

TENNESSEE COUNSELING ASSOCIATION JOURNAL

Volume 1 • Number 1 • 2007



Tennessee Counseling Association Journal

Editorial Board

Robin Wilbourn Lee, PhD, LPC
Publishing Editor

Jeannine Studer, EdD
Manuscript Editor

James M. Benshoff, PhD, NCC, ACS, LPC
University of North Carolina at Greensboro

Michael L. Bundy, PhD, NCC
Willow Brook Elementary School

Julia S. Chibbaro, PhD, LPC, NBCC
University of West Georgia

Jeff L. Cochran, PhD, NCC, LMHC
University of Tennessee

Joel F. Diambra, EdD, LPC-MHSP, NCC
University of Tennessee at Knoxville

Melinda M. Gibbons, PhD, NCC
University of Tennessee at Knoxville

Robert F. Kronick, PhD
University of Tennessee at Knoxville

Aaron H. Oberman, PhD, NCC
The Citadel Graduate College

Christopher T. Pisarik, PhD, LPC, NCC
University of Georgia

Ronnie Priest, PhD
The University of Memphis

Sandra Terneus, PhD, NCC, LMFT
Tennessee Tech University

Jan Turner, PhD, LPC-MHSP, NCC
Cookeville, Tennessee

Peggy P. Whiting, NCC, LPC
North Carolina Central University

Robyn L. Williams, EdD, LPC, RPT
Walden University

Marianne Woodside, EdD, LPC, NCC
University of Tennessee at Knoxville

Tennessee Counseling Association Journal

VOLUME 1 • NUMBER 1 • 2007

- 1 Letter from the Editors
Robin Lee & Jeannine Studer
- 3 Letter from the President of the Tennessee
Counseling Association
Anna Shelsky
- 4 Using My Learning Print™ to Help Promote
Student Achievement Through Leadership, Advocacy
and Collaboration
*Robert D. Colbert, Robin Schader, Marcia Hughes, &
Rachelle Pérusse*
- 22 College Preparation Programming for Prospective
First-Generation College Students
Melinda M. Gibbons
- 30 Counseling Students' Perceptions About the Need for
Wellness Planning
Mary Ann Hollingsworth & Julia Y. Porter
- 44 The Job Satisfaction of Counselor Educators
Aaron Oberman

Letter from the Editors

Dear Reader,

The *Tennessee Counseling Association Journal* was created as a result of a conversation between the Tennessee Counseling Association (TCA) and the Tennessee Association of Counselor Education and Supervision (TACES). When the publication of the previous TCA journal, *Global Visions for Counseling Professionals*, was terminated, there appeared to be a professional void. As a result, the TCA Governing Board surveyed members regarding their needs, and the outcome was a desire for a professional journal sponsored by the association. A variation of the original journal's focus and a title change to reflect the sponsors of this publication led to the first edition of the *Tennessee Counseling Association Journal*.

The purpose of the *Tennessee Counseling Association Journal* is to promote professional growth and creativity of TCA members and other counseling professionals. We hope the ideas and programs shared in this journal will encourage counseling professionals to expand their capacity for creative visions that will enhance them both professionally and personally. The target audience for this journal is counselors in all specialty areas, and we invite articles of interest for professionals in all areas of counseling. We are seeking articles that: (a) integrate theory and practice, (b) discuss current issues, (c) provide research of interest to counselors in all areas, and (d) present examples of creative techniques, innovations, and exemplary practices.

As our society changes, so does our profession. In order to become effective helping professionals, we need to develop a strong professional identity as counselors, we need to maintain our own mental health, and we need to continue to develop our professional knowledge through information shared and a focus on salient topics related to counseling. It is our

The Editors would like to acknowledge the following for the contribution to and support of this edition of the *Tennessee Counseling Association Journal*: Anna Shelsky, President, Tennessee Counseling Association (2007–2008); Becky Murray, Executive Director; Jan Turner, President-Elect (2007–2008); and Randy Gambriel.

desire that the information in this edition will enhance your own professional and personal growth.

Sincerely,

Dr. Robin Lee, LPC
Middle Tennessee State University
Murfreesboro, TN
Publishing Editor

Dr. Jeannine Studer
University of Tennessee
Knoxville, TN
Manuscript Editor

Letter from the President of the Tennessee Counseling Association

Dear Readers,

As the Tennessee Counseling Association (TCA) President, I am delighted to be able to present to you the *Tennessee Counseling Association Journal*. Allow me to first extend our most sincere thanks to Dr. Jeannine Studer and Dr. Robin Lee for their diligence in seeing this journal all the way from conception to print! Drs. Studer and Lee established an editorial board of counselors and educators from various counseling specialties to serve as editors and referees. Many thanks also go out to our editorial board for your professional contribution to the *Tennessee Counseling Association Journal*.

This is the 50th year of TCA's active support and advocacy for counselors across the state of Tennessee. During our 50-year history, we have seen success in many areas, and I consider this journal to be a tremendous segue into the next 50 years. Each year the American Counseling Association (ACA) allows each branch to compete for awards in a number of areas. At the 2007 ACA Convention in Detroit, MI, TCA accepted awards in the areas of Leadership Development and Membership Recruitment. I am personally looking forward to being able to accept an award at the 2008 convention in Hawaii for our journal!!!

I consider it an honor to be president on the cusp of the 50th year of TCA's outstanding history and its promising future in the next 50 years. I look forward to the opportunity to serve our association during this time. We have great work to do and we are still "On Track" and equipped to achieve our goals and accomplish much for counselors in the state of Tennessee.

Thanks for reading!

Anna Shelsky
2007-2008 President
Tennessee Counseling Association

Using My Learning Print™ to Help Promote Student Achievement Through Leadership, Advocacy and Collaboration

Robert D. Colbert, PhD, Robin Schader, PhD, Marcia Hughes, PhD, & Rachelle Pérusse, PhD

Collaboration, Leadership, and Advocacy are themes in the American School Counselor Association's National Model (2007) that provide focus for counselors to participate in their school's academic mission. A case example is presented to illustrate how school counselors can use an assessment instrument for identifying a student's unique combination of strengths, interests, experiences, and learning preferences when collaborating with stakeholders for promoting student academic achievement.

School counselors must implement leadership, collaboration, and advocacy roles when working with stakeholders to promote student learning (American School Counselor Association [ASCA], 2007). Therefore, this manuscript describes a real school situation where a specific tool, My Learning Print™ (LP) (Schader & Zhou, 2004), was used to promote collaboration among school stakeholders (including a school counselor) in student learning in an urban school setting. LP is a tool for

Robert D. Colbert, PhD, Assistant Professor, University of Connecticut, Neag School of Education, Department of Educational Psychology, and Counseling Psychology Program; Robin Schader, PhD, Assistant Professor, University of Connecticut, Neag School of Education, Department of Educational Psychology, Gifted Education Program and the Parent Resource Specialist for the National Association for Gifted Children; Marcia M. Hughes, PhD, Assistant Director for the Center for Social Research, University of Hartford; Rachelle Pérusse, PhD, Associate Professor, University of Connecticut, Neag School of Education, Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling Psychology Program. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Robert D. Colbert, PhD, Assistant Professor, University of Connecticut, Neag School of Education, Department of Educational Psychology, and Counseling Psychology Program, 249 Glenbrook Road, Storrs, CT 06269-2064 (e-mail: Robert.colbert@uconn.edu).

MY LEARNINGPRINT™

Name: Justin

Date: 10/21/04



MY LEARNINGPRINT™ shows your unique combination of interests, abilities, experiences, and learning preferences

The material inside this booklet will help you discover your own LEARNINGPRINT™ and explore how you learn best. In the same way that two fingerprints are never identical, you'll find that no two LEARNINGPRINTS will be alike.

That's what contributes to you being someone very special.

Created by Robin Schoder and Wendy Zhou, inspired by Dr. Joseph Beazzull's "Total Talent Portfolio," illustrated by Bert Philips

FIGURE 1

My Learning Print Cover Page

thinking about and recording a student's unique combination of strengths, interests, experiences, and learning preferences (Figure 1).

The overall purpose of LP is to help students develop into successful learners by building connections between who they are as learners, what they might become as adults, and how

the learning process can best take place. The LP is based on instruments and tools used within talent-development. It was created as a practical way for adults (counselors, teachers, parents) to work together to help students become aware of how each learns best, and to guide every child in becoming responsible as an independent learner. Each section of the tool offers an opportunity for students to consider and record information shown to influence individual differences and patterns in learning. The LP framework is based on prior research conducted by Joseph Renzulli (Purcell & Renzulli, 1998; Renzulli, 1977; Renzulli & Reis, 1985; Renzulli & Smith, 1978). Additional components resulted from review of the literature on factors predictive of student success (Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1985; Gardner, 1993; Kolb, 1984; Levine, Levine, & Reed, 1998; Sternberg, 1997; Zimmerman, Bandura, & Martinez-Pons, 1992). While there are numerous checklists and instruments to assess separate dimensions of a student's learning (e.g., thinking styles, expression styles, and interests), it is the combination that tells the complex and compelling story of learning. For this reason, the LP takes a cross-dimensional approach, which allows an understanding of the individual pieces while, at the same time, pointing out useful connections between those parameters. This synergy creates a fuller, more accurate depiction of a student's potential. Rather than looking at learning deficits, remediation, and student problems, the LP shifts focus to strengths and opportunities for positive academic development.

Filling out and working with LPs develops a platform—a common “vocabulary” that brings people and resources together to increase both student engagement and student achievement. The goal of conversations generated by LP information is to foster a positive climate within the entire school community that builds self-awareness, connects school to real life, encourages achievement, supports students in developing an awareness of their options, and recognizes differences in a non-judgmental way.

During its development, My Learning Print was successfully used in a number of public, private, and Montessori school programs to provide teachers, students, and parents with a solid rationale for classroom differentiation. These programs ranged from primary grades through high school. LP information was also used to encourage positive parent-teacher conference discussions. In conjunction with the National Parent

Teacher Association (PTA), LP served as a basis for introductions at parent and family nights. At the post-secondary level, the LP has been used within education programs to help pre-service teachers better understand their own learning perspectives. Given its purpose and usage, LP is offered as a tool that school counselors can use to implement their collaboration, leadership, and advocacy roles with other school stakeholders.

There is substantive literature support for the ASCA's call for school counselor leadership (Britzman, 2005; Dollarhide, 2003; Gysbers, 2006; House & Sears, 2002; Kaffenberger, Murphy, & Bemak, 2006; Schawallie-Giddis, ter Maat, & Pak, 2003), collaboration (Colbert & Magouirk Colbert, 2003; Colbert, Pérusse, Reiner, Tomey, & Lucky, in press; Palladino Schultheiss, 2005; Rowley, Sink, & McDonald, 2002; Miller, 2006), and advocacy (Field & Baker, 2004; Kiselica & Robinson, 2001; Wickman, 2004; Trusty & Brown, 2005) with school stakeholders in student learning. Pertinent literature summaries follow.

Colbert and Magouirk Colbert (2003) conducted a qualitative study of a school-university partnership as the basis for developing a school counselor research, training, and practice model for transforming school counseling. According to the Colbert and Magouirk Colbert model, in order for school counselors to transform their practices to promote student equity, counselors must shift from working primarily as individuals to a community building-oriented approach. To test this principle, Colbert and Magouirk Colbert worked first with school administrators to facilitate the development of a district-level school reform initiative for closing the academic achievement gap in the district. Next, university faculty and masters level school counseling students worked in collaboration with school building level staff to implement the school reform initiative. Leadership provided by school counseling students and counselor educators helped school staff develop professional development communities (school staff organizing and facilitating staff development). The work of the professional development communities empowered staff to develop specific classroom instructional strategies to improve the academic achievement for all students (Colbert & Magouirk Colbert, 2003). Recent research on the Colbert and Magouirk Colbert model demonstrated that practicing school counselors could provide leadership to internal stakeholders (staff and administrators) for the devel-

opment of a guidance curriculum to be used by all staff in one urban high school during advisory groups (Colbert, Perusse, Reiner, Tomey, & Lucky, in press).

Dimmit (2003) conducted field based research on a school-university partnership, which led to the identification of strategies for improving student academic success. Dimmit collected data from students, teachers, and parents in order to identify patterns in students' low academic performance. Findings indicated that low academic performing students were from minority groups that spoke a different language and that staff were able to collaborate to develop school-wide interventions aimed at improving students' academic achievement.

Dahir and Stone (2003) provided guidelines for school counselors to work with internal (e.g., principal, teachers) and external community (e.g., parents, business representatives) stakeholders to promote student developmental competencies. According to Dahir and Stone, school counselors can disaggregate data, which might show school-level patterns contrary to school improvement goals. For instance, one such pattern might be tracking students into rigorous classes by specific student demographic (i.e., race, socioeconomic level). Identifying inequitable class patterns could then serve as the basis for school counselors to work with stakeholders to change school policy to allow equal access into advanced placement classes. The aforementioned research studies indicated that school-university partnerships can be an effective way to implement leadership, collaboration, and advocacy that promotes equitable and improved student academic achievement. However, more focus on school counselors' leadership, collaboration, and advocacy pre-service and in-service training needs were still needed.

Trusty and Brown (2005) articulated a set of school counselor advocacy competencies, which could serve as a foundation for school counselor training in advocacy. Trusty and Brown's school counselor advocacy competencies form three categories: disposition, knowledge, and skills. Specifically, disposition concerns personal attributes that school counselors need to possess in order to gain the knowledge and skills needed to become effective advocates. For example, school counselors with an advocacy disposition are autonomous in their thinking and behavior; altruistic, with student well-being the major concern; and willing to take risks to help students

meet their needs (Trusty & Brown, 2005, p. 260). Advocates need to have knowledge of resources, parameters, dispute resolution mechanisms, advocacy models, and systems change. Skill areas include communications, collaborations, problem-assessment, problem-solving, organizational, and self-care (Trusty & Brown, 2005, p. 261). If advocacy models and research were to be helpful in promoting educational equity, more focus on school context was needed. Urban school settings are of particular interest given the high populations of minority students.

Several writers (Bryan, 2005; Green, Conley, & Barnett, 2005; Lee, 2005) articulated current thinking about school counselors working with school stakeholders to promote student learning and development in urban school settings. For example, Lee discussed the need for school counselors to “facilitate faculty development initiatives that focus on increasing awareness of the urban systemic factors that impinge upon student development or to introduce innovative methods for promoting student success in this environment” (p. 187). Green, Conley, and Barnett asserted that in order to effectively advocate for student development, school counselors in urban settings must be able to make the connection between student learning style and an ecological perspective. Lastly, Bryan proposed that school counselors should function as advocates to facilitate partnerships between schools, families, and communities as a means to provide protective factors that might lead to resilience in students.

Examples of school counselors and/or counselor educators working with stakeholders from real school situations may enhance practicing school counselors’ abilities to make practical use of the aforementioned research (Colbert & Magouirk Colbert, 2003; Dahir & Stone, 2003; Dimmitt, 2003), model (Trusty & Brown, 2005), and guidelines (Bryan, 2005; Green et al., 2005; Lee, 2005) to promote stakeholders’ participation in the school counseling programs. Such examples would need to include how to bridge stakeholders’ usual role with students and the ASCA student developmental competency standards. For instance, what is the connection between teachers’ instructional practices and school counseling program goals? In this manuscript, a case example of university faculty working with internal and external school stakeholders is provided that sought to (a) give stakeholders and students a common framework for gaining knowledge of students as learners and (b)

enhance stakeholders' abilities in their academic achievement-related roles with students.

School Setting and Introducing LP to Stakeholders

The participating school is a pre-kindergarten through eighth grade school with 581 students, located in a large Northeastern city in the United States. The racial/ethnic makeup consists of 69% Hispanic, 24% African American, 5% White, 2% Asian, and 1% American Indian. Sixty-six percent of students are eligible for free or reduced lunch. The project described included all students in grades 6, 7, and 8 (n = 132).

The primary goal of implementing LP in this school was to provide stakeholders with a specific way to organize students' unique combination of strengths, interests, experiences, and learning preferences that have been articulated in students' own words. Student perceptions were to be used to facilitate interventions to enhance student learning. Such interventions could take the form of classroom curriculum, school counseling program component activities, or family participation. The project began with a month of introduction of the LP (principles and guidelines for how it could be used) for all staff and parents through faculty in-service, a series of newsletters, and two Family Nights to which teachers, students, and family members were invited.

During the regular homeroom meeting, the LP was administered by all 6th, 7th, and 8th grade homeroom teachers over a three-day period (20 minutes each). Results were tallied, graphed, and compiled by classroom. Individual teachers received binders containing their homeroom students' LPs, and the principal and school counselor were given binders with copies of all student LPs.

Below is a case example of one student's completed LP to help the reader understand how a collaborative team might conceptualize the use of the Learning Prints. Following the case study is a discussion of how the school counselor in the participating school used LP with stakeholders. Additionally, the discussion will focus on how other school counselors might use LP to promote student learning across the three ASCA developmental domains (career, academic, and personal/social) in their collaborations with stakeholders for student academic achievement.

Case Example: Justin

This example of an actual eighth grade student (though the name has been changed) from the participating school illustrates the information provided in each LP section and describes how it provides a common framework for gaining knowledge of students as learners. Justin is considered by teachers as at-risk for academic failure and/or dropout. Teachers reported concerns that Justin (a) does not engage in classroom academic process, (b) has a negative attitude toward learning, and (c) is often a discipline problem.

The first section, *Strengths in School*, is about the subjects taught in school as can be seen in Figure 2. Also shown in Figure 2, the student, Justin, likes a broad selection of subjects. Of those he likes, he believes he is good at all, with the exception of math and reading. This is noteworthy since both math and reading are particularly important for future success; more specifically, student enrollment in advanced level math courses is associated with success in college (Trusty & Niles, 2003). With school counselors' current focus on maximizing student post secondary options for all students, this early indicator of potential future problems in math may offer a window into a student-counselor discussion of long-term educational goals. Justin also notes that social studies is his favorite subject. A basic question emerges from this section: Since Justin is not achieving in the classroom setting, what is the "disconnect" between his perceptions and current objective data? Exploring the answer to this question can be used as a basis for helping both the student and collaborative team develop awareness of this student's conception of his abilities in different areas. For example, the school counselor could help make connections between academic subjects in the classroom and how this connects with adult jobs as an opening for specific career counseling within a conversation that includes the student's own observations.

Justin lists only one topic in the next section, *Special Ideas to Explore*. While Justin reports spending time pursuing electronics/mechanics/technology, he clearly indicates that he is not allowing time for sports or performing arts. Again, this offers an opportunity for further clarification by the school counselor. Justin's responses to his interest in reading are also worthy of a conversation. Why does he like reading in school, but not as an interest area? Why does he spend no time

I. Strengths in School & Topics of Interest



A. Strengths in School This is about subjects taught in school. For example, math is one of my strengths. I like it and I am good at it. Reading, though, is not one of my strengths; I like to read very much. [It's okay to leave blanks.]

Subject Areas in School	*There are 2 columns because sometimes you won't like things you're good at, or vice versa.		Not taught in my class
	I Like It	I'm Good At It	
Reading	✓		
Mathematics	✓		
Social Studies	✓	✓	
Science	✓	✓	
Creative Writing			
Art	✓	✓	
Music	✓		
Drama/Dance			
Physical Education	✓	✓	
Technology/Computer	✓	✓	
Other			

What is your favorite subject? Social Studies

B. Special Ideas to Explore These are things I am curious about right now. For example, after watching a movie, I am very curious about how they do sound effects. That's my special topic to explore.



Special Topics or Ideas to Explore

How do game systems work.



C. General Areas of Interests These are things I am very interested in and spend time doing. For example, I love drawing, and I spend a great deal of time drawing, so I would put a 4 in both columns.

What are the areas that interest you most? Circle the number that shows how interested you are. Circle "4" for those you like best. Circle "1" if you don't like it.

General Interests

Which of these areas take lots of your time? Circle the number that shows how much time you spend in each interest area. Circle "4" for those you DO a lot. Circle "1" if you don't do it.

don't like ← → like a lot					no time ← → lots of time			
1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	Creative Writing (poetry, journals, writing for newspapers)	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	Reading (books, magazines)	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	Sports (swimming, playing balls, etc.)	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	Helping People (community service, volunteer work)	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	Politics/Leadership (local, community, state offices)	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	Electronics/Mechanics/Technology	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	Arts & Crafts	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	Performing Art (Acting, Music, Drama, & Dance)	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	Science	1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4	Nature (animals, dinosaurs, etc.)	1	2	3	4
Check Your Interest Level (see above)				Do you have other Specific Interest Areas?	Rate the Time (see above)			
1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4
1	2	3	4		1	2	3	4

FIGURE 2

My Learning Print: Part 1

reading books or magazines outside the classroom? Has he been exposed to engaging resources pertaining to his expressed interests?

Part II of LP is entitled Learning Style Preferences and is shown in Figure 3. The four sections in this part cover how a student prefers to learn new information, how he thinks about and remembers new information, the preferred conditions for

II. Learning Style Preferences



A. Ways to Learn

There are many ways to be taught new information. For example, I like to learn by reading. This is my preferred way to learn. What about you?

How do you feel when you ...				
Listen	listen to your teacher explain or tell you about a subject?		✓	
Vision	watch the teacher demonstrate or give an example?	✓		
Read	find out about a subject by reading?			✓
Get help from others	have a classmate or friend teach you?		✓	
	have somebody older help you?		✓	
Talk	talk/discuss assignments with friends?		✓	
Do	do learning games?	✓		
Use technology	use workbooks or computer programs?			✓
	take a class by yourself on a computer?			✓
	watch videos?			✓
Other ways to learn:				

B. Ways to Think

Everybody has his/her preferred way to remember new information. For example, I like to repeat from memory when I process new information. What about you?



When learning new information, do you like to ...				
Speak	repeat what the teacher said?			✓
	state it in your own words as if to explain to someone?			✓
Write	write a few sentences elaborating on it?	✓		
	make a list of its key features?			✓
	picture it in your mind?			✓
See	draw a diagram, map, or illustration of it?			✓
	think of good examples?		✓	
Think	think of past experiences that fit with or illustrate it?			✓
Understand	think of an analogy or metaphor for it (i.e., "This is like...")?			✓
Remember	think of ways to use it in real life? compare and fit it in with something you already know about?			✓
Do/ Practice	do a "hands-on" activity to try it?			✓
	find/use a formula or rule containing it?	✓		
	make up creative work containing it (story, poem, cartoon, etc.)?			✓



C. Best Conditions for Learning

People learn best in different conditions. For example, I learn best when there is some quiet background music, and it is early in the day. What about you?

How do you feel when you learn...				
Sound	with some sound (people talking or quiet music)?	✓		
Light	in bright light?			✓
Temperature	when it is warm?		✓	
Movement	when you sit still?			✓
Time	in the morning?			✓
Alone/ Group	alone?	✓		
	in a small group?	✓		
What other things make you a special learner?				

D. Ways to Show What I've learned

We each prefer different ways to show that we have learned something. For example, I like to make a presentation. What about you?



How do you like to show others what you have learned?				
Speak	make a presentation?			✓
	talk, discuss, or tell?			✓
Help others	help others do what you learned or lead others to understand?	✓		
Write	write an essay or story?			✓
	take a test?			✓
Apply	draw, using skills and creative imagination?	✓		
	make something to show?			✓
	act it out or demonstrate?			✓
Or other ways to show what you've learned				

FIGURE 3

My Learning Print: Part II

optimal learning, and preferences for showing what has been learned. It is important to note that Justin reported that he did not like to learn by reading, using workbook or computer programs, talking, through independent computer learning modules, or by watching a video. A "red flag" once again was raised with regard to reading. Note also the additional opportunity for

discussion as Justin reports a strong interest in electronics/mechanics/technology, yet does not see the use of technology as a preferred way to learn. Is this because of specific programs used within the classroom? Does he have a belief that learning activities cannot be enjoyable? What types of games does he select on his own? What insights might Justin provide into current or past unproductive or unsatisfying classroom experiences? With this information, the school counselor can collaborate more meaningfully with teachers to provide additional support. For example, if a counseling goal, as seen in Table 1, was "Use knowledge of learning styles to positively influence school performance," teachers and counselor could join together in problem solving how the classroom circumstances might be adjusted and how success of the change might be measured.

In the section *Ways to Think*, Justin showed that he preferred to remember and think about new information by writing a few sentences about it, and by finding/using a formula or rule that contains the new information. Notably, this student appeared to dislike many other strategies that might help him retain information. Has he not been exposed to or experimented with the wide variety of options?

Justin stated that his *Best Conditions for Learning* include some (i.e., background) sound, and either working alone or in a small group. He did not like bright light nor sitting still. How might these preferences have matched his actual classroom environments? Importantly, how might small changes demonstrate to Justin that his observations were valuable and that he was a respected participant in the learning community?

Finally, in *Ways to Show What I've Learned*, Justin liked to talk and discuss, help others or lead them to understand, and draw using skills and creative imagination. How often were these options available? He did not like to make a presentation, write an essay or story, make something to show, or act it out. Interestingly, Justin was neutral about test-taking. He did not insert any comments in response to the section's final question, "What other things make you a special learner?"

Part III of the LP is entitled, *Activities and Experiences*, and includes sub-sections regarding Out-of-Class Activities, Family Experiences, What I Do at Home, Hobbies and Collections, and Motivation, and is shown in Figure 4. The most revealing aspect of this section of Justin's LP was that there was very little information contained within the four aforementioned

TABLE 1
Student Information, ASCA Standards, and Related Interventions

Student: <u>Justin</u>	Date: _____	Case Review: _____			
Reasons for Review	ASCA National Standards	Academic Achievement and Performance	Student Input: My Learning Print	Applicable ASCA Competencies & Indicators	Interventions & Strategies
<p>1. Poor academic performance</p> <p>2. Discipline Problems</p> <p>3. "Attitude" & Behavior</p> <p>4. At-Risk for School failure, drop-out, "street-life"</p>	<p><u>Academic Standard B:</u> Students will complete school with the academic preparation essential to choose from a wide range of substantial post-secondary options including college.</p> <p><u>Personal/Social Standard A:</u> Students will acquire the knowledge, attitudes, and interpersonal skills to help them understand and respect self and others.</p> <p><u>Career Standard C:</u> Students will understand the relationship of academics to the world of work and to life at home and the community.</p>	<p><u>Math:</u> Above average State Academic Performance Test (CAPT)</p> <p><u>Reading:</u> Below average State Academic Performance Test (CAPT) Grades:</p> <p>Below average to failing on report card</p>	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> Likes math but perceives not good at math. Curious about how game systems work. Prefers to learn through demonstrations and/or learning games. Retains new information by writing and using formulas. Prefers to show what he has learned by talking about it, helping others, and creative imagination. Best conditions for learning: No background noise; prefers alone or in small groups. Extremely limited home activities and experiences. Expresses desire to learn. 	<p>A: B1–Improve Learning</p> <p>A: B1.6 Use knowledge of learning styles to positively influence school performance.</p> <p>PS-A1–Acquire Self-Knowledge</p> <p>PS-A1.1 Develop positive attitudes toward self as a unique and worthy person.</p> <p>PS-A1.5 Identify and express feelings.</p> <p>PS-A1.10 Identify personal strengths and assets.</p> <p>A: C1–Relate School to Life Experiences</p> <p>A: C1.6 Understand how school success and academic achievement enhance future career and vocational opportunities.</p>	<p>Individual counseling</p> <p>Group counseling</p> <p>Consultation/collaboration with teachers (math & science)</p> <p>Teachers incorporate LP into class lessons</p> <p>Guest lectures (computer/games' specialist)</p> <p>Mentoring (community member with past "street-life" experience)</p> <p>Job shadowing</p> <p>Career counseling/abilities</p>

III. Activities and Experiences

A. Out-of-classroom Activities

These are the things I do after school or when I am not in the classroom. For example, I learn to play the guitar with my teacher at the Community Center. And I've gone there for 2 years. What about you?



Activities, Clubs, and Lessons I Do/Have done Outside the Classroom	How Long?
Boys and girls club	2 months

B. Family Experiences

These are the things about my family members and me. For example, we have a dog in our home that we are training to be a "seeing-eye dog." This is one of my family experiences. What about you?

Family Activities and Special Experiences



C. What I Do At Home

These are things I enjoy doing at home. For example, I just read the latest "Harry Potter." I walk my dog every day. What about you?

What I Do At Home
Watch tv
Eat
sleep
Play Video games

D. Hobbies and Collections

These are things I do for fun. For example, I like to draw cartoons for fun. I also collect baseball caps. This is my hobby. What about you?



Hobbies and Collections	How long?
Basketball	2yr

E. Motivation

This is something that makes you move forward. It is like gas for a car. It is necessary to get the car started, and it keeps the car going. For example, I am motivated to learn to play the guitar because I want to be able to play and sing for people and I like the sound of it. What about you?



Motivation
I like to learn because it teaches me new things
I want to learn because I want to become a better person
Learning is easier for me when they explain it to me multiple times
Learning is more difficult for me when they don't help me

FIGURE 4

My Learning Print: Part III

sub-sections pertaining to activities that involve him outside of school. For example, the only reported activity was two months of participation in Boys and Girls Club. Justin did not report any family experiences. With that knowledge, a school counselor might gently explore Justin's reasons for not mentioning anything about his family. Justin reported that the things he

enjoyed doing at home were: watching TV, eating, sleeping, and playing video games. He included only basketball in the section about hobbies and collections.

The final section of LP consists of four open-ended questions about motivation. Based on Justin's completion of the four stems, it seemed clear that Justin wanted to learn and had a sense that becoming educated was an important piece of becoming a "better person." He also indicated that he was aware that he required repetition to reinforce his learning. In the next to the last stem, he recognized the value of teachers who would take time to explain concepts to him more than once. By completing the LP, Justin gave several clues into his failure to thrive in the current school setting. It was, of course, up to the collaborative team to use this information to help Justin connect, fully participate, and properly achieve in his schooling.

Discussion

The ASCA National Model (2007) calls for school counselors to collaborate with stakeholders for student achievement. In this case example, university faculty facilitated collaboration among school counselors and other internal stakeholders (teachers, administrators) and external stakeholders (parents) to address student learning. Specifically, information in Table 1 provided an outline of precise interventions and related ASCA outcomes school counselors could use to engage stakeholders in Justin's learning. While all interventions were not actually implemented, accounts of strategies implemented are presented next.

The data from LP was used by the school counselor as a basis for collaboration with Justin's teachers during his eighth grade year. First, the school counselor presented the LP data as conceptualized in the aforementioned discussion to Justin's teachers, who were able to utilize it to begin making improvements in his schooling. For example, teachers incorporated his strength of using formulas to remember information by introducing different recall techniques. These strategies served to meet both school counseling program goals and classroom instructional goals, as shown in Table 1.

Second, with encouragement from the school counselor and his teachers, Justin shared his interests in computer games and emerged as a leader in his Advisory group where students "showcased" their special interests. Finally, Justin entered

into a behavioral contract with his teachers and the school counselor. With teachers and the school counselor using the data from Justin's LP, he was able to begin to engage in classroom academic lessons and with fewer discipline "outbursts." Due to time constraints, collaboration with families beyond initial introduction of LP during family night did not occur. Below is a discussion of how the school counselor might have expanded collaboration, leadership, and advocacy to include family members and communities members in Justin's learning.

In the family experience, Justin did not report anything. A school counselor could explore with the student reasons for not mentioning anything about their family. Implications from such an exploration might suggest the need for individual counseling and/or group counseling for kids with similar family situations. Students would be able to provide support for each other with whatever the family commonality might be. Likewise, the interview with the student might reveal a need for the family to receive any number of community resources that would put them in a better position to help develop and/or enhance their child's academic, personal/social, and career development (Bryan, 2005). School counselors could work with school social workers, as well as community mental health professionals, to discuss service possibilities provided by these professionals. Even though the aforementioned implications might be appropriate, it is important to state that one must be careful to respect different cultures' patterns and norms of interactions between children and adult family members. Regardless of the outcomes of interviews with students and/or parents, school counselors might strive to bring families (who might not participate on their own) into the ongoing collaboration among stakeholders.

The primary strength of LP for promoting student learning is that it allows students' voices to be fully integrated into the learning process. Justin lived in a community where many influences work against his formal educational success. For example, the street life offers students an "easy" means of making lots of money without having to succeed in school. In addition to the aforementioned integration of LP into Justin's learning, school counselors in schools with similar demographics as Justin's could use LP to better draw students into the schooling process. For example, inviting community members (including family members) with past experience in the

“street-life” into the classroom (i.e., guidance lessons and/or general instructional classes) might promote motivation to succeed in school. Such learning experiences could help instill the academic, personal/social, and career ASCA standards and competencies outlined in Table 1. Drawing upon knowledge of negative influences within students’ very own communities to develop positive learning experiences for students would be following both Green et al. (2005) and Lee’s (2005) suggestions that school counselors help stakeholders understand the specific systemic and ecological factors within the urban setting that impacts students’ learning. Additionally, utilizing community members as resources to motivate students toward academic success is consistent with what Bryan (2005) referred to in recommending that school counselors utilize family and community members as resources in education.

Conclusion

Learning Print is not an instrument that can be utilized to its fullest effect unless someone in the school takes the responsibility for administering, interpreting, and providing leadership for other school stakeholders to utilize LP in their roles for student learning and development. School counselors are ideal school professionals for being in “charge” of Learning Prints, given the ASCA’s (2007) call for school counselors to function as leaders, advocates, and collaborators with stakeholders in promoting student learning.

School counselors can use data from LP to identify specific interventions that connects theirs’ and other stakeholders’ student outcomes, as shown in Table 1. This would demonstrate to stakeholders that school counselors have what Trusty and Brown (2005) refer to as problem-assessment skills in their advocacy model. According to Palladino Schultheiss (2005) and Dimmitt (2003), school stakeholders are more willing to collaborate with school counselors who can demonstrate competence in helping to address specific student related issues. As stakeholders gain more confidence in school counselors’ ability to show competence in collaboration, more opportunities might exist for school counselors to engage in advocacy and leadership skills as well (Trusty & Brown, 2005).

Finally, using LP to work with other stakeholders as discussed here might, overtime, create professional development

communities (Colbert & Magouirk Colbert, 2003) (e.g., stakeholders working together to help students become aware of how each learns best, and to guide every child in becoming responsible as an independent learner). Given the importance of knowledge of urban environments' ecological and systemic influences on students' learning (Green et al., 2005; Lee, 2005), as discussed in this manuscript and presented in Table 1, professional development communities should include student family and community members (Bryan, 2005). These types of interventions would allow school personnel and families/community members to participate in the kinds of conversations that students desire and with a clear focus on student academic achievement.

References

- American School Counselor Association (2007). *The ASCA national model: A framework for school counseling programs*. Alexandria, VA: Author.
- Britzman, M. J. (2005). Improving our moral landscape via character education: An opportunity for school counseling leadership. *Professional School Counseling, 8*(3), 293-295.
- Bryan, J. (2005). Fostering educational resilience and achievement in urban schools through school family community partnerships. *Professional School Counseling, 8*(3), 219-227.
- Colbert, R. D., & Magouirk Colbert, M. (2003). School counselor involvement in culture-centered education reform. In P. B. Pederson & J. C. Carey (Eds.), *Multicultural Counseling in Schools: A Practical Handbook* (pp. 3-26). Boston, MA: Allyn and Bacon.
- Colbert, R. D., Pérusse, R., Reiner, S., Twomey, J., & Lucky, J. (in press). A school-university partnership: Key for developing and implementing a school-wide data-driven guidance curriculum. *New York State School Counseling Association Journal*.
- Dahir, C. A., & Stone, C. B. (2003). Accountability: A M. E. A. S. U. R. E. of the impact school counselors have on student achievement. *Professional School Counseling, 6*, 214-221.
- Dimmitt, C. (2003). Transforming school counseling practice through collaboration and the use of data: A study of academic failure in high school. *Professional School Counseling, 6*(5), 340-349.
- Dollarhide, C. T. (2003). School counselors as program leaders: Applying leadership contexts to school counseling. *Professional School Counseling, 6*(5), 304-308.
- Dunn, R., Dunn, K., & Price, G. E. (1985). *Learning style inventory*. Lawrence, KS: Price Systems, Inc.
- Field, J. E. & Baker, S. (2004). Defining and examining school counselor advocacy. *Professional School Counseling, 8*(1), 56-63.
- Gardner, H. (1993). *Multiple intelligences: The theory in practice*. New York: Basic Books.
- Green, A. G., Conley, J. A., & Barnett, K. (2005). Urban school counseling:

- Implications for practice and training. *Professional School Counseling*, 8(3), 189–195.
- Gysbers, N. C. (2006). Improving school guidance and counseling practices through effective and sustained state leadership: A response to Miller. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(3), 245–247.
- House, R. M., & Sears, S. J. (2002). Preparing school counselors to be leaders and advocates: A critical need in the new millennium. *Theory Into Practice*, 41(3), 154–162.
- Kaffenberger, C. J., Murphy, S., & Bemak, F. (2006). School counseling leadership team: A statewide collaborative model to transform school counseling. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(4), 288–294.
- Kiselica, M. S., & Robinson, M. (2001). Bringing advocacy counseling to life: The history, issues and human dramas of social justice work in counseling. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 79(4), 387–397.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Lee, C. C. (2005). Urban school counseling: Context, characteristics, and competencies. *Professional School Counseling*, 8(3), 184–188.
- Levine, M., Levine, M. D., & Reed, M. (1998). *Developmental variation and learning disorders* (2nd ed.). Cambridge, MA: Educators Publishing Service.
- Miller, D. (2006). How collaboration and research can affect school counseling: The Minnesota story. *Professional School Counseling*, 9(3), 238–244.
- Palladino Schultheiss, D. E. (2005). University-urban school collaboratives in school counseling. *Professional School Counseling*, 8(4), 330–336.
- Purcell, J. H., & Renzulli, J. S. (1998). *Total talent portfolio: A systematic plan to identify and nurture gifts and talents*. Mansfield Center, CT: Creative Learning Press.
- Renzulli, J. S. (1977). *The Interest-A-Lyzer family of instruments*. Mansfield Center, CT: Creative Learning Press, Inc.
- Renzulli, J. S., & Reis, S. M. (1985). *The schoolwide enrichment model: A comprehensive plan for educational excellence*. Mansfield Center, CT: Creative Learning Press.
- Renzulli, J. S., & Smith, L. H. (1978). *The Learning Style Inventory: A measure of student preference for instructional techniques*. Mansfield Center, CT: Creative Learning Press.
- Schader, R. M., & Zhou, W. (2007). *My Learning Print™*. Storrs, CT: Neag Center for Gifted Education and Talent Development.
- Schawallie-Giddis, P., ter Maat, M., & Pak, M. (2003). Initiating leadership by introducing and implementing the ASCA National Model. *Professional School Counseling*, 6(3), 171–173.
- Sternberg, R. J. (1997). *Thinking styles*. New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Trusty, J., & Brown, D. (2005). Advocacy competencies for professional school counselors. *Professional School Counseling*, 8(3), 259–265.
- Trusty, J., & Niles, S. G. (2003). High school math courses and completion if the bachelor's degree. *Professional School Counseling* 7, 99–107.
- Wickman, S. A. (2004). Advocacy for above average students. *Professional School Counseling*, 7(5), 378–379.
- Zimmerman, B. J., Bandura, A., & Martinez-Pons, M. (Autumn, 1992). Self-Motivation for Academic Attainment: The Role of Self-Efficacy Beliefs and Personal Goal Setting. *American Educational Research Journal*, 29(3), 663–676.

College Preparation Programming for Prospective First-Generation College Students

Melinda M. Gibbons, PhD, NCC

Approximately 27% of all high school graduates have parents who lack any postsecondary education. These students, typically called prospective first-generation college students, demonstrate academic, demographic, and college-related differences from their peers whose parents have had some exposure to college. As part of the goal to serve all students, school counselors must learn about first-generation college students and find effective ways to help them succeed at the postsecondary level. This article describes prospective first-generation college students and provides information on effective college-preparatory programming for these underserved students. Specific components for this type of programming are provided.

Prospective first-generation college students, or those who would be the first in their families to attend college, represent a substantial portion of the kindergarten through twelfth grade (K–12) population. A recent study (Horn & Nunez, 2000) revealed that 27% of all graduating high school seniors can be classified as first-generation. Most of the research to date, however, has focused on this population once they have arrived at college rather than examining their needs while they are still in K–12. As the American School Counseling Association National Model (ASCA, 2003) makes clear, school counselors must address the academic, personal/social, and career needs of *all* students. Therefore, school counselors have an obligation to learn about prospective first-generation college students and how to help them prior to their arrival at college. The purpose of this paper is to describe first-generation college

Melinda M. Gibbons, PhD, NCC, Assistant Professor, Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling, University of Tennessee. Correspondence concerning this message should be addressed to Melinda M. Gibbons, PhD, NCC, Assistant Professor, Department of Educational Psychology and Counseling, University of Tennessee, 441 Claxton Complex, Knoxville, TN 37996 (e-mail: mgibbon2@utk.edu).

students and provide specific interventions to help them in the college preparation process.

First-Generation College Students

Since most research on first-generation college students examines them once they reach college, most of the data on this population is about college enrollees. It is known that first-generation college students demonstrate differences in college attendance and persistence beyond factors solely related to academic preparedness (Warburton, Bugarin, Nunez, & Carroll, 2001), socioeconomic status, college type, full-time college attendance (Nunez & Cuccaro-Alamin, 1998), cognitive development, socioeconomic status, grades, ethnicity, and gender (Pascarella, Wolniak, Pierson, & Terenzini, 2003). Thus, it seems clear that being the first in the family to go to college leads to differences in persistence and performance in college. First-generation students seem to represent a unique combination of demographic and personality traits, academic knowledge, and college-related variables that create these overall differences in college-going.

Demographic and Personal Beliefs

First-generation college students differ demographically from other college students. Bui (2002) found that first-generation students were more likely to be of an ethnic minority, come from lower income families, and speak English as a second language than students of parents with at least some college education. Horn and Nunez (2000), in a national study, found that half of first-generation students were from low-income families as compared to less than one-third of students with parents who had some college education and less than 10% of those whose parents graduated from college. In comparison to children of college graduates, these first-generation students also were more likely to be Hispanic or Black. Other recent studies (e.g., Gibbons, Borders, Wiles, Stephan, & Davis, 2006; Inman & Mayes, 1999) have demonstrated these results as well.

Researchers also have begun identifying personal belief differences between first-generation students and their peers. First-generation students have a strong desire to attend college (Solorzano, 1992) but, unlike their peers, see college pri-

marily as a way to gain respect and status, bring honor to the family, and assist with family finances (Bui, 2002). These students may be planning to attend college for different reasons than their peers.

First-generation students also perceive more barriers to college-going than their peers who have college-educated parents. They perceive barriers related to financial issues, college preparedness, ethnic discrimination, lack of and negative role models, lack of guidance and support, and family responsibilities (Gibbons, 2005). In addition, they report lower academic self-efficacy (McGregor, Mayleben, Buzzanga, Davis, & Becker, 1991) and lower college-going self-efficacy and outcome beliefs (Gibbons). They often believe that they know less about the social environment of college and have greater fear of failing than their counterparts (Bui, 2002). These differences suggest that first-generation students have needs related to demographic differences and personal beliefs that can be addressed prior to arriving at college.

Academic and College-Related Variables

First-generation students also have been found to differ both in academic preparation as well as academic achievement before and during college. Researchers (Horn & Nunez, 2000) examined a national sample of high school graduates and identified several differences related to math courses. Only 14% of first-generation students took algebra in eighth-grade, but 34% of students of college graduates did so. This is a significant difference because Algebra while in middle school is considered a path to completing advanced math in high school, a requirement for entrance to most four-year universities, and linked to college success. The researchers also found that only 22% of first-generation students took advanced math in high school, as compared to 61% of students of college graduates.

Warburton et al. (2001) also reported differences in academic preparation among a national sample of first-generation college students. They observed that 40% of first-generation students did not go beyond the basic core academic curriculum (i.e., four years of English and three years each of math, science, and social studies) versus only 28% of other students. In addition, while only 9% of first-generation students took a rigorous course track that included advanced sciences, addi-

tional math, three years of foreign language, and at least one honors course, 22% of non-first-generation students completed this track. Riehl (1994) found that first-generation students had lower SAT scores and high school grade point averages than their peers. With less academic preparation, it is not surprising that differences in academic achievement at college exist as well. Academically, first-generation college students are at-risk early because of their lack of rigorous coursework, which then translates into lower academic achievement in both high school and college.

Overall, first-generation college students differ from their peers. Many of these differences contribute to the difficulties they have once they arrive at college. School counselors can address perceived barriers, multicultural issues, academic preparation, and college beliefs while prospective first-generation college students are still in the K-12 system. This, in turn, may help these students attend college at higher rates and be more successful in their post-secondary pursuits.

Implications for College-Prep Programming

Prospective first-generation college students are more likely to choose their high school plan of study with peers rather than with parents, but are no more likely to turn to a teacher or counselor for help than are other students (Horn & Nunez, 2000). Given the potential difficulties faced by these students, it is imperative that school counselors take the first steps in helping. School counselors are the primary providers of college-preparation programs, and they can be effective helpers in guiding first-generation students and their parents toward post-secondary options. Specifically, school counselors can help with increasing academic preparation, involving parents, providing accurate college information, and addressing perceived barriers to college-going.

Academic Preparation

In middle school, school counselors can work to ensure that more prospective first-generation college students take Algebra I. Since higher levels of math in high school increase the chances of college enrollment (Horn & Nunez, 2000), taking Algebra while in middle school can dramatically increase the post-secondary possibilities for these students. In addition,

school counselors can educate parents about the need for higher level math courses for their students. Math interventions must take place early since mastery of specific math constructs is needed to be successful in Algebra.

Tierney, Colyer, and Corwin (2003) recommended that college-bound students take a rigorous academic curriculum, including at least four years of English and math, three years of science (including physics and chemistry), three years of social studies and foreign language, and at least one advanced or honors level course. To make this happen, efforts need to begin before high school and services such as tutoring, test preparation, study skills, and academic counseling need to be offered in middle school. For example, Cunningham, Redmond, and Merisotis (2003) examined college preparation programs to determine what programmatic aspects were most important. Their analyses showed that tutoring, mentoring, and academic enrichment were vital components. Additionally, starting in middle school and having ongoing programming throughout high school was vital to college-going success. Helping all students master basic concepts in math and English and encouraging introduction of a foreign language can make dramatic differences in post-secondary success.

Parent Involvement

Horn, Chen, and Adelman (2002) found that parent involvement, parent-student conversations about college issues, high educational expectations by parents, and participation in college preparation activities are major influences on college-going rates. School counselors in grades K-8 can help encourage parental involvement in their student's education. They can provide programs that give realistic information about college-going and help parents understand that course choices made in elementary and middle school directly affect their student's ability to be successful in college.

Perna and Titus (2004) examined the relationship between parent involvement and college enrollment and found that the odds of attending college increased with the frequency of parent-student conversations about education-related topics. Often, parents of first-generation college students want to be involved but believe they lack the knowledge needed to effectively assist their children in post-secondary planning (Gibbons et al., 2006). Professional school counselors can en-

courage parents to network, empower them by helping them learn about college, and assist them with creating opportunities to work as advocates for their children.

One way to address this perceived inability to help is to create more positive interactions between the school and non-college-educated parents. Often, these parents feel uncomfortable in a school environment because of their lack of experience in education or their own negative school experiences. One option to address this is to involve the local community. Newsletters containing information for parents can be read during announcements at local places of worship. Parent meetings can be held off school grounds at a public library or community center. These simple steps can help increase parent comfort level and, eventually, involvement.

Accurate College Information

Co-curricular activities, which include both school- and community-based events outside the classroom, are vital in helping provide information about college. These could include college visits, service learning opportunities, or trips to cultural events on college campuses. Partnering with civic groups to help with these activities is recommended (Tierney et al., 2003). These events can help insure that counselors are not working alone to help with college preparation.

Since first-generation students often hold inaccurate beliefs about the cost of college (Gibbons et al., 2006), providing information on financial aid, actual costs of two- and four-year colleges, and available grants can be especially helpful. Often, high schools wait until senior year to offer a financial aid workshop; offering this type of program to ninth or tenth grade students may help offset the inaccurate belief that college is unaffordable. College representatives from schools with special programs for first-generation students can be invited to present at these workshops as well.

College-Related Barriers

School counselors must recognize the number of perceived barriers to college-going held by first-generation college students. Individual and small group counseling can address long-term planning, course planning, connecting academics and work, and family dynamics and interactions, all geared toward college and career planning (Tierney et al., 2003).

These activities can help address a perceived lack of college preparedness and lack of guidance. Combining personal, career, and academic counseling issues to create a holistic perspective designed to create future success can be particularly effective.

Special attention to cultural differences can help address barriers related to discrimination and lack of college-educated role models. As discussed earlier, first-generation students are more likely to be of minority descent, so discussions about bilingualism, biculturalism, and ethnic values are very important (Tierney et al., 2003). Ethnically diverse mentors can be assigned to help provide these students with role models to whom they can relate.

Conclusion

The purpose of this article was to provide information on prospective first-generation college students and offer ideas to improve college-preparation programming for this underserved group. Effective college-preparation programs for these students begin no later than middle school and include a range of services (Osterreich, 2000), including academic readiness, concrete information about college, parent involvement, and attention to perceived barriers to college-going.

It is vital to remember that the components are helpful in the college preparation of all students, but that first-generation students are more likely to need these services than are students whose parents have firsthand knowledge of college-going. It is important to remember that school counselors alone are not responsible for implementing college prep programs for their students, but that the idea may need to start with them. School counselors can make significant changes in the lives of their students by increasing their chances for post-secondary opportunities and successes.

References

- American School Counseling Association (ASCA, 2003). *The ASCA National Model: A framework for school counseling programs* (2nd ed.). Alexandria, VA: Author.
- Bui, K. V. T. (2002). First-generation college students at four-year university: Background characteristics, reasons for pursuing higher education, and first-year experiences. *College Student Journal*, 36, 3–11.
- Cunningham, A., Redmond, C., & Merisotis, J. (2003). *Investing early: Inter-*

- vention programs in selected U.S. states (Report No. UD 035609). Montreal, Canada: Millennium Research Series (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 475203).
- Gibbons, M. M. (2005). *College-going beliefs of prospective first-generation college students: Perceived barriers, social supports, self-efficacy, and outcome expectations*. Unpublished dissertation.
- Gibbons, M. M., Borders, L. D., Wiles, M. E., Stephan, J., & Davis, P. E. (2006). The career and college needs of ninth graders—as reported by ninth graders. *Professional School Counseling, 10*, 168–178.
- Horn, L., Chen, X., & Adelman, C. (2002). *Toward resiliency: At-risk students who make it to college*. Washington, D.C.: Office of Educational Research and Improvement, U.S. Department of Education.
- Horn, L., & Nunez, A. (2000). *Mapping the road to college: First-generation students' math track, planning strategies, and context of support* (NCES Report 00-153). Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education.
- Inman, W. E., & Mayes, L. (1999). The importance of being first: Unique characteristics of first generation community college students. *Community College Review, 26*, 3–22.
- McGregor, L. N., Mayleben, M. A., Buzzanga, M. A., Davis, S. F., & Becker, A. H. (1991). Selected personality characteristics of first-generation college students. *College Student Journal, 25*, 231–234.
- Nunez, A., & Cuccaro-Alamin, S. (1998). *First-generation students: Undergraduates whose parents never enrolled in postsecondary education* (NCES Report 98-082). Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education.
- Osterreich, H. (2000). *Characteristics of effective urban college preparation programs* (Report No. EDO-UD-00-8). New York: Institute for Urban and Minority Education (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 448-244).
- Pascarella, E. T., Wolniak, G. C., Pierson, C. T., & Terenzini, P. T. (2003). Experiences and outcomes of first-generation students in community colleges. *Journal of College Student Development, 44*, 420–429.
- Perna, L. W., & Titus, M. A. (2004). The relationship between parental involvement as social capital and college enrollment: An examination of racial/ethnic differences. *Journal of Higher Education, 76*, 71–82.
- Riehl, R. J. (1994). The academic preparation, aspirations, and first-year performance of first-generation students. *College and University, 70*, 14–19.
- Solorzano, D. G. (1992). An exploratory analysis of the effects of race, class, and gender on student and parent mobility aspirations. *Journal of Negro Education, 61*, 30–43.
- Tierney, W. G., Colyar, J. E., & Corwin, Z. B. (2003). *Preparing for college: Building expectations, changing realities*. Los Angeles, CA: The Center for Higher Education Policy Analysis, Rosser School of Education, University of Southern California.
- Warburton, E. C., Bugarin, R., Nunez, A., & Carroll, C. D. (2001). *Bridging the gap: Academic preparation and postsecondary success of first-generation students* (NCES Report 2001-153). Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, U.S. Department of Education.

Counseling Students' Perceptions About the Need for Wellness Planning

Mary Ann Hollingsworth, EdS, LPC &
Julia Y. Porter, PhD, LPC, NCSC

Wellness can be defined as a quest for maximum human functioning of mind, body, and spirit. Wellness includes the choice to assume responsibility for one's quality of life. An exploratory study was conducted with 31 students enrolled in a graduate counselor education program to assess how graduate students in counseling viewed wellness planning as a personal need and how graduate students in counseling engaged in wellness planning. Results indicate that the major area in which personal planning occurred was for occupational wellness with perceived need indicated for planning in the areas of occupational, physical, and financial wellness. A majority of participants indicated perceived potential benefit from further training and assistance in wellness planning.

Students who pursue graduate degrees in counseling are preparing for a profession that was defined, in 1957, as one concerned with all aspects of development, including psychological, physical, and social dimensions (Myers, 1992). Myers describes wellness as a pursuit of maximum human functioning of body, mind, and spirit together. Living a lifestyle oriented to wellness has been shown through research to correlate positively with mental health (Bauldauf, 1991) and with overall quality of life throughout the lifespan (Hermon & Hazler, 1999; Myers, 1991). The attainment of lifespan wellness includes a choice to assume responsibility for the quality of life (Ardell, 2000). An individual can exercise this choice through wellness planning.

Wellness planning might well be defined as a parallel to treatment planning, which was defined by Seligman (1993) as "the process of plotting out the counseling process so that both

Mary Ann Hollingsworth, EdS, LPC, School Counselor, Meridian Public Schools; Julia Y. Porter, PhD, LPC, NCSC, Associate Professor of Counselor Education, Mississippi State University—Meridian. Correspondence concerning this article should be addressed to Mary Ann Hollingsworth, EdS, LPC, School Counselor, Meridian Public Schools, 3930 14th Street, Meridian, MS 39307 (e-mail: mahollingsworth@mps.k12.ms.us).

counselor and client have a road map that delineates how they will proceed from their point of origin (the client's concerns and underlying difficulties) to their destination, alleviate troubling and dysfunctional symptoms and patterns, and establish improved coping mechanisms and self esteem" (p. 289). Modification of this definition to that of wellness planning could be the process of developing a road map to delineate how one would proceed from the current state of wellness to the state of maximum human functioning of mind, body, and spirit as described by Myers (1992).

This study was conducted with a premise that adoption of a wellness paradigm and practice of wellness planning could have impact in three ways: (a) impact on the student while in training to become a counselor, (b) later impact on the person as a counselor in practice, and (c) impact on the clients with whom the counselor works. The study examined personal application of wellness planning for 31 students enrolled in a graduate counselor education program. Data collected included how these students viewed wellness planning as a personal need and how these students currently engaged in wellness planning.

Literature Review

Review of the literature supports a focus on wellness for graduate students in counseling as a framework for student self-care and as a foundation paradigm for later work as a professional counselor to continue self-care and to help clients toward wellness lifestyles. Specific precedence for this comes from the 1989 resolution by the American Counseling Association to advocate for optimum health and wellness (Myers, 1992) and the acknowledgment by counseling textbook author Corey (2005) that two central functions of counseling are to help clients enhance use of personal strengths and to use the counselor's self as an instrument in doing this with clients. Provision of professional counseling from a wellness paradigm would then begin with personal development of the counselor toward wellness of self from graduate training in counselor preparation to practice in the field.

Myers, Mobley, and Booth (2003) noted that standards for counselor preparation by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) en-

couraged graduate programs to consider students' personal development in both the selection process and in assessment of student progress through a counselor education program. Myers, Mobley, and Booth noted that "counselors are often called on to model healthy behaviors for their clients" (p. 271). As counselors move from the graduate classroom to practice in the field, a wellness orientation could enable them to make choices that are in their own best interest as well as enhance the counselor role in facilitation of best choices by clients.

Although a focus on wellness might be advantageous in counseling (both graduate training and in practice), there have been barriers to a pro-active practice of wellness. Research has indicated that barriers to implementation of a wellness program included multiple personal obligations and inappropriate timing of programs or services (Gilmore, 1993), lack of readiness before working on a wellness program (Majocho, 2000), failure to establish measurable objectives (Kostelnik, 1996), and sacrifice of self-care in the process of caring for others (O'Halloran & Linton, 2000). Wellness-planning could integrate wellness into the practice of counseling. Students who are training to be counselors could acquire experiential learning through use of wellness planning while still students.

Section A.1.c. of the American Counseling Association Code of Ethics (2005) indicated that counselors and clients would jointly devise plans to offer a reasonable promise of success and that these plans would be regularly reviewed. Granello (2000) discussed parallels between the use of theory, assessment, and treatment planning for traditional practice, which addresses problems and mental illness, and the use of similar concepts with a practice focus on wellness, which emphasizes the importance of developing personal wellness plans with clients.

While counseling focuses on individual clients or families, counselors can learn from wellness planning that has been done within organizations. Fine (2005) discussed passage of a law in Florida in 2004 (Florida, 1629), which offered money back to employers for encouraging their employees to live healthier lives. Measurement of this was via health status indicators, such as weight reduction or smoking cessation. Wellness planning at an organizational level has been documented as providing benefit in industry, such as containment of health-care costs, reduction of absenteeism, and improvement of employee health (Bulow-Hube, 1986; Hutchins, 2000;

Bourne, 1998). Use of wellness planning in the organizational world provides a model for use in the world of counseling.

Wellness and Counselors

Graduate students in counselor training usually practice as they were trained. O'Halloran and Linton (2000) indicated that often counselors were trained to care for others and overlooked self-care. These authors emphasized the importance of using wellness self-care strategies in the practice of counseling. They included need for self-care prevention in six domains: (a) social, (b) emotional, (c) cognitive, (d) physical, (e) spiritual, and (f) vocational. Britt (1997) noted that leaders in counselor training programs could perpetuate harm through lack of self-care by inadequate teaching or supervision to counselors in training, and poor modeling to these students on self-care. These same leaders could perpetuate benefit through attention to self-care by inclusion of wellness planning in counselor training programs.

Bockrath (1999) indicated the ethical responsibility of counselors to do no harm to clients and that to do no harm, it was important for counselors to sustain their own well-being. These recommendations fit with the Code of Ethics for the American Counseling Association (2005), Section C, on professional responsibility. An example is self-care activity to maintain and promote emotional, physical, mental, and spiritual well-being. This self-care supports a counselor in meeting professional responsibilities and refraining from offering personal services when personal problems or conflicts could cause harm to clients or others. Wellness planning could help promote self-care to promote optimum fulfillment of professional responsibilities.

Myers, Mobley, and Booth (2003) studied wellness among 263 graduate students in counseling to assess levels of wellness of counseling students, comparison of wellness between counseling students and people in general, and within group differences of counseling students such as gender, graduate status, and ethnicity. The method of study was analysis of the 3,043 adult norm population for the Wellness Evaluation of Lifestyle (WEL) by Myers, Sweeney, and Witmer (2000). The 263 graduate students were members of this norm population. The WEL measured the characteristics of spirituality, self-direction, work and leisure, friendship, and love. Self-direction was divided into 12 subtasks: sense of worth, sense of control,

realistic beliefs, emotional awareness and coping, problem solving and creativity, sense of humor, nutrition, exercise, self-care, stress management, gender identity, and cultural identity. The WEL also included an overall scale of Total Wellness. While finding that these graduate students tended to experience greater wellness than the general population, Myers, Mobley, and Booth noted that there was still a great need to regularly assess wellness of graduate students, to continue to raise awareness among counseling students about wellness lifestyles, and to further identify effective interventions to enhance wellness. Employment of wellness planning into counselor education programs could assist in meeting this need.

Models of Wellness

Various models of wellness exist as a framework for wellness planning. Models examined for this study included multiple components. In 1981, Ryan and Travis presented a Wellness Index, with accompanying self-report inventory, which related wellness to 12 areas: self-responsibility and love, breathing, sensing, eating, moving, feeling, thinking, playing and working, communicating, sex, finding meaning, and transcending. The global functioning of military personnel has been considered the foundation from which the military attains success in its operations (Cassel, 1993). Cassel described this global functioning as a composite of physical fitness along with ability to function effectively in the multiple areas of a military member's life, including occupational, social, and psychological domains. Cassel considered global functioning and wellness to be "intimately related" (p. 195).

Myers and Sweeney (2005) developed a current model of wellness, The Indivisible Self, which resulted from factor analysis of an earlier wellness model, The Wheel of Wellness, which Myers and Sweeney began developing in 1991 (Myers, Sweeney, & Witmer, 2000). The Indivisible Self Model includes a highest order factor of Wellness and five second order factors with subdivisions into 17 third order factors. These are Essential Self, composed of spirituality, self-care, gender identity, and cultural identity; Creative Self, composed of thinking, emotions, control, positive humor, and work; Coping Self, composed of realistic beliefs, stress management, self-worth, and leisure; Social Self, composed of friendship and love; and Physical Self, composed of exercise and nutrition. This model

also provides for contextual variables of local systems, such as family or community; global systems, such as politics or culture; and a chronometrical context, which recognizes that people have important changes occur over time throughout their lifespan.

Provision of counseling services within a paradigm of wellness is present within some university level counseling centers. The Counseling Center at Mississippi State University (2001) uses the National Wellness Institute Model (1998), which has the six dimensions of Social, Physical, Intellectual, Occupational, Emotional, and Spiritual. The Psychological Counseling and Wellness Center for California State University, Chico (2001) uses a model with eight dimensions: Social, Cultural, Physical, Spiritual, Emotional, Intellectual, Life Planning, and Environmental. The Thaggard Student Health Center at Florida State University (2001) uses a six dimension model in the promotion of health enhancement for its campus population: Cultural, Emotional, Environmental, Intellectual, Spiritual, and Life Planning. Common dimensions of wellness across models included: Social, Physical, Intellectual, Emotional, Work and Leisure, and Spiritual.

Wellness Planning

Ardell (2001) indicated that most people who sustained desired changes in their lives did so on their own. To help speed the process so that things fall into place sooner, Ardell advised that a person needed to remember that success comes mainly through personal responsibility. Two factors that seemed to support the planning of wellness are acknowledgment of personal responsibility and consciously making a choice (Friedman & Schustack, 2003). Wasyliw and Fekken (1999) indicated that in personal responsibility, an individual accepts responsibility for designing and maintaining the quality for his or her health, leisure, and wellness choices. Wasyliw and Fekken also noted that lifestyle quality was seldom achieved by accident, rather a person had to make a choice to live and work in a way that would be considered quality. Finally, Wasyliw and Fekken noted that a person could initiate a wellness lifestyle later in life, even if earlier life choices were not particularly supportive of wellness. All of these factors point to a need for an individual to pro-actively plan for attainment of wellness versus just letting it happen by chance.

Myers, Sweeney, and Whitmer (2000) and Myers and Sweeney (2005) had four phases for using their wellness models in counseling. The initial phase focused on defining wellness as related to the model used. Next an assessment would be conducted of current status of individual wellness functioning. This assessment would guide development of a personal wellness plan to meet needs. Finally, an individual would engage in periodic evaluation and modification as needed.

This study examined personal application of wellness planning by graduate student participants using the six common dimensions of wellness found in the models reviewed: (a) Social, (b) Physical, (c) Intellectual, (d) Emotional, (e) Work/Leisure, and (f) Spiritual.

Methods

Participants

The participants were 31 graduate students (27 women and 4 men) in counselor education programs (both school counseling and community counseling) at a branch campus of a research-extensive public university in the southeastern United States (see Table 1). Participant ages ranged from 23 to 41. Ethnic backgrounds reported were 16 Caucasian, 10 Black, 1 Native American, and 4 other. Of the 31 participants, 21 had completed at least half of the requirements for their program of study. These participants were taking graduate courses either with concurrent employment or previous employment. The researchers solicited voluntary participation in the study through announcement by instructors in counselor education courses. A researcher-developed survey was administered to the 31 students who chose to participate by reporting to the designated campus classroom at the announced time for administration of the survey.

The survey addressed two research questions: (a) Do counseling students view wellness planning as a personal need? (b) Do counseling students engage in wellness planning? Assessment dimensions were defined: (a) Social wellness is connecting with and relating to others. (b) Physical wellness is maintenance of fitness and strength and behaviors to prevent or detect early illness. (c) Intellectual wellness is engagement in creative and stimulating mental activities. (d) Emotional wellness is awareness and acceptance that one has feelings. (e) Work/Leisure wellness is provision of pleasurable experi-

TABLE 1
Demographic Characteristics of Study Participants

Variable	Categories	Frequency	Percent
Age	≤25	6	19.4
	26–40	15	48.4
	≥40	10	32.3
Ethnicity	Black	10	32.3
	Caucasian	16	51.6
	Native American	1	3.2
	Did not indicate	4	12.9
Sex	Female	27	87.1
	Male	4	12.9
Classification	Bachelors	2	29.0
	Masters	16	12.9
	Specialist	11	29.0
	Doctorate	2	29.0
Percent program completion	Just started	9	29.0
	Less than 1/2	4	12.9
	1/2–3/4	9	29.0
	Greater than 3/4	9	29.0
Current job	Education	17	54.8
	Health care	1	3.2
	Did not indicate	1	3.2
	Psychologist	1	3.2
	Social services	9	29.0
	Student	2	6.5
Totals		31	100.0

ences that satisfy and provide a sense of accomplishment. (f) Spiritual wellness is ongoing involvement with seeking meaning and purpose in human existence.

The survey included a Definitions section with two open-ended questions: (a) What is the participant's definition of personal wellness and (b) What is the participant's definition of personal wellness planning. Two other survey items used a table format in which participants checked the response that fit them. The first of these used a table, which had participants check which of the six dimensions they thought were important for inclusion in wellness planning; then in the second column, check each of the six dimensions for which they had made plans. The second table also listed the six dimensions and had participants indicate which of five response choices best described their level of wellness planning at that time for each of the dimensions. The choices were: (a) don't give it any thought, (b) think about it, but don't do anything, (c) undecided, (d) think about it and act on my thoughts, and (e) think

about it, act on thoughts, and evaluate results. Students were asked about results of planning they had done through a multiple choice question, with choices of: (a) achievement of goals through planning, (b) planning was hard to implement on a regular basis, (c) frequent rework of plans due to lack of goal achievement as planned, and (d) planning not working at all. Finally, participants were queried as to future participation in wellness planning with four multiple choice questions. They were asked to indicate a yes or no answer for perceived benefit from further training in wellness planning and for perceived benefit from having someone help them in development of and maintenance of a wellness plan. Participants were also asked to indicate preference for help with choices of a professional counselor, a family member or friend, or other. Examples of "others" listed by some participants were ministers and life coaches. Finally, participants were asked to indicate from a list of multiple choices the frequency with which they would be willing to do wellness planning. These choices were daily, weekly, 1 to 2 times a month, 3 to 4 times a year, once a year, or not at all.

Content validity for the survey used was attained through review of other instruments as samples and through research of multiple wellness models and subsequent selection of common key factors for inclusion in this survey. The survey was initially reviewed by two counseling education faculty and two counseling education majors to attain face validity. Consensus was attained on format and item inclusion before being administered to the 31 participants in this study.

Results

Participants defined wellness and wellness planning through open-ended questions. Responses were analyzed for themes. The themes across definitions for wellness were (a) an idea of health or absence of illness and (b) quality of life or well-being across the multiple components of physical, mental, and spiritual health (see Table 2). Examples of participant definitions for wellness were "physical and emotional balance and health" and "individual mental and physical health." Participant definitions of wellness planning included themes of (a) thinking about one's wellness, (b) developing a plan, and (c) writing something down. Examples of participant definitions for well-

TABLE 2
Themes Across Participant Definitions of Wellness

Dimension	Theme I	Theme II
Physical	Health/Absence of Illness	Quality of Life/Well-Being
Mental	Health/Absence of Illness	Quality of Life/Well-Being
Spiritual	Health/Absence of Illness	Quality of Life/Well-Being

ness planning were “Developing a plan for my life that will allow me to remain healthy and live a healthy life” and “Planning your day to keep yourself physically and mentally healthy.”

Current participant engagement in wellness planning varied across the dimensions assessed as shown in Table. With participant responses for dimensions in which they did develop and regularly implement a plan, seventy-four percent (74%) indicated that the planning did assist them in achievement of goals in that dimension (see Table 3). Participant responses also varied across dimensions on perceived need for wellness planning as shown in Table 3.

Participants indicated their perceptions for future benefit in wellness planning in the areas of further training on wellness planning, help with development and maintenance of wellness plans, and preference of type of help in doing this. These results are shown in Table 4. While a majority of participants indicated willingness to engage in initial planning for up to

TABLE 3
Participant Perceptions of Their Own Wellness Planning and Need for Wellness Planning on Six Dimensions

Dimension	Wellness Planning		Need for Wellness Planning	
	Frequency	Percent	Frequency	Percent
Social	15	48.0	9	29.0
Physical	13	42.0	21	68.0
Intellectual	15	48.0	6	19.0
Emotional	9	29.0	7	23.0
Work/Leisure	26	84.0	18	58.0
Spiritual	15	48.0	9	29.0

Note: Frequency and Percent totals exceed the participant totals since participants were asked to check all that applied for these items.

TABLE 4
Participant Perceived Benefit of Future Assistance in Wellness Planning

Perceived Need for Future Assistance	Frequency	Percent
Further training in wellness planning	26	84.0
Help with development and maintenance of a wellness plan	25	81.0
Preference of help from a professional counselor	17	55.0
Preference to do planning on own without help from another	8	26.0
Willing to engage in initial planning of up to 3 hours	21	68.0

Note: Frequency and Percent totals exceed the participant totals since participants were asked to check all that applied for these items.

three hours, responses on frequency of follow-up varied from nineteen percent (19%) every three to four months to thirty-nine percent (39%) every month (see Table 4).

The Pearson 2-tailed correlation significance test was used to determine the correlation between current wellness planning and wellness planning needs of participants. Results indicated several significant correlations at the 0.01 level. There was a significant correlation between current planning in physical and social wellness and between current planning in spiritual and work/leisure wellness. The test for significant correlation indicated that current planning in physical wellness was accompanied by a perceived need to also plan for social and intellectual wellness. There was significant correlation between perceived need with Social and Physical; Emotional and Social; Intellectual and Social; Spiritual and Intellectual; and Emotional and Intellectual. There was also a significant correlation at the 0.01 level between perceived benefit from a workshop or class on wellness planning and help from someone in development and maintenance of a wellness plan.

Discussion

The only area in which a majority of participants, who were training to be counselors, (80.6%) engaged in current planning was Work/Leisure. Bockrath (1999) had observed that counselors often admitted to not doing a very good job of self care. Seventy four percent (74%) of participants indicated that plan-

ning did enhance accomplishment of wellness goals that they set. This concurs with the observation of Wasylikiw and Fekken (1999) that lifestyle quality is achieved by personal choice to have this quality.

Two of the six areas were identified by a majority of participants as wellness areas in which they would benefit from planning: (a) Occupational and (b) Physical. Eighty three percent (83%) of participants indicated that they would benefit from a class or workshop on wellness planning and from having someone help them to develop and maintain a wellness plan. This supports the indication from Myers, Mobley, and Booth (2003) that graduate students in counseling do need greater assessment of wellness and education about wellness lifestyles. Fifty four percent (54%) of participants indicated preference for help from a professional coach or counselor and approximately sixty-five (64.5%) indicated a willingness to devote an initial planning time of 1 to 3 hours. Participant responses were varied on preference for frequency of follow-up with wellness planning.

Participant responses showed limited understanding of the areas of wellness and wellness planning, as well as limited current wellness planning, in the six dimensions that were the focus of this study. This could indicate support for further training on wellness and wellness planning, as well as providing help to students with implementation of wellness plans.

Conclusions

This exploratory research study provided insight into the perceptions that counselor education graduate students have of wellness and wellness planning in general. Insight was also obtained on how students currently engage in wellness planning or view a need to engage in wellness planning on the social, physical, intellectual, emotional, work/leisure, and spiritual dimensions.

This study supported use of Wellness Planning by students in counselor education programs as discussed by Myers and Sweeney (2005) related to the components of wellness, assessment, planning, and follow-up/evaluation. This study also supported the indication of Myers, Mobley, and Booth (2003) that within the realm of counselor education, assessment of wellness could be used to increase awareness of current personal wellness and to prompt identification of changes needed

to achieve a wellness lifestyle across the lifespan. As students complete counselor training and practice, this knowledge could also be applied in their professional practice.

Limitations of this study include the use of a small sample size and inclusion of students in only one graduate counselor education program. Additional research studies with graduate counselor education students could further delineate training needs within counselor education on wellness as both a paradigm for practice and a foundation for counselor self-care, especially with consideration of wellness planning as an intervention. While this instrument has been proven to have practical value in helping individuals identify wellness planning and management needs, further validity and reliability studies are needed to scientifically establish this instrument's potential value as a wellness planning and management tool for counselors.

References

- American Counseling Association (2005). American Counseling Association Code of Ethics. Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.
- Ardell, D. (2000). What is wellness? *Wellness Web*, 1-5. Retrieved July 26, 2001, from http://www.bradley.edu/eddev/csc/csc_wellness_web.htm.
- Ardell, D. (2001). Sustaining a wellness lifestyle: Tips for success. *Wellness Web*, 1-2. Retrieved July 26, 2001, from http://www.bradley.edu/eddev/csc/csc_wellness_web.htm.
- Bauldauf, G. R. (1991). The psychological correlates of a wellness lifestyle. *Dissertations Abstracts International*, 52(07B).
- Bockrath, G. M. (1999). The experiences of counselors sustaining well-being. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 60(5A).
- Bourne, R. W. (1998). Eastman's benefit philosophy: Investing in human capital. *Executive Speeches*, 12(5), 8-10.
- Britt, D. E. (1997). Psychotherapist self-care. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 58 (5A).
- Bulow-Hube, S. (1986). Factors influencing adoption of health promotion programs in the workplace: A study of 401 California companies. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 47(6B).
- California State University, Chico (2001). *What is wellness?* Chico, CA: Psychological Counseling and Wellness Center, California State University.
- Cassel, R. N. (1993). Developing global functioning of military personnel: An essential element of Air Force leadership. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 20(3), 192-196.
- Corey, G. (2005). *Theory and Practice of Counseling & Psychotherapy (7th ed.)*. Belmont: Brooks/Cole-Thomson Learning.
- Fine, A. (2005). Florida employers to reward investment in wellness plans. *Managed Care Quarterly*, 13(1), 23.

- Friedman, H. S., & Schustack, M. W. (2003). *Personality: Classic Theories and Modern Research*. Boston: Allyn & Bacon.
- Gilmore, D. J. (1993). An analysis of needs and perceived barriers related to implementation of health promotion programs in Pennsylvania community colleges. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 54(7A).
- Granello, P. (2000). Integrating wellness work into mental health private practice. *Journal of Psychotherapy in Independent Practice*, 1(1), 3–16.
- Hermon, D. A., & Hazler, R. J. (1999). Adherence to a wellness model and perceptions of psychological well-being. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 77, 339–343.
- Hutchins, J. (2000). Health is serious business at Daimler Chrysler. *Workforce*, 79(9), 118–120.
- Kostelnik, R. M. (1996). The characteristics and prevalence of faculty/staff wellness programs offered at association of American universities and Holmes group colleges and universities. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 58(1A).
- Majocha, T. W. (2000). Outcome-based measurement: Its use in assessing organizational end statements. *Masters Abstracts International*, 38(06).
- Mississippi State University (2001). Wellness. Starkville, MI: *Counseling Center, Mississippi State University*.
- Myers, J. E. (1991). Wellness as the paradigm for counseling and development: The possible future. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, 30(3), 183–193.
- Myers, J. E. (1992). Wellness prevention and development: The cornerstone of the profession. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 71(2), 136–139.
- Myers, J. E., Mobley, K., & Booth, C. S. (2003). Wellness of counseling students: Practicing what we preach. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, 42, 264–275.
- Myers, J. E., & Sweeney, T. J. (2005). The indivisible self: An evidence-based model of wellness (reprint). *The Journal of Individual Psychology*, 61(3), 269–279.
- Myers, J. E., Sweeney, T. J., & Witmer, J. W. (2000). The wheel of wellness counseling for wellness: A holistic model for treatment planning. *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 78(3), 251–267.
- National Wellness Institute (1998). *Six dimensions of wellness*. University of Wisconsin at Stevens Point, Wisconsin.
- O'Halloran, T. M., & Linton, J. M. (2000). Stress on the job: Self-care resources for counselors. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling*, 22(4), 354–365.
- Ryan, R. S., & Travis, J. W. (1981). *Wellness Workbook*. Berkeley: Ten Speed Press.
- Seligman, L. (1993). Teaching treatment planning. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, 32(4), 287–297.
- Thaggard Student Health Center, Florida State University. (2001). *What is wellness?* Tallahassee, FL: Florida State University.
- Wasylikiw, L., & Fekken, G. C. (1999). The dimensionality of health behaviors. *Journal of Social Behavior & Personality*, 14(4), 585–597.

The Job Satisfaction of Counselor Educators

Aaron Oberman, PhD

This study examined the job satisfaction of counselor educators at institutions with Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) accredited doctoral programs in counselor education, including faculty who had interactions with master's and doctoral level students. Two hundred eighty full-time faculty members at the assistant, associate, and full professor levels from 40 accredited programs received the *Faculty Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Scale* developed by Olin Wood. The analysis of 71 participant's responses indicated that counselor educators were most satisfied with the work itself (teaching, research, and service) and interpersonal relationships (working faculty, staff, and students). Counselor educators reported the least satisfying variable to be salary. Counselor educators also were equally satisfied with their jobs across all academic ranks (assistant, associate, and full professor). In addition, counselor educators were more intrinsically motivated; however, there were no differences based on one's academic rank.

Research shows that faculty members generally have a high amount of satisfaction in their work (Clery, 2002; Parr, Bradley, Lan, & Gould, 1996). A review of the literature on faculty job satisfaction indicates the tasks of teaching, working with students, and having interpersonal relationships with colleagues is satisfying (Benoit & Smith, 1980; Clery, 2002; Diener, 1985; Hutton & Jobe, 1985; Lundblad, 1995; Nelsen, 2003; Petty & Hatcher, 1991; Riday, Bingham, & Harvey, 1984). The problems that often lead to faculty member dissatisfaction are linked to conditions external to the actual work (Leinbaugh, Hazler, Bradley, & Hill, 2003). The variables of salary, administration, campus politics, and working conditions were found to be the least satisfying (Clery, 2002; Diener, 1985; Friedlander, 1978; Petty & Hatcher, 1991; Nelsen, 2003).

Aaron Oberman, PhD, Assistant Professor of School Counseling, The Citadel. Correspondence concerning this message should be addressed to Aaron Oberman, Ph.D., The Citadel, School of Education, 171 Moultrie Street, Charleston, SC 29409 (e-mail: aaron.oberman@citadel.edu).

In addition, two studies have been conducted on the job satisfaction of counselor educators. Parr et al. (1996) surveyed members of the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES) and found that 89% of counselor educators were satisfied with their career and stated they would chose the field of counseling “if they had it to do all over again.”

Leinbaugh et al. (2003) also studied the job satisfaction of counselor educators. This study focused on a sense of well-being, self-control, and control by others. For example, administrative duties and changes in responsibilities were related to organization control (external). Similarly, the courses one teaches and sense of autonomy factored into internal control and rewards. Leinbaugh et al. concluded that an emphasis on self-control and internal rewards demonstrated that faculty members feel better about what was within their control.

Overall, the literature on faculty job satisfaction may be summarized by the following four general statements: (a) Faculty members are most satisfied with the work itself and interpersonal relationships; (b) Faculty members are least satisfied with their salary; (c) Overall, faculty are satisfied with their jobs as educators; and (d) Counselor educators are satisfied with their careers.

Purpose of the Study

Published research related to the job satisfaction of faculty in post secondary institutions does not distinguish by the field of study (Parr et al., 1996). Research on job satisfaction of the worker exists in many areas; however, there is a lack of research on the job satisfaction of counselor education faculty members (Leinbaugh et al., 2003). This study expands on the research findings of Parr et al. and Leinbaugh et al. by comparing the job satisfaction, as well as intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, among faculty members at the academic ranks of assistant, associate, and full professor in counselor education at doctoral level programs accredited by the Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP). The knowledge gained from this study will improve the understanding of the satisfaction and dissatisfaction associated with a life in academia for: (a) counselor education doctoral students entering the field, and (b) current counselor educators addressing the most and least satisfying aspects of being faculty members.

Counselor education doctoral students need to consider the realities of academic life that lead to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction. One positive aspect found by Parr et al. (1996) was that 89% of counselor educators reported they were satisfied with their career, and that they would choose the field of counseling again. In addition, Leinbaugh et al. (2003) also reported counselor educators to be satisfied with their present lives and lives in general. The significance of this study is of particular importance to doctoral students because it provides information about the job satisfaction of counselor educators based on academic rank and work environment.

This knowledge will also be valuable to current counselor educators to confirm if the areas they are more or less satisfied with professionally are similar to other counselor education faculty members. Previous research shows that counselor educators are satisfied with their work (Leinbaugh et al., 2003; Parr et al., 1996); however, research has not shown if there are differences in faculty job satisfaction between the academic ranks.

Research Questions

1. What variables are most and least satisfying for counselor educators?
2. What differences exist in the overall job satisfaction of faculty members based upon academic rank (assistant, associate, and full professor)?
3. What differences exist between the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of faculty members based upon academic rank (assistant, associate, full professor)?

Methodology

Participants

The web site for the CACREP provided an updated listing of the 45 universities and colleges that have accredited doctoral programs in counselor education (Retrieved January, 15, 2005, from <http://www.cacrep.org/directory.html>). After collecting a listing of the accredited programs, the researcher used the World Wide Web to go to each university's web site and gather the e-mail addresses of the staff that were listed as members of the counseling faculty. All faculty members at the assistant,

associate, or full professor ranks were included in the study, a sample size of 280 participants.

Instrument

The *Faculty Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Scale* was created by Dr. Olin Wood and has been used in over 45 studies related to faculty job satisfaction. Research on the *Faculty Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Scale* has established consistent reliability and validity data. The instrument has high reliability based on internal consistency ranging from 0.812 to 0.964 and test-retest coefficients ranging from 0.849 and 0.954 for the composite scales. The content validity was established by a factor analysis, and the face validity was confirmed by a panel of judges (Wood, 1976).

The inventory consisted of two sections containing a total of 76 questions. The demographics section contained seven questions developed by the researcher to collect data from the participants regarding the faculty members' age, gender, highest degree earned, current academic rank, college, years of teaching experience, and college and program information.

The second section of the inventory consisted of 69 questions related to job satisfaction with work as faculty members. The variables include the following: achievement, growth, interpersonal relationships, policy and administration, responsibility, recognition, salary, supervision, the work itself, working conditions, and overall job satisfaction. The scale used a six-point Likert-type scale: 1 = Very Dissatisfied, 2 = Moderately Dissatisfied, 3 = Slightly Dissatisfied, 4 = Slightly Satisfied, 5 = Moderately Satisfied, and 6 = Very Satisfied. The researcher analyzed the data with a repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) from the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) using 0.05 level of significance.

Results

A total of 85 participants completed the *Faculty Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Scale*; however, only 71 surveys were usable for this study, a return rate of 25%. The rate of return is above the average of 13% reported by Dillman and Bowker (2001) for online surveys. The participants included 23 assistant professors, 22 associate professors, and 26 full professors. There were 27 female respondents, 41 male respondents, and three participants who did not respond to the gender

question. The age of the participants ranged from 29 to 71 years, with a mean of 49.7 years. In addition, the respondents had taught at the college/university level for an average of 16.5 years. The faculty members teaching experience ranged from 1.5 years to 41 years in the field. All of the respondents had earned a doctoral degree, were core faculty members in CACREP accredited doctoral programs in counselor education, and represented departments housed in the College of Education.

Research Question 1

An analysis of the responses to the *Faculty Job Satisfaction/Dissatisfaction Scale* yielded a ranking of the ten job satisfaction variables from most to least satisfying. Based upon the ten variables, respondents were most satisfied with the work itself ($M = 5.07$, $SD = 0.72$) and interpersonal relationships ($M = 4.88$, $SD = 0.97$). In addition, counselor education faculty members reported a similar level of satisfaction with the following variables: working conditions, achievement, responsibility, growth, recognition, policy and administration, and supervision. Salary ($M = 2.91$, $SD = 1.18$) was clearly the least satisfying variable for counselor educators. See Table 1 for a complete listing of the rank order of the job satisfaction variables.

Research Question 2

After conducting an ANOVA, no significant differences existed among the faculty members' rank and overall job satisfaction

TABLE 1
Ranking of Job Satisfaction Variables from Most to Least Satisfying

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
Work itself	5.07	0.72
Interpersonal relationships	4.88	0.97
Achievement	4.82	0.72
Recognition	4.66	0.98
Working conditions	4.50	1.09
Responsibility	4.32	1.06
Growth	4.19	0.88
Policy and administration	4.16	1.01
Supervision	4.15	1.15
Salary	2.91	1.18

($p = 0.187$). Based upon the mean score, the overall job satisfaction was similar for all academic ranks. See Table 2 for a listing of the mean and standard deviation for each academic rank.

Research Question 3

A repeated measures ANOVA resulted in no significant interaction between academic rank and the factors of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation ($p = 0.229$). There was an overall difference between intrinsic ($M = 4.58$) and extrinsic motivation ($M = 4.09$) for all faculty members ($p < 0.001$). According to the statistical analysis, faculty members at all academic ranks were more intrinsically than extrinsically motivated.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to explore whether or not counselor educators have similar levels of job satisfaction as other college/university faculty members, as well as to determine if any significant differences existed among the counselor educator job satisfaction and motivation based upon academic rank. The results of this study indicated that counselor educators are similarly satisfied with their work as other faculty. The ranking for the ten variables was similar to the previous studies conducted on job satisfaction of faculty members (Clery, 2002; Riday et al., 1984; Petty & Hatcher, 1991). The variables of the work itself and interpersonal relationships were consistently the most satisfying variables, and salary was the least satisfying variable for counselor educators.

Faculty members were satisfied with their job as a faculty member; however there were no significant differences among the overall job satisfaction of counselor educators at the rank

TABLE 2
Overall Job Satisfaction Based on Academic Rank

Rank	N	Mean	Standard Deviation
Assistant	23	4.86	0.94
Associate	22	4.55	1.05
Full	26	4.84	1.00

Note: Pairwise Comparison $F(2,67) = 1.718, p = 0.187$

of assistant, associate, or full professor. These results were consistent with Parr et al.'s (1996) findings, from ten years ago, that counselor educators were satisfied with their careers. Although one might speculate that associate and full professors who likely have tenure might be more satisfied, the level of job satisfaction was almost identical across all three academic ranks (see Table 2). This finding was contrary to Owens (2003) study of counseling and clinical psychology faculty members. She found that tenured faculty reported higher levels of job satisfaction and felt more support by their department.

The final research question compared the intrinsic and extrinsic motivation of counselor educators based on academic rank. Although there were no differences in motivation between assistant, associate, and full professors, all ranks of faculty members were significantly more intrinsically motivated. This finding was similar to what Owens (2003) reported, that counseling and clinical psychology faculty members were more intrinsically motivated. Similarly, Leinbaugh et al. (2003) reported that internal control and rewards (intrinsic motivation) was one of the most influential factors related to a sense of well-being for counselor educators. The findings also indicated that counselor educators are satisfied and motivated by intrinsic rather than extrinsic rewards.

Limitations

The limitations of this study resulted from the sampling and the participant's response to technology. The sample was limited to institutions with doctoral programs in order to survey counselor educators who have exposure to master's and doctoral level students.

Another sampling concern stemmed from a previous study conducted by the researcher, in which ten of the 40 schools surveyed in the current study received a very similar instrument approximately one year ago. Consequently, some faculty members may not have completed the survey again. It was also difficult to identify counselor education faculty on some of the web sites. The school's web sites did not always specify exactly which members were counselor educators, and only provided a list of the faculty members within the department, such as educational psychology and counseling. As a result some faculty members included in the sample deleted the survey because they were not counselor educators. Furthermore,

faculty members may have deleted the survey without reading the initial e-mail describing the purpose of the study due to a lack of time or interest.

Implications and Recommendations

Counselor educators can use the findings of this study in many ways for the betterment of the profession. This study confirms that counselor educators are satisfied and dissatisfied by many of the same variables as other faculty in other disciplines. Some of the satisfying variables include: (a) enthusiasm for teaching, (b) professional and personal work relationships, and (c) the value placed on student growth and development. The variables that were less satisfying for faculty members were salary and administration. While previous studies by Parr et al. (1996) and Leinbaugh et al. (2003) reported counselor educators were satisfied with their jobs, this study targeted specific variables that were satisfying or dissatisfying for counselor educators.

Secondly, this study provides important data to be shared with doctoral students training to be counselor educators. Knowing the level of satisfaction of those currently in the field can help potential counselor educators decide if a career in academia is a "good fit" for them. The knowledge of the specific components that lead to job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are also important for future counselor educators to be aware of as they enter the teaching profession. In addition, it would be valuable to share these findings in a seminar course for doctoral students considering a career as a faculty member.

Furthermore, these results may be helpful for counselor educators to use in advocating for themselves within higher education. For example, although one's salary may be a predetermined number, one could use the leverage of having more funding for professional growth and development (conducting research and presenting at professional conferences). Another option might be to suggest a course reduction in order to have more time to pursue additional scholarly activities.

Although there appears to be agreement about the job satisfaction of post-secondary faculty members and counselor educators, a review of the current findings draws out many unanswered questions. Future research studies could include the relationship between job satisfaction and (a) area of specialization (school, mental health, and career) faculty job sat-

isfaction, (b) teaching at CACREP accredited programs, and (c) being tenured.

References

- Benoit, R., & Smith, A. (1980). Demographic and job satisfaction characteristics of Florida Community College faculty. *Community/Junior College Research Quarterly*, 4(3), 263–276.
- Clery, S. (2002). *Faculty satisfaction. Research center update* (Report Vol. 8 No. 2). Washington, DC: National Education Association. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 470 575).
- Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (2005). *Directory of CACREP Accredited Programs*. Retrieved January 15, 2005, from <http://www.cacrep.org/directory.html>.
- Diener, T. (1985). Community college faculty job satisfaction. *Community/Junior College Quarterly*, 9, 347–357.
- Dillman, D., & Bowker, D. (2001). *The Web Questionnaire Challenge to Survey Methodologists*. Retrieved February 10, 2007, from http://survey.sesrc.wsu.edu/dillman/zuma_paper_dillman_bowker.pdf.
- Friedlander, J. (1978). The relationship between general job satisfaction and specific work-activity of community college faculty. *Community/Junior College Research Quarterly*, 2(3), 227–239.
- Hutton, J., & Jobe, M. (1985). Job satisfaction of community college faculty. *Community/Junior College Quarterly of Research and Practice*, 9, 317–324.
- Leinbaugh, T., Hazler, R., Bradley, C., & Hill, N. (2003). Factors influencing counselor educators' subjective sense of well-being. *Counselor Education and Supervision*, 43, 52–64.
- Lundblad, L. A. (1995). An investigation into job satisfaction and motivation among Minnesota Technical College faculty. Doctoral dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1995. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 56, 419.
- Nelsen, R. S. (2003). *The University of Texas System Faculty Satisfaction Survey: June 2003*. Dallas, TX: University of Texas at Dallas, Faculty Advisory Council.
- Owens, G. P. (2003). Factors affecting job satisfaction among clinical and counseling psychology faculty. Doctoral dissertation, University of Kentucky, 2003. *Dissertation Abstracts International*, 64, 428.
- Parr, G. D., Bradley, L. J., Lan, W. Y., & Gould, L. J. (1996). The career satisfaction of the association for counselor education and supervision members. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 33, 20–28.
- Petty, G. C., & Hatcher, L. M. (1991). Job satisfaction of faculty from technical institutes, community colleges, and universities. *Journal of Studies in Technical Careers*, 13, 361–367.
- Riday, G. E., Bingham, R. D., & Harvey, T. R. (1984). Satisfaction of community college: Exploding a myth. *Community College Review*, 12, 46–50.
- Wood, O. R. (1976) Measuring job satisfaction of the community college staff. *Community College Review*, 3, 56–64.

