainees. The critical point of being confronted by a professor was experienced as intense and painful, but resulted in positive growth and change. Trainees acquired personal insight and useful counselling tools when examining their personal values, attitudes, and experiences. Finally, when participating in the client role, they learned about themselves and about how it feels to be in the client's position.
Independent Rater Reliability Check

Raters (A and B) were provided with category and subcategory titles. They were required to independently classify the 84 incidents under the given headings. The researcher read the headings to the raters and provided brief explanations when requested. Raters were told that, although all headings were worded positively, one-quarter of incidents were negative. Examples were given of ways in which subcategory headings could be read as negative headings.

Both raters completed the classification task in approximately one hour. An 84.5% or 85% level of agreement was found between Rater A's classification and the criterion; a 90.5% or 91% level of agreement with the criterion was found for Rater B. Due to the small number of incidents contained in some subcategories, it was decided that only basic level categories would be included in the reliability check. It has been recommended that the basic level is the optimal level of categorization for an effective presentation of data (Rosch, 1975). (It is noted in passing, however, that levels of agreement between subcategories and the criterion for Rater A and Rater B were 79.8% or 80% and 83.3% or 83%, respectively.)

According to the category formation research, incidents form a continuum of category membership. Prototypical incidents are easily classified, while "fuzzy" incidents possessing attributes of more than on category are less reliably classified (McCloskey & Glucksberg, 1978). This explanation appears to account for those instances when the independent raters did not agree with the criterion in the present study. For example, the following incident was classified differently by Rater A than by the researcher:
A professor interrupted a student's counselling session and told the student exactly what to say and how to say it to the client. In the criterion, the above incident was a member of Category I: Teaches New Counselling Skills, Techniques, and Theories to Trainees. It is an example of a time when a professor teaches an intervention in direct application to a trainee's case. Rater A, on the other hand, placed this incident in Category II: Gives Concrete Feedback about Trainees' Counselling Behaviours within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship. Rater A judged the incident to be an example of a time when an educator gives feedback about a trainee's ineffective counselling behaviours. The incident clearly is a member of both categories at the same time. (For this incident, Rater B agreed with the criterion).

In conclusion, the five basic categories were found to be reliable. Two independent raters agreed in the majority of cases (at 85% and 91% levels of agreement) with the researcher's basic level categorization of the data. Instances of disagreement were accounted for by the concept of "fuzzy sets" where nonprototypic members possessed qualities of more than one category at the same time.
CHAPTER V.
DISCUSSION OF RESULTS AND CONCLUSIONS

The final chapter of this paper is divided into the following areas to facilitate discussion: the limitations of the study, the theoretical and practical implications for counsellor education, and implications for future research. The chapter concludes with a summary of the study. Excerpts from the critical incident interviews are included in order to illuminate the categories of effective behaviours found in this study.

In this study, counselling students reported a total of 84 incidents which facilitated or hindered their professional growth. Sixty-five events were positive or facilitative while 19 events were negative or hindering. These 84 incidents could be economically reduced to 5 basic categories, 3 of which contained both positive and negative incidents and 2 of which contained only positive incidents. It was found that these categories were reliable in the sense that independent judges could use them to categorize incidents with over 80% agreement, which is an accepted cutoff point in determining the reliability of a set of categories (Andersson & Nilsson, 1964). Reliable agreement provides assurance that the categories were an adequate reflection of the actual incidents.

Limitations of the Study

Several factors limit the generalizability of the findings of the present study. First, the most serious limitation of the study is the restricted characteristic of the sample. The subjects were few in number (N = 24) and drawn from only one counselling program. Second, the 24 subjects were recruited on a volunteer basis. Borg and Gall (1979) stated
that volunteer subjects are likely to be a biased sample of the target population; for example, volunteers tend to be more intelligent and higher in need for social approval than nonvolunteers. Given the limited nature of the sample, this study might be characterized as an intensive case study of one counselling department.

Third, another factor which limits the generalizability of the findings is the use of subject self-report and recall of incidents. Counsellors-in-training reported their perceptions of incidents which occurred in the recent past. Although one could argue that people's perceptions and memories are subjective and selective, the critical incident category is typically formed by different people reporting the same kinds of events. In the sense that different people independently produced similar incidents, categories were formed objectively.

Fourth, although the basic categories found in this study were formulated by one researcher and hence were subject to personal bias, the categories were reliable and corroborated the available evidence concerning effective behaviours from the research literature.

In summary, due to the restricted characteristics of the sample in terms of its size, location, and volunteer status, the categories are not generalizable to all counsellors-in-training. Consequently, the results of this study are regarded as tentative and exploratory in nature.

Theoretical Implications

Congruence between Categories and Theoretical Models

The five basic categories found in this study formed a continuum of effective educator behaviours that ranged from a purely didactic approach to a purely experiential approach. Most effective educator behaviours,
however, involved a combination or integration of these two approaches.

The first category, entitled: Teaches New Counselling Skills, Techniques, and Theories to Trainees, fell within the realm of the didactic-systematic theories of counsellor training. Counselling students reported that teaching was helpful when it had direct relevance to their client cases. They preferred an unbiased, nondogmatic presentation of information which allowed them the freedom to form their own opinions. For some trainees, the use of group assignments was facilitative, while for others, it hindered their learning. On the whole, trainees appreciated sound teaching techniques and the provision of structure and direction.

One student described an effective teaching method in the following way:

I find that a lot of people who I take courses from here live in their jargon and they don't live with the kind of everyday language that teachers and counsellors do. Well, this professor has the skill to filter all that stuff down from the jargon so that it makes sense. That's a unique teaching skill.

For another student, the learning of a particular technique was significant:

In all the years that I've been here, the use of that [counselling technique] has been the most important thing of all.

The second and third basic categories involved the use of feedback and modelling. These are central training behaviours in the didactic-systematic approach. However, trainees also reported that these activities were coupled with relationship-experiential elements: Feedback was embedded in a strong relationship with the professor and modelling involved an experiential component.
In Category II: Gives Concrete Feedback about Trainees' Counselling Behaviours within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship, feedback was sometimes given to trainees in a clear, step-wise fashion characteristic of microtraining:

He was very concise and specific with his feedback. He gave a reasonable amount without overloading you, he timed it well, and he presented it in a relaxed fashion.  

A strong educator-trainee relationship was found to facilitate the hearing of feedback on the part of the trainee:

I feel that I established some really good relationships with my professors this year. They were really really helpful. It's much easier to take criticism and that type of thing when you know that they're saying it caringly. It makes it easier to listen to feedback.

When a student received confrontative feedback without the presence of a facilitative relationship, the feedback was less effective:

You can't have confrontation without a relationship. The reason why the confrontation was so negative to me was because she had no idea of where I was personally, as we had no relationship. She was making such personal statements that had nothing to do with her knowledge of who I was. So I felt ripped off in that sense.

A similar viewpoint was expressed by another student:

I don't think that confrontation takes place without a trusting relationship. A confrontation takes place in a situation of trust and not in a situation where people are going to feel exposed in front of the group.

1References to the gender of professors have been alternated by the researcher.
The findings for Category II, therefore, confirmed the central client-centered tenet that trainees learn best when a supervisor-offered facilitative relationship is present, as well as the didactic principle that learning is concrete and progressive.

Category III, entitled: Models by Demonstrating Counselling Interventions with Trainees as Clients, confirmed elements of both didactic and experiential training approaches. Trainees reported that it was helpful to see a counsellor in action:

'It was a masterpiece of teaching, the way he had it all down. It helped me in the sense that I thought, Hey, if I run a [group] that's how I want to have it run. He was really modelling how to run a [group] and I felt he did a damn good job of it.'

The student was, on one level, experiencing the group process, and on another level, watching and noting how the professor was leading the group. A student who was new to counselling found it very effective when a professor modelled an interview with the student as the client:

'We had done the Egan skills and I thought we were beating them to death. I felt like I was progressing, but it wasn't until I saw her apply them, until I felt those skills, I experienced them, I saw them in action [that I realised what counselling can be]. She drew some things out of me in front of everybody that I didn't think I would say. That had an impact.'

Finally, when a student volunteered to be a client while a professor demonstrated a counselling technique, the student experienced the power of the technique:

'I volunteered for the demonstration of the technique. [Being the client] was such a powerful experience. That most probably had as much impact on me as any single experience in counselling.'
This category confirmed modelling combined with an experiential component as an effective training approach.

Together, the first three categories confirmed the findings of Worthington and Roehlke (1979) as described in the literature review and summed up by the authors as follows:

Beginning practicum counselors seemed to rate supervision as better when their supervisors more directly taught them how to counsel within a supportive relationship and then encouraged them to try out the newly learned counseling skills in order to incorporate those skills that were found to be facilitative into their own styles. (p. 70)

The fourth and fifth categories supported the client-centred training principles. In Category IV, entitled: Offers Facilitative Conditions (i.e. Genuineness, Respect) to Trainees, students saw methods of integrating the counselling role into one's personality. In the words of one trainee:

He was open, compassionate, understanding and all these things that counsellors are supposed to be.

Another trainee was appreciative of the genuineness of a professor:

Somehow the prof came across as being very genuine and as concerned with us as individuals as she was about the content of the course. That's the only course that I've ever had like that in my whole history of university. It was a revelation. She provided great modelling for me.

Finally, a student was profoundly influenced when a supervisor offered facilitative conditions:
The professor influenced me a great deal because he was a model of what he was teaching and that is the first time that I have ever experienced that. I've always experienced professors who distanced themselves from their topic in my previous university courses, and they said, Do what I say but don't behave as I am. And this particular person really modelled. I really admire him deeply. He influenced me in that he has given me a goal to work for, an ideal, which is something that you get very seldom. It's quite a gift. It's interesting too to me that other people did not have that response to him, that they didn't appreciate him on that level, but I really did.

The findings reported here substantiated the client-centred approach which indicates that students benefit from experiencing the therapeutic relationship firsthand and from seeing their educators model counselling behaviours.

The final category, entitled: Encourages Trainee Self-Exploration within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship, directly confirmed the relationship-experiential approach. When educators offered facilitative conditions to trainees, the trainees engaged in self-exploration either during verbal interactions with educators or through assignments. In one instance, a student explored during a feedback session how the issue of anger was being handled in his or her own life:

With one of my clients it was a real issue of anger and we got into all sorts of personal stuff around anger. So it became information that could be used with other people and ourselves. It was a personal growth thing where we could talk about our own experiences plus my reactions to the client, how I deal with anger, what I do when I'm dealing with anger. The discussion that came out was safe, but was also a powerful learning experience.

When a professor confronted a student, the student learned about him or herself:
She was very gentle, and yet at the same time she would stand for absolutely no bullshit. She would challenge anybody if they were incongruent, but not in the way of putting them down. She would gently say to them, But this is the case, isn't it? And they couldn't deny it. It was important for me in that I learned about my directiveness, my tendency to be a teacher and a director and not to hear what people were actually saying. She said, Look, this and this happened. And I was able to see it then and that was the very first time. With her I was able to accept it because of her gentleness.

The five categories comprising the domain of effective educator behaviours confirmed the superiority of integrative training approaches which combine elements of the didactic and experiential approaches. Carkhuff (1969) suggested that the use of facilitative conditions by the trainer is critical for effective counsellor training. This proposition was validated in the present study. Three of the five categories found in this study directly described the presence of facilitative conditions such as respect for the student, genuineness, ability to confront when appropriate, use of self-disclosure, and educator openness and flexibility. When facilitative conditions were present, subjects found that trainers' systematic attempts to impart learnings through direct teaching, the use of feedback, and modelling were more effective. In Carkhuff's words:

Those [programs] demonstrating positive effects attempt specifically to provide an experiential base in which the trainees have the firsthand experience of high levels of conditions while at the same time they teach didactically the necessary discrimination and communication of both facilitative and action-oriented conditions. (p. 10)

Carkhuff described the kind of modelling effects that were significant for subjects in the present study:
The trainers are not simply imparters of accumulated wisdom but also constitute models for effective living. If they themselves are living effectively, the trainees have an opportunity to learn to live effectively. (p. 9 - 10)

Finally, it was found that educators can have a deleterious effect on students' counselling behaviours. Students reported periods of time when they lost ground, were unable to perform, felt disturbed in their personal lives and were not growing professionally as a result of an interaction with an educator. Carkhuff has proposed that: "Training in the helping professions may be for better or for worse" (p. 6).

It is interesting to note that trainees' experiences confirmed elements of the psychoanalytic training approach. For some trainees, their interactions with educators did indeed bear the marks of a significant human relationship. As suggested by Ekstein and Wallerstein (1972), trainers can best convey their knowledge by drawing on both their therapy and teaching skills. The findings of this study have supported this dual nature of counsellor education.

Psychoanalytic authors have written about the dangers of educators adopting a one-up position with trainees. The results of this study confirmed that when trainers were accessible and adopted a non-stratified position vis-à-vis trainees, trainees felt safer to take risks and learn. In addition, trainees felt safe to engage in self-exploration. On the other hand, when trainers adopted a one-up position, trainees became fearful, anxious, and preoccupied with self-protection. For example, when they received feedback from professors who appeared to be superior and controlling, trainees reported feelings of threat, humiliation, shock,
fear, and violation. A student described at length the impact of such educator behaviours:

There was one professor -- I think that when he would counsel he was outstanding, but something happened when he became a teacher. He was hard on people. It was his ability to always be in control, always have the power and in some ways to hurt people. He was so superior, so perfect, and so powerful. He frightened people and controlled and manipulated. His choice of when to confront was too much, too often, and too consistent. In that class, people were really anxious. We put so much energy into protecting ourselves that we couldn't put as much energy into learning the skills. I thought, If you're going to be a professor doing counselling, you should be a role model. I thought of myself as if I were a client in that class and that clients don't need to be put into a more vulnerable position by this kind of attack. For me, I learned some of the negative things that I wouldn't want to do myself.

 Writers form the psychoanalytic school have reflected on the vulnerability of students in training. As discussed in the literature review, for some students, judgement about performance is very connected with their self-image. This point was illustrated by the following student report:

I'm very touchy on the whole issue of my age and the fact that I've had some experience before coming into the counselling program. I was trying so darn hard. I was really anxious to do well, so any little negative stuff I got, I really took to heart. What happened to me was I would get so wound up in reacting to the critical comments that I wouldn't hear anything else that the professor might have said which might have been positive, because I was so upset.

Another student came into the program with very high expectations of him or herself and the faculty:

I came into the program with tremendously high expectations: This is my year. This is going to be my year to get my life together, to learn a new direction for my career. Also, my
expectations of the staff at the university was that they were wise people; this was higher learning.

Greenberg (1980) suggested that the manner in which a supervisor gives feedback determines the degree to which a student will feel safe to hear the feedback and to self-disclose. A student in the study described an educator who created a safe environment during feedback sessions so that the student felt free to bring up his or her mistakes:

I think her attitude was that it didn't matter what you said, it was okay. I didn't feel the least bit apprehensive about bringing up really stupid things that I'd done in front of other students in the class. She made it easy for you to do that.

Similar feelings of safety were reported by another student:

He had an impact on me as a person and as a professional as well. He had an interest in you not only as a student but as a person. He gave supportive feedback. I felt understood by him. I just felt comfortable to bring issues and talk about my counselling skills and my needs and my flaws without feeling threatened or judged.

The psychoanalytic theorists have accurately captured some of the trainee experiences and perceptions reported in the present study.

Another integrated training approach is the developmental perspective on trainee growth. The findings of the present study, however, neither confirmed or denied the effectiveness of this method. No clear sense of stages of development was indicated in the incidents. In fact, it is more likely that educators and supervisors would be in a better position to comment on the developmental needs of trainees. Students might be expected to have difficulty conceptualizing and articulating the stages in their own growth process.
Setting of Incidents

Another interesting finding in this study was that counsellors-in-training reported that educators facilitated or hindered their professional growth in all phases or settings of a counselling program. While 52% of incidents occurred during a supervised lab or clinic, another 36% of incidents occurred in a course, 11% during an office interview, and 1% during a social interaction. These findings did not support the exclusive focus found in counsellor training research on the supervision of trainees. In the literature, supervision most often refers to "that part of the overall training of mental health professionals that deals with modifying their actual in-therapy behaviours" (Lambert, 1980, 425). This definition excludes primarily didactic aspects of training such as classroom teaching. It excludes as well purely personal aspects of training such as quasi-therapy experiences. It was found in this study that trainees' professional growth was promoted by didactic and personal exploration experiences as well as by direct supervision of their in-therapy behaviours.

Practical Implications

The recommendations which follow from this study's categories are considered to be most effective within the context of a facilitative relationship. This is deemed a necessary condition for facilitating trainees' sense of safety and openness to learning. The practical implications of the findings are apparent from the list of categories and subcategories of effective educator behaviours. The results of the research indicate that educators of counselling trainees increase their
effectiveness by teaching students specific skills, techniques, and theories; by giving students concrete feedback, both positive and negative, about their counselling behaviours; by modelling interventions using trainees as clients; by offering facilitative conditions such as genuineness and respect to trainees; and by encouraging trainee self-exploration as related to counselling issues.

The findings indicate that educators should be cognizant of the impact they exert on students' growth in all phases of the program, whether they are supervising students, teaching a course, conducting an interview in their office, or chatting over a beer at a social event. In fact, everything that educators do seems to potentially affect trainee growth. They are regarded by trainees as personal and professional models. Trainees may look to them as people possessing greater professional development and perhaps greater personal wisdom. Trainees are looking for ways to integrate their newly developing counselling skills with their unique personalities. They look to educators as models of ways in which to accomplish such an integration. A trainee vividly describes this process as follows:

I think that when you are going through this program, you suddenly find yourself wearing this hat that doesn't fit. You know, the counselling skills are like a hat that's too small or a hat that's too big. It just doesn't fit you, who you are, and it's really hard to bring that stuff together; who I am as a person, who I am as a spontaneous, real, genuine, human being, and then there's the skills. Suddenly I'm leaning forward, and I'm reflecting. Suddenly I'm doing all these good things that I never did before. And still manage to make friends. And it's really hard to bring that stuff together. I think professors who model both high level counselling skills, plus are able to maintain their own spontaneity, their own genuineness, their own humanness, including their weaknesses and their faults, really facilitate counsellor growth in the program.
The above quotation provides some insight into the inner world of counselling students involved in the process of professional growth. Students are very vulnerable during this process and seem to require a great deal of safety and encouragement from educators. An important finding of this study is that one of the trainees' central needs is to maintain self-confidence during the early stages of a difficult learning process. Effective educators can assist by providing support, encouragement and instruction to trainees. A student described such feedback in the following way:

I found her feedback was supportive, but she didn't pull any punches. If you felt you needed a little kick in the rear, she didn't pull the punches, but she balanced it with the supportive stuff. Where she could find something nice to say she would say it, and then she would give you the 'whatever'. She didn't hesitate to be critical in a negative way, because she always coupled it with support. I felt a great deal of support there.

The findings of this study showed that adherence to one training approach, such as a purely didactic-systematic or a purely relationship-experiential approach, would limit the effectiveness of an educator. The trainees reported the significance of both elements in their professional growth.

**Implications for Future Research**

Directions for future research extended from these findings take several forms. This investigation might be considered a pilot study for a similar but broader investigation which included students from more than one counselling program, generating a larger pool of critical incidents for
classification into categories. In this way, the present categories would be verified and made more comprehensive, thus enhancing their validity and usefulness to educators and researchers alike.

Worthington and Roehlke (1979) found that educators and students have differential perceptions of what constitutes facilitative educator behaviours. Future researchers might conceptualize a critical incident study contrasting and comparing educators' and students' reports; or a study combining educators' and students' reports into one set of categories. Such a comprehensive categorization scheme would extend the categories found in the present study, since these categories were derived from only one source: namely, student reports. On the other hand, the inclusion of student reports would enhance existing instruments of effective supervisor behaviours commonly used in research studies (i.e. the list of 42 effective supervisor behaviours developed by Worthington and Roehlke [1979]). The generation of a comprehensive categorization system lends itself to the development of a research instrument for profiling counselling programs, and as a method of feedback for educators.

In addition to student report data, it is recommended that replications of the present study involve the inclusion of objective observations of incidents involving educators and students and objective outcome measures of trainees' professional growth. If there is an interaction between individuals and their environment as Lewin suggested (1936), outcome studies (i.e. trainee counselling effectiveness) should include data on such relevant variables as personality, cognitive characteristics, and needs of students in addition to a description of the supervisory setting and educator behaviours which interact to facilitate trainee professional growth.
A final set of replications of the present study might be conducted in related disciplines such as clinical psychology and social work in order to discover the similarities and differences in trainees' reports of effective and ineffective educator behaviours.

Summary

In this study, critical incidents (Flanagan, 1954) reported by counsellor trainees were used to investigate which educator behaviours had facilitated or hindered students' professional growth. The resulting trainee reports were categorized and subsequently compared to the domain of effective educator behaviours identified in the literature. Moreover, the investigator questioned whether incidents reported by trainees would occur in supervised settings and settings related to supervision (e.g. courses and interviews with educators).

Critical incident interviews lasting one-half hour were conducted with a volunteer sample of 24 counsellor trainees (6 males and 18 females) enrolled in a masters-level counselling program at a large university situated in an urban center on Canada's west coast. In all, 84 incidents were reported; 77% of the incidents described effective or facilitative educator behaviours and 23% described ineffective or hindering behaviours. In addition, it was found that 53% of the incidents occurred in a supervised setting, 36% in a classroom setting, 11% in a private interview, and 1% in a social setting.

Five basic categories of incidents were found: Category I: Teaches New Counselling Skills, Techniques, and Theories to Trainees; Category II: Gives Concrete Feedback about Trainees' Counselling Behaviours within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship; Category III: Models by
Demonstrating Counselling Interventions with Trainees as Clients; Category IV: Offers Facilitative Conditions (i.e. Genuineness, Respect) to Trainees; and Category V: Encourages Trainee Self-Exploration within the Context of a Facilitative Relationship. These categories demonstrated acceptable levels of reliability. The findings suggest that integrative approaches to counsellor training (i.e. combined didactic and experiential approaches) are more effective than unitary theoretical approaches.
References


- 86 -


APPENDIX A

Letter to Subjects

May 15, 1982

Dear ________,

I am a second year M.A. student in the Counselling Psychology program at U.B.C. This letter is a request for your participation in my research study, entitled: “Counsellor Trainee Reports: Effective and Ineffective Educator Behaviours.” By exploring some student experiences, this study could contribute to the improved quality of our program.

If you agree to be a subject in my study, we will meet for approximately thirty minutes. I will ask you several questions about your unique experiences in the program this past year. Your responses will be treated with the strictest confidentiality and you may, of course, withdraw from the interview at any point.

Let me add that your participation is totally voluntary and would be appreciated tremendously. I will be phoning you shortly to receive your reply.

Thank you, in advance, for your consideration of my request.

Yours sincerely,

Janet B. Finlayson
APPENDIX B

Subject Consent Form

Title of Study: Counsellor Trainee Reports: Effective and Ineffective Educator Behaviours

The following conditions apply to this study:

a) subjects will remain anonymous;
b) names of professors will not be used;
c) all data will be treated with strict confidentiality;
d) subjects are voluntary;
e) subjects may withdraw from the interview at any point;
f) the interview will take up to 30 minutes;
g) refusal to participate or withdrawal from the study will not influence class standing in any way.

I, ____________________________, understand the above conditions and give my consent to be a subject in this study.

Date: _______________