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Introduction to the Special Issue on Doctoral Counselor Education

William H. Snow, Thomas A. Field

This lead article introduces a special issue of *The Professional Counselor* designed to inform and support faculty, staff, and administrative efforts in starting or revitalizing doctoral degree programs in counselor education and supervision. We review the 14 studies that make up this issue and summarize their key findings. Seven key themes emerged for faculty and staff to consider during program development: (a) the current state of research, (b) doctoral program demographics and distribution, (c) defining quality, (d) mentoring and gatekeeping, (e) increasing diversity, (f) supporting dissertation success, and (g) gaining university administrator support. We recognize the vital contribution of these articles to doctoral counselor education and supervision program development while also highlighting future directions for research emerging from this collection.

Keywords: doctoral, counselor education and supervision, research, quality, diversity

This special issue of *The Professional Counselor* features 14 articles on doctoral counselor education and supervision (CES) to inform and support faculty, staff, and administrative efforts in starting or revitalizing doctoral degree programs in CES. In this introductory paper, we begin by providing context for the special issue's focus on doctoral CES programs. We then reflect on the series of articles in this special issue that collectively address a myriad of topics pertinent to high-quality doctoral programs in CES. We further suggest critical themes and principles for faculty and administrators to follow when starting and operating doctoral counselor education programs and for students to reflect on when selecting a doctoral counselor education program. In our conclusion, we offer future directions for research emerging from the contributions to this special issue.

Doctoral CES Programming in Context

The CES doctorate is an increasingly sought-after degree. From 2012 to 2018, the number of CES doctoral programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) increased by 50%, with a 43.8% increase in student enrollment (CACREP, 2013, 2019). At the time of writing, there are now 84 CACREP-accredited doctoral programs (CACREP, n.d.). These CACREP-accredited doctoral programs have nearly 3,000 enrolled students and produce almost 500 doctoral graduates each year (CACREP, 2019). Doctoral study within counselor education prepares leaders for the profession (Adkinson-Bradley, 2013; West et al., 1995).

For over 70 years, the allied mental health professions, including counseling, were heavily influenced by psychology's scientist–practitioner (aka Boulder) model of the 1940s (Baker & Benjamin, 2000), the scholar–practitioner model of the 1970s (Kaslow & Johnson, 2014), and the lesser-known clinical–scientist model of the 1990s (Stricker & Trierweiler, 2006).

In contrast to psychology, the purpose of doctoral counselor education was never to train entry-level clinicians. Instead, it has historically been to prepare counseling professionals to become counselor

William H. Snow, PhD, is a professor at Palo Alto University. Thomas A. Field, PhD, NCC, CCMHC, ACS, LPC, LMHC, is an assistant professor at the Boston University School of Medicine. Correspondence may be addressed to William Snow, 1791 Arastradero Road, Palo Alto, CA 94304, wsnow@paloaltou.edu.

educators and advanced supervisors to train entry-level clinicians at the master's level (West et al., 1995; Zimpfer et al., 1997). Counseling has needed to develop its own model(s) for effective doctoral education. Yet, relatively little literature exists to inform the development and implementation of doctoral programs within counselor education.

This special issue represents a concerted effort to address that knowledge gap. Research teams consisting of 46 counselor educators and student researchers from across the country answered the call with findings from 14 studies that we have organized under seven themes and related critical questions. The collective research provides invaluable information for anyone desiring to initiate, develop, and sustain a high-quality CES doctoral program on their campus. The following is a summary of the key themes, organizing questions, and findings.

Key Themes, Questions, and Findings

In preparation for this special issue, *The Professional Counselor* put out a call for papers with no restrictions on covered topics. The request simply asked authors to submit their scholarly contributions to a special issue on doctoral counselor education. Those accepted for the special issue fell naturally into one of the following seven themes: (a) the current state of research, (b) doctoral program demographics and distribution, (c) defining quality, (d) mentoring and gatekeeping, (e) increasing diversity, (f) supporting dissertation success, and (g) gaining university administrator support.

The Current State of Research

Research on the preparation of doctoral-level counselor educators shaped the first theme. Litherland and Schulthes (2020) conducted a thorough literature review in their paper, "Research Focused on Doctoral-Level Counselor Education: A Scoping Review." They examined peer-reviewed articles published on the topic from 2005 to 2019 found in the PubMed, ERIC, GaleOneFile, and PsycINFO databases. After initially retrieving nearly 10,000 citations, they found only 39 studies met their inclusion criteria, an average of less than three published studies per year. Their work suggests the need for a long-term research strategy and plans to advance CES program development. The studies comprising this special issue begin to address some of that void by adding 14 peer-reviewed articles to the 39 Litherland and Schulthes already found, a significant increase in just a single publication in one year.

Doctoral Program Demographics and Distribution

The current number and location of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs relative to present and future demands for graduates to serve our master's programs or the CES doctoral pipeline is the essence of the second theme. Field et al. (2020), in "The Pipeline Problem in Doctoral Counselor Education and Supervision," analyzed regional distributions of existing doctoral programs. Despite recent growth in the number of doctoral programs, they found a significant difference in the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs by region. For example, the Western United States has the largest ratio of counseling master's degree programs to doctoral programs (18:1), with only two doctoral and 35 master's programs with CACREP accreditation in a region with nearly 64 million inhabitants. The data demonstrate a greater need for more CES doctoral programs in certain geographical regions. Without developing new CES programs accessible in regions with few doctoral degree options, a pipeline problem may persist whereby demand surpasses supply. This pipeline problem may result in some master's programs struggling to hire faculty in regions with fewer doctoral programs, as prior studies have found that geographic location is a key reason why candidates accept faculty positions (Magnuson et al., 2001).

Defining Quality

The third theme centers on how to define high quality in CES doctoral education. Four studies in this special issue were aimed at exploring questions of quality doctoral counselor education in depth. Areas of investigation included program components, preparation for teaching and research, and promoting a research identity among students.

High-Quality Doctoral Programs

Preston et al. (2020) examined this theme in "Components of a High-Quality Doctoral Program in Counselor Education and Supervision." Their qualitative study of 15 CES faculty revealed five critical indicators of program quality: (a) supportive faculty–student and student–student relationships; (b) a clearly defined mission that is supported by the counseling faculty and in alignment with the broader university mission; (c) development of a counselor educator identity with formal curricular experiences in teaching, research, and service; (d) a diversity orientation in all areas, including the cultural diversity of faculty and students, as well as a variety of experiences; and (e) reflection of the Carnegie classification of its institution, as aligned with its mission and level of support.

These findings on the components of a high-quality CES doctoral program are useful to multiple audiences. Faculty engaged in doctoral program development can use this as a partial checklist to ensure they are building quality components into what they are proposing. Faculty of existing programs can use these findings as a self-check for reviewing and improving their quality. Finally, potential doctoral students can use these five critical indicators of quality to inform their program search.

Quality Teaching Preparation

Teaching is a significant activity of faculty. Despite its importance, at least one recent study (Waalkes et al., 2018) found a lack of emphasis and rigor in graduate student training. Baltrinic and Suddeath (2020) conducted a study on the components of quality teacher preparation to inform preparation efforts. Their article, "A Q Methodology Study of a Doctoral Counselor Education Teaching Instruction Course," found three broad critical factors of teacher preparation: course design, preparation for future faculty roles, and a focus on instructor qualities and intentionality in their communications. Most interesting are the practices they found were of less value yet commonly utilized in programs across the country. A detailed read of their study will likely challenge some of the activities currently deemed to be best practices.

Quality Research and Scholarship

The ability of doctoral graduates to demonstrate research and scholarship prowess is critical in their competitiveness in securing top faculty positions. In a prior study on faculty hiring by Bodenhorn and colleagues (2014), over half of faculty position announcements asked for demonstrated research potential. How we prepare students for their role in generating knowledge for the profession was an area of preparation addressed by Limberg et al. (2020). They suggest in their article, "Research Identity Development of Counselor Education Doctoral Students: A Grounded Theory," that programs need to have strong faculty research mentors. Faculty who can involve students experientially in their research are more apt to instill a robust research identity and sense of self-efficacy in their doctoral students. Limberg et al. also offer other practical steps programs can take to increase research-oriented outcomes in their graduates.

In their article titled "Preparing Counselor Education and Supervision Doctoral Students Through an HLT Lens: The Importance of Research and Scholarship," Brown et al. (2020) examined CES faculty publication trends from 2008 to 2018 from 396 programs. They found that although programs from Carnegie-classified R1 and R2 universities accounted for nearly 70% of the research, 30% was

produced by faculty from doctoral/professional universities (D/PU) and master's programs (M1). There is clear evidence that research is essential for all counselor education faculty, no matter the Carnegie level at which their university is classified.

Mentoring and Gatekeeping

The fourth theme pertains to how CES doctoral faculty can best serve as mentors and gatekeepers, as well as educate and train doctoral students to help in that same role when they graduate and become faculty in other institutions. Given the importance of the professional relationship in counseling (Kaplan et al., 2014), relationship building would seem to be a natural part of the mentoring and advising experience. Dipre and Luke (2020) advocate for such an advising model in their article, "Relational Cultural Theory–Informed Advising in Counselor Education." Kent et al. (2020) provide further guidelines for a more specialized student population in their article, "Mentoring Doctoral Student Mothers in Counselor Education: A Phenomenological Study."

Mentoring and advising are generally rewarding experiences as we prepare the next generation of leaders in the profession, but at times the conversations we need to have are challenging and tough. DeCino et al. (2020) provide an important view to an often-stressful component of advising with their article, "'They Stay With You': Counselor Educators' Emotionally Intense Gatekeeping Experiences." Their work uncovered five powerful sets of issues for faculty advisors to consider, including the early warning signs to look for, elevated student misconduct, the trauma of student dismissal, the stress of involvement in legal interactions, and the changes that occur from such experiences. Their article is a must-read for any new faculty mentor or advisor.

Many of the students we mentor and advise will assume similar roles as faculty members and confront the issues above. Freeman et al. (2020) provide a model and exploratory data in "Teaching Gatekeeping to Doctoral Students: A Qualitative Study of a Developmental Experiential Approach." Intentional integration of gatekeeping training is essential to preparing future faculty for their duties as faculty advisors and mentors.

Increasing Diversity

The fifth theme encompasses research on what changes to the structure of programs are needed to establish more diverse CES doctoral learning communities. There is a need for more doctoral graduates in CES, but more importantly, we need more graduates and faculty from culturally diverse backgrounds. The *2016 CACREP Standards* (2015) emphasized this in requiring accredited programs to engage in a "continuous and systematic effort to attract, enroll, and retain a diverse group of students and to create and support an inclusive learning community" (Standard 1.K.). CACREP sets the standard to be met, but programs are often at a loss as to what is most effective.

Ju et al. (2020) generated findings to help guide faculty in the most effective strategies in "Recruiting, Retaining, and Supporting Students From Underrepresented Racial Minority Backgrounds in Doctoral Counselor Education." They suggest that faculty must prioritize getting involved with students from the onset of recruiting and staying engaged through the student's program completion. The involvement needs to be personalized, which requires a robust faculty–student connection. Another principle they espouse is that faculty need to value the cultural identity of diverse students and help to connect them to that identity. Faculty can better foster this connection when they share their own cultural identity, encourage students to express their uniqueness, and share research interests connected to their cultural identity. Ju et al. also remind us that diverse students are more than members of a cultural group—they desire individual mentorship and support tailored to their specific needs. Finally, faculty are encouraged

to work with diverse students to address multicultural and social justice issues at the institution and in the profession. If the principles derived from this article are sincerely applied, they will likely go a long way to promoting a more culturally sensitive academic culture.

Many doctoral programs are under-resourced, and funding to increase diversity is often hard to come by. Branco and Davis (2020) provide insight on a significant financial and mentoring support program for diverse students funded by the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration and administered by the National Board for Certified Counselors in their article, "The Minority Fellowship Program: Promoting Representation Within Counselor Education and Supervision." Their study found that although the scholarship funds were helpful, students also appreciated the program's networking, cohort model, and mentorship. This program has successfully aided in the graduation of 158 doctoral students to date who will go on to serve their diverse communities.

Supporting Dissertation Success

The sixth theme is grounded in helping students complete their dissertation and avoid becoming an "all but dissertation" (ABD) statistic. This concern is critical, as the doctoral completion rate across all disciplines is only 57% (Neale-McFall & Ward, 2015). It is unclear if CES doctoral programs do any better or worse than other disciplines, and up until now, there has been a dearth of research on how to improve the odds of a student finishing their doctoral program (Purgason et al., 2016).

Ghoston et al. (2020) provide informed guidance in their article "Faculty Perspectives on Strategies for Successful Navigation of the Dissertation Process in Counselor Education." Five principles for how to support dissertation completion effectively emerged from their research: (a) program mechanics with structured curriculum and processes with a dissertation focus from the outset; (b) a supportive environment with solid mentoring and feedback tailored to the style and needs of the individual student; (c) selecting and working with cooperative, helpful, and productive dissertation committee members; (d) intentionality in developing a scholar identity to include a research and methodological focus; and (e) regular accountability and contact in supporting a student's steady progress toward the final dissertation writing and defense. Programs attentive to all five factors cannot guarantee dissertation completion on time, but they can certainly increase the probability of student success.

Gaining University Administrator Support

It is critical to have the support of university administrators who set priorities, allocate resources, and ultimately determine if a new degree program proposal lives or dies. Administrators who give their stamp of approval and invest resources will want to see evidence of success to commit to ongoing support. The seventh and final theme entails how to collaborate with administrators in supporting our doctoral programs. Scherer et al. (2020) provide keen analysis and insights into this issue in "Gaining Administrative Support for Doctoral Programs in Counselor Education." They caution faculty that before embarking down the path of program development, there are many issues involved that faculty generally are not accustomed to considering.

First, higher education administration has a certain amount of politics involved, and faculty need to remain aware of the political minefields they may be entering. Understanding and navigating university organizational dynamics and cultivating buy-in from the broader university constituency is a critical skill. Second, the payoff for such an endeavor may not be self-evident, so faculty must demonstrate how a new doctoral program fits the university's mission, helps local communities and the profession, and ultimately raises the university's prestige and reputation. Third, program leadership must establish credibility and gain the administration's confidence that counseling faculty

have the intellectual capital and expertise to educate, train, and graduate high-quality doctoral graduates. This article is an essential read for anyone planning to start or revitalize a program.

Future Directions

The 14 studies contained in this special issue represent a vital contribution to doctoral counselor education, yet important questions remain. We highlight four important directions to help guide future research.

First, there is a need to promote a more focused, systematic, ongoing agenda for the scholarship of doctoral counselor education. This special issue is an important first step, but leadership is needed to continue the effort. It is unclear how stakeholders such as CACREP, professional associations, doctoral program faculty, and editorial boards of peer-reviewed journals may build on and initiate efforts to promote scholarship in this area. It may be that a unified and intentional approach is key to ensuring that research proceeds in a strategic and methodical fashion and moves the profession steadily forward.

Second, we need to better understand how the advent of online programs is shaping the landscape of doctoral education. Based upon the findings in this special issue, we know residential doctoral programs are not distributed evenly across the country, but does it really matter if there is now an online option for all students? It is important to understand how potential employers now perceive online graduates and how potential doctoral students perceive online programs as acceptable alternatives to a brick-and-mortar campus experience.

Third, the important work of this journal's special issue in promoting high-quality outcomes in doctoral education should continue. Current descriptions of quality rely heavily on expert faculty opinions and judgments. We need to evaluate how these suggested best practices actually translate into more empirical outcomes, such as student satisfaction and retention, dissertation pass rates, job-seeking success, and post-degree productivity. Future studies can also benefit from larger sample sizes and broader representation from more programs to increase the generalizability of findings.

Finally, the work of better understanding and improving the student experience—especially that of students from culturally diverse backgrounds and identities—is critical. This special issue strikes a good balance with six student-oriented articles and two focused on helping programs recruit, retain, and support students from underrepresented minority backgrounds, but we have more yet to do. The work must continue until the words "underrepresented minority" are a thing of the past and we have doctoral student cohorts that truly reflect the diversity of our world.

Conclusion

As we conclude our introduction to this special issue on doctoral education, we are grateful for the contribution of the 14 studies and their authors. We now know more about the state of research in the profession, potential geographic gaps in program coverage, how to define and improve program quality, strategies to gain administrative support, and most importantly how to best increase diversity and promote student success. We hope that the combined insights in the assembled studies will help inform CES doctoral programming and contribute to a focused research agenda for years to come. We look forward to revisiting this first CES special issue in the future to observe its influence and the positive outcomes we trust will follow.

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Research Focused on Doctoral-Level Counselor Education: A Scoping Review

Gideon Litherland, Gretchen Schulthes

The aim of this study was to develop an understanding of the research scholarship focused on doctoral-level counselor education. Using the 2016 Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) doctoral standards as a frame to understand coverage of the research, we employed a scoping review methodology across four databases: ERIC, GaleOneFile, PsycINFO, and PubMed. Research between 2005 and 2019 was examined which resulted in identification of 39 articles covering at least one of the 2016 CACREP doctoral core areas. Implications for counseling researchers and counselor educators are discussed. This scoping research demonstrates the limited corpus of research on doctoral-level counselor education and highlights the need for future, organized scholarship.

Keywords: scoping review, doctoral-level counselor education, 2016 CACREP doctoral standards, counseling researchers, counselor educators

Counselor educators are positioned to be at the vanguard of research, teaching, and practice within the counseling profession (Okech & Rubel, 2018; Sears & Davis, 2003). The training of counselor educators is concentrated in the pursuit of doctoral degrees (e.g., PhD, EdD) in counselor education and supervision. Doctoral-level education of counselor educators is thus critical to the development of future leaders for the counseling profession (Goodrich et al., 2011). Counselor education doctoral students (CEDS) enrolled within programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) engage in advanced training in leadership, supervision, research, counseling, and teaching (CACREP, 2009, 2015; Del Rio & Mieling, 2012). CEDS complete academic coursework, participate in practicum and internship fieldwork, and deepen their professional counselor identity (Calley & Hawley, 2008; Limberg et al., 2013). Upon graduation, it is expected that CEDS are prepared to competently assume the responsibilities of a counselor educator. Counselor educators go on to work in any myriad of roles—professional and business leadership positions, academia, clinical and community settings, and consultation practices across the country (Bernard, 2006; Curtis & Sherlock, 2006; Gibson et al., 2015). It is imperative, then, for doctoral-level education to prepare and deliberately challenge these future counselor educators (Protivnak & Foss, 2009).

Historically, there have been concerns regarding the level of sustainability within the profession and the need for more qualified counselor educators (Isaacs & Sabella, 2013; Maples, 1989; Maples et al., 1993; Woo, Lu, Henfield, & Bang, 2017). Holding the terminal degree for the profession (Adkison-Bradley, 2013; CACREP, 2009; Goodrich et al., 2011), graduating CEDS meet the increasing demands across the country for trainers of a qualified workforce of school, college, rehabilitation, clinical mental health, addictions, and family counselors who can meet the psychosocial well-being needs of a diverse global population. There is an increasing need for counselors in all specialty areas, given recent projections of the next decade from the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2019). The needs of communities (e.g., criminalization of mental illness; Bernstein & Seltzer, 2003; Dvoskin et al., 2020), training programs (e.g., multicultural counseling preparedness; Celinska & Swazo, 2016; Zalaquett et al., 2008), and public mental health issues

(e.g., suicide; Gordon et al., 2020) reflect the urgency for a qualified workforce that can serve clients, students, and a global economy (Lloyd et al., 2010; U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, n.d.-a, n.d.-b). Because of the demand for such a workforce, the counseling profession and its institutions must be prepared to educate counselor educators who, in turn, lead, teach, supervise, and mentor future generations of helping professionals. Given these market demands, it is important to consider: To what degree are CEDS being prepared to meet these demands in their post-graduation roles? How are CEDS being prepared to meet such demands? What evidence exists to guide the training and development of CEDS?

Based on available data from official CACREP annual reports, from 2012 to 2018, the number of CACREP-accredited counselor education doctoral programs increased from 60 to 85 (CACREP, 2013, 2019). In the same time period, the number of enrolled CEDS grew from 2,028 to 2,917. The number of doctoral program graduates similarly increased from 323 to 479. This interest and investment in accredited doctoral programs at universities across the country warrants greater research attention to better understand, focus on, and shape the doctoral-level education of future counselor educators. A great deal rests on preparation of future counselor educators as they maintain the primary responsibility for leading the profession as standard-bearers and gatekeepers.

Research on counselor education doctoral study is essential for improving and maintaining the efficacy of doctoral training because CEDS are the future leaders, faculty members, supervisors, and advocates of the profession. A critical step toward facilitating research on counselor education doctoral study is a scoping review (Tricco et al., 2018). Scoping review methodology has previously been used within counseling and mental health research (e.g., Harms et al., 2020; Meekums et al., 2016). Such a review can assist in constructing a snapshot of the breadth and focus of the extant research.

CACREP Core Areas as a Useful Framework for Analysis

The *2016 CACREP Standards* (CACREP, 2015) delineate core areas of doctoral education and provide a meaningful and accessible framework appropriate to assess the state of doctoral-level education and training of CEDS. CACREP develops accreditation standards through an iterative research process that capitalizes on counseling program survey feedback, professional conference feedback sessions, and research within the counseling profession (Bobby, 2013; Bobby & Urofsky, 2008; Leahy et al., 2019; Williams et al., 2012). CACREP publishes updated accreditation standards that are publicly available online, on average, every 7 years (Perkins, 2017). The *2016 CACREP Standards* (2015) articulate core areas of doctoral-level education and training in counselor education that align with professional expectations of performance upon graduation. These areas include leadership/advocacy, counseling, professional identity, teaching, supervision, and research. These core areas aim to guide faculty in fostering the development of counselor educator identity and professional competence.

The 2016 CACREP (2015) doctoral-level core areas serve as a professionally relevant framework to examine the extant research addressing doctoral-level education and training of CEDS. Previous research has utilized CACREP master's-level core areas for content analysis (Diambra et al., 2011). Although much research within the field of counseling and other helping professions addresses the experiences and training needs of master's-level practitioners, there is seemingly scant published research addressing the education and training of CEDS. To arrive at a clearer understanding of this gap, a framework of analysis (e.g., the 2016 CACREP doctoral-level core domains) is necessary in order to furnish a status report of the current research addressing doctoral-level education and training of CEDS.

Employing the 2016 CACREP (2015) doctoral standards core areas as a frame through which to view the research emphasizes the importance of accreditation and professional counselor identity. Doctoral core areas directly relate to the domain-driven framework employed in this study. In order to achieve

a focused understanding of coverage of the CACREP core areas, the framework employed within this study conceptualizes each core area as a domain with two distinct differences: (a) distinguishing between leadership and advocacy in separate domains and (b) inclusion of professional identity as its own domain. The domains of our framework included Professional Identity, Supervision, Counseling, Teaching, Research, Leadership, and Advocacy. By systematically mapping the research conducted in each area of counselor education, we aimed to identify existing gaps in knowledge as a means to focus future research efforts. In this scoping review, the primary research question was "What is the coverage of the 2016 CACREP doctoral standards within the research over the past 15 years?" Research subquestions included (a) How many studies "fit" into each of the doctoral standard domains? (b) What frequency trends were present within the data related to type of research (qualitative, quantitative, mixed-methods)? (c) What publication trends were present within the data related to (i) year of publication, (ii) profession-based affiliation of the publishing journal, and (iii) the publishing journal? and (d) What other foci emerged that were not addressed by the CACREP 2016 doctoral program standards?

Methods

In order to address the primary research question and related subquestions in a systematic way, the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Review and Meta-Analysis Protocol (PRISMA-P; Moher et al., 2015) was considered. The PRISMA-P articulates critical components of a systematic review and aims to "reduce arbitrariness in decision-making" (Moher et al., 2015, p. 1) by facilitating a priori guidelines—with a goal of replicability. However, given the general-focus nature of the research question, the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses Extension for Scoping Reviews (PRISMA-ScR; Tricco et al., 2018) was more appropriate.

The PRISMA-ScR is an extension of the PRISMA-P with a broader focus on mapping "evidence on a topic and identify[ing] main concepts, theories, sources, and knowledge gaps" (Tricco et al., 2018, p. 467). The following steps, or items, of the PRISMA-ScR are described further in subsequent sections, including: primary and sub-research questions (Item 4), eligibility criteria (Item 5), exclusion criteria (Item 6), database sources (Item 7), search strategy (Item 8), data charting process (Item 10), data items (Item 11), and synthesis of results (Item 14). Items of the protocol not specifically listed here are satisfied by structural elements of this article (e.g., title [Item 1] and rationale [Item 3]).

Eligibility Criteria

For the present study, articles were only considered eligible for inclusion if they had been published in a peer-reviewed journal between 2005–2019. To be included in the study, articles were required to be research-based with an identified methodology (i.e., quantitative, qualitative, mixed-methods), primarily focused on some aspect of counselor education doctoral study (e.g., program, student, faculty, outcomes, process), and published in the English language. Articles were considered primarily focused on counselor education doctoral study if their research questions, study design, and implications directly bore relevance to the scholarship of doctoral counselor education. Excluded from the study were published dissertation work, magazines, conference proceedings, and other non–peer-reviewed publications. Position, policy, or practice pieces; case studies; conceptual articles; and theoretical articles also were excluded. The primary focus of the study could not be outside of counselor education doctoral study.

Information Sources

To identify articles for inclusion, the following databases were searched: PubMed, ERIC, GaleOneFile, and PsycINFO. We also utilized reference review (backward snowballing) as an additional information source (Jalali & Wohlin, 2012; Skoglund & Runeson, 2009).

Search

Each database was searched with a specific keyword, "counselor education doc*," followed by a topical search term. The asterisk (*) was deliberate in the search term to inclusively capture all permutations of "doc," such as doctoral or doctorate. Search terms were derived from the rationale for the present study and CACREP doctoral core areas. The search terms were: "research," "empirical," "counseling," "doctoral program standards," "peer-reviewed research," "CACREP," "doctorate," "quantitative," "program," "student," "faculty," "outcomes," "process," "professional identity," "counseling," "supervision," "teaching," "leadership," and "advocacy." Researchers divided the search terms, while maintaining the keyword "counselor education doc*," and independently ran systematic searches using any eligibility criteria (e.g., inclusive years) that the database could sort. Inclusion criteria, including search terms and keyword, were entered into the search query tool and the results exported. Results from each database search were delineated on a yield list for later screening.

In order to increase methodological consistency among researchers, each utilized a search yield matrix (Goldman & Schmalz, 2004). Results from each researcher's yield list were organized within the search yield matrix using three fields: article title, authors, and year of publication. This allowed for cleaner comparison of articles and continued identification of duplicates throughout the screening processes. Duplicate entries were collapsed to one citation so that only one entry per article remained, regardless of database origin. Each researcher conducted a preliminary screening of article titles with the inclusion criteria.

Selection of Sources of Evidence

In order to systematically screen articles and produce a final list for data collection, three levels of screening were conducted for the entire yield. Level 1, 2, and 3 screenings are described in detail below.

Level 1 Screening

Each researcher scanned their own yield list (duplicates removed). Every citation's title was examined for preliminary eligibility. Researchers agreed to engage in an inclusive scan of titles and pass articles on to Level 2 screening if they seemed at all relevant to doctoral counselor education. Researchers indicated an article's fitness for inclusion by a simple "yes" or "no" note on the Level 1 screening instrument. The yield from Level 1 screening was considered adequate for further review and moved on to Level 2 screening.

Level 2 Screening

Using the results from the Level 1 screening, each researcher scanned the other's "for inclusion" list. Each citation's abstract was examined for eligibility. Researchers indicated an article's fitness for inclusion by a simple "yes" or "no" note on the Level 2 screening instrument. The yield from Level 2 screening was considered adequate for further review and moved on to Level 3 screening.

Level 3 Screening

Using the results from the Level 2 screening, researchers combined their lists and consolidated duplicates. Each article's full text was examined for eligibility by each researcher. Researchers indicated an article's fitness for inclusion by a simple "yes" or "no" note on the Level 3 screening instrument. In order to avoid bias or influence, each researcher conducted their screening work on a separate document. In reviewing eligibility indicators, researchers sought resolution through discussion, review of eligibility criteria, and assessment of an article's scholarly focus. This process of Level 1, 2, and 3 screening resulted in a unified list.

Reference Review

In order to identify potential articles for inclusion that were missed or unintentionally excluded from the search process, researchers conducted a reference review strategy (Jalali & Wohlin, 2012; Skoglund & Runeson, 2009) on the unified list. The reference review consisted of examining the reference section of every article that was selected for inclusion in the unified list. Researchers examined the reference section for relevant titles (Level 1 screening) and endorsed each article according to "yes" or "no" for inclusion. If an article was determined possibly eligible for inclusion, a full-text examination (Level 3 screening) was conducted to determine further eligibility. Any articles determined to be eligible for inclusion were then added to the unified list.

Data Charting Process and Data Items

In the data charting process, we employed a matrix strategy (Goldman & Schmalz, 2004). Data was collected and organized within a data collection matrix instrument. We created the data collection matrix instrument to organize and focus data collection.

Data items included: year of publication, publishing journal, professional affiliation of publishing journal, type of methodology (e.g., qualitative, quantitative), and domain fitness (i.e., Counseling, Supervision, Teaching, Professional Identity, Research, Leadership, or Advocacy). If other themes were identified that did not fit within the domains, those were noted for later review.

To collect data, we divided the unified list into two halves and then independently charted the data for each citation in the data collection matrix instrument. To determine the professional affiliation of the publishing journal, we reviewed the public-facing website of each journal and reviewed the information available. To determine domain coverage, we reviewed the aim, research question(s), and discussion section of each article and compared the focus of the article to the 2016 CACREP doctoral core area descriptions. For example, if a study focused on the experience of CEDS becoming supervisors, this was coded as "Supervision." If, however, a study's aim and research question focused on an area of counselor education doctoral study that was not covered by a domain, then it was coded as "Other Focus." Researchers discussed articles coded as "Other Focus" and worked to collapse similar foci under broad categories for ease of reporting.

Of note, researchers did not consider articles that utilized CEDS within a sample or participant pool as automatically eligible for inclusion. Studies were only included if doctoral-level counselor education was a key component or focal point of the research inquiry. Every effort was made to ensure study appropriateness for review based on these criteria.

Synthesis of Results

We analyzed the results after data collection through descriptive statistics and basic data visualization of trends (e.g., frequency, type). We discussed each research subquestion, considered what data best addressed the question, and reviewed data for any trends. Having described the process of the scoping review, the results of the study are presented next according to the preferred reporting items for scoping reviews (Tricco et al., 2018).

Results

Selection of Sources

A total of 9,798 citations were initially retrieved from the ERIC ($n = 1,012$), GaleOneFile ($n = 327$), PsycINFO ($n = 1,298$) and PubMed ($n = 7,161$) databases. After an initial review of citation type

(e.g., book, white paper) and removal of duplicates, 3,076 articles remained. The Level 1 screening captured 2,599 ineligible articles not meeting the inclusion criteria. Therefore, at the end of the Level 1 screening, 477 citations remained. The Level 2 screening captured 292 ineligible articles that did not meet inclusion criteria, resulting in 185 articles. As researchers combined lists for Level 3 screening and identified duplicates, 185 articles reduced to 123. The Level 3 screening captured 52 ineligible articles that did not meet inclusion criteria, resulting in 71 articles for the unified list. Articles from the reference review yield ($n = 9$) were screened and added to the unified list. The unified list initially consisted of 80 citations. However, three articles were removed as a result of data cleaning (e.g., text-based differences not previously captured by sorting tool) and/or not meeting inclusion criteria (e.g., inaccuracies in published article's references). Therefore, 77 articles were selected for inclusion within the present scoping review.

Coverage of CACREP Doctoral Domains

The results suggested that some trends exist within the literature focused on doctoral study within counselor education. Although there was coverage of each of the 2016 CACREP doctoral standards core areas within the last 15 years, it was quite minimal (see Table 1). Of our 77 identified studies, 39 studies (50.65%) mapped onto the seven-domain framework. This left 38 studies (49.35%) focusing on some other aspect of counselor education doctoral study, discussed further below.

Table 1

Domain Coverage as Addressed by Year

Identified Domain	Advocacy	Counseling	Leadership	Professional Identity	Research	Supervision	Teaching	Total
	n	*n*	*n*	*n*	*n*	*n*	*n*	*n*
Year								
2006	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	2
2008	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
2009	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
2011	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	5
2012	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	2
2013	0	0	0	3	1	0	1	5
2014	0	0	1	0	1	2	0	4
2015	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1
2016	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	5
2017	1	3	1	3	4	3	2	17
2018	0	1	0	2	1	0	1	5
2019	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	3
Total	1	9	2	10	10	11	8	51

Note. N = 51. Some articles met the criteria for more than one domain; therefore, the stated *N* is higher than the total number of articles identified. The years 2005, 2007, and 2010 are not included in the above table, as no articles that met the inclusion criteria and the established domains were published during those years.

Across the 15 years of literature examined in the current study, 39 studies covered the CACREP domains within our framework, but not necessarily with equal attention by scholars. To respond to the question "How many studies 'fit' into each of the doctoral standard domains?" we looked at the frequency of occurrence, per domain, across the 39 studies. Data indicated that Supervision was most frequently covered ($n = 11$), followed by Professional Identity ($n = 10$) and Research ($n = 10$). Domains with less than 10 studies over the 15-year time period included Counseling ($n = 9$), Teaching ($n = 8$), Leadership ($n = 2$), and Advocacy ($n = 1$). Of note, some articles mapped onto multiple domains during the coding process (see Appendix).

Methodological Trends

In determining frequency trends related to methodology, researchers analyzed each article's research questions, method, and results section. Within the 39 domain-covering articles, there was a nearly equal emphasis between quantitative and qualitative research on doctoral counselor education. Of the domain-covering articles, 21 identified a clear quantitative methodology and 17 identified a clear qualitative methodology. Only one study identified a mixed-methods methodology and mapped onto the Professional Identity domain.

Publication Trends

The results did not indicate any identified trend within the year of publication. With regard to the professional affiliation of the publishing journal, 31 (79.49%) were published within counseling journals, and 8 (20.51%) were in interdisciplinary journals that were either topical (e.g., multicultural education) or methodologically (e.g., qualitative) focused.

Nearly half of the articles ($n = 15$) were published in *Counselor Education and Supervision*. *The Professional Counselor* was the second most frequent journal of publication ($n = 5$), followed by *The Clinical Supervisor*, *Counseling Outcome Research and Evaluation*, and the *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling*, which each published two articles over the 15-year period (see Table 2).

The remaining journals—*American Journal of Evaluation*; *Australian Journal of Rehabilitation Counselling*; *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling*; *Counseling and Values*; *Journal of Asia Pacific Counseling*; *Journal of College Counseling*; *Journal of Counseling & Development*; *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*; *Journal of Rehabilitation, Mindfulness, Multicultural Learning and Teaching*; *The Practitioner Scholar: Journal of Counseling and Professional Psychology* (now: *The Practitioner Scholar: Journal of the International Trauma Training Institute*); and *The Qualitative Report*—each only had one published article that covered a domain within the 15-year period.

Other Emergent Themes

Several themes emerged across the 38 remaining articles that did not address a domain within our framework (see Table 3). These articles focused on some aspect of doctoral counselor education but considered some near-experience or program factor that did not directly link to CEDS' learning, training, or skill acquisition. The most frequently occurring topics addressed by the scholarly literature were dissertations ($n = 6$), general student experience ($n = 4$), and persons of color ($n = 4$). Other identified themes include: admissions ($n = 3$), program culture ($n = 3$), attrition/persistence ($n = 2$), career planning ($n = 2$), comprehensive exams – student experience ($n = 2$), general wellness ($n = 2$), motherhood ($n = 2$), problematic behavior ($n = 2$), international students ($n = 1$), international students – student experience ($n = 1$), school counselor educators ($n = 1$), spirituality ($n = 1$), wellness in motherhood ($n = 1$), and workforce issues ($n = 1$).

Table 2

Number of Articles Addressing Domains by Journal

Journal Name	*n*
Counselor Education and Supervision	15
The Professional Counselor	5
The Clinical Supervisor	2
Counseling Outcome Research and Evaluation	2
International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling	2
American Journal of Evaluation	1
Australian Journal of Rehabilitation Counselling	1
British Journal of Guidance & Counselling	1
Counseling and Values	1
Journal of Asia Pacific Counseling	1
Journal of College Counseling	1
Journal of Counseling & Development	1
Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development	1
Journal of Rehabilitation	1
Mindfulness	1
Multicultural Learning and Teaching	1
The Practitioner Scholar: Journal of Counseling and Professional Psychology (now: *The Practitioner Scholar: Journal of the International Trauma Training Institute*)	1
The Qualitative Report	1
Total	39

Note. N = 39. Only articles that met the inclusion criteria and covered at least one doctoral domain are included.

Discussion

Given the importance of training doctoral-level counselor educators for the profession's long-term growth and development, the results suggest minimal coverage of the CACREP doctoral standards core areas within the extant research. With little expectation of what we would find, this work is intentionally diagnostic of the current research scholarship focusing on doctoral counselor education. To date, no other scoping review research has focused on doctoral-level counselor education.

Given that only 39 articles satisfied our criteria, it is important to note that the scope of this review was limited to only research-based published literature. There may be valuable grey literature and scholarship focused on doctoral-level counselor education, but it was not captured within our narrow, predetermined scope. Another possible reason for our results may simply be a function of the profession's emphasis on master's-level training within the broader counseling literature. As the entry-level degree for the counseling profession, it comports with expectations that master's-level training would, therefore, be

more represented within the literature. Further, it may be the early developmental stage of the counseling profession that, in part, explains the lack of attention to doctoral-level counselor education. Additionally, the research-to-practice gap within the counseling profession may also explain the minimum coverage of the CACREP core areas within our results. For a detailed discussion of the research-to-practice gap in the counseling profession, see Lee et al. (2014).

Table 3

Number of Articles Addressing Other Foci Beyond Domains

Other Focus	*n*
Dissertations	6
Persons of Color	4
Admissions	3
Program Culture	3
Attrition/Persistence	2
Career Planning	2
Motherhood	2
Problematic Behavior	2
International Students	1
School Counselor Educators	1
Spirituality	1
Student Experience	
General	4
Comprehensive Exams	2
International Students	1
Wellness	
General	2
Wellness in Motherhood	1
Workforce Issues	1
Total	38

Note. N = 38. Each article identified as having another focus was only placed into one category.

Domain-Specific Discussion

Across the domains, there was notably uneven coverage. With the highest occurrence (*n* = 11), Supervision may be more extensively covered because it is a skillset that is well-emphasized within counselor education and *supervision* doctoral programs. Supervision, as a professional skillset, also has significant interprofessional interest, relevance, and marketability. Professional Identity (*n* = 10) as a focus of doctoral-level research makes sense given the past two decades' emphasis on unifying the profession and the resultant professional discourse around professional identity (Kaplan & Gladding, 2011). As CEDS experience a transition in their identity from practitioner to educator/researcher, professional identity is a natural topic of inquiry (Dollarhide et al., 2013). Similarly, as research skill

and identity development have been an important part of the counselor education discourse (Lamar et al., 2019; Okech et al., 2006), it follows that Research (*n* = 10) would be tied for second in coverage of the CACREP core areas. Counseling (*n* = 9) was covered within the literature, somewhat surprisingly, more frequently than other domains that are considered foundational to the role of a counselor educator (Okech & Rubel, 2018), such as Teaching and Leadership.

The research covering Teaching (*n* = 8) and doctoral-level counselor *education* has received scant attention across the 15-year period. There are likely a few historical factors that have influenced this result. Most notably, doctoral training, specifically of PhDs, has not emphasized teaching, but rather the development of the subject expert (Kot & Hendel, 2012). And although counselor educators consider the training, teaching, and supervision of counselors-in-training to be a critical part of their work, the effectiveness of their teaching preparation remains a critical research topic (Association of Counselor Education and Supervision [ACES] Teaching Initiative Taskforce, 2016; Barrio Minton et al., 2018; Suddeath et al., 2020; Waalkes et al., 2018). Teaching also may not be as robustly covered of a domain in the research because of the historical reliance on other disciplines' theories, andragogies, and practices or the absence of a collective, focused research agenda (ACES Teaching Initiative Taskforce, 2016).

Finally, although Leadership (*n* = 2) and Advocacy (*n* = 1) were covered within the research, the strikingly low occurrences of coverage stand in stark contrast to the profession's stated values. Leadership is a robust area of scholarship outside of the profession of counseling and it is considered a critical part of doctoral counselor education (Chang et al., 2012). It may be that a significant amount of leadership-focused literature is primarily conceptual or theoretical in nature and thus did not meet the inclusion criteria. The absence in our results of research-driven discourse around doctoral-level leadership is noteworthy for those training the future leaders of the profession. Similarly, though advocacy has been discussed as a critical part of counselor practice (Toporek et al., 2010), it has also received little attention within the doctoral-level counselor education research. One possible reason for the minimal attention could be the seeming devaluation of advocacy within traditional conceptualizations of faculty scholarship (e.g., research, teaching; Ramsey et al., 2002). Perhaps, then, there is a "fitness" issue between professional advocacy skills and job responsibilities.

Other Foci

These articles (*n* = 38) focused on some aspect of doctoral counselor education but also considered some element that did not directly link to CEDS' learning, training, or skill acquisition. This may suggest a general interest in the experience and context of CEDS within the literature that simply did not map onto our scoping frame. The rationale for such non-domain, other-focused research likely lies in the counseling profession's tacit understanding that education is a holistic endeavor and not solely driven by accreditation (Dickens et al., 2016).

There is value in this research that focuses on other aspects of the doctoral counselor education experience. If the profession is to value the role of accreditation in fostering quality education across the country, then it remains vital to build out a research base that bears relevance to both program accreditation and other variables related to the doctoral experience.

Limitations

In selecting the methodology for this study, researchers aimed to reduce limitations and increase rigor through the adoption of a protocol. Despite using the scoping review protocol, limitations of this study are evident and worth considering for future replications, particularly related to the search strategy, inclusion criteria, and the stringent focus on counselor education.

In designing the search strategy, researchers limited search terms to the most proximal to the CACREP doctoral core areas. Because of the limited set of search terms used, the search strategy may not have captured an exhaustive list of all eligible citations for inclusion. A possible solution to address this in future studies is the addition of broader spectrum search terms and automated search engines, such as Publish or Perish (Harzing, 2010).

Citations were only included if they were peer-reviewed, research-based articles; no grey literature was included. However, future scoping reviews may consider including grey literature (research-based or not research-based) in order to get a broader understanding of the existing scholarship focusing on doctoral counselor education.

By design, this study focused solely on "counselor education," to the deliberate exclusion of "counseling psychology," the profession's historical cousin within the field of psychology. Counselor education is, however, also a terminology used primarily within the United States, and many countries do not differentiate these fields as distinctly as the United States (Bedi, 2016). As such, the possibility exists that some international articles that may contribute to the conversation on doctoral counselor education have not been captured within this review. Including counseling psychology in future studies may result in a more comprehensive yield, but the education and accreditation differences between the two professions is worthy to note.

Implications for Research

In the absence of clear parameters to assess our results, we may consider this study as an initial diagnostic baseline in a larger effort to identify knowledge gaps and set shared research agendas (Tricco et al., 2016). Notable in the results is the lack of a sustained scholarship addressing doctoral-level counselor education. As research excellence remains a priority for the counseling profession (Kaplan & Gladding, 2011; Kline, 2003; Wester & Borders, 2014), counseling scholars require strategies to construct a long-term research agenda exploring doctoral-level counselor education and directly informing training. Such strategies may include regular assessments of the scope of the research (such as this study), a community of collaborative researchers, and professional association support and showcasing. In developing a clear understanding of doctoral-level counselor education, researchers may then work toward defining effectiveness, evaluation, and excellence in doctoral preparation. Further, for researchers interested in publishing in this area of scholarship, it may be useful to consider the publishing journal results in order to compare editorial fitness for manuscript publication. All domains considered warrant further attention and scholarly investigation.

Implications for Counselor Educators

In light of the 39 research-driven articles focusing on doctoral counselor education published from 2005–2019, it is critical to wonder if this is a robust enough evidence base to inform program-wide decision-making for doctoral training programs. For example, in a cursory review of the counseling literature, few published textbooks exist that specifically address doctoral-level counselor education domains, such as teaching (McAuliffe & Eriksen, 2011; West et al., 2013) or research (Balkin & Kleist, 2016) and at-large issues (Flamez et al., 2017; Homrich & Henderson, 2018; Okech & Rubel, 2018). To move beyond adapting master's-level curriculum for more advanced practice, as may be appropriate for experienced professional counselors, counselor educators require a specific body of literature, tools, and strategies for developing doctoral counselor education programs that meet or exceed CACREP standards.

As doctoral-level preparation has previously been identified as vital for the long-term growth of the profession (Sears & Davis, 2003), doctoral program directors, faculty, and staff would benefit from the development of, for example, a specialized andragogy, professional identity, and best practices for

implementation. Such a corpus of research evidence and praxis knowledge of doctoral-level counselor education could inform professional development workshops and resources focused on fostering doctoral student development. The results of the current study suggest an urgent need to address such gaps in our empirical body of evidence for application to counselor education doctoral programs.

Implications for the Counseling Profession

CACREP, as the accrediting body for counseling programs across the country, assumes the responsibility for setting the standard of professional preparation for doctoral learners. By articulating clear and robust standards for doctoral programs, CACREP advances a framework that aims to produce competent counselor educators. It is essential to consider the extant conceptual, empirical, and experience base. Within this scoping review, findings indicate a seemingly impoverished empirical base covering the domains for doctoral-level counselor education. Other authors have called for further empirical inquiry of the CACREP standards, with particular respect to the evidence base for teaching preparation. In the ACES Teaching Initiative Taskforce (2016) Final Report, the authors wondered, "To what degree do current [2016] CACREP standards capture knowledge, skills, and dispositions needed for effective teaching practice in counselor education?" (p. 36). To extend this question, it may also be asked, "To what degree do the current CACREP standards capture the knowledge, skills, and dispositions necessary to be an effective counselor educator post-graduation?" Additionally, "What empirical base can we draw from to inform our training of future counselor educators?"

CACREP is actively engaged in promoting research on the impact of accreditation and is thus uniquely positioned to encourage focused scholarship to develop a research base for future iterations of the doctoral standards. In order to meaningfully shape and encourage scholarly research, counseling organizations should embrace opportunities for collaboration. Extending cooperative partnerships with professional associations, such as ACES, may prove especially fruitful for CACREP, and the larger counseling profession, in constructing a professional scholarly discourse around research of doctoral-level preparation. Such strategies that could stimulate research focused on doctoral-level preparation in counselor education may include: facilitating research-incubation initiatives; increasing the availability and amount of funding for such research; and the regular publication of briefs, syntheses, or memoranda that promote research-based or empirically driven preparation practices.

Conclusion

If doctoral preparation of counselor educators is to advance in a research-informed way, then the scholarship of doctoral-level training is valuable. Calling for more research is not the final conclusion of this study. Rather, if doctoral-level counselor education is to remain important to the profession, then the profession would benefit from an organized, focused, and high-quality scholarship of doctoral-level training. Doctoral programs, counselor educators, and the profession would benefit from a robust corpus of scholarship that directly impacts decision-making, andragogy, and professional identity development. With minimal research covering the identified doctoral-level domains, an opportunity exists to engage in critical reflection on the existing scholarship and evidence that form the foundational architecture of doctoral-level education within the counseling profession. This research seeks to assist in identifying the gaps in the current body of published research literature on doctoral-level counselor education and inform future research activity.

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Appendix
Articles and Associated Domain Coverage

Title	Author	Year	Domains
An Exploration of the Perceived Impact of Post-Master's Experience on Doctoral Study in Counselor Education and Supervision	Farmer et al.	2017	Advocacy, Counseling, Leadership, Professional Identity, Research, Supervision, Teaching
Mindfulness and Counseling Self-Efficacy: The Mediating Role of Attention and Empathy	Greason, P. B., & Cashwell, C. S.	2009	Counseling
Perceived Competency in Working with LGB Clients: Where Are We Now?	Graham et al.	2012	Counseling
Faith as A Cultural Variable: Implications for Counselor Training	Scott et al.	2016	Counseling
Collecting Multidimensional Client Data Using Repeated Measures: Experiences of Clients and Counselors Using The CCAPS-34	Martin et al.	2012	Counseling
Counselor Education Students' Exposure to Trauma Cases	Lu et al.	2017	Counseling
Multicultural Implications of the Influence of Ethnicity and Self-Efficacy for Students and Counselor Educators	Maldonado, J. M.	2008	Counseling
Examining the Relationship Between Mindfulness and Multicultural Counseling Competencies in Counselor Trainees	Campbell et al.	2018	Counseling, Professional Identity
Critical Readings for Doctoral Training in Rehabilitation Counseling: A Consensus-Building Approach	Bishop et al.	2017	Counseling, Professional Identity, Research, Supervision, Teaching
Perceived Leadership Preparation in Counselor Education Doctoral Students Who Are Members of the American Counseling Association in CACREP-Accredited Programs	Lockard et al.	2014	Leadership
Mexican American Women Pursuing Counselor Education Doctorates: A Narrative Inquiry	Hinojosa, T. J., & Carney, J. V.	2016	Professional Identity
A "Chameleonic" Identity: Foreign-Born Doctoral Students in U.S. Counselor Education	Interiano, C. G., & Lim, J. H.	2018	Professional Identity
Professional Identity Development in Counseling Professionals	Woo, H., Lu, J., Harris, C., & Cauley, B.	2017	Professional Identity
Professional Identity Development of Counselor Education Doctoral Students: A Qualitative Investigation	Limberg et al.	2013	Professional Identity
Professional Identity Development of Counselor Education Doctoral Students	Dollarhide et al.	2013	Professional Identity

Title	Author	Year	Domains
Fostering Connections Between Graduate Students and Strengthening Professional Identity Through Co-Mentoring	Murdock et al.	2013	Professional Identity
Pedagogical Perspectives on Counselor Education: An Autoethnographic Experience of Doctoral Student Development	Elliott et al.	2019	Professional Identity, Teaching
Evidence for the Mitigating Effects of a Support Group for Attitudes Toward Statistics	Lenz et al.	2013	Research
The Authorship Determination Process in Student–Faculty Collaboration Research	Welfare, L. E., & Sackett, C. R.	2011	Research
Understanding the Researcher Identity Development of Counselor Education and Supervision Doctoral Students	Lamar, M. R., & Helm, H. M.	2017	Research
Doctoral Counselor Education Students' Levels of Research Self-Efficacy, Perceptions of the Research Training Environment, and Interest in Research	Lambie, G. W., & Vaccaro, N.	2011	Research
Doctoral Research Training of Counselor Education Faculty	Okech et al.	2006	Research
Advisory Relationship as a Moderator Between Research Self-Efficacy, Motivation, and Productivity Among Counselor Education Doctoral Students	Kuo et al.	2017	Research
Research Training in Doctoral Programs Accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs	Borders et al.	2014	Research
Program Evaluation in Doctoral-Level Counselor Education Preparation: Concerns and Recommendations	Sink, C. A., & Lemich, G.	2018	Research
International Doctoral Students in Counselor Education: Coping Strategies in Supervision Training	Woo et al.	2015	Supervision
A Qualitative Study of Challenges Faced by International Doctoral Students in Counselor Education Supervision Courses	Jang et al.	2014	Supervision
Becoming a Supervisor: Qualitative Findings on Self-Efficacy Beliefs of Doctoral Student Supervisors-in-Training	Frick, M. H., & Glosoff, H. L.	2014	Supervision
Becoming a Supervisor: Doctoral Student Perceptions of the Training Experience	Nelson et al.	2006	Supervision
New Supervisors' Struggles and Successes With Corrective Feedback	Borders et al.	2017	Supervision

Title	Author	Year	Domains
A Delphi Study and Initial Validation of Counselor Supervision Competencies	Neuer Colburn et al.	2016	Supervision
Supervisee Incompatibility and Its Influence on Triadic Supervision: An Examination of Doctoral Student Supervisor's Perspectives	Hein et al.	2011	Supervision
Examining the Status of Supervision Education in Rehabilitation Counsellor Training	Pebdani et al.	2016	Supervision
Student Reflections on the Journey to Being a Supervisor	Rapisarda et al.	2011	Supervision
Learning to Teach: Teaching Internships in Counselor Education and Supervision	Hunt, B., & Gilmore, G. W.	2011	Teaching
Teaching Competencies in Counselor Education: A Delphi Study	Swank, J. M.	2019	Teaching
Structure, Impact, and Deficiencies of Beginning Counselor Educators' Doctoral Teaching Preparation	Waalkes et al.	2018	Teaching
Coteaching in Counselor Education: Preparing Doctoral Students for Future Teaching	Baltrinic et al.	2016	Teaching
Observing the Development of Constructivist Pedagogy in One Counselor Education Doctoral Cohort: A Single Case Design	McCaughan et al.	2013	Teaching

Note. N = 39. Only articles that met the inclusion criteria and covered at least one doctoral domain are included.

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The Pipeline Problem in Doctoral Counselor Education and Supervision

Thomas A. Field, William H. Snow, J. Scott Hinkle

The hiring of new faculty members in counselor education programs can be complicated by the available pool of qualified graduates with doctoral degrees in counselor education and supervision, as required by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) for core faculty status. A pipeline problem for faculty hiring may exist in regions with fewer doctoral programs. In this study, the researchers examined whether the number of doctoral programs accredited by CACREP is regionally imbalanced. The researchers used an ex post facto study to analyze differences in the number of doctoral programs among the five regions commonly defined by national counselor education associations and organizations. A large and significant difference was found in the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs by region, even when population size was statistically controlled. The Western region had by far the fewest number of doctoral programs. The number of CACREP-accredited master's programs in a state was a large and significant predictor for the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs in a state. State population size, state population density, the number of universities per state, and the number of American Psychological Association–accredited counseling psychology programs were not predictors. Demand may surpass supply of doctoral counselor educators in certain regions, resulting in difficulties with hiring new faculty for some CACREP-accredited programs. An analysis of programs currently in the process of applying for CACREP accreditation suggests that this pipeline problem looks likely to continue or even worsen in the near future. Implications for counselor education and supervision are discussed.

Keywords: doctoral programs, master's programs, counselor education and supervision, CACREP, pipeline problem

Counselor education has experienced substantial growth over the past decade. The number of students enrolled in master's and doctoral programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) has increased exponentially. In 2012, there were 36,977 master's-level students and 2,028 doctoral students in CACREP-accredited programs (CACREP, 2013). By 2018, that number had risen to 52,861 master's students (43% increase) and 2,917 doctoral students (44% increase; CACREP, 2019b). Counselor education programs have also expanded across the United States, following the merger between CACREP and the Council for Rehabilitation Education (CORE) in 2017 (CACREP, 2017). All 50 states and the District of Columbia now contain counselor education programs accredited by CACREP (CACREP, n.d.), though the number of programs can vary substantially across states (see Appendix).

This enrollment growth in CACREP-accredited master's programs may be influenced by events that generated a greater need for graduates of master's CACREP-accredited counselor education programs. In 2010, the U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) published standards that permitted licensed counselors to work independently within its system (T. A. Field, 2017). Subsequently in 2013, TRICARE, the military insurance for active military and retirees, created a new rule that would permit licensed counselors to join TRICARE panels and independently bill for services (U.S. Department of Defense, 2014). Both rules required candidates to graduate from a CACREP-accredited program as a basis for eligibility. The VA and TRICARE's requirement for licensed counselors to graduate from CACREP-

Thomas A. Field, PhD, NCC, CCMHC, ACS, LPC, LMHC, is an assistant professor at the Boston University School of Medicine. William H. Snow, PhD, is a professor at Palo Alto University. J. Scott Hinkle, PhD, ACS, BCC, HS-BCP, is a core faculty member at Palo Alto University. Correspondence may be addressed to Thomas Field, 72 E Concord St., Suite B-210, Boston, MA 02118, tfield@bu.edu.

accredited programs to qualify for independent practice status was in response to a 2010 report issued by the Institute of Medicine, now known as the National Academy of Sciences, Engineering, and Medicine's Health and Medicine Division. The report recommended that professional counselors have "a master's or higher-level degree in counseling from a program in mental health counseling or clinical mental health counseling that is accredited by CACREP" (p. 10). The additional legitimization of CACREP by the VA and TRICARE increased interest among counselor education programs to seek and maintain CACREP accreditation, especially for the master's specialty of clinical mental health counseling (T. A. Field, 2017). In addition, graduation from a CACREP-accredited program has become a requirement for licensure in certain states (e.g., Ohio) within the past few years, following advocacy efforts by counselor leaders (Lawson et al., 2017). Lawson et al. (2017) and Mascari and Webber (2013) have proposed that establishing CACREP as the educational standard for licensure would strengthen the professional identity and place counseling on par with other master's-level mental health professions that require graduation from an accredited program for licensure. Graduation from a CACREP-accredited program will also become a requirement for certification by the National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC) as of 2024 (NBCC, 2018). These changes will likely bolster the valuing of CACREP accreditation by prospective students and also result in ever-increasing numbers of counseling programs that seek and maintain CACREP accreditation.

The growth in doctoral student enrollment (44%; CACREP, 2019b) may in part reflect the need for individuals with doctoral degrees to serve as counselor educators for these growing master's programs. It is also likely due to a major change in faculty qualifications. To advance the professionalization of counseling (Lawson, 2016), the 2009 CACREP standards (2008) required all core faculty hired after 2013 to possess doctoral degrees in counselor education and supervision (CES), preferably from CACREP-accredited programs. From 2013 onward, newly appointed core faculty with doctorates in counseling psychology or other non-counseling disciplines could no longer qualify for faculty positions in CACREP-accredited doctoral CES programs. Lawson (2016) articulated that prior to this standard, an inequity existed whereby psychologists could be recruited for counselor education faculty positions, though counselor educators could not be hired for full-time psychology faculty positions. As a result, the psychology doctorate had a distinct advantage over the CES doctorate in the hiring of new faculty in counseling and psychology faculty positions (Lawson, 2016).

In light of these requirements for new faculty members in counselor education programs to possess doctorates in CES to qualify as core faculty, the hiring of new faculty members may be complicated by the available pool of qualified graduates. While counselor education programs routinely hire faculty from outside of their region, it seems possible that programs in regions with fewer counselor education doctoral programs may have greater difficulty in hiring counselor educators compared with programs in regions with numerous doctoral programs in CES. The extent of regional differences in the number of CES doctoral programs has not previously been quantitatively explored in the extant literature.

Regional Representation of Counselor Education Programs

Despite the national representation of CACREP-accredited programs and enrollment growth for both master's and doctoral programs, the number of CACREP-accredited master's and doctoral programs is not equally distributed and varies substantially by state and by region. Table 1 depicts that the national ratio of CACREP-accredited master's-to-doctoral counselor education programs is roughly 9:1 (CACREP, n.d.). As seen in Table 1, these ratios vary by region as defined by national counselor education associations and organizations (i.e., North Atlantic, North Central, Rocky Mountain, Southern, Western regions). The North Central, Rocky Mountain, and Southern regions currently have a ratio of master's-to-doctoral programs that ranges from 3:1 to 5:1. In comparison,

the North Atlantic and Western regions have a 9:1 and 18:1 ratio of CACREP-accredited master's-to-doctoral programs, respectively.

Table 1

Regional Representation of CACREP-Accredited Programs (December 2018)

Region	Population	CACREP Doctoral Programs	CACREP Master's Programs	Ratio of Master's to Doctoral	% States with Doctoral Programs	Ratio of Population to Master's Programs	Ratio of Population to Doctoral Programs
North Atlantic	57,780,705	8	75	9:1	36.4	770,409:1	7,222,588:1
North Central	72,251,823	23	104	5:1	69.2	694,729:1	3,141,384:1
Rocky Mountain	14,346,347	8	24	3:1	83.3	597,764:1	1,793,293:1
Southern	119,141,243	44	162	4:1	93.3	735,440:1	2,647,583:1
Western	63,647,316	2	35	18:1	28.6	1,818,495:1	31,823,658:1
Total	**327,167,434**	**85**	**783**	**9:1**		**417,838:1**	**3,804,272:1**

Note. Ratios rounded to closest whole number. Source of CACREP data: https://www.cacrep.org/directory/. Source of U.S. Census data: https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/popest/2010s-national-total.html#par_textimage_2011805803

This overall ratio of master's-to-doctoral programs is likely to increase in the coming years, as a total of 63 master's programs are in the process of applying for CACREP accreditation compared to only five doctoral programs, as depicted in the Appendix (i.e., 13:1 ratio). This 13:1 ratio exceeds the current 9:1 ratio. As seen in the Appendix, the regions with the highest ratios currently (North Atlantic and Western regions) have at least the same if not greater ratio of master's-to-doctoral programs currently in the CACREP accreditation process (10:1 and 8:0 respectively), meaning that these unequal ratios will likely remain stable for some time to come. Although population size in states and regions may play some role in this unequal distribution, other factors likely contribute to this phenomenon. No previous literature has examined factors contributing to regional differences in the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs.

The confluence of (a) greater numbers of CACREP-accredited master's programs, (b) greater student enrollment numbers in CACREP-accredited master's programs, (c) CACREP requirements for hiring faculty to meet faculty–student ratios, and (d) the 2013 CACREP requirement for core faculty to possess doctorates in CES may together result in increased demand for hiring doctoral CES graduates to maintain CACREP accreditation. A pipeline problem may result from demand surpassing supply, with programs struggling to hire qualified doctoral graduates. This imbalance of supply and demand appears most exaggerated for faculty with expertise in school counseling (Bernard, 2006; Bodenhorn et al., 2014). Bodenhorn et al. (2014) expressed concern that the 2013 CACREP requirement for core faculty could limit enrollment in master's programs. Although enrollment continues to climb in CACREP-accredited programs nationally, it is possible that regions with fewer doctoral programs may limit master's enrollment because of difficulties with hiring additional core faculty. Programs in regions with fewer doctoral programs may struggle to convince candidates from other regions to relocate to their locale.

In the higher education literature, multiple studies have noted that location and proximity to home appears to be a fairly consistent reason for why prospective doctoral students, and later assistant professors, choose their doctoral programs and faculty positions, making recruitment from outside of a region difficult. Geographic location and proximity to home has been identified as the number one ranked reason for program selection in counselor education programs by master's and doctoral students (Honderich & Lloyd-Hazlett, 2015) and in higher education doctoral programs (Poock & Love, 2001), and the second-ranked reason in marriage and family therapy doctoral programs (Hertlein & Lambert-Shute, 2007). Prospective students from underrepresented minority backgrounds appear to also consider the importance of community and geographic factors in doctoral program selection (Bersola et al., 2014). In a qualitative study by Linder and Winston Simmons (2015), proximity to family was an important factor in students choosing doctoral programs in student affairs. A qualitative study by Ramirez (2013) also found that proximity to home was a strong predictor of Latinx student choice of doctoral programs.

Very few studies exist into candidate selection of faculty positions at the completion of a doctoral CES program. The published studies that do exist have similarly found that location is again a primary consideration for new assistant professors when selecting their first faculty position. Magnuson et al. (2001) surveyed new assistant professors in counselor education and found that location was a primary factor for more than half of participants. New assistant professors considered proximity to family, geographical features, and opportunities for spouse when selecting their first faculty position (Magnuson et al., 2001). In more recent studies in other academic disciplines, geographic location remained a strong factor (though not the most important factor) for why academic job seekers chose faculty positions in hospitality (Millar et al., 2009) and accounting (Hunt & Jones, 2015). In academic medicine, geographic location was again a key reason for why candidates from underrepresented minority backgrounds selected faculty positions (Peek et al., 2013). It is worth noting that in the Millar et al. (2009) study, international students ranked geographic location as less important than their U.S. counterparts, though they ranked family ties to region as more important. It is possible that the rise of online positions may make location less of a factor in candidate job selection today compared to years past. Follow-up studies are needed to examine the role of geographic location in candidate selection of in-person and online faculty positions.

Although relatively few studies into the selection of faculty roles exist, location appears to be a consistent reason for why prospective doctoral students and later assistant professors choose their doctoral programs and faculty positions. Programs in regions with few doctoral programs may experience multiple layered challenges when hiring faculty. The master's students in those regions have fewer options for doctoral study closer to home and therefore may need to consider leaving home and family to attend a doctoral program in a different region or attending a program with online or hybrid delivery options. Although online options are becoming more numerous, studies are needed to evaluate the frequency by which online doctoral graduates secure faculty positions versus in-person graduates, as this is currently unknown. It is possible that students may elect not to pursue doctoral study if they are unwilling to relocate, which potentially limits the pipeline of future faculty members who are originally from regions with fewer doctoral programs. Furthermore, doctoral graduates from other regions may have originally chosen their doctoral program in part because of geographical location, which may limit their openness to taking a faculty position in a region that has few doctoral programs. Thus, although counselor education programs in regions with fewer doctoral programs may need to hire candidates outside of the region, candidates from outside of the region may be less willing to move to a region with fewer doctoral programs. This may create difficulties for counselor education programs in regions with fewer doctoral programs that are seeking to fill open core faculty positions.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to begin to address the gap in what is known regarding the extent of regional differences for the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs in CES. To date, regional differences in the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs have not been studied. The researchers believed that gaining information about regional differences in the number of doctoral programs would be helpful in understanding the nature and extent of the pipeline problem in CES.

Methodology

The guiding research question was as follows: To what extent do regional differences exist in the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs in CES? The researchers identified two hypotheses: 1) There are differences in the number of doctoral programs by region even when controlling for population size, and 2) The number of CACREP-accredited master's programs is a strong predictor of doctoral CACREP-accredited programs by state. Because counselor education programs must already have achieved master's CACREP accreditation for a full 8 years in order to apply for doctoral CACREP accreditation (CACREP, 2019a), the researchers hypothesized that the number of doctoral programs by region would be directly related to the number of CACREP-accredited master's programs in the region.

For the purposes of this study, the word *program* refers to a counseling academic unit housed within an academic institution offering one or more CACREP-accredited master's counseling specialties that include addiction counseling; career counseling; clinical mental health counseling; clinical rehabilitation counseling; college counseling and student affairs; marriage, couple, and family counseling; rehabilitation counseling; or school counseling. These programs also may offer a doctorate in CES. In this study, master's programs were tallied by program unit rather than specialization tracks within programs to avoid counting multiples for the same master's program.

The researchers selected an ex post facto quantitative design to compare doctoral programs by region and state. Data were gathered through four sources: (a) CACREP-accredited master's and doctoral counselor education programs on the CACREP (n.d.) website; (b) listing of population demographics and population density on the U.S. Census Bureau (2020) website; (c) listing of public and private colleges by state from the National Center for Education Statistics (n.d.) website; and (d) listing of counseling psychology doctoral programs accredited by the American Psychological Association (APA; 2019). Data for variables (b) through (d) were collected to ascertain whether the prediction of the number of CACREP-accredited master's programs within states was complicated by extraneous variables such as state population size, state population density, number of colleges and universities in the state, and number of APA-accredited counseling psychology programs within states. Counseling psychology doctoral programs were identified as a potential predictor variable because doctoral programs in counseling psychology and CES are often considered competitor programs for resources such as faculty lines, as core faculty cannot be shared between APA- and CACREP-accredited programs (CACREP, 2015). Thus, a preponderance of counseling psychology doctoral programs within a state could potentially limit the number of CES doctoral programs within the same state.

The researchers limited the search to CACREP-accredited programs only because of the 2013 requirement for CACREP-accredited programs to specifically hire doctoral CES graduates. Programs that are not accredited by CACREP may subvert a regional pipeline problem by hiring faculty from related disciplines, such as psychology. For this reason, non–CACREP-accredited programs were

excluded from the study. A 2018 CACREP report indicated that 405 programs in the United States were CACREP accredited (CACREP, 2019b). The percentage of counselor education programs in the United States that are CACREP accredited is unknown and most likely differs among states and regions. For example, 98% of master's counselor education programs were CACREP accredited (52 of 53 programs) in Ohio, with the only non–CACREP-accredited program in the process of working toward accreditation. In comparison, only 24% of master's counselor education programs in California (23 of 96 programs) were CACREP accredited. The large difference in CACREP representation between California and Ohio can partially be attributed to state regulatory issues. In Ohio, candidates for counseling licensure are required to graduate from CACREP-accredited programs. In contrast, California does not require CACREP accreditation and became the last state to license counselors in 2010 (T. A. Field, 2017). Specialized accreditation appears less common across professions in California. Despite having the most licensed marriage and family therapists (LMFTs) of any state, only 10% (8 of 82) of LMFT preparation programs in California are accredited by the Commission on the Accreditation for Marriage and Family Therapy Education (COAMFTE; n.d.). California is an outlier in the Western region, as 95% (38 of 40) of programs within the other states in that region (Alaska, Arizona, Hawai'i, Nevada, Oregon, Washington) were CACREP accredited.

Data Analysis

Data were entered into a Microsoft Excel worksheet and organized by the following columns: states, number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs per state, number of CACREP-accredited master's programs per state, state population size, state population density, number of colleges and universities per state, and the number of APA-accredited counseling psychology doctoral programs per state, and region. States were organized by regions defined by national counselor education associations and organizations (e.g., North Atlantic region, North Central region). Data from all 50 U.S. states and the District of Columbia were entered into the database.

To test the first and second hypotheses, data were analyzed using SPSS (Meyers et al., 2013). For the first hypothesis, a one-way analysis of co-variance (ANCOVA) for independent samples was selected to compare the number of doctoral programs by region, controlling for population size. The required significance level for the one-way ANCOVA was set to .05. The researchers determined the required sample size for .80 power, per Cohen's (1992) guidelines. Per G*Power 3 (Faul et al., 2007), a one-way independent-samples ANCOVA requires a sample size of 42 states for .80 power at the .05 alpha level.

To test the second hypothesis, a linear multiple regression analysis (random model) was computed to identify predictor variables for the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs by state. Five predictor (i.e., independent) variables were entered into the regression equation. These predictor variables were as follows: (a) the number of CACREP-accredited master's programs per state, (b) state population size, (c) state population density, (d) number of colleges and universities by state, and (e) number of APA-accredited counseling psychology programs per state. As described above, the presence of an APA-accredited counseling psychology program could potentially reduce the likelihood of a university also offering a CACREP-accredited counselor education program at the same institution. Per G*Power 3 (Faul et al., 2007), a linear multiple regression analysis (random model) requires a sample size of 39 states for .80 power at the .05 alpha level.

To further understand trends in the data regarding the regional representations of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs and CACREP-accredited master's programs, data were also organized graphically via a data visualization platform (Tableau). These data for the number of programs by state are presented in Figures 1 and 2.

Figure 1

Geographical Representation of CACREP-Accredited Doctoral Programs in the United States
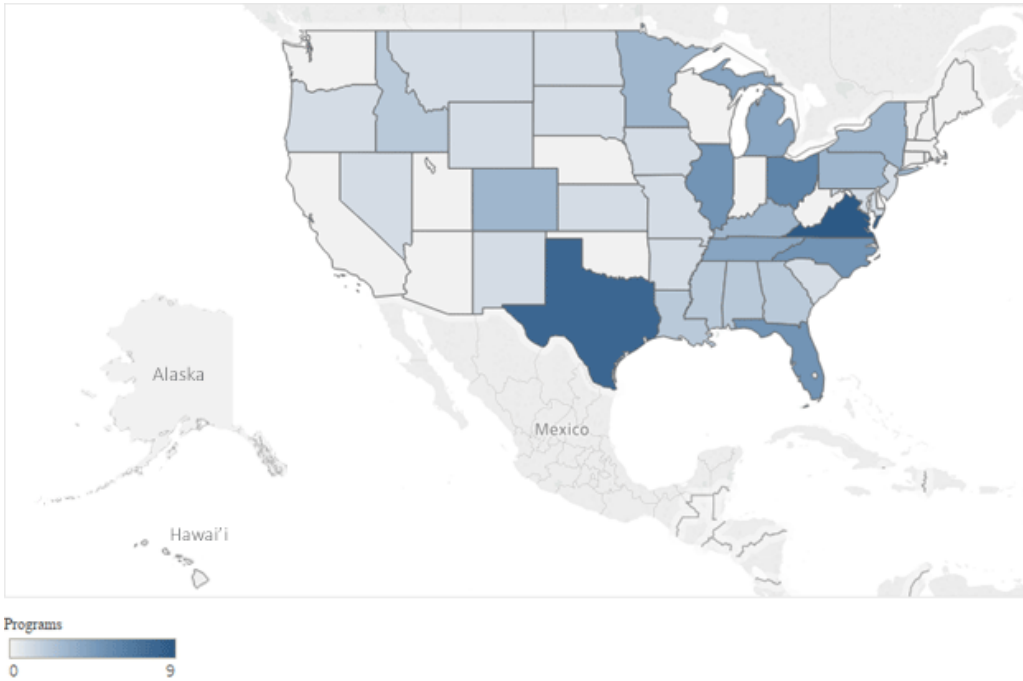
Note: To fit in image, Alaska was scaled down and the geographical locations of Alaska and Hawai'i were moved.

Figure 2

Geographical Representation of CACREP-Accredited Master's Programs in the United States
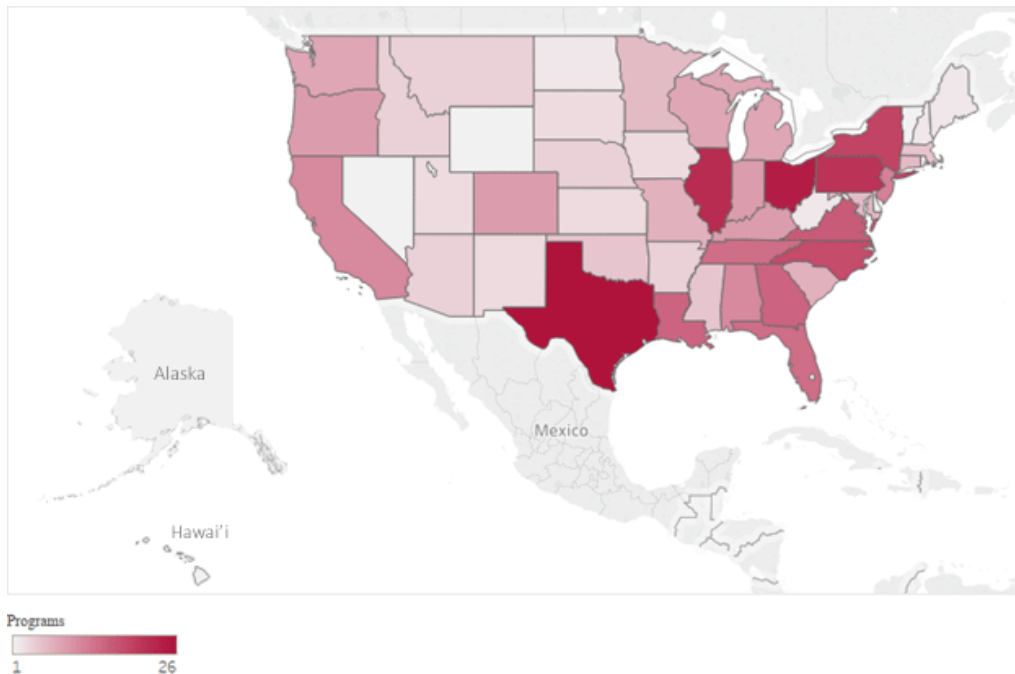
Note: Data reflect number of total programs rather than number of specialized tracks per state. To fit in image, Alaska was scaled down and the geographical locations of Alaska and Hawai'i were moved.

Results

Table 1 and the Appendix display the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral and master's programs by both region and state. The researchers used these data to test the hypotheses using inferential statistics.

Differences in CACREP-Accredited Doctoral Programs by Region

The researchers tested the hypothesis that significant differences existed for the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs among the five regions, even when the confounding variable of population size was controlled. The sample size of 51 exceeded the requirement for 80% power at the .05 alpha level (i.e., $n = 42$). Levene's test for equality of error variances was not significant, indicating that parametric statistics could be performed without adjustments (A. Field, 2013). A one-way independent-samples ANCOVA for differences in number of programs by region was significant—$F(4, 45) = 4.64$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .38$—and represented a large effect size (Cohen, 1988).

The Southern region had the largest number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs ($n = 45$). This was nearly twice the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs of the second-ranked region (North Central, $n = 23$), and more CACREP-accredited doctoral programs than the other four regions combined ($n = 41$). Compared to the Southern and North Central regions, the other three regions— namely the North Atlantic, Rocky Mountain, and Western regions—had substantially fewer CACREP-accredited doctoral programs. The North Atlantic and Rocky Mountain regions had eight CACREP-accredited doctoral programs each, and the Western region had two. The Southern region had the highest percentage of states with CACREP-accredited doctoral programs at 93% (14 of 15 states).

The number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs per state was not equally distributed by region. Figure 1 and the Appendix show that in the Southern region, 14 of 15 states had CACREP-accredited doctoral programs, with two states having an especially high number of doctoral programs (i.e., Virginia = 9, Texas = 8). Other Southern region states (i.e., Maryland and South Carolina) only had a single doctoral program. In the North Atlantic region, counselor education programs were concentrated within specific geographic locations. The eight doctoral programs in the region were located within three states (i.e., New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania) and the District of Columbia. The remaining seven states, including the entirety of New England (i.e., Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont) have zero CACREP-accredited doctoral programs.

To better understand the relationship between doctoral programs and population size, ratios were computed comparing the population to doctoral and master's programs by region. Table 1 depicts the ratio for population to doctoral programs by region. Upon further inspection of the data, it appears that population size could explain the number of doctoral programs in a region. For example, the Southern region had by far the greatest number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs at 45, yet the proportion of programs was roughly equivalent for four of the five regions when considering the population size of those regions. As seen in Table 1, the population of the Southern region was 119 million people, which was 1.65 times the size of the next largest region, the North Central region (72 million). Accordingly, the number of doctoral programs in the Southern region was nearly double the number of programs in the North Central region (45 vs. 23). When examining the ratio of population to CACREP-accredited doctoral programs, the Southern region appears to have a roughly equivalent representation (2.6 million per doctoral program) to two other regions, the Rocky Mountain (1.8 million) and North Central (3.1 million) regions.

The Western region had the largest ratio of population to doctoral programs, at 31.8 million people per doctoral program. This ratio was more than four times greater than the next largest ratio (North Atlantic, 7.2 million per doctoral program) and 10 times the ratio of the other three regions (North Central, 3.1 million; Southern, 2.6 million; Rocky Mountain, 1.8 million). It was therefore evident that the Western region was most underrepresented in the number of CES doctoral programs per region inhabitant.

The Relationship Between CACREP-Accredited Doctoral and Master's Programs

A linear multiple regression (random model) was computed to better understand the relationship between the number of CACREP-accredited master's and doctoral programs per state. Other predictor variables included state population size, state population density, number of colleges and universities per state, and number of APA-accredited counseling psychology programs per state. The sample size of 51 exceeded the requirement for 80% power at the .05 alpha level (i.e., $n = 39$). Data conformed to homoscedasticity and did not show multicollinearity (A. Field, 2013). Residuals (errors) were equally distributed, and no significant outliers were found (A. Field, 2013). Because these assumptions were met, parametric statistics could be performed without adjustments (A. Field, 2013). The linear multiple regression (random model) variables significantly predicted the number of CACREP doctoral programs: $F(5, 44) = 18.55$, $p < .05$, $R^2 = .68$. This represented a large effect size. Notably, only CACREP-accredited master's programs were a significant predictor variable, with a standardized β coefficient of .85 ($p < .05$). The other predictor variables were not significant predictors and did not contribute to the multiple regression model. Thus, the presence of CACREP-accredited master's programs accounted for 68% of the variance in doctoral programs by state.

Data in Table 1 help to elucidate the relationship between CACREP-accredited doctoral and master's programs. The Southern region by far had the largest number of CACREP-accredited master's programs ($n = 162$) and doctoral programs ($n = 45$). The second largest number of master's programs was in the region with the second largest number of doctoral programs (North Central; 104 and 23, respectively). Some differences between doctoral and master's program representation were found; the Rocky Mountain region had the smallest number of master's programs at 24, which was three times less than the North Atlantic region, despite having the same number of doctoral programs ($n = 8$).

Figures 1 and 2 further clarify that although a relationship exists between the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral and master's programs, there are important regional differences. In the West, several states had a relatively high number of master's programs (e.g., California, Oregon, Washington) despite having one or even zero doctoral programs per state. In the North Atlantic region, New York and Pennsylvania had among the highest number of master's programs by state, though these two states had relatively fewer doctoral programs. There were no CACREP-accredited doctoral programs and relatively few CACREP-accredited master's programs in the entirety of New England (i.e., Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont), which is noteworthy because the area is known for the high number of colleges and universities, as well as high population density.

When reviewing ratios of master's programs to population in Table 1, the Western region showed a far smaller representation of master's programs compared to other regions. There were 1.8 million inhabitants per master's program in the Western region. The Western region had more than double the ratio of the other four regions, who themselves have a fairly equivalent ratio of inhabitants per master's program, ranging from 597,000 to 770,000.

Discussion

The results indicate a large and significant difference ($p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .38$) in the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs by region when controlling for the confounding variable of population size. The number of CACREP-accredited master's programs per state is also a large and significant predictor (standardized $\beta = .85$, $p < .05$) for the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs in a state. Other variables, such as state population size, state population density, number of colleges and universities per state, and number of APA-accredited counseling psychology programs, did not predict the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs in a state.

The Western region had by far the fewest number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs, the smallest percentage of states with CACREP-accredited doctoral programs, the largest ratio of CACREP-accredited master's-to-doctoral programs, and the largest ratio of population size to both master's and doctoral CACREP-accredited programs. With only two CACREP-accredited doctoral programs in seven states, the Western region may experience a significant pipeline problem. It is worth noting that the number of CACREP-accredited master's programs has doubled in the Western region since 2009, from 16 to 35 programs (CACREP, n.d.). During the same time period, the Western region has not gained any new CACREP-accredited doctoral programs. From an analysis of in-process programs, it seems that the Western region stands to gain further CACREP-accredited master's programs but no CACREP-accredited doctoral programs in the near future, exacerbating any existing pipeline problem. In addition, the North Atlantic region has a relative lack of doctoral programs as compared to master's programs. In the ensuing section, potential reasons for the lack of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs in the Western and North Atlantic regions, along with the potential impact of this problem, are discussed.

CES Doctoral Programs in the Western Region

The Western state of California was initially an early developer and adopter of counselor education accreditation standards, yet today it has relatively few CACREP-accredited master's programs relative to population size and has never had a CACREP-accredited doctoral program. The California story is worth exploring in greater depth because it illustrates a further barrier to establishing doctoral CACREP programs in the Western region.

California is a major outlier in this study in that only 24% ($n = 23$) of 96 master's degree programs in counseling (i.e., clinical mental health counseling; marriage, couple, and family counseling; school counseling) were CACREP accredited. One explanation for this low number is that it was not until 2010 that California granted licenses to professional counselors (T. A. Field, 2017). As mentioned earlier, licensure requirements (especially those that require CACREP accreditation) can increase the number of CACREP-accredited programs in a state, with Ohio being a notable example. It is also interesting to note that despite California's long history of granting licenses to marriage and family therapists, COAMFTE (n.d.) was not a strong accreditation competitor to CACREP. As of 2019, only 10% (8) of 82 MFT licensable programs were COAMFTE accredited.

CES Doctoral Programs in the North Atlantic Region

The North Atlantic region had only eight CACREP-accredited doctoral programs, which were concentrated in three states (i.e., New Jersey, New York, District of Columbia). No CACREP-accredited doctoral programs were in the New England region (i.e., Connecticut, Maine, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, Vermont). The North Atlantic region has several densely populated states, with New York and Pennsylvania being the fourth and fifth most populated states in the United States. The North Atlantic region also had a fairly large number of master's CACREP-accredited programs

(n = 75). As seen in Table 1, the North Atlantic region had roughly the same ratio of CACREP-accredited master's programs to population size as the Southern region and yet had a ratio of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs to population size that was three times greater than the Southern region's ratio. The North Atlantic region also had more than double the number of master's programs than the Western region, despite having a smaller population overall. Considering this larger presence of CACREP-accredited master's programs, the North Atlantic's lack of doctoral programs is somewhat surprising.

The reason for the low number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs in the North Atlantic region can be understood when considering the historical presence of APA-accredited counseling psychology doctoral programs in the region. Although not a predictor for the number of CES doctoral programs nationally, APA-accredited counseling psychology programs appear to be a potential barrier to CES doctoral program establishment in New England especially. Massachusetts had the second largest number of APA-accredited counseling psychology doctoral programs (n = 6), behind only Texas (n = 7; APA, 2019). As stated previously, university administrators may perceive doctoral programs in counseling psychology and CES as competitor programs for faculty lines, as core faculty cannot be shared between APA and CACREP-accredited programs (CACREP, 2015). The large number of counseling psychology doctoral programs in Massachusetts may help explain why there are no CES doctoral programs in New England.

CES Doctoral Programs Across Regions

Although the Western and North Atlantic regions had the greatest degree of pipeline problem, it is possible that all five regions will be impacted by the pipeline problem in the near future. An analysis of programs currently in the process of applying for CACREP accreditation (designated "in process") is presented in the Appendix. Across regions, a total of 63 master's programs were in process, compared to only five doctoral programs. This 12.6:1 ratio is far above the current ratios of the Southern, North Central, and Rocky Mountain regions and is similar to the current ratio for the North Atlantic region. All regions except the Rocky Mountain region appear to be impacted. The Southern region had 31 in-process master's programs and three in-process doctoral programs (10:1 ratio). The North Central region had 13 in-process master's programs and one in-process doctoral program (13:1). The North Atlantic region had 10 in-process master's programs and one in-process doctoral program (10:1). The Western region had eight in-process master's programs and zero in-process doctoral programs (8:0). The Rocky Mountain region seemed least impacted, with only one in-process master's program and zero in-process doctoral programs (1:0). Any existing pipeline problem for doctoral-level counselor education faculty therefore seems likely to continue if not worsen in the coming years.

State Laws and Rules Prohibiting Doctoral Programs

In this study, the number of CACREP-accredited master's programs is a strong predictor of the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs within a state. The relationship between the number of master's and doctoral CACREP-accredited programs is far weaker in the Western region because of state laws and rules that restrict doctoral study at public universities. The California and Washington state university systems limit doctoral programs to their research-intensive universities. The California Master Plan (California State Department of Education, 1960; Douglass, 2000) restricts doctoral programs to the University of California university system and specifically does not permit Doctor of Philosophy degrees to be offered at the California State University system campuses. This is important because in California all of the counselor education programs at state universities are operated within the California State University system, with no programs offered within the research-intensive University of California system.

A similar dynamic exists within the Washington state educational system, whereby only the research-intensive universities (i.e., University of Washington, Washington State University) may offer doctoral degrees. As in California, master's counselor education programs within Washington state universities are only operated within the teaching institutions (e.g., Central Washington University, Eastern Washington University, Western Washington University) and no programs are offered at the research-intensive state universities. Unfortunately, one of the first-ever CACREP-accredited doctoral programs was at the University of Washington, which closed its program and lost its CACREP accreditation status in 1988 (CACREP, n.d.).

State political dynamics are a significant barrier to starting new doctoral programs within the Western state public university systems. Because of state laws and regulations, the real need generated by the significant number of master's counseling programs at teaching-focused and less research-intensive state universities in California and Washington has no real influence on doctoral program development. No new state university doctoral programs are on the horizon or even under consideration. Instead, new doctoral programs in Western states will likely only start at private universities. Unfortunately, these institutions tend to have higher tuition without the advantage of the graduate student funding that their state counterparts generally offer.

Pace (2016) found that institution type (i.e., public vs. private) and enrollment numbers for the institution were predictors of whether the institution had a CACREP-accredited doctoral program. As of 2018, the majority of doctoral programs were housed in public institutions ($n = 64$), with 19 programs at private institutions (CACREP, n.d.). Of these 19 programs at private institutions, 12 (63%) were at professional or master's-level universities according to Carnegie classification (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2019). Programs within private colleges and universities represented more than half of all programs (12 of 21 programs; 57%) at non–research-intensive universities (i.e., professional or master's-level classifications). Private universities with professional and master's-level classifications who develop doctoral CES programs seem less likely to have the financial support to offer scholarships and tuition waivers to students when compared to research institutions.

Student funding has historically been valued as a core principle of doctoral education. It often provides doctoral students with full-time opportunities to shadow faculty members and develop research self-efficacy (Lambie & Vaccaro, 2011), which is considered the primary focus of doctoral-level counselor education (Adkison-Bradley, 2013). Program faculty in these new private doctoral programs may face heavier workloads given the lack of student funding (e.g., increased teaching and advising loads) and support for faculty research and scholarship. This could potentially limit the research training available to doctoral students at these new institutions, which may hinder the ability for these doctoral students at emerging programs to be adequately prepared for the scholarly work required as a future faculty member. If unaddressed, these programs would not contribute to meeting the growing need for qualified doctoral counselor educators in the Western region, and the pipeline problem would continue.

For example, in Washington, several private universities with CACREP-accredited master's programs (i.e., Antioch University-Seattle, City University of Seattle, Seattle Pacific University) have recently established doctoral programs in CES. In the three institutions, all new faculty hired after 2013 have completed doctoral degrees in CES from institutions outside of the Western region, with the majority of those doctorates being completed in the Southern region. Although not CACREP accredited at the time of writing, these new doctoral programs appear to be a potential solution to

the pipeline problem in the Western region. However, it is worth noting that these three private universities are teaching institutions rather than research institutions, and such programs may need guidance regarding how to include sufficient research training in the doctoral curriculum if the program cannot offer funding to doctoral students and the faculty are not given support to generate faculty-led research and scholarship.

Impact of Doctoral Programs on Regional Professional Identity

Authors such as Lawson (2016) and Mascari and Webber (2013) have argued that CACREP accreditation strengthens the professional identity of the program and of students within the program. It is unknown whether the number of CACREP-accredited master's and doctoral programs within a region also strengthens and contributes to professional identity within a region. There are no existing published studies that have comprehensively examined the regional impact of the number of CACREP-accredited master's and doctoral programs on professional identity. Anecdotally, there appear to be several potential effects from having a lack of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs within a region. CACREP-accredited master's counseling programs must recruit new faculty hires from outside of the region if there is an insufficient number of candidates available from established doctoral programs within the region. Because the Western region and New England states have a dearth of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs, counselor education programs in those states may need to recruit from outside of their region to find suitable candidates. As mentioned previously, this pipeline problem can make recruiting difficult, as candidates strongly weigh location and closeness to home when selecting doctoral programs (Hertlein & Lambert-Shute, 2007; Honderich & Lloyd-Hazlett, 2015; Poock & Love, 2001) and faculty positions (Hunt & Jones, 2015; Magnuson et al., 2001; Millar et al., 2009). Location appears to be a particularly important consideration for candidates from underrepresented minority backgrounds (Bersola et al., 2014; Linder & Winston Simmons, 2015; Peek et al., 2013; Ramirez, 2013). As a result, prospective doctoral students and faculty members may be unwilling to study or work at a program outside of their home region.

Online CACREP-accredited doctoral programs may create pathways for more students in a region with a lack of doctoral programs to pursue and attain a doctorate in counselor education, which may reduce any existing pipeline problem. Studies are needed to examine comparative hiring rates of online versus in-person programs to ascertain whether graduates of online programs are filling needed faculty positions. Hiring school counselor educators is particularly challenging (Bernard, 2006), and studies are needed that examine the proportion of school counselor educators that graduate from online counseling programs.

Counselor education programs are continually seeking to increase the diversity of their faculty (Cartwright et al., 2018; Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley, 2003; Shin et al., 2001; Stadler et al., 2006). Because prospective doctoral students from minority backgrounds may be more inclined to restrict their applications to doctoral programs within close proximity to their current location (Bersola et al., 2014; Linder & Winston Simmons, 2015; Ramirez, 2013), online doctoral programs appear to be a viable option for students from culturally diverse backgrounds who live in regions with few in-person doctoral programs. Data are needed to support whether online graduates are (a) filling open faculty vacancies in the Western region and New England states, (b) filling school counselor educator positions, and (c) contributing to faculty diversity.

This study represents the first-ever analysis of regional differences in the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral CES programs. Because this was an ex post facto study, the results are non-experimental and thus have the potential for error because of the lack of experimental control and

randomization. To mitigate the potential for error, the confounding variable of population size was included in our inferential statistical analyses. Examination of variables such as the demand for counselor education program entry are also important to examine in the future to ascertain whether programs are turning away students because of capacity issues related to faculty hiring. Such studies could appraise application numbers, enrollment numbers, and the program's ideal yield should capacity not be an issue. Furthermore, a more detailed analysis into the relationship between a state's educational requirements for licensure (i.e., whether graduates must complete a CACREP-accredited program) and the demand for doctoral counselor educators within a state is important. Lawson et al. (2017) have proposed that advocating for CACREP accreditation as the educational requirement for counselor licensure is important to the advancement of professionalization and professional identity. It is possible that the lack of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs in a state may be a barrier to establishing CACREP as the educational standard for licensure.

Conclusion

A large and statistically significant difference exists in the number of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs by region, even when controlling for population size. The Western region has by far the fewest doctoral programs and thus the greatest need for new doctoral programs. The lack of doctoral programs in the Western region and New England states may present a pipeline problem. The number of CACREP-accredited master's programs has doubled in the Western region since 2009 while the number of doctoral programs has remained the same. As a result, CACREP-accredited master's programs in the Western region and New England states may struggle to recruit qualified core faculty from in-region doctoral programs. The ratio of in-process master's versus doctoral programs suggests that any existing pipeline issue will continue if not worsen in the coming years.

Even though the number of CACREP-accredited master's programs within a state appears to be a strong independent predictor of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs, new doctoral programs may be difficult to establish because of state regulatory issues, the existence of competing doctoral programs (e.g., counseling psychology), or the lack of research support infrastructure (e.g., smaller teaching loads, funding for doctoral students).

In addition to small, private, teaching-focused institutions that seem to be developing doctoral programs in regions with few CACREP-accredited doctoral programs (e.g., Antioch University-Seattle, City University of Seattle, and Seattle Pacific University in the Western region), online CACREP-accredited doctoral CES programs are a potential solution to training prospective doctoral students in regions with few in-person doctoral programs. Online programs may also help to address any existing specific pipeline issues regarding faculty with school counseling specialties and faculty from culturally diverse backgrounds. Future studies are needed to support whether online CACREP-accredited doctoral programs are helping master's programs to address these recruitment needs. Additional follow-up studies are also needed to examine the role of geographic location in candidate selection of in-person and online faculty positions, as it is possible that geographic location has less prominence in candidate selection of faculty roles today compared to several decades ago when prior studies in counselor education were conducted (e.g., Magnuson et al., 2001).

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Appendix

CACREP-Accredited and In-Process Programs by State and Region (December 2018)

State	Region	Population	CACREP Doctoral Programs	CACREP Master's Programs	Doctoral Programs "In Process" of CACREP Accreditation	Master's Programs "In Process" of CACREP Accreditation
Connecticut	North Atlantic	3,572,665		6		1
Delaware	North Atlantic	967,171		1		
District of Columbia	North Atlantic	702,455	1	4		3
Maine	North Atlantic	1,338,404		2		
Massachusetts	North Atlantic	6,902,149		5		1
New Hampshire	North Atlantic	1,356,458		2		1
New Jersey	North Atlantic	8,908,520	1	12		
New York	North Atlantic	19,542,209	3	19		4
Pennsylvania	North Atlantic	12,807,060	3	21	1	
Rhode Island	North Atlantic	1,057,315		2		
Vermont	North Atlantic	626,299		1		
	North Atlantic	**57,780,705**	**8**	**75**	**1**	**10**
Illinois	North Central	12,741,080	5	22		3
Indiana	North Central	6,691,878		9		2
Iowa	North Central	3,156,145	1	3		
Kansas	North Central	2,911,505	1	3		
Michigan	North Central	9,995,915	4	8		1
Minnesota	North Central	5,611,179	3	6		1
Missouri	North Central	6,126,452	1	7		3
Nebraska	North Central	1,929,268		4		
North Dakota	North Central	760,077	1	2		
Ohio	North Central	11,689,442	6	24		2
Oklahoma	North Central	3,943,079		5		
South Dakota	North Central	882,235	1	3		
Wisconsin	North Central	5,813,568		8	1	1
	North Central	**72,251,823**	**23**	**104**	**1**	**13**

State	Region	Population	CACREP Doctoral Programs	CACREP Master's Programs	Doctoral Programs "In Process" of CACREP Accreditation	Master's Programs "In Process" of CACREP Accreditation
Colorado	Rocky Mountain	5,695,564	3	9		
Idaho	Rocky Mountain	1,754,208	2	4		
Montana	Rocky Mountain	1,062,305	1	4		
New Mexico	Rocky Mountain	2,095,428	1	3		1
Utah	Rocky Mountain	3,161,105		3		
Wyoming	Rocky Mountain	577,737	1	1		
	Rocky Mountain	**14,346,347**	**8**	**24**	**0**	**1**
Alabama	Southern	4,887,871	2	11		1
Arkansas	Southern	3,013,825	1	4		1
Florida	Southern	21,299,325	5	14		3
Georgia	Southern	10,519,475	2	15	2	3
Kentucky	Southern	4,468,402	3	9	1	
Louisiana	Southern	4,659,978	2	15		1
Maryland	Southern	6,042,718	1	6		2
Mississippi	Southern	2,986,530	2	5		
North Carolina	Southern	10,383,620	5	18		1
South Carolina	Southern	5,084,127	1	7		
Tennessee	Southern	6,770,010	4	14		7
Texas	Southern	28,701,845	8	26		8
Virginia	Southern	8,517,685	9	16		4
West Virginia	Southern	1,805,832		2		
	Southern	**119,141,243**	**45**	**162**	**3**	**31**
Alaska	Western	737,438		1		
Arizona	Western	7,171,646		4		
California	Western	39,557,045		11		6
Hawaii	Western	1,420,491		1		
Nevada	Western	3,034,392	1	1		2
Oregon	Western	4,190,713	1	9		
Washington	Western	7,535,591		8		
	Western	**63,647,316**	**2**	**35**	**0**	**8**
	Grand Total	**327,167,434**	**86**	**400**	**5**	**63**

*Ratios rounded to closest whole number. Source of CACREP data: https://www.cacrep.org/directory/. Source of U.S. Census data: https://www.census.gov/data/tables/time-series/demo/popest/2010s-national-total.html#par_textimage_2011805

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Components of a High-Quality Doctoral Program in Counselor Education and Supervision

Jennifer Preston, Heather Trepal, Ashley Morgan, Justin Jacques,
Joshua D. Smith, Thomas A. Field

The doctoral degree in counselor education and supervision is increasingly sought after by students, with the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) reporting a 27% enrollment increase in just a 4-year span. As new programs are started and existing programs sustained, administrators and faculty may be seeking guidance in how to build a high-quality program. Yet no literature currently exists for how doctoral counseling faculty define a high-quality program. This study used a basic qualitative research design to examine faculty perceptions of high-quality doctoral programs ($N = 15$). The authors analyzed data from in-depth interviews with core faculty members at CACREP-accredited doctoral programs. Five themes emerged from the data: relationships, mission alignment, development of a counselor educator identity, inclusiveness of diversity, and Carnegie classification. The findings of this study can be important for faculty and administrators to consider when establishing and maintaining a counselor education and supervision doctoral program.

Keywords: doctoral programs, counselor education and supervision, CACREP, faculty perceptions, high-quality

Doctoral education in counselor education and supervision (CES) is surging, with both the number of programs and enrollment head count increasing over the past few years. According to the most recent annual report from the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), there are currently 85 CACREP-accredited CES doctoral programs (CACREP, 2019b) compared to 63 in 2014 (CACREP, 2017). This constitutes a 35% increase over a 4-year span. In addition, enrollment in CACREP-accredited doctoral programs has increased from 2,291 in 2014 to 2,917 in 2018, a 27% increase (CACREP, 2017, 2019a). The number of doctoral graduates in CES also increased by 35% between 2017 and 2019, from 355 to 479 (CACREP, 2017, 2019a). A registry does not exist for non–CACREP-accredited programs, and thus the exact number of doctoral programs in CES (i.e, CACREP- and non–CACREP-accredited programs) is unknown.

According to Hinkle et al. (2014), students' motivations to pursue a doctorate in CES include (a) to become a professor, (b) to be a respected professional with job security, (c) to become a clinical leader, and (d) to succeed for family and community amid obstacles. Student motivations appear tempered by CES departmental culture, mentoring, academics, support systems, and personal and related issues that impact their doctoral experience (Protivnak & Foss, 2009).

While students enter CES programs with one set of motivations, the programs themselves have their own goals for whom they admit, how they train, and what they perceive as a desired outcome to doctoral

Jennifer Preston, PhD, NCC, LPC, is a program director and department chair at Saybrook University. Heather Trepal, PhD, LPC-S, is a professor at the University of Texas at San Antonio. Ashley Morgan is a doctoral candidate at the University of Texas at San Antonio. Justin Jacques, ACS, LPC, CAC II, is a counselor at Johns Hopkins University. Joshua D. Smith, PhD, LCMHCA, LCASA, is a counselor at the Center for Emotional Health in Concord, North Carolina. Thomas A. Field, PhD, NCC, CCMHC, ACS, LPC, LMHC, is an assistant professor at the Boston University School of Medicine. Correspondence may be addressed to Jennifer Preston, Saybrook University, 55 Eureka Street, Pasadena, CA 91103, jpreston@saybrook.edu.

training. Doctoral programs in CES are considered training grounds for shaping students' professional (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Limberg et al., 2013) and research identities (Perera-Diltz & Sauerheber, 2017). In addition, mentoring and advising relationships are viewed as important to supporting research motivation and productivity (Kuo et al., 2017).

Given students' motivations and expectations for career preparation and advancement, it would make sense that they would want to choose a doctoral program that fits their needs. In addition to matching academic needs, it can also be assumed that as consumers of doctoral education, students would want to choose a high-quality doctoral program in CES. Bersola et al. (2014) conducted a study into factors that influenced admitted doctoral students' (*N* = 540) choice of program. The students in the study were all from programs and departments located within one university. Both underrepresented minority and majority students cited program reputation, institutional reputation, faculty quality, research quality, and faculty access/availability as primary reasons for their choice of doctoral program. Participants reported these factors as more important to their choice of doctoral program than non–quality-related factors such as cost of living, housing, location, and urbanity (Bersola et al., 2014).

There are many program options for CES doctoral study, but little is known about what constitutes a high-quality program in counselor education apart from CACREP accreditation. Although the perceptions of CES doctoral graduates remain unknown, researchers have utilized data from doctoral graduates across disciplines regarding their satisfaction with their programs (Barnes & Randall, 2012; Morrison et al., 2011). Graduates identified aspects such as academic rigor, funding opportunities, mentoring in meeting program requirements, research skill training, and developing a sense of community as contributing to their satisfaction and perceptions of the doctoral programs (Barnes & Randall, 2012; Morrison et al., 2011).

Despite considerable knowledge of doctoral graduates' perceptions, little is known about faculty perspectives on these issues (Kim et al., 2015). There is evidence that faculty perceptions of doctoral program quality can differ from alumni perceptions. Morrison et al. (2011) examined program faculty and alumni perceptions of quality doctoral education in the social sciences. Both faculty and alumni considered training in research skills and diversity characteristics of the program as important to quality. However, alumni also tended to place greater emphasis on the importance of faculty support in meeting program requirements and fostering belonging, whereas program faculty placed greater emphasis on the scholarly reputation of faculty when defining doctoral program quality.

Purpose of the Present Study

Very few studies have explored program faculty perceptions of high-quality doctoral education, and no studies exist in CES specifically. As educators and mentors, faculty who teach in CES programs should be both interested and invested in enhancing educational environments that meet students' career aspirations as well as advancing the profession. Although industry standards for quality exist (e.g., CACREP standards), there is a need to better understand which components CES faculty believe comprise a high-quality doctoral program in CES. The purpose of this study was to address this gap in knowledge.

Methodology

This particular study was conducted as part of a larger comprehensive qualitative study of CES doctoral programs organized by the last author that followed the basic qualitative research design described by Merriam and Tisdell (2016). In the basic qualitative research paradigm, the research team

collects, codes, and categorizes qualitative data using the constant comparative method from grounded theory methodology (Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The researchers first use open coding, followed by categorization using axial coding to identify themes in the data (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Data collection continues until data reach saturation and redundancy. Unlike other qualitative traditions, this qualitative design is not employed to develop theory (i.e., grounded theory), capture the essence of a lived experience (i.e., phenomenology), nor describe cultural and environmental observations (i.e., ethnography; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Instead, researchers using basic qualitative designs seek to collect and analyze qualitative data for the purpose of answering research questions outside other specialized qualitative focus areas. A qualitative design was selected because the authors shared an underlying philosophical belief in the constructivist position that participants' reality was socially co-constructed and that all responses should be given importance regardless of frequency (Lincoln & Guba, 2013).

The basic qualitative design was selected because it best fit the purpose of this larger qualitative project. The purpose of the larger qualitative study was to identify current perceptions of doctoral-level counselor educators regarding four major issues pertinent to doctoral counselor education: (a) components of high-quality programs, (b) strategies to recruit and retain underrepresented students, (c) strategies for working with administrators, and (d) strategies for successful dissertation advising. Our study collected and analyzed in-depth interviews with doctoral-level counselor educators to answer a series of research questions that addressed the issues above pertaining to doctoral-level counselor education.

Interview questions were designed to directly answer each research question. The research questions explored in the larger project were as follows: 1) What are the components of high-quality doctoral programs in CES, and what are the most and least important components? 2) Which strategies are doctoral programs using to recruit, support, and retain underrepresented doctoral students from diverse backgrounds, and how successful are those? 3) Which strategies are helpful in gaining initial and ongoing support from administrators when seeking to start a new doctoral program in CES, and how successful are those? and 4) Which strategies help students navigate the dissertation process, and how successful are those?

This manuscript represents the first of four articles from the larger qualitative project that each addressed one of the research questions listed above. This study therefore examined the first research question and sought to identify the components of high-quality doctoral programs in CES. The interview questions directly addressed this research question and were as follows: 1) How might you define a high-quality doctoral program in CES? and 2) What do you believe to be the most and least important components?

Participants
Purposeful sampling was used for an initial identification of eligible volunteers (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016) from the limited number of doctoral CES programs in the United States that are CACREP accredited. At the time of writing, 85 CACREP-accredited doctoral CES programs existed (CACREP, 2019b). Information-rich cases were sought to promote visibility to the perception of CES faculty. The sampling method was thus designed to identify and recruit participants who had experiences working in doctoral-level counselor education. Inclusion criteria for the study design were as follows: Participants had to 1) be current full-time core faculty members in CES, 2) who were currently working in a doctoral-level counselor education program with CACREP accreditation. The last author created a database of CES doctoral faculty from the 85 CACREP-accredited programs and recruited faculty interest in the study

through email. Faculty initially provided demographic information during a pre-registration phase. The last author reviewed this information to select participants from the pool of eligible volunteers for entry into the study utilizing maximum variation sampling. This sampling technique was employed to gather the perspectives of counselor educators from diverse backgrounds with regard to demographic characteristics and program characteristics. Maximum variation sampling also assisted with avoiding premature saturation (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The research team believed that counselor educator perspectives may differ by background. Thus the following criteria were used for selecting participants from among the eligible volunteers: (a) racial and ethnic self-identification, (b) gender self-identification, (c) length of time working in doctoral-level counselor education programs, (d) Carnegie classification of university where the participant was currently working (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2019), (e) region of the counselor education program where the participant was currently working, and (f) delivery mode of the counselor education program where the participant was currently working (e.g., in-person, online).

These six characteristics were selected because of indications in the extant literature of the influence of the above factors on CES faculty experiences and/or trends in doctoral program delivery, which may impact perceptions of what constitutes a high-quality doctoral program. Prior studies have identified the influence of racial and ethnic identity (Cartwright et al., 2018), gender identity (Hill et al., 2005), years of experience in doctoral counselor education (Lambie et al., 2014; Magnuson et al., 2009), Carnegie classification (Lambie et al., 2014), and delivery mode (Smith et al., 2015) on faculty perceptions and experiences.

Once participants responded regarding their interest in the study, the last author purposively selected participants one at a time to ensure adequate variation by these characteristics. Participant selection was predicated on meeting variability requirements between participants regarding the six criteria identified above. For example, the first and second participants were selected because of their differences in gender, years of experience, and Carnegie classification. Subsequent participant selection decisions were made on the basis of variant ethnicity and region. Overall participant characteristics interviews were conducted until data seemed to reach saturation and redundancy. Data reached saturation after 15 interviews. Faculty members who provided demographic information during pre-registration were informed that they had not been invited to participate in the interview portion of the study and were thanked for their participation during pre-registration.

A total of 15 participants were interviewed for the study. All 15 participants were from separate and unique doctoral-level CES programs, with no program represented by more than one participant. With regard to self-identified gender, the sample consisted of seven female participants (46.7%) and eight male participants (53.3%). No participants identified as non-binary or transgender. The majority of participants identified as heterosexual ($n = 14$, 93.3%), with one participant identifying as bisexual (6.7%). Eleven participants (73.3%) self-identified as Caucasian, with multiracial/multiethnic ($n = 1$, 6.7%), African American ($n = 1$, 6.7%), Asian ($n = 1$, 6.7%), and Latinx ($n = 1$, 6.7%) ethnic backgrounds also represented.

The sample was experienced, working as full-time faculty members for an average of 19.7 years (SD = 9.0 years) and a median of 17 years, ranging from 4 to 34 years. Participants spent most of those years working in doctoral-level CES programs ($M = 17.3$ years, $SD = 9.2$ years, $Mdn = 16$ years), ranging from 3 to 33 years. More than half of participants ($n = 9$, 60%) spent their entire careers working in doctoral-level CES programs. Eight of the participants (53.3%) currently worked at programs in the Southern region, with two participants (13.3%) each from the North Atlantic, North Central, and Western regions. One participant (6.7%) currently worked in the Rocky Mountain region. Five participants (33.3%) had

worked in multiple doctoral programs in two or more regions. Twelve participants (80%) currently worked in face-to-face or brick-and-mortar programs, and three participants (20%) currently worked in online or hybrid programs. Regarding Carnegie classification, nine participants (60%) currently worked at Doctoral Universities – Very High Research Activity (i.e., R1) institutions, two participants (13.3%) currently worked at Doctoral Universities – High Research Activity (i.e., R2) institutions, and four participants (26.7%) currently worked at universities with the Master's Colleges and Universities: Larger Programs designation (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2019).

Positioning

The last author conducted all interviews with the selected participants. The author had etic status, in that they had not worked in a doctoral-level CES program previously. Because the author was a member of the counselor education community, etic status around the topic of doctoral-level CES was important to bracketing biases during the interview process. The interviewer followed the interview protocol included in the Appendix for all interviews to ensure that data were gathered for each research question to the highest extent possible.

Procedure

After receiving approval from their IRB, the last author created a database of doctoral-level counselor educator contacts who worked at the CES programs accredited by CACREP. The last author used the CACREP (2019b) website directory for recruitment purposes. Recruitment emails were sent to one faculty member at each of the 85 accredited programs. A total of 34 faculty responded with an interest in being interviewed (40% response rate). Of those 34 faculty, 15 were selected for interviews on the basis of maximal variation.

Interview Protocol

At the beginning of each interview, participants were asked a series of demographic questions that addressed the characteristics mentioned above (i.e., self-identified race and ethnicity, gender, sexual/affective orientation, years as a faculty member, years working in doctoral-level counselor education programs, number of doctoral programs the participant had worked in, and regions of the programs in which the counselor educator had worked). Participants were asked to self-identify their demographic information at the beginning of the interview to clarify demographic information that had been previously collected during pre-registration, and to ensure that participants were able to adequately self-identify.

Following the demographic section, the interview protocol featured a series of eight in-depth interview questions that addressed the research questions of the larger qualitative study. Interview questions were developed in accordance with Patton's (2015) recommendations. Per Patton (2015), the interview questions were open-ended, as neutral as possible, avoided "why" questions, and were asked one at a time. The interview protocol was piloted with a faculty member in a doctoral-level CES program prior to the study commencing. Several double-barreled questions were split into two separate questions to ensure that only one question was asked at a time. The interview protocol followed conventions of semi-structured interviewing, with sparse follow-up questions permitted to the main interview questions to ensure understanding of participant responses (Patton, 2015).

Prior to each interview, participants reviewed and signed the informed consent agreement approved by the last author's IRB. Participants were sent the interview questions ahead of time. Each interview lasted for approximately 60 minutes. All but one interview (i.e., 14 interviews) were recorded using the Zoom online platform built-in recording feature. One interview was recorded via a Sony audio

digital recorder instead of the Zoom platform, as the interview occurred in person during a professional conference. All demographic information and recordings were assigned an alphabetical identifier (e.g., A, B, C). The last author was the sole individual who knew the identity of participants attributed to alphabetical identifiers. Participant identity was thus blinded to subsequent transcribers and coders.

Transcription

All interviews were transcribed verbatim by graduate students at the last author's university, who had no familiarity with participants. Transcribers received transcription training prior to the study and received further training and direction by the last author prior to and during the transcription process. Once each transcript had been completed in full, the last author reviewed transcripts to ensure accuracy and sent the transcripts to the interviewees to conduct a member check. After member checks had been conducted, sections of transcripts were cut and pasted into separate documents for each of four research teams to code and analyze. The research teams were organized by research question (i.e., components of high quality; recruitment, support, and retention of underrepresented students; working with administrators; successful dissertation advising). Transcribed interviews for each research team were uploaded to separate secure folders in a secure encrypted online data management software system.

Data Analysis

The last author met with members of all four research teams collectively to ensure consistency in the coding approach. The last author developed several guidance documents for the research teams to use and created instructions for coding the data, which included guidance such as each research team meeting to bracket biases and identify any a priori codes prior to initial coding of the data, following Merriam and Tisdell's (2016) guidelines. Research teams were instructed to identify emergent *in vivo* codes using verbatim line-by-line open coding when possible to avoid interpreting data too early during the coding process (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The focus of coding was to identify themes within and between participants. The four research teams were instructed to meet weekly over a period of several months to code and analyze data specific to their research question. Research teams coded each of the first three transcripts together as a team during weekly live coding sessions using the Zoom online platform, prior to individual team members coding the remaining transcripts separately. Codes were noted on the transcripts themselves, and then the lead team member compiled the codes into the code book. From there, the categories were developed and reviewed by all team members. Discrepancies in coding were resolved using coding consensus, with the research team documenting how they resolved any discrepancies in coding. Weekly meetings were required even when individual team members were coding separately to facilitate sharing their coding experience, clarifying questions about codes, establishing consensus on any parts of the transcript with complicated coding, and following the coding approach with consistency across coders. The last author created a coding database template that each research team was required to use, to ensure consistency in how coding was documented and categorized. These approaches were designed to improve consistency in coding within and between the four research teams. Each of the four research teams only coded and analyzed data pertinent to their assigned research question.

A coding team chair was identified for each of the four research teams to ensure that the coding and analysis approach was followed consistently and to organize the work of the team. Each research team organized codes into categories and eventually collapsed codes into themes using axial coding after all 15 transcripts had been coded. Themes also were analyzed by demographic and program characteristics of interviewees to assess the potential influence of background characteristics on responses. Each research team recorded memos during collective team meetings and during

individual coding of transcripts. The last author also created memos during collective meetings with all four research teams. The last author created memos immediately following interviews, though they refrained from sharing the memos with the research teams to avoid biasing the coding and analysis process. Several research teams used software platforms to analyze the data, and were permitted to select their own software platforms for data analysis.

Researcher Positioning for the Current Study

For this study, the first five authors comprised the coding team that examined the research question pertinent to the components of high-quality programs. The sixth and last author conducted the interviews and did not code data for the reasons cited above. Among the five coding team members, both etic and emic perspectives were represented. Two of the authors had an emic perspective, as they had previously worked at a doctoral CES program during their faculty career. Three of the authors held an etic perspective as doctoral students who had not yet worked as full-time faculty members. Coding team members were from different counselor education programs to reduce bias.

With regard to other demographic characteristics, four members of the coding team identified as Caucasian, and one member identified as African American. Three team members identified as female, and two identified as male. The team members were from a wide range of programs. One doctoral student was from a very high research-intensive university; one faculty member and two doctoral students were from a research-intensive university; and one faculty member was from a private, nonprofit online university.

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness was enhanced through procedures identified in the literature (e.g., Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Credibility was addressed through considering the positioning of the interviewer and research team members. Emic and etic perspectives were sought for each research team to reduce the potential for bias. The interviewer and research team each bracketed their biases prior to their involvement in the study and continued the process of bracketing throughout the study to reduce bias. One bias the researchers bracketed, for example, was their involvement and experiences as faculty and students in a CES program. All interviewees worked at separate CES programs to avoid overrepresentation of data. Research team members were also from different CES programs to reduce bias in coding and analysis. Emergent, *in vivo*, verbatim line-by-line open coding was used by each research team to avoid interpreting data too early during the coding process and thus to reduce interpretation bias. The interviewer did not participate in coding the data to minimize bias through being too close to the data. The last author also clearly identified and trained the research teams, with the goal of enhancing consistency. Member checks were used to enhance credibility, and the last author also kept an audit trail of the process. Purposive sampling and thick description was used to ensure adequate representation of perspectives and thus establish adequate transferability and dependability (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Results

Through data analysis, five categories emerged to capture the components that the participants described as critical to ensuring a high-quality doctoral program: *relationships*, *mission alignment*, *development of a counselor educator identity*, *inclusiveness of diversity*, and *Carnegie classification*. Each theme is described below, with support provided for each theme via participants' quotes.

Relationships

The first major theme we identified from the data was the importance of relationships. This theme appears to be a critical component to having a high-quality program. Participants reported that supportive faculty–student and student–student relationships are important to high quality.

Faculty–Student Relationships

Participants emphasized the importance of close mentoring relationships between doctoral faculty and doctoral students. Several participants cited the quality of mentoring between faculty and students as the "most important factor" in a high-quality doctoral program. We identified several subthemes that appeared to influence the quality of faculty–student relationships. Smaller cohort sizes, close mentoring, faculty workload, and the match between the student and their dissertation chair all seemed to be important factors in faculty–student relationships. In order to support the faculty and student relationship, attention to cohort sizes and the overall size of the program is considered critical. One participant stated, "If you view your doctoral program as a cash cow, and you're bringing in a lot of students, I think you've lost something." They further clarified that advising and chairing dissertations for more than two doctoral students per year would lessen the quality of the mentoring experience. Some participants reported that consideration should be given for admitting students who value the close mentoring experience.

Faculty time and resources seem foundational to the establishment of high-quality faculty–student relationships. Faculty reported that they need time to focus on mentoring students. One participant stated that "the amount of time spent between faculty member and doctoral student" strongly influence the quality of the mentoring relationship. Consideration for faculty teaching loads and service expectations is therefore important within the context of having adequate time to devote to mentoring.

Participants also noted the importance of fit between the faculty mentor and their student mentee. High-quality mentoring relationships are predicated on the match between student goals, research interests, and experience levels with their assigned dissertation chair and/or advisor's own goals, interests, and experiences. One participant reported that "there's a lot to mentorship," elaborating that faculty members must mentor students in "how to get involved in a profession; how to develop their voice as a counselor, as a teacher, as a clinical supervisor, as a researcher; and how to manage themselves professionally."

Student–Student Relationships

In addition to cohort size, the cohort model was identified as important to facilitating supportive student-to-student relationships during the program. Participants reported that the cohort model facilitated deep, lasting, and "familial" relationships. Strong relationships with other doctoral students in the cohort were crucial during stressful periods. As one participant noted, "In addition to school, life is out there and stuff happens and people go through difficult times, with divorce and deaths and job losses and things like that. And having that support system built in is incredibly important."

Mission Alignment

The next theme encompassed the importance of doctoral programs developing and following a mission statement with clearly defined doctoral student outcomes. As one participant stated, "A high-quality doctoral program in counselor ed and supervision has a clarity of purpose and focus. The program knows what its mission is, in terms of the product they want to produce with the doctoral students." Another participant reported that "a high-quality doctoral program has a really clear mission, so the program knows who they're trying to prepare and what they do well. And

then the program works the mission." This participant elaborated that although the mission of a doctoral program could vary, high-quality programs ensure execution of the mission regardless of mission type: "So if they're preparing researchers, they work that mission. If they're really focusing on preparing people just for teaching institutions, they work the mission." This theme had several subthemes, including faculty buy-in, the importance of aligning the program's mission with the university's mission, and institutional support.

Faculty Buy-In

Several participants noted that faculty buy-in is essential to executing the mission of the program. This concept was expressed as more than general faculty alignment with the program mission. Faculty buy-in was defined as input, ownership, and commitment to the mission of the program. As one participant reported, high-quality programs have developed a culture whereby "everybody feels like they have some ownership in the doc program, and that everybody has a voice." A team approach to carrying out the program's mission and purpose requires doctoral faculty members to "realize that 'winning' as a team is providing the best training experience for students" rather than "maximizing their vita for their own promotability or transferability to another institution." Thus, high-quality programs require faculty members to align their personal goals in order to fulfill the program's mission.

Without this input, ownership, and commitment, the program is likely to "struggle" because of problematic faculty dynamics such as faculty working in isolation and program leaders (e.g., the program director) "doing all of the work." Program faculty being aligned with the mission seemed to result in a faculty team that worked together well, could grow together, and supported students in a united way. In the participants' experience, when faculty had strong relationships and worked together, the quality of student preparation and the overall program quality increased.

Some participants noted that faculty buy-in to a program mission that emphasizes the role of the doctoral program in leading the profession is important. Faculty involvement in professional leadership is thus a key component of the program's leadership mission. One participant remarked, "[We] held a sense of pride in challenging ourselves to be leaders in the counseling profession," and noted that "if we're going to have a strong program, we need to be engaged and involved as faculty."

Alignment With the University's Mission

Participants reported that the counseling department's or program's mission statement should be in alignment with the broader university. Participants described how critical it is for the department to feel a connection to the mission of the university and for the students to share that connection. Mission alignment impacts both faculty and student feelings of connectedness to the program and broader university, along with university support and the resulting resources available to students.

Institutional Support

Participants reported that the program's alignment with the university's mission is crucial to securing institutional support for the program. Funding faculty lines, reduced faculty course loads, student graduate assistantships, conference attendance, specialized accreditation, and other aspects of the program are more likely to occur when the university feels the program reflects its own mission and purpose. One participant stated that "you need to garner respect from your program administration." They elaborated that in order to "resource" the program adequately, the program needs to justify its existence through alignment with the university's mission and purpose so that the university sees value in the program even when the program is unlikely to be a "money maker." This financial support is considered crucial to operating a high-quality program. Administration buy-in

helps to ensure that faculty members have the necessary resources, which in turn ensures a quality experience. As another participant stated, "I think that capacity and resources are key."

Development of a Counselor Educator Identity

The next theme to emerge was the importance of doctoral students developing a strong identity as counselor educators. As one participant said, the mission of a high-quality program is to prepare students "to step into a role as an educator." Some participants therefore equated high-quality programs with those that intentionally prepared counselor educators. Participants described a variety of curricular and extracurricular experiences within the program that assisted doctoral students to develop a strong professional identity as counselor educators.

Curricular Experiences

Several participants emphasized the importance of having formal curricular experiences in all three areas of teaching, research, and service as part of the doctoral degree program. As one participant stated, "I think you define your program by how well prepared your students are as evidenced by their success in these areas . . . of faculty activities, which [are] teaching, scholarship, and service." A sole focus on one of these areas was considered inadequate by several participants. For example, even participants working at research-intensive institutions suggested that a sole focus and overemphasis on research at the expense of teaching and service (i.e., leadership and advocacy) may not assist students to develop broad knowledge and skills as counselor educators. In addition to training students broadly, some participants thought that curricular experiences needed to be rigorous. As one participant stated, "I assume that any high-quality doctoral program is rigorous—that you're not letting students just do personal growth."

Some participants also associated the program's accreditation status (i.e., CACREP accreditation) with assisting students to develop their professional identity. One participant listed CACREP's five core doctoral standards (i.e., counseling, leadership and advocacy, research, supervision, and teaching) as each being an essential part of the formal doctoral curriculum in counselor education: "I really believe in those five doctoral standards. I believe that those are the areas in which I expect to see scholar leaders at very high levels of competence."

Extracurricular Experiences

Participants reported providing a range of extracurricular experiences to engage students in professional identity development. Participants reported assisting students in attending conferences, sharing in publications, co-teaching classes, and providing opportunities for service. One participant stated that "doctoral study also involves writing with faculty. It involves presenting and publishing your own work. It involves being involved in program governance." Graduate assistantships are also important when they help students to "gain practical experience and meaningful experience."

These experiences were often part of the "informal curriculum" of the program and were conceptualized by participants as exceeding minimum standards and requirements. Within this theme, it was also recognized that CACREP accreditation standards should be considered the minimum standards and that students need to have experiences beyond the minimum requirements. One participant said that high-quality programs provide experiences beyond "the cookie-cutter bare minimum that CACREP requires" and gave students training that created "pathways towards something that makes you unique in this field, so that you can contribute above and beyond when you get in the classroom." Another participant said that "it's going beyond just the course work,

it's going beyond the CACREP standards, that makes a difference." Participants reported that these extracurricular experiences are components of high-quality programs because they assist students with developing a counselor educator identity.

Graduate Outcomes

Some participants also placed emphasis on the importance of graduate outcomes in determining a high-quality program. Consistent with the earlier subtheme of curricular experiences, participants felt that high-quality programs ensured that students were skilled in the three areas of research, service, and teaching: "I think if you take a look at your graduates and if, overall, they show strong evidence of success in all three of those areas, I think you have a high-quality doctoral program." Participants believed that students would lack a "rounded doctoral experience" without these experiences and would not be adequately prepared for future employment as a core faculty member.

Some participants believed that high-quality programs had graduates who were securing faculty positions after graduation. One participant explained that a high-quality doctoral program has positive outcomes related to faculty employment and tenure: "Your students excel, by evidence of being employed in high-quality programs, by getting tenure, and by evidence of quality teaching."

Inclusiveness of Diversity

The next theme encompassed the importance of diversity in doctoral counselor education. Participants reported that high-quality programs create a diverse learning community, both in terms of cultural diversity of faculty and students, as well as in diversity of experiences. They have a broad range of faculty teaching courses and allow for a spectrum of viewpoints and perspectives. Participants proposed that students' engagement with diverse faculty and students is critical to ensuring high quality.

Faculty Diversity

Several participants reported that high-quality programs have a diverse faculty. This was perceived as central to the student experience. Within this theme, diversity was inclusive of cultural identity, as well as diversity of experiences. Participants indicated that doctoral students need to learn from faculty from diverse cultural backgrounds and diverse professional experiences. According to one participant, "I do think high-quality counselor education programs in particular should not only possess the demographic qualities, but the ideologic qualities of diversity and even professional pursuit of diversity." This exposure to diversity in faculty backgrounds and experiences is vital to the growth of students, as it exposes them to different perspectives. One participant proposed that high-quality programs intentionally attend to diversity within the faculty and attempt to recruit lecturers and guest speakers from diverse backgrounds and perspectives to address any gaps in faculty diversity: "If you don't have diversity in faculty, then you make sure to bring in diversity so that it's not just a bunch of White faculty preparing students in Eurocentric viewpoints."

Student Diversity

Participants also indicated that diversity in the student body is critically important to high quality. Program faculty seemed especially responsible for successfully recruiting students from diverse backgrounds and experiences. As one participant indicated, "They should bring diversity of thought, and diversity of experience, and diversity of region. People who bring something to the table beyond your master's program are critical." Faculty need to ensure, through admissions, that there is ample representation of diverse backgrounds and experiences within a cohort group. Faculty therefore also need to avoid screening out qualified applicants from diverse backgrounds during admissions.

Carnegie Classification

The final theme represented participant viewpoints regarding the role of Carnegie classification (i.e., The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education) in doctoral program delivery. Participants held a range of views related to Carnegie classification, often stemming from their own institutional work. Participants believed that high-quality programs reflected the classification of their institution, as aligning with the institutional mission was associated with institutional support (similar to the mission alignment theme). There were two dimensions within this category: institutional type and Carnegie classification, and focus areas impacted by Carnegie classification.

Institution Type and Carnegie Classification

Participants acknowledged that a variety of doctoral program types exist in CES. As one participant stated, "When you talk about a doctoral program in counseling, you can have a doctoral program in a heavy research university with a Research 1 Carnegie classification. You can also have a more practice-oriented PhD." Participants perceived that doctoral program types often reflect the type of institution where the doctoral program resides. Doctoral programs that emphasize research primarily exist at research universities, whereas doctoral programs that emphasize teaching primarily exist within teaching institutions.

Carnegie classification seemed important in determining the type of doctoral program that was offered at the institution. Participants at high and very high research-intensive universities (i.e., R2 and R1 Carnegie classifications) typically reported that their institution offered research-oriented doctoral programs, whereas participants working at doctoral/professional universities and master's-level universities reported that their institution typically offered teaching-oriented doctoral programs. Carnegie classification thus was a strong influence on the type of CES doctoral program offered at the institution. As one participant said, "I think the Carnegie classification is actually pretty critical. Because the Carnegie classification, alongside state politics, determine where the ship of the institution is heading. And the counseling program needs to mirror the ship."

Participants reported that the university's expectations for faculty promotion and tenure were influenced by institutional type and Carnegie classification. These expectations shaped faculty activities. One participant explained that "at a Research 1 university, there's a huge expectation for securing grants and publishing and refereed journal articles. At a lower level there's less pressure to do that. And then at a teaching university, there's hardly any pressure." University expectations for tenure and promotion thus shaped faculty activities, which in turn affected the program faculty's approach to training doctoral students. For example, faculty members who were more involved in research seemed more likely to value research training in the doctoral program in which they worked: "So what we are good at is preparing students to be researchers. There's a sense of trying to focus hard on helping students develop research competencies, because that is what the program faculty is focused on."

This mirroring between the institution's classification and the doctoral program type is important to securing institutional financial support in the form of faculty lines, student assistantships, and so forth. Without this mirroring, the program is at risk of lacking institutional support, which would have an impact on its quality. Thus, the quality of the program is predicated on the program's alignment with the institutional mission (as mentioned in the earlier theme of mission alignment), and the institutional mission is itself associated with the institution's Carnegie classification.

Focus Areas Impacted by Carnegie Classification

As mentioned above, the degree to which doctoral programs focus on research during the program seems to vary by university classification. Participants from research-intensive universities (i.e., R1 or R2 designation) valued research training above other elements of the curriculum. In contrast, participants from teaching institutions (i.e., Master's Colleges and Universities: Larger Programs designation) valued training in teaching and supervision and did not believe that research training should dwarf other aspects of training. Some participants proposed that research and publication should have a reduced emphasis in order for teaching and leadership to have a central focus in program delivery. Even though the emphasis on research varied by institution type, participants seemed to value the production of quality research regardless of institutional classification. Several participants reported that a high-quality doctoral program goes "above and beyond" CACREP minimum requirements in a manner that "expands counseling knowledge" and "allows for rigorous, quality research and really contributes uniquely to the profession." Several participants at different types of institutions spoke to the importance of doctoral students publishing during their time in the program and early in their careers.

Leadership training was also cited as an important component of high-quality programs across participants regardless of their institution and thus seemed to be a common theme for both research- and teaching-oriented institutions. Participants who valued leadership training during doctoral study worked in both research-intensive and teaching-focused institutions. As one participant from an R1 institution stated, "Our graduates need to be able to build programs, to run them successfully, to teach and train students in a way that they also produce the best clinicians that can go into the field." This participant added that high-quality programs therefore train students "beyond the publish-or-perish paradigm."

Discussion

This study was part of a larger qualitative project that explored the perceptions of CACREP-accredited program faculty (*N* = 15) regarding topics pertinent to doctoral education. In this study, a research team composed of the first five authors analyzed faculty descriptions of perceived components of a high-quality doctoral program. The research team identified five categories that emerged from the data: relationships, mission alignment, development of a counselor educator identity, inclusiveness of diversity, and Carnegie classification. With regard to participant characteristics, differences in responses were related to the Carnegie classification of the participant's current institution of employment. Contrary to previous research, no differences in participant perceptions were found by gender identity, racial/ethnic identity, length of time working at a doctoral program, region, or delivery mode.

Consistency and Divergence in Themes by Institutional Type and Classification

Across these themes, consistencies and divergences were found regarding how participants perceived high quality. Divergences appeared to be influenced by institutional type and Carnegie classification.

Consistency in Themes by Institutional Type and Classification

Regardless of institutional type and classification, participants broadly supported the importance of faculty–student mentoring relationships, student–student supportive relationships, having a clear mission statement that includes faculty buy-in and commitment, program and institutional mission alignment, securing university financial support for faculty lines and student assistantships among other costs, establishing a learning community with faculty and students who possess diversity in cultural background and ideological thought, helping students to develop a counselor educator identity, and producing high-quality research.

These findings are consistent with the extant literature. Studies into doctoral student experiences both in CES and across higher education have previously reported that faculty–student mentoring, student–student support systems, departmental culture, and curricula impact the quality of the student experience (Protivnak & Foss, 2009). Kuo et al. (2017) found that mentoring and advising relationships were pivotal for research motivation and producing quality research during doctoral study. Similarly, Perera-Diltz and Sauerheber (2017) suggested that developing research competencies was an important component of doctoral study in counselor education. Professional identity development is another important component of doctoral training (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Limberg et al., 2013). The inclusiveness of varying aspects of diversity within the students, faculty, and curriculum is an important finding and one that is echoed within the counseling profession's code of ethics and professional standards (e.g., American Counseling Association, 2014; CACREP, 2015).

There is scant literature in CES that focuses specifically on the clarity of the mission, mission alignment with the university, and faculty buy-in to the mission. Adkison-Bradley (2013) broached the idea of faculty buy-in through the concept of visionary thinking, proposing that faculty members possessing this type of thinking are more likely to advocate or "buy in" to the program's mission and work to sustain a resource-rich and quality program.

Divergence in Themes by Institutional Type and Classification

The main divergence involved the importance of research in relation to training in teaching. Participants from research-intensive programs placed more emphasis on research training at the expense of other focus areas. When considering the importance of mission alignment with the institution's classification and mission, it seems possible that high quality can be defined somewhat differently, based on institution type. For example, a research-intensive university should have a greater emphasis on research training, as it needs to reflect the overall mission of the university (i.e., research focused). If a doctoral program at a research-intensive university does not have a strong research emphasis, it may not be of high quality because of the potential impacts to university financial support. In contrast, a teaching university (e.g., Master's Colleges and Universities: Larger Programs designation) can focus more on teaching than research training and still be of high quality because the institution does not have a research emphasis and therefore the program's mission of emphasizing teacher training is in alignment with the university's mission. From this study, it seems important that faculty members therefore consider institutional mission and the degree of institutional emphasis on research training when seeking to start or sustain a doctoral program in counselor education.

Implications for Administrators and Program Faculty

The resulting themes from this study move us closer to identifying the components that contribute to high-quality doctoral programs in CES. It appears that when programs can (a) facilitate supportive faculty–student and student–student relationships, (b) create a clear mission that faculty are committed to and that aligns with and supports the broader institution, (c) establish a diverse learning community, (d) assist students to develop a professional identity as counselor educators, (e) ensure the production of quality research, and (f) provide leadership training during doctoral study, they will be of high quality.

Results from this study highlight several key components of high-quality doctoral programs. Our findings mirror some of the essential elements of the CACREP standards. Thus, supporting and sustaining these quality elements through regular re-accreditation cycles is paramount. However, these findings could also support other areas of focus in program evalutaion. For example, administrators and faculty members should be intentional when designing a mission statement that aligns with the broader institutional mission and has a clear plan for recruiting and retaining a diverse learning

community, developing professional identity, and providing leadership opportunities. Recent research has identified program evaluation training lacking in counselor education programs for doctoral students (Sink & Lemich, 2018), suggesting a need for increased attention in this area.

Implications for Prospective Doctoral Students

For students seeking programs, they are advised to appraise whether programs provide supportive mentorship and formal and informal learning opportunities, have a curricula focus that best fits their goals especially with regard to research preparation, and prioritize both faculty and student diversity. Burkholder (2012) suggested that student persistence and retention was bolstered by faculty communicating a genuine personal interest in students. Students who perceive a humanistic atmosphere from counselor education faculty are more likely to persist in counseling programs (Burkholder, 2012). Students should therefore consider their own academic and personal interests and needs and whether the program meets these. Hoskins and Goldberg (2005) also reported previously that the match between student interests and program offerings was an important predictor of doctoral student persistence.

Consideration for institution type and classification also appears important to prospective doctoral student decision making. For example, a student who wishes to develop a research identity may be best suited for a doctoral program at a research-intensive university that prioritizes research, whereas a doctoral program at a teaching institution may be a better fit for a student who has less proclivity toward research and who is seeking to develop specialized teaching competencies. Hinkle et al. (2014) previously reported that students typically sought doctoral study to become a professor or clinical leader, which seems consistent with how participants in this study identified focus areas of high-quality doctoral programs.

Lastly, faculty members should be sensitive to the needs of doctoral students as they engage in multiple roles and relationships such as co-teaching, supervising master's students, and the dissertation process (Baltrinic et al., 2016; Dickens et al., 2016; Dollarhide et al., 2013). This is especially important for students from diverse backgrounds (e.g., minority race/ethnicity and sexual/affective orientation), who are often engaged in their communities and have more roles to balance (Cartwright et al., 2018).

Limitations and Implications for Future Studies

There were several limitations to this study despite the research team's intention to perform a rigorous inquiry. The researchers' bias and reactivity, which are common threats to validity in qualitative research (Bickman & Rog, 2008), were potential influencers at several study stages. Therefore, the research team, which consisted of two counselor educators and three doctoral students with doctoral program experience, attempted to establish trustworthiness and eliminate threats to validity by bracketing biases, taking methodological notes, and using consensus coding.

Limitations may have also impacted the transferability of study findings. As with most qualitative studies, the sample was small ($N = 15$) and could even be considered small for the chosen method of inquiry according to some sources (Creswell & Poth, 2017; Morse, 1994). Therefore, the findings may not be fully transferable (i.e., generalizable) to other CES doctoral faculty. When using maximal variation sampling, a research team intentionally seeks to identify extreme differences in participant characteristics to avoid early redundancy (Suri, 2011). This can result in over- or underrepresentation of overall sample demographic characteristics compared to the population.

Intriguingly, the sample in this study was adequately representative of faculty and program characteristics. For example, the sample was overrepresented by faculty who self-identified as White (73.3%), which closely mirrored CACREP (2019a) data regarding faculty racial/ethnic composition across CACREP-accredited programs (73.6% White faculty). Regarding Carnegie classification, 73.3% of participants worked at research-intensive (i.e., R1 or R2) institutions. This was consistent with institutional classification of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs. As of 2019, 71.8% of CACREP-accredited doctoral programs were at R1 and R2 institutions. Another potential area of overrepresentation was participant experience as a faculty member. Participant experience ranged from 4 to 34 years, with an average of 19.7 years ($SD = 9.0$). This average seemed fairly high. Unfortunately, the exact number of years of experience of core faculty in CACREP-accredited programs is unknown, which limits analyses regarding the sample representation of years of experience relative to the overall population of doctoral-level counselor educators.

The current study examined faculty perceptions of components of high-quality doctoral programs in CES. It would be important for future studies to survey current students or recent graduates of these doctoral programs to ascertain their perspectives on these components. As consumers of this advanced degree, students may have important perspectives on this issue. In addition, the current study only interviewed faculty who worked in CACREP-accredited CES programs. As accreditation standards define curriculum, these faculty may have been largely influenced by program components that are required by the current iteration of the CACREP standards. Faculty who work in non–CACREP-accredited programs may have different perceptions about what constitutes a high-quality doctoral program in CES.

Conclusion

The number of CACREP-accredited CES doctoral programs, enrolled doctoral students, and doctoral graduates have increased substantially within a fairly short (i.e., 4-year) period (CACREP, 2017, 2019a). As doctoral programs are increasingly developed and maintained, administrators and faculty may benefit from insights about how to build a program that is of high quality. By attending to high quality, a counselor education doctoral program is likely to provide a more optimal experience for the students who choose to enter the program. The findings from this study therefore may be important for administrators and faculty to consider when creating or attempting to sustain a doctoral program in CES.

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Appendix

Interview Protocol

1. For context, please briefly describe how you self-identify and your background. This information will be aggregated; individual participant responses will not be associated with any quotes in subsequent manuscripts.
   Gender:
   Sexual/Affective Orientation:
   Race and Ethnicity:
   Years as a Faculty Member in a Counselor Education Program:
   Years as a Faculty Member in a <u>Doctoral</u> Counselor Education Program:
   Number of Doctoral Counselor Education Programs You Have Worked In:
   Regions of Doctoral Counselor Education Programs You've Worked In:

2. How might you define a "high-quality" doctoral program?

3. What do you believe to be the most important components? The least important?

4. How have you helped students to successfully navigate the dissertation process?

5. Which strategies has your program used to recruit underrepresented students from diverse backgrounds? How successful were those?

6. Which strategies has your program used to support and retain underrepresented students from diverse backgrounds? How successful were those?

7. What guidance might you provide to faculty who want to start a new doctoral program in counseling with regards to working with administrators and gaining buy-in?

8. What guidance might you provide to faculty who want to sustain an existing doctoral program in counseling with regards to working with administrators and gaining ongoing support?

9. Last question. What other pieces of information would you like to share about running a successful, high-quality doctoral program?

 nbcc

A Q Methodology Study of a Doctoral Counselor Education Teaching Instruction Course

Eric R. Baltrinic, Eric G. Suddeath

Many counselor education and supervision (CES) doctoral programs offer doctoral-level teaching instruction courses as part of their curriculum to help prepare students for future teaching roles, yet little is known about the essential design, delivery, and evaluation components of these courses. Accordingly, the authors investigated instructor and student views on the essential design, delivery, and evaluation components of a doctoral counselor education teaching instruction (CETI) course using Q methodology. Eight first-year CES doctoral students and the course instructor from a large Midwestern university completed Q-sorts, which were factor analyzed. Three factors were revealed, which were named *The Course Designer*, *The Future Educator*, and *The Empathic Instructor*. The authors gathered post–Q-sort qualitative data from participants using a semi-structured questionnaire, and the results from the questionnaires were incorporated into the factor interpretations. Implications for incorporating the findings into CES pedagogy and for designing, delivering, and evaluating CETI courses are presented. Limitations and future research suggestions for CETI course design and delivery are discussed.

Keywords: teaching instruction course, Q methodology, pedagogy, counselor education, doctoral students

Counselor education doctoral students (CEDS) need teaching preparation as part of their doctoral training (Hall & Hulse, 2010; Orr et al., 2008), including the completion of formal courses in pedagogy, adult learning, or teaching (Barrio Minton & Price, 2015; Hunt & Weber Gilmore, 2011; Suddeath et al., 2020). Teaching instruction courses may occur within or outside of the counselor education curriculum. Within counselor education, counselor education teaching instruction (CETI) courses are those doctoral-level seminar or semester-long curricular experiences designed to provide CEDS with the basic foundational knowledge for effective teaching (Association for Counselor Education and Supervision [ACES], 2016). CETI courses are cited as an important foundational training component for preparing CEDS for success in fulfilling future teaching roles (ACES, 2016). Additionally, simply possessing expert knowledge in one's field (e.g., counseling) is not sufficient to support student learning in the classroom (ACES, 2016; Waalkes et al., 2018), a reality recognized in counselor education some time ago by Lanning (1990).

To increase the attention to and strengthen the rigor of teaching preparation, the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) developed standards for fostering students' knowledge and skills in teaching through curricular and/or experiential training (CACREP, 2015). Specifically, within the CACREP (2015) teaching standards, CEDS need to learn "instructional and curriculum design, delivery, and evaluation methods relevant to counselor education" (Section 6, Standard B.3.d.). Although programs may use teaching internships (Hunt & Weber Gilmore, 2011), structured teaching teams (Orr et al., 2008), coteaching (Baltrinic et al., 2016), and teaching mentorships (Baltrinic et al., 2018) to address standards and train CEDS for their future roles as educators, teaching coursework is cited as the most common preparation practice

Eric R. Baltrinic, PhD, LPCC-S, is an assistant professor at the University of Alabama. Eric G. Suddeath, PhD, LPC, is an assistant professor at Mississippi State University – Meridian. Correspondence can be addressed to Eric Baltrinic, Graves Hall, Box 870231, Tuscaloosa, AL 35487, erbaltrinic@ua.edu.

(Barrio Minton & Price, 2015; Suddeath et al., 2020; Waalkes et al., 2018). Despite our knowledge that teaching coursework is commonly used for teaching preparation (Barrio Minton & Price, 2015; Suddeath et al., 2020), little is known about how counselor educators design and deliver these courses within counselor education. Although a few studies in counselor education and supervision address teaching coursework (e.g., Suddeath et al., 2020; Waalkes et al., 2018), it is in a cursory way or as one part of a broader inquiry into teacher preparation processes.

Perceived Effectiveness of CETI Courses

Ideally, teaching coursework, whether offered within counselor education specifically or not, should provide doctoral students with a basic framework for effective teaching. Unfortunately, as previously mentioned, little is known about what constitutes a CETI course. Moreover, the few studies that address this training component suggest inconsistency in its perceived value and effectiveness. For example, early research by Tollerud (1990) and Olguin (2004) found no difference in terms of teaching self-efficacy between those with and without coursework, regardless of the number of courses taken. Similarly, in Hall and Hulse's (2010) study examining counselor educators' doctoral teaching preparation and perceived preparedness to teach, participants found their teaching coursework least helpful for preparing them to teach. To improve the effectiveness of their coursework, participants in Hall and Hulse's study indicated a desire for multiple courses with a greater focus on the practical aspects of teaching, approaches for teaching adult learners, and more opportunities to engage in actual teaching during the course.

In a recent study by Waalkes et al. (2018), participants expressed similar sentiments reporting a general lack of emphasis and rigor in teacher preparation as compared to other core areas of development and especially for teaching coursework. Specific deficiencies included a lack of emphasis on pedagogy and teaching strategies and a discrepancy between their teaching coursework and their actual teaching responsibilities as current counselor educators (Waalkes et al., 2018). Given their experience, participants indicated a desire for greater integration of doctoral-level teaching coursework throughout their programs as well as "philosophy and theory, pedagogy/teaching strategies, understanding developmental levels of students, course design, assessment, and setting classroom expectations" (Waalkes et al., 2018, p. 73).

Unlike Tollerud (1990) and Olguin (2004), Suddeath et al. (2020) found that formal teaching coursework significantly predicted increased self-efficacy toward teaching. Furthermore, participants indicated that formal coursework strengthened their self-efficacy toward teaching slightly more than their fieldwork in teaching experiences. However, it is unclear from this study what aspects of the CEDS' coursework contributed to increased self-efficacy. In a study by Hunt and Weber Gilmore (2011), CEDS identified elements such as the creation of syllabi, exams, rubrics, and a philosophy of teaching and receiving support and feedback from instructors and peers as most helpful in their coursework experiences. Those who did not find the course helpful expressed a desire for more opportunities to engage in actual teaching. Overall, the literature addressing the relative effectiveness of teaching coursework suggests the need to (a) improve teaching courses, (b) connect teaching courses to additional teaching experiences, and (c) make it a meaningful and impactful experience for CEDS.

Instructor Qualities and Course Delivery

Counselor education research also suggests that instructor qualities and course delivery influence the learning experiences of counseling students (Malott et al., 2014; Moate, Cox, et al., 2017; Moate, Holm, & West, 2017). Regarding instructor qualities, two recent studies examining novice counselors' instructor preferences within their didactic (Moate, Cox, et al., 2017) and clinical courses (Moate, Holm, & West, 2017) found that, overall, participants preferred instructors who were kind,

supportive, empathic, genuine, and passionate about the course. Likewise, Malott et al. (2014) reported that instructors who were caring, which included characteristics such as respect, interest, warmth, and availability, were "essential in motivating learning" (p. 295). Moate and Cox (2015) also emphasized the importance of cultivating a supportive and safe learning environment for increasing students' active participation and engagement in their learning.

Regarding course delivery, overall participants in didactic and clinical courses preferred instructors who were pragmatic and connected course material to their actual work as counselors (Moate, Cox, et al., 2017; Moate, Holm, & West, 2017). Within didactic courses specifically—which included career counseling, theories, ethics, and diagnosis—Moate, Cox, et al. (2017) emphasized students' lack of preference for instructors who primarily utilized lecture or PowerPoint for instruction. This relates to the topic of teacher-centered versus learner-centered approaches. Those who use teacher-centered approaches utilize lecture as the primary mode of delivery and focus on the transmission of content through lecture from the experienced expert to the inexperienced novice, which may foster passive learning (Moate & Cox, 2015). In contrast, those who use learner-centered approaches emphasize shared responsibility for learning, which encourages active learning and application of course content through collaborative learning activities to tap into the collective knowledge of the group as well as supporting students' active engagement and application of course content (Malott et al., 2014; Moate & Cox, 2015).

Although Moate, Cox, et al. (2017) and Moate, Holm, and West (2017) focused on master's-level versus doctoral-level students, their findings suggested the importance of instructor qualities and approaches as well as student perspectives within course design and delivery. Moate, Cox, et al. (2017) and Moate, Holm, and West (2017) did not link instructor qualities to the training they received within doctoral CETI coursework, but having an understanding of these connections may aid doctoral instructors' design and delivery of CETI courses to better meet student needs.

Regarding instructor qualities and approaches to course delivery within doctoral CETI courses specifically, our literature search identified two studies that minimally addressed these components. Participants in the studies of both Waalkes et al. (2018) and Hunt and Weber Gilmore (2011) emphasized the importance of feedback from professors and classmates within CETI courses for strengthening their preparedness to teach. Neither study described exactly how this feedback supported their preparedness to teach, the type of feedback received, or the instructor's approach to delivering feedback.

The Current Study

Teaching preparation is an essential component of CEDS' training (ACES, 2016), as teaching and related responsibilities (a) consume a greater proportion of time than any other responsibility of a counselor educator (Davis et al., 2006) and (b) impact CEDS' confidence and feelings of preparedness to teach (Hall & Hulse, 2010; Suddeath et al., 2020). Still, some findings suggest a lack of rigor concerning teaching preparation compared to other core doctoral training areas (e.g., research and supervision; Waalkes et al., 2018). Although teaching preparation research in general is gaining momentum, there are no findings clarifying what components of formal coursework most support students' development as teachers. In fact, findings are mixed regarding its effectiveness (e.g., Suddeath et al., 2020; Waalkes et al., 2018). Furthermore, no in-depth research exists on how counselor educators implement formal teaching courses within counselor education or how those teaching courses are designed and delivered by counselor educators and experienced by CEDS. Yet, our experience tells us and research confirms (e.g., Waalkes et al., 2018) that counselor education programs increasingly require CEDS to engage in CETI courses as one way to develop teaching competencies, with some citing it as the most widely utilized way in which programs train CEDS to teach (ACES, 2016; Barrio Minton & Price, 2015; Suddeath et al., 2020).

As variability exists in how respective programs deliver CETI courses (Hunt & Weber Gilmore, 2011), we studied a single CETI course as a way to illustrate an example of common issues and potential discrepancies faced by students and instructors engaged in a doctoral CETI course. We examined this course, taking into account both experienced instructor and novice student views, to (a) reveal common views on ideal course design, delivery, and evaluation components among participants navigating a common curriculum; (b) identify any similar or divergent views between the instructor and students; and (c) determine how to design course content and instruction to meet the future needs of students. The study was guided by the research question: What are instructor and student views on the essential design, delivery, and evaluation elements needed for a CETI course?

Method

Q methodology is a unique research method containing the depth of qualitative data reduction and the objective rigor of by-person factor analysis (Brown, 1993). Researchers have effectively utilized this method in the classroom setting to facilitate personal discovery and to increase subject matter understanding (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Specifically, students' self-perspectives are investigated and then related to other students' views, which are then related to nuances within their own views (Good, 2003). Q methodology has also been effectively used as a pedagogical exercise to examine subjectivity in intensive samples of participants (McKeown & Thomas, 2013). Focusing on intensive samples, and even single cases, allows researchers to retain participants' frames of reference while concurrently revealing nuances within their views, which may be lost within larger samples (Brown, 2019). Yet, the rigor of findings from intensive samples derived from Q factor analysis remains.

We selected Q methodology for the current study versus a qualitative or case study approach (Stake, 1995) to reveal common and divergent viewpoints in relation to common stimulus items (i.e., a Q sample composed of ideal design, delivery, and evaluation of CETI course components from the literature). We also wanted both the instructor and students participating in the sampled doctoral CETI course to provide their subjective views on the optimal design, delivery, and evaluation components of a doctoral CETI course, while incorporating the rigorous features of quantitative analysis (Brown, 1980).

Concourse and Q Sample

Specific steps were taken to develop the *Q sample*, which is the set of statements used to assist participants with expressing their views during the Q-sorting process. The first step is selecting a *concourse*, which is a collection of opinion statements about any topic (Stephenson, 2014). Many routes of communication contribute to the form and content of a concourse (Brown, 1980). The concourse for this study was composed of statements taken by the authors from select teaching literature and documents (e.g., ACES, 2016; McAuliffe & Erickson, 2011; West et al., 2013). After carefully searching within these sources, researchers selected statements specifically containing teaching experts' views on essential components for teaching preparation, in general, and CETI courses in particular. The concourse selection process resulted in over 240 concourse statements, which was too many for the final Q sample (Brown, 1970, 1980).

Second, the concourse of statements was reduced by the first author using a structured deductive Q sample design shown in Table 1 (Brown, 1970). Data reduction using a structured design results in a reduction of concourse statements into a manageable Q sample (McKeown & Thomas, 2013). Accordingly, data reduction proceeded with the removal of unclear, fragmented, duplicate, or unrelated statements until there were eight items for each of the types, resulting in the structured 48-item sample shown in the Appendix.

Table 1

Structured Q Sample

Dimensions	Types		N
1. Design	a. Materials (Items 4, 5, 10, 13, 14, 23, 28, 39)	b. Experiences (Items 3, 22, 24, 25, 36, 37, 43, 45)	2
2. Delivery	c. Content (Items 2, 15, 17, 18, 26, 27, 35, 38)	d. Process (Items 6, 8, 12, 30, 32, 41, 44, 46)	2
3. Evaluation	e. Formative (Items 7, 20, 21, 29, 33, 40, 42, 47)	f. Summative (Items 1, 9, 11, 16, 19, 31, 34, 48)	2

*Q-set = D (Criteria) (Replications); D ($[1_2]$ $[2_2]$ $[3_2]$) (n); D (2) (2) (2); D = 8 combinations;
D (2) (2) (2) (6 replications); D = 48 statements for the Q sample.

Third, the 48-item Q sample was then evaluated by three expert reviewers using a content validity index (Paige & Morin, 2016). Expert reviewers who had a minimum of 10 years of experience as counselor educators, had designed and delivered doctoral CETI courses, had published frequently on teaching and learning, and were familiar with Q methodology were solicited by the first author. Accordingly, expert reviewers rated each of the 48 items on a 4-point scale using three criterion questions: 1) Is the statement clear and unambiguous as read by a counselor educator? 2) Is the statement clear and unambiguous as read by CEDS? and 3) Is the statement distinct from the other statements listed here? Items receiving a score of 3 ("Mostly") or 4 ("Completely") were included; items receiving a score of 2 ("Somewhat") were reviewed and modified by the authors for appropriateness; items receiving a score of 1 ("Not at all") were discarded from the sample. After the three expert evaluators completed the content validity index, the authors refined the Q sample by rewriting two items to improve clarity, eliminating one duplicate item, and adding an item the reviewers thought important. For the final step, two of the experts completed Q-sorts to assure the final Q sample facilitated the expression of views on supervisee roles. The results of these two pilot Q-sorts were not included in the data analysis.

Participant Sample

Researchers followed McKeown and Thomas' (2013) recommendations for selecting an intensive participant sample (i.e., fewer than 20 participants), which included a combination of purposeful and convenience sampling strategies (Patton, 2015) to obtain participants for the study. We purposefully selected the doctoral CETI course and the instructor because it was offered within a reputable, CACREP-accredited doctoral program; developed by a counselor educator known for teaching excellence and professional contributions; and taught and refined in an on-campus, in-person program by that same instructor for over 16 years. Additionally, the participants engaged in the course at the time of investigation constituted a convenience sample of eight first-year CEDS. Participants collectively represented a group of individuals holding similar theoretical interests and the ability to provide insight into the topic of investigation (Brown, 1993).

All nine participants were from a large, top-ranked counselor education program located in the Midwest. Seven of the students identified as White cisgender females, and one as a cisgender Asian

male. Four student participants were in the 25 to 30-year-old range, and four were in the 31 to 35-year-old range. The instructor was in the 50 to 55-year-old range, who identified as a White cisgender male. None of the student participants reported having previous teaching experience.

Data Collection

After obtaining IRB permission, the first author collected the initial consent, demographic, Q-sort, and post–Q-sort written data from the students and instructor using a semi-structured questionnaire. The nine participants (*n* = 8 students; *n* = 1 instructor) were each asked to rank-order the 48 items in the Q sample along a forced choice grid from most agree (+4) to most disagree (-4). The conditions of instruction used for the students' and instructor's Q-sorts stemmed directly from the research question. After completing this Q-sort, participants were asked by the first author to provide written responses, using a semi-structured questionnaire, for the top three items with which they most (+4) and least (-4) agreed and were asked to comment on any other items of significance.

The first author asked the course instructor to respond in writing to three questions, in addition to those prompts contained in the semi-structured questionnaire. This was done to add nuance and context to the results. The additional questions and highlights from the instructor's responses are shown in Table 2.

Data Analysis

Nine Q-sorts completed by participants were each entered into the PQMethod software program V. 2.35 (Schmolck, 2014). A correlation matrix was then generated reflecting the "nature and extent of relationships" among all the participants' Q-sorts in the data set (Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 111). The correlation matrix served as the basis for factor analysis, which was completed using the centroid method (Brown, 1980). Essentially, factor analysis allows researchers to examine the correlation matrix for patterns of similarity among the participants' Q-sorts. In the current study, we were interested in similar and divergent patterns among the instructor's and students' Q-sorts on essential doctoral CETI course components. In other words, data analysis in Q studies is possible because all participants rank-order a Q sample of *similar* items, which allows researchers to inter-correlate those Q-sorts for subsequent factor analysis.

Given the low number of participants, we initially extracted five factors from the correlation matrix, which yielded fewer significant factor loadings (i.e., a correlation coefficient reflecting the degree to which a participant's Q-sort correlates with the factor). Therefore, we extracted three factors, which yielded a higher number of factor loadings. The three factors were rotated using the varimax method, which we selected because (a) we had no preconceived theoretical notions regarding the findings, (b) we were blind to participant identifying information in the data, and (c) we intended to obtain dominant views among participants within the same course (Watts & Stenner, 2012). The *varimax factor rotation method* helps researchers to identify individual factor loadings "whose positions closely approximate those of the factor" (Watts & Stenner, 2012, p. 142). In Q methodology, a *factor* is a composite or ideal Q-sort to which individual participants correlate (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Overall, data analysis steps yielded a 3-factor solution containing at least two significant factor loadings on each factor, which is the minimum suggested number of factor loadings for a factor to hold significance (Brown, 1980). Notably, the final 3-factor solution contained significant factor loadings for all nine of the study participants, which suggests the rigor of the collective viewpoints (i.e., factors) discussed in the results.

Table 2

Summary of Instructor Responses

Interview Question	Interview Responses (Factor A Exemplar)
1. What is important for planning, delivering, and evaluating doctoral-level counselor education teaching instruction courses?	I think of the different elements that go into teaching and I think these are the things that students need to be exposed to, such as: developing a teaching philosophy, creating a syllabus, evaluating other instructors' syllabi, making selections on textbooks, looking at equity in the classroom, backwards design of curriculum, having a small group teaching experience, having a large group teaching experience, using experiences in the classroom for developing reflective practice, and reviewing essential readings in the teaching field. I also think it is essential that we teach students how to use online platforms, so they have exposure and, to what degree we can, competency, to online platforms.
2. What are some significant lessons learned over the past 16 years as an instructor of a counselor education teaching instruction course?	This course is a change in pace for most students in my program. For that reason, students generally seem excited about this course. Having them excited about taking the course makes teaching the course a pure joy. Along with the excitement, students bring a level of naïveté to the topic. They have been students, but they do not have a lot of exposure to being a teacher. In my field of counseling, students at the doctoral level have exposure to counseling, so they come in with a level of exposure and expertise in that area, but in teaching it seems all new to them. And that makes a course fun for me. I believe the hardest thing for students to learn is to set aside their own passions and misconceptions about what their students need to know in service of what they must know to be an effective counselor. What their passions are and what students need to know are not always the same thing. I notice students are generally apprehensive about their performance when it comes to teaching. I have to constantly remind myself that it doesn't come automatically to them as it does to me, having taught many years. So I have to reintroduce myself to the idea of performance anxiety in the classroom. That's where I think the in-class reflective practice piece fits in nicely for them. They get a chance to think and talk through their anxiety about teaching.
3. What role does a counselor education teaching instruction course serve for preparing doctoral students to teach?	I can't imagine a program that does not have a teaching instruction course, preferably taught within the program, that would be able to adequately prepare students for future faculty roles. Most of my career has been to emphasize the need for good faculty instruction on teaching in the counseling field.

Results

The data analysis revealed three significantly different viewpoints (i.e., Factors A, B, and C) on the essential design, delivery, and evaluation elements needed for a doctoral CETI course. All participants in the study were significantly associated with one of the three factors. Specifically, one student participant and the course instructor were significantly associated with Factor A (i.e., had factor loadings of .37 or higher; .50 and .84, respectively). Five of the eight student participants were significantly associated with Factor B (.72, .70, .66, .78, and .60, respectively). Two of the eight student

participants were significantly associated with Factor C (.75 and .87, respectively). Select participant quotes from participants' post-sort questionnaires were incorporated into the factor interpretations below to provide contextual details for each factor.

Factor A: The Course Designer

Factor A is most distinguished by the view that CETI courses should result in students having the ability to design their own counseling courses, which differs from Factors B and C (Item 37; +4, 0, 0, respectively). This pervasive opinion is contained in the instructor's semi-structured questionnaire response to Item 37:

> I cannot imagine the purpose of having a course for teaching in counselor education without the purposeful outcome being to create a course. The ability to do course development, to me, is the skillset that doctoral graduates should have from a teaching course.

The student associated with this factor added, "I want this course to help me be successful, which means I have to practice . . . making a syllabus, working with students . . . the basis of the entire course is to learn to teach!" Learning how to design evaluations of the teaching and learning process (Item 48, +2) is also considered an essential CETI course component for Factor A. For Factor A, CETI courses need to include discussions about selecting textbooks (Item 14, +2) and opportunities to learn about classroom management (Item 18, +2). There was even stronger agreement that CETI courses need to include information about designing a syllabus (Item 39, +3) and constructing related course objectives (Item 33, +3), which would culminate in a plan for actual teaching experiences (Item 35, +3). Given the preference for technical and design elements in CETI courses, the authors have named Factor A *The Course Designer*.

Factor A placed less emphasis on the developmental level (Item 25, -3) and cultural differences (Item 38, -1) of students as essential components of a CETI course. But that does not suggest these elements are unimportant, as one participant illustrated: "All instructors need to be mindful of students' cultural differences. Learning can only be effective in an environment conducive of understanding students' differences." Importantly, the Factor A view was not limited to just design and technical components. In fact, Factor A, like B and C, viewed having some type of teaching experience as an essential element of a CETI course (Item 46; +4, +4, +1, respectively).

Factor B: The Future Educator

The Factor B viewpoint, which the authors named *The Future Educator*, placed importance on the use of interactive (Item 6, +4) and experiential (Item 45, +3) activities, more so than course design, as essential elements of a CETI course. In contrast to Factors A (-4) and C (-4), Factor B participants believed in the helpfulness of teaching to their peers (Item 44, +2). However, Factor B was most distinguished from Factors A (+1) and C (-1) in its belief that CETI courses should prepare students for future faculty roles (Item 43, +4). Collectively, individuals on this factor all agreed that the role of a CETI course was to help them be successful as future faculty members, and as one student stated, "Students need to be prepared for future faculty roles including teaching, so students need to be prepared to teach."

Factor B differed from Factors A and C on the importance of evaluation of students' learning (Item 20, -1) and textbook selection (Item 14, -2), but agreed that videotaping students' experiences is not an essential component of CETI courses (Item 11, -4). Regarding Item 11, participants noted, "Video recordings may not demonstrate the entire experience, including feelings and opinions of students and teachers." Additionally, CEDS noted that being video-recorded could potentially "make students

in the class act differently," and, "if there is live evaluation" contained in a CETI course, "including guided reflection and time to process feedback, then video isn't necessary." This is an interesting finding given that many of the participants were trained in counseling programs that used video work samples as the basis for supervision feedback related to counseling skills development.

Factor C: The Empathic Instructor

Factor C represented a preference for instructor qualities and intentional communication (i.e., delivery) more so than design issues (Factor A) or future faculty preparation (Factor B). For instance, Factor C participants believed that instructors of CETI courses should be passionate about teaching (Item 30, +4), compared to -1 and 2 for Factors A and B, respectively. As one student put it, "I feel as though passion fuels everything else in the course: effort, preparation, and availability of the instructor. Passion is everything." According to Factor C, CETI instructors should be approachable (Item 32, +4), model and demonstrate how to provide feedback for future student encounters (Item 26, +3), and check in often with students to determine their level of understanding (Item 21, +3). However, when designing, delivering, and evaluating CETI courses, Factor C participants highlighted the developmental level (Item 25, +2) and cultural differences (Item 38, +4) of students, which contrasts with Factors A and B. Factor C simply placed higher importance on these items compared to the other factors.

Factor C was also distinguished by what is not essential for a CETI course, such as planning for a teaching experience (Item 35, -1), processing fellow classmates' teaching experiences (Item 29, -3), and being able to design evaluations of teaching and learning (Item 48, -4), which, as one participant stated, are "usually dictated by the institution where you are employed." Factor C placed less emphasis on specific feedback (i.e., content-oriented) instructors provide to students on their teaching (Item 42, -1) in favor of the instructor's approachability. As one participant described, "There is not growth without feedback . . . if the instructor is approachable then the student will feel as if they can approach the instructor with any concerns, including any items on this Q sample." Given the preference for instructor qualities and communication, the authors have named Factor C *The Empathic Instructor*.

Consensus

Despite the distinguishing perspectives contained in each individual factor, significant areas of consensus existed among factors with respect to particular Q sample items. For example, Factors A, B, and C believed that designing a syllabus is an important aspect of a CETI course (Item 39; +3, +3, and +2, respectively). All three factors commonly acknowledged that CETI course instructors ought to consider the pedagogy used for course delivery (Item 10; 0, +1, and +1, respectively), and that CETI courses should prepare doctoral students for teaching internships (Item 22; 0, +1, 0). CETI courses should address classroom management issues as well (Item 18; +2, +1, and 0, respectively). Finally, CETI courses should contain intentional student engagement efforts (Item 3; +2, +1, and +2) with regular and relevant discussions (Item 8; +1, +3, and +2, respectively).

Consensus among factors also existed around the *non-essential* elements of a CETI course. Specifically, all three factors expressed that midterm (Item 16; -3, -3, and -2, respectively) and final course exams (Item 19; -3, -4, and -3, respectively) were not essential components of a CETI course. One male participant summarized this point: "I think students' progress can be evaluated by exploring what students think they learn, how much insight they gain, and how they plan to apply what they learn in the class, rather than using exams or pre/post-tests." Similarly, another female participant cited, "Exams will not show progress in teaching skills. You need real life experiences and discussion." Overall, participants across factors believed that exams promote memorization of content more so than the fair and commensurate evaluation of teaching knowledge and skills. In other words, they believed that CETI courses should be more experiential in nature.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to gain insight into the essential design, delivery, and evaluation elements needed for a CETI course. The results produced three unique views on this topic. In addition, although participants' views varied, with Factor A emphasizing the technical components of creating a course, Factor B emphasizing experiential components and future faculty roles, and Factor C emphasizing the character and qualities of the instructor, there were several areas of consensus. Specifically, participants across all three factors agreed on the importance of CETI courses for (a) preparing CEDS for teaching internships (Hunt & Weber Gilmore, 2011; Orr et al., 2008; Waalkes et al., 2018); (b) using pedagogy to guide CETI course delivery (ACES, 2016; Waalkes et al., 2018); (c) designing syllabi (Hall & Hulse, 2010; Hunt & Weber Gilmore, 2011); and (d) developing teaching skills such as classroom management, engaging students, and facilitating class discussions (Hall & Hulse, 2010; Hunt & Weber Gilmore, 2011; Waalkes et al., 2018). As indicated above, these points of consensus align with previous counselor education literature, including participants' desire for CETI courses to prepare them for teaching as counselor educators (Baltrinic et al., 2016).

An expected finding within Factor C is the influence of the instructor's qualities (e.g., approachability and passion) and delivery (e.g., seminar format) on participants' views of the CETI course (Moate, Cox, et al., 2017). The instructor delivered the course in a seminar format emphasizing student leadership for content sharing and de-emphasizing the use of lecture, which relates to consensus factor scores on Item 40, "In a teaching course, I should be evaluated on my ability to do a lecture." However, it is unclear from the data how participants understood the purpose or role of lectures for engaging students in the classroom. It is notable to mention, however, that participants delivered counseling content to master's-level students as part of their teaching experiences for the course and would thus benefit from feedback on their performance.

Many have suggested that utilizing lecture as the principal mode of delivery fosters passive learning and does not necessarily support students' engagement in course content or development of decision-making, problem-solving, or critical-thinking skills (e.g., Malott et al., 2014; Moate & Cox, 2015). Participants in Waalkes et al.'s (2018) study indicated that their training primarily equipped them to lecture, which they reported did not fully prepare them for their roles as educators. Although Moate and Cox (2015) do not recommend utilizing lecture as the only method for helping students engage with course content, both they and Brookfield (2015) emphasized the false dichotomy that exists between teacher-centered approaches, which are typically characterized by lecturing, and learner-centered approaches, which often rely on using discussions as a primary mode of teaching.

Rather than dismissing lectures entirely, instructors can utilize lectures to provide a broad overview of the course content, to explain difficult or complex concepts with frequent examples, to generate students' engagement and interest in a topic, and/or to model the types of skills and dispositions instructors would like to foster in students (Brookfield, 2015; Malott et al., 2014; Moate & Cox, 2015). Thus, lectures can serve as a starting point to model and frame course content for further discussion and application using other teaching methods (Moate & Cox, 2015). Overall, we believe that it is important for students to possess a variety of teaching methods for engaging students with course content and understand when and how to apply various methods effectively, which requires CETI instructor feedback and support.

Surprising results included participants' low rankings of Item 12 regarding the importance of role-playing, of Item 7 regarding the importance of peer feedback, and of Item 11 regarding the use of video recordings of teaching—this latter finding contrasts with participant responses in Hunt and

Weber Gilmore's (2011) study, who found "sharing and critiquing a video of us teaching" an especially valuable component of their coursework (p. 147). Current counselor education research consistently affirms the importance and reported desire for formal coursework to incorporate practical teaching components related to the actual work of a counselor educator (Hall & Hulse, 2010; Hunt & Weber Gilmore, 2011). Instructors who employ learner-centered approaches often emphasize the role of peers and the use of peer feedback to enhance student learning (Moate & Cox, 2015). It could be that participants assumed that role-plays pertain to practicing counseling-related interventions. As such, it may prove helpful if counselor educators consider situational uses for role-plays, such as a way of managing difficult situations in the classroom (e.g., classroom management), or for addressing sensitive topics related to multicultural concerns, among others (Hunt & Weber Gilmore, 2011). Instructors can model how to facilitate these skills, which can be followed up with dyadic or triadic student role-plays.

Additionally, participants did not place importance on peer feedback over the instructor's feedback or learning how to provide feedback to their future students in the instructor role. Instead, participants favored feedback from the instructor on their own teaching skills, the proposition here being that instructors can provide feedback from a position of experience, more so than peers who do not have teaching experience. It is plausible that CEDS attending CETI courses need feedback about *how* to provide feedback and perceive this as an important teaching skill (Hunt & Weber Gilmore, 2011). This is important because students in CETI courses are likely (a) learning the course-related content *and* (b) learning the pedagogy for delivering counseling-related content in their future classrooms (ACES, 2016).

Implications

Findings support two important implications for counselor educators, the first of which is illustrated by the instructor from this study: "What students' passions are and what students need to know are not always the same thing." One can reasonably expect discrepancies between the perceptions of the instructor and those of students as evidenced by some participants' dissatisfaction with the content and delivery of their CETI courses (e.g., Hall & Hulse, 2010; Waalkes et al., 2018). However, we encourage counselor educators as they teach to consider students' views (i.e., factors) even if they feel their own views and curriculum support best practice. We also acknowledge that some instructors may have limited autonomy in the construction of CETI course syllabi and assignments because of accreditation requirements.

In thinking about the implications for counselor educators, to the extent possible, tailoring a CETI course to the reported preferences/needs of the students seems essential for preparing them for future teaching (Waalkes et al., 2018) as well as for increasing student engagement (e.g., Moate & Cox, 2015). For example, counselor educators can incorporate technology, curricular, and course design elements into CETI courses (Factor A). Counselor educators can link teaching experiences to future faculty roles by exploring them in the context of accreditation requirements, their impact on tenure and promotion practices (Davis et al., 2006), and managing teaching loads in the context of other duties and institutional demands (Silverman, 2003; Factor B). Finally, counselor educators can incorporate Factor C views into their CETI courses by attending to the instructor qualities, modeling passion, demonstrating approachability, and frequently checking in on students' progress (Malott et al., 2014). Additionally, the authors suggest that counselor educators incorporate aspects of all three factors into their own teaching practice and link the CETI course to future supervised teaching experiences such as teaching practicum or internships as suggested by Waalkes et al. (2018).

Second, counselor educators should obtain and incorporate CEDS' perspectives early when designing, delivering, and evaluating CETI courses, which can be helpful for investigating (formally or informally)

the impact of those instructional strategies and curriculum on CEDS' teaching skill development and is recommended as a best practice by Malott et al. (2014). It is common practice to collect student opinions of instruction at the end of the semester, and many instructors collect ongoing data on how students are progressing in the semester. Q methodology could be used in ways similar to this study to help instructors positively influence CEDS' learning. Additionally, counselor educators could utilize Q methodology to identify factors and use those factors to improve their own performance, to design other teaching-related courses, and to affect CEDS' classroom experiences and learning outcomes. Counselor educators could also compare their CETI courses with other instructors' courses to see trends or use Q methodology to identify factors within or between CETI courses over time.

Limitations and Future Research

Q methodology studies gather and rigorously analyze data to reveal common viewpoints among participants. Factors do not generalize in Q studies the same way as findings from traditional factor analysis (i.e., R methodology; Brown, 1980). Rather, factors are simply collections of opinion, the structure of which may or may not exist in other counselor education settings. However, CETI instructors can test this proposition by having students in other CETI courses complete Q-sorts with the current Q sample or by developing and testing relevant Q samples of their own design. In fact, because the Q sample was used in one class, researchers are encouraged to test propositions with larger samples across programs to see if the factors exist in multiple settings. Finally, because the participants in the current study were a convenience sample from a brick-and-mortar program composed mostly of White females within a single course, participant diversity was lacking. Future studies could examine the views of students of color and international students in larger samples across multiple courses and multiple formats (e.g., online and hybrid programs).

Additional conditions of instruction could be added to expand teaching instruction viewpoints using a single-case design approach (Baltrinic et al., 2018). Supporting Q findings with qualitative information from in-depth interviews from student and instructor factor exemplars would add more nuance to the existing factors as well. Finally, following in our footsteps, researchers could develop and administer their own teaching instruction Q-sorts before beginning a CETI course to tailor the development and delivery of the course to the needs of their students. This would allow CETI instructors to develop studies, which may reveal idiosyncratic and shared experiences (Stephenson, 2014) related to programs' CETI course design, delivery, and evaluation.

Conclusion

We proposed in this article that doctoral CETI courses offer a starting point for CEDS' teaching preparation. We elaborated further that despite accreditation guidelines and the anecdotal experiences of counselor educators in various programs, little is known about what specifically to include in a CETI doctoral course. Counselor educators and CEDS alike can honor course variability, anecdotal experiences, and academic freedoms, while providing some structure to their CETI courses. This goal can be achieved by acknowledging that CETI course design, delivery, and evaluation include professional-level, student, and instructor perspectives. The Q factors in the current study revealed one way to include multiple perspectives and to identify preferred and recognizable CETI course components.

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Appendix

College Teaching Q Sample Statements and Factor Array

#	Q Sample Statement	A	B	C
1	Peers should be able to review the courses I develop as part of a teacher training course.	-1	-2	-2
2	Teacher training courses should have case examples.	-2	0	1
3	Designing student engagement is important for a course on teaching.	2	1	2
4	Courses in teacher training should have relevant technology resources.	1	-2	-2
5	Learning how to assess students' learning is important in a teaching course.	3	0	2
6	Courses in teacher training should have interactive activities.	0	4	1
7	I should have student feedback for the classes I teach while a student in a teacher training course.	-2	0	2
8	Teacher training courses should have relevant discussion.	1	3	2
9	Teacher training courses should have student feedback mechanisms for the instructor.	0	0	0
10	A teaching course should consider the pedagogy used for course delivery.	0	1	1
11	I believe that my teaching should be videoed in my teacher training course.	-1	-4	-1
12	Having role-plays on teaching is important for a teaching course.	-4	-3	0
13	Teaching instruction courses should incorporate adult learning theories.	0	-1	0
14	Selecting a textbook is an important part of learning in a teaching course.	2	-2	1
15	Content in teacher training courses should be up to date.	-1	1	-1
16	Teacher training courses should have midterm evaluations of my work in the course.	-3	-3	-2
17	Teacher training courses should have breakout groups.	-3	-3	-3
18	Teacher training courses should address classroom management.	2	1	0
19	Teacher training courses should have course exams.	-3	-4	-3
20	A method to evaluate students' learning is important to course design.	2	-1	1
21	Instructors of teacher training courses should check in often with students to determine their level of understanding.	-1	0	3
22	Teaching instruction courses should prepare students for teaching internships.	0	1	0
23	Teacher training courses should have assigned readings on varied aspects of teaching and learning.	1	-2	-1

24	Considering students' personal and cultural characteristics is important in designing a teaching course.	0	2	1
25	Considering students' developmental level is important in designing a teaching course.	-3	-1	2
26	Learning how to provide feedback to future students is important for a teaching course.	1	0	3
27	In a teacher training course, I should be expected to create a teaching philosophy.	4	1	3
28	Teacher training classes should have supplemental learning materials.	-1	-2	-2
29	I should process fellow classmates' teaching experiences as a part of a teacher training course.	1	-1	-3
30	The instructor in a teacher training course should be passionate about teaching.	-1	2	4
31	In a teacher training course, I should be able to design a teaching instruction course.	-4	-1	-4
32	Instructors of teacher training courses should be approachable.	0	2	4
33	Creating course objectives are important to a teaching course.	3	0	3
34	Teacher training courses should have pre/posttest of students' learning.	-2	-4	-3
35	Planning for a teaching experience is an important part of the course.	3	2	-1
36	Portions of teacher training courses should include lectures.	-2	-1	-2
37	In a teacher training course, I should be able to design a counseling course.	4	0	0
38	Instructors of teacher training courses should anticipate students' cultural differences.	-1	2	4
39	Designing a syllabus is an important aspect of a teaching course.	3	3	2
40	In a teaching course I should be evaluated on my ability to do a lecture.	-2	1	0
41	Decisions on how you will use media are important in designing a teacher training course.	0	-2	-2
42	Instructors of teacher training courses should provide appropriate feedback to students on teaching.	2	3	-1
43	Teaching instruction courses should prepare students for future faculty roles.	1	4	-1
44	In a teaching training course, I should have the opportunity to teach to my peers.	-4	2	-4
45	Experiential activities are important in a teaching instruction course.	1	3	0
46	Having a teaching experience is important for a course on teaching.	4	4	1
47	In a teacher training course, I should be able to use technology to collect evaluation data.	-2	-3	-2
48	In a teacher training course, I should be able to design evaluations of teaching and learning.	2	-1	-4

nbcc

Research Identity Development of Counselor Education Doctoral Students: A Grounded Theory

Dodie Limberg, Therese Newton, Kimberly Nelson, Casey A. Barrio Minton,
John T. Super, Jonathan Ohrt

We present a grounded theory based on interviews with 11 counselor education doctoral students (CEDS) regarding their research identity development. Findings reflect the process-oriented nature of research identity development and the influence of program design, research content knowledge, experiential learning, and self-efficacy on this process. Based on our findings, we emphasize the importance of mentorship and faculty conducting their own research as a way to model the research process. Additionally, our theory points to the need for increased funding for CEDS in order for them to be immersed in the experiential learning process and research courses being tailored to include topics specific to counselor education.

Keywords: grounded theory, research identity development, counselor education doctoral students, mentoring, experiential

Counselor educators' professional identity consists of five primary roles: counseling, teaching, supervision, research, and leadership and advocacy (Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs [CACREP], 2015). Counselor education doctoral programs are tasked with fostering an understanding of these roles in future counselor educators (CACREP, 2015). Transitions into the counselor educator role have been described as life-altering and associated with increased levels of stress, self-doubt, and uncertainty (Carlson et al., 2006; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Hughes & Kleist, 2005; Protivnak & Foss, 2009); however, little is known about specific processes and activities that assist programs to intentionally cultivate transitions into these identities.

Although distribution of faculty roles varies depending on the type of position and institution, most academic positions require some level of research or scholarly engagement. Still, only 20% of counselor educators are responsible for producing the majority of publications within counseling journals, and 19% of counselor educators have not published in the last 6 years (Lambie et al., 2014). Borders and colleagues (2014) found that the majority of application-based research courses in counselor education doctoral programs (e.g., qualitative methodology, quantitative methodology, sampling procedures) were taught by non-counseling faculty members, while counseling faculty members were more likely to teach conceptual or theoretical research courses. Further, participants reported that non-counseling faculty led application-based courses because there were no counseling faculty members who were well qualified to instruct such courses (Borders et al., 2014).

To assist counselor education doctoral students' (CEDS) transition into the role of emerging scholar, Carlson et al. (2006) recommended that CEDS become active in scholarship as a supplement to required research coursework. Additionally, departmental culture, mentorship, and advisement have been shown

Dodie Limberg, PhD, is an associate professor at the University of South Carolina. Therese Newton, NCC, is an assistant professor at Augusta University. Kimberly Nelson is an assistant professor at Fort Valley State University. Casey A. Barrio Minton, NCC, is a professor at the University of Tennessee, Knoxville. John T. Super, NCC, LMFT, is a clinical assistant professor at the University of Central Florida. Jonathan Ohrt is an associate professor at the University of South Carolina. Correspondence may be addressed to Dodie Limberg, 265 Wardlaw College Main St., Columbia, SC 29201, dlimberg@sc.edu.

to reduce rates of attrition and increase feelings of competency and confidence in CEDS (Carlson et al., 2006; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Protivnak & Foss, 2009). However, Borders et al. (2014) found that faculty from 38 different CACREP-accredited programs reported that just over half of the CEDS from these programs became engaged in research during their first year, with nearly 8% not becoming involved in research activity until their third year. Although these experiences assist CEDS to develop as doctoral students, it is unclear which of these activities are instrumental in cultivating a sound research identity (RI) of CEDS. Understanding how RI is cultivated throughout doctoral programs may provide ways to enhance research within the counseling profession. Understanding this developmental process will inform methods for improving how counselor educators prepare CEDS for their professional roles.

Research Identity

Research identity is an ambiguous term within the counseling literature, with definitions that broadly conceptualize the construct in terms of beliefs, attitudes, and efficacy related to scholarly research, along with a conceptualization of one's own overall professional identity (Jorgensen & Duncan, 2015; Lamar & Helm, 2017; Ponterotto & Grieger, 1999; Reisetter et al., 2011). Ponterotto and Grieger (1999) described RI as how one views oneself as a scholar or researcher, noting that research worldview (i.e., the lens through which they view, approach, and manage the process of research) impacts how individuals conceptualize, conduct, and interpret results. This perception and interpretation of research as important to RI is critical to consider, as it is common practice for CEDS to enter doctoral studies with limited research experience. Additionally, many CEDS enter into training with a strong clinical identity (Dollarhide et al., 2013), but coupled with the void of research experience or exposure, CEDS may perceive research as disconnected and separate from counseling practice (Murray, 2009). Furthermore, universities vary in the support (e.g., graduate assistant, start-up funds, course release, internal grants) they provide faculty to conduct research.

The process of cultivating a strong RI may be assisted through wedding science and practice (Gelso et al., 2013) and aligning research instruction with values and theories often used in counseling practice (Reisetter et al., 2011). More specifically, Reisetter and colleagues (2011) found that cultivation of a strong RI was aided when CEDS were able to use traditional counseling skills such as openness, reflexive thinking, and attention to cognitive and affective features while working alongside research "participants" rather than conducting studies on research "subjects." Counseling research is sometimes considered a practice limited to doctoral training and faculty roles, perhaps perpetuating the perception that counseling research and practice are separate and distinct phenomena (Murray, 2009). Mobley and Wester (2007) found that only 30% of practicing clinicians reported reading and integrating research into their work; therefore, early introduction to research may also aid in diminishing the research–practice gap within the counseling profession. The cultivation of a strong RI may begin through exposure to research and scholarly activity at the master's level (Gibson et al., 2010). More recently, early introduction to research activity and counseling literature at the master's level is supported within the 2016 CACREP Standards (2015), specifically the infusion of current literature into counseling courses (Standard 2.E.) and training in research and program evaluation (Standard 2.F.8.). Therefore, we may see a shift in the research–practice gap based on these included standards in years to come.

Jorgensen and Duncan (2015) used grounded theory to better understand how RI develops within master's-level counseling students (*n* = 12) and clinicians (*n* = 5). The manner in which participants viewed research, whether as separate from their counselor identity or as fluidly woven throughout, influenced the development of a strong RI. Further, participants' views and beliefs about research were directly influenced by external factors such as training program expectations, messages received from faculty and supervisors, and academic course requirements. Beginning the process of RI

development during master's-level training may support more advanced RI development for those who pursue doctoral training.

Through photo elicitation and individual interviews, Lamar and Helm (2017) sought to gain a deeper understanding of CEDS' RI experiences. Their findings highlighted several facets of the internal processes associated with RI development, including inconsistency in research self-efficacy, integration of RI into existing identities, and finding methods of contributing to the greater good through research. The role of external support during the doctoral program was also a contributing factor to RI development, with multiple participants noting the importance of family and friend support in addition to faculty support. Although this study highlighted many facets of RI development, much of the discussion focused on CEDS' internal processes, rather than the role of specific experiences within their doctoral programs.

Research Training Environment

Literature is emerging related to specific elements of counselor education doctoral programs that most effectively influence RI. Further, there is limited research examining individual characteristics of CEDS that may support the cultivation of a strong RI. One of the more extensively reviewed theories related to RI cultivation is the belief that the research training environment, specifically the program faculty, holds the most influence and power over the strength of a doctoral student's RI (Gelso et al., 2013). Gelso et al. (2013) also hypothesized that the research training environment directly affects students' research attitudes, self-efficacy, and eventual productivity. Additionally, Gelso et al. outlined factors in the research training environment that influence a strong RI, including (a) appropriate and positive faculty modeling of research behaviors and attitudes, (b) positive reinforcement of student scholarly activities, (c) the emphasis of research as a social and interpersonal activity, and (d) emphasizing all studies as imperfect and flawed. Emphasis on research as a social and interpersonal activity consistently received the most powerful support in cultivating RI. This element of the research training environment may speak to the positive influence of working on research teams or in mentor and advising relationships (Gelso et al., 2013).

To date, there are limited studies that have addressed the specific doctoral program experiences and personal characteristics of CEDS that may lead to a strong and enduring RI. The purpose of this study was to: (a) gain a better understanding of CEDS' RI development process during their doctoral program, and (b) identify specific experiences that influenced CEDS' development as researchers. The research questions guiding the investigation were: 1) How do CEDS understand RI? and 2) How do CEDS develop as researchers during their doctoral program?

Method

We used grounded theory design for our study because of the limited empirical data about how CEDS develop an RI. Grounded theory provides researchers with a framework to generate a theory from the context of a phenomenon and offers a process to develop a model to be used as a theoretical foundation (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Prior to starting our investigation, we received IRB approval for this study.

Research Team and Positionality

The core research team consisted of one Black female in the second year of her doctoral program, one White female in the first year of her doctoral program, and one White female in her third year as an assistant professor. A White male in his sixth year as an assistant professor participated as the

internal auditor, and a White male in his third year as a clinical assistant professor participated as the external auditor. Both doctoral students had completed two courses that covered qualitative research design, and all three faculty members had experience utilizing grounded theory. Prior to beginning our work together, we discussed our beliefs and experiences related to RI development. All members of the research team were in training to be or were counselor educators and researchers, and we acknowledged this as part of our positionality. We all agreed that we value research as part of our roles as counselor educators, and we discussed our beliefs that the primary purpose of pursuing a doctoral degree is to gain skills as a researcher rather than an advanced counselor. We acknowledged the strengths that our varying levels of professional experiences provided to our work on this project, and we also recognized the power differential within the research team; thus, we added auditors to help ensure trustworthiness. All members of the core research team addressed their biases and judgments regarding participants' experiences through bracketing and memoing to ensure that participants' voices were heard with as much objectivity as possible (Hays & Wood, 2011). We recorded our biases and expectations in a meeting prior to data collection. Furthermore, we continued to discuss assumptions and biases in order to maintain awareness of the influence we may have on data analysis (Charmaz, 2014). Our assumptions included (a) the influence of length of time in a program, (b) the impact of mentoring, (c) how participants' research interests would mirror their mentors', (d) that beginning students may not be able to articulate or identify the difference between professional identity and RI, (e) that CEDS who want to pursue academia may identify more as researchers than in other roles (i.e., teaching, supervision), and (f) that coursework and previous experience would influence RI. Each step of the data analysis process provided us the opportunity to revisit our biases.

Participants and Procedure

Individuals who were currently enrolled in CACREP-accredited counselor education and supervision doctoral programs were eligible for participation in the study. We used purposive sampling (Glesne, 2011) to strategically contact eight doctoral program liaisons at CACREP-accredited doctoral programs via email to identify potential participants. The programs were selected to represent all regions and all levels of Carnegie classification. The liaisons all agreed to forward an email that included the purpose of the study and criteria for participation. A total of 11 CEDS responded to the email, met selection criteria, and participated in the study. We determined that 11 participants was an adequate sample size considering data saturation was reached during the data analysis process (Creswell, 2007). Participants represented eight different CACREP-accredited doctoral programs across six states. At the time of the interviews, three participants were in the first year of their program, five were in their second year, and three were in their third year. To prevent identification of participants, we report demographic data in aggregate form. The sample included eight women and three men who ranged in age from 26–36 years ($M = 30.2$). Six participants self-identified as White (non-Hispanic), three as multiracial, one as Latinx, and one as another identity not specified. All participants held a master's degree in counseling; they entered their doctoral programs with 0–5 years of post-master's clinical experience ($M = 1.9$). Eight participants indicated a desire to pursue a faculty position, two indicated a desire to pursue academia while also continuing clinical work, and one did not indicate a planned career path. Of those who indicated post-doctoral plans, seven participants expected to pursue a faculty role within a research-focused institution and three indicated a preference for a teaching-focused institution. All participants had attended and presented at a state or national conference within the past 3 years, with the number of presentations ranging from three to 44 ($M = 11.7$). Nine participants had submitted manuscripts to peer-reviewed journals and had at least one manuscript published or in press. Finally, four participants had received grant funding.

Data Collection

We collected data through a demographic questionnaire and semi-structured individual interviews. The demographic questionnaire consisted of nine questions focused on general demographic characteristics (i.e., gender, age, race, and education). Additionally, we asked questions focused on participants' experiences as researchers (i.e., professional organization affiliations, service, conference presentations, publications, and grant experience). These questions were used to triangulate the data. The semi-structured interviews consisted of eight open-ended questions asked in sequential order to promote consistency across participants (Heppner et al., 2016) and we developed them from existing literature. Examples of questions included: 1) How would you describe your research identity? 2) Identify or talk about things that happened during your doctoral program that helped you think of yourself as a researcher, and 3) Can you talk about any experiences that have created doubts about adopting the identity of a researcher? The two doctoral students on the research team conducted the interviews via phone. Interviews lasted approximately 45–60 minutes and were audio recorded. After all interviews were conducted, a member of the research team transcribed the interviews.

Data Analysis and Trustworthiness

We followed grounded theory data analysis procedures outlined by Corbin and Strauss (2008). Prior to data analysis, we recorded biases, read through all of the data, and discussed the coding process to ensure consistency. We followed three steps of coding: 1) open coding, 2) axial coding, and 3) selective coding. Our first step of data analysis was open coding. We read through the data several times and then started to create tentative labels for chunks of data that summarized what we were reading. We recorded examples of participants' words and established properties of each code. We then coded line-by-line together using the first participant transcript in order to have opportunities to check in and share and compare our open codes. Then we individually coded the remainder of the participants and came back together as a group to discuss and memo. We developed a master list of 184 open codes.

Next, we moved from inductive to deductive analysis using axial coding to identify relationships among the open codes. We identified relationships among the open codes and grouped them into categories. Initially we created a list of 55 axial codes, but after examining the codes further, we made a team decision to collapse them to 19 axial codes that were represented as action-oriented tasks within our theory (see Table 1).

Last, we used selective coding to identify core variables that include all of the data. We found that two factors and four subfactors most accurately represent the data (see Figure 1). The auditor was involved in each step of coding and provided feedback throughout. To enhance trustworthiness and manage bias when collecting and analyzing the data, we applied several strategies: (a) we recorded memos about our ideas about the codes and their relationships (i.e., reflexivity; Morrow, 2005); (b) we used investigator triangulation (i.e., involving multiple investigators to analyze the data independently, then meeting together to discuss; Archibald, 2015); (c) we included an internal and external auditor to evaluate the data (Glesne, 2011; Hays & Wood, 2011); (d) we conducted member checking by sending participants their complete transcript and summary of the findings, including the visual (Creswell & Miller, 2000); and (e) we used multiple sources of data (i.e., survey questions on the demographic form; Creswell, 2007) to triangulate the data.

Table 1

List of Factors and Subfactors

Factor 1: Research Identity Formation as a Process
- *unable to articulate what research identity is*
- *linking research identity to their research interests or connecting it to their professional experiences*
- *associating research identity with various methodologies*
- *identifying as a researcher*
- *understanding what a research faculty member does*

Factor 2: Value and Interest in Research
- *desiring to conduct research*
- *aspiring to maintain a degree of research in their future role*
- *making a connection between research and practice and contributing to the counseling field*

Subfactor 1: Intentional Program Design
- *implementing an intentional curriculum*
- *developing a research culture (present and limited)*
- *active faculty mentoring and modeling of research*

Subfactor 2: Research Content Knowledge
- *understanding research design*
- *building awareness of the logistics of a research study*
- *learning statistics*

**Subfactor 3: Research Experiential Learning**
- *engaging in scholarly activities*
- *conducting independent research*
- *having a graduate research assistantship*

Subfactor 4: Research Self-Efficacy
- *receiving external validation*
- *receiving growth-oriented feedback (both negative and positive)*

Figure 1

Model of CEDS' Research Identity Development

RI Formation as a Process
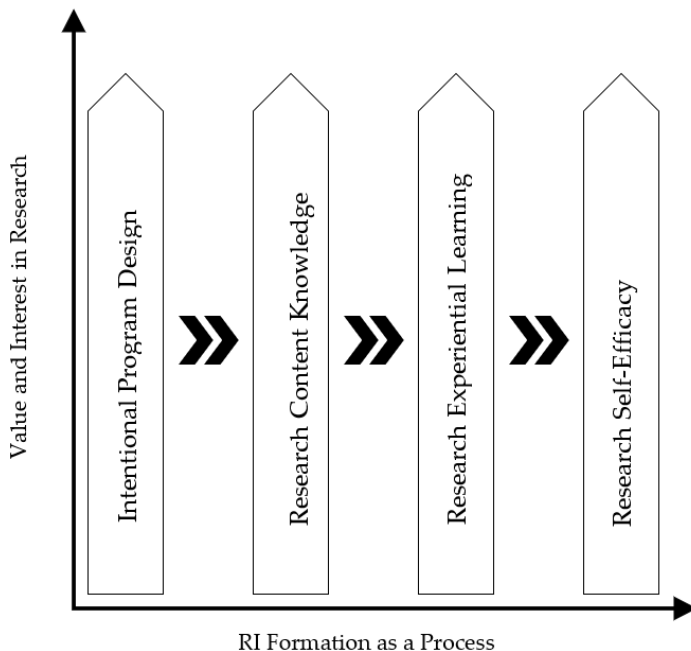
Results

Data analysis resulted in a grounded theory composed of two main factors that support the overall process of RI development among CEDS: (a) RI formation as a process and (b) value and interest in research. The first factor is the foundation of our theory because it describes RI development as an ongoing, formative process. The second main factor, value and interest in research, provides an interpersonal approach to RI development in which CEDS begin to embrace "researcher" as a part of who they are.

Our theory of CEDS' RI development is represented visually in Figure 1. At each axis of the figure, the process of RI is represented longitudinally, and the value and interest in research increases during the process. The four subfactors (i.e., program design, content knowledge, experiential learning, and self-efficacy) contribute to each other but are also independent components that influence the process and the value and interest. Each subfactor is represented as an upward arrow, which supports the idea within our theory that each subfactor increases through the formation process. Each of these subfactors includes components that are specific action-oriented tasks (see Table 1). In order to make our findings relevant and clear, we have organized them by the two research questions that guided our study. To bring our findings to life, we describe the two major factors, four subfactors, and action-oriented tasks using direct quotes from the participants.

Research Question 1: How Do CEDS Describe RI?

Two factors supported this research question: RI formation as a process and value and interest in research.

Factor 1: Research Identity Formation as a Process

Within this factor we identified five action-oriented tasks: (a) *being unable to articulate what research identity is*, (b) *linking research identity to their research interests or connecting it to their professional experiences*, (c) *associating research identity with various methodologies*, (d) *identifying as a researcher*, and (e) *understanding what a research faculty member does.* Participants described RI as a formational process. Participant 10 explained, "I still see myself as a student. . . . I still feel like I have a lot to learn and I am in the process of learning, but I have a really good foundation from the practical experiences I have had [in my doctoral program]." When asked how they would describe RI, many were unable to articulate what RI is, asking for clarification or remarking on how they had not been asked to consider this before. Participants often linked RI to their research interests or professional experiences. For example, Participant 11 said, "in clinical practice, I centered around women and women issues. Feminism has come up as a product of other things being in my PhD program, so with my dissertation, my topic is focused on feminism." Several participants associated RI with various methodologies, including Participant 7: "I would say you know in terms of research methodology and what not, I strongly align with quantitative research. I am a very quantitative-minded person." Some described this formational process as the transition to identifying as a researcher:

> I actually started a research program in my university, inviting or matching master's students who were interested in certain research with different research projects that were available. So that was another way of me kind of taking on some of that mentorship role in terms of research. (Participant 9)

As their RI emerged, participants understood what research-oriented faculty members do:

> Having faculty talk about their research and their process of research in my doc program has been extremely helpful. They talk about not only what they are working on but also the struggles of their process and so they don't make it look glamorous all the time. (Participant 5)

Factor 2: Value and Interest in Research

All participants talked about the value and increased interest in research as they went through their doctoral program. We identified three action-oriented tasks within this factor: (a) *desiring to conduct research*, (b) *aspiring to maintain a degree of research in their future role*, and (c) *making a connection between research and practice and contributing to the counseling field*. Participant 6 described, "Since I have been in the doctoral program, I have a bigger appreciation for the infinite nature of it (research)." Participants spoke about an increased desire to conduct research; for example, "research is one of the most exciting parts of being a doc student, being able to think of a new project and carrying out the steps and being able to almost discover new knowledge" (Participant 1). All participants aspired to maintain a degree of research in future professional roles after completion of their doctoral programs regardless of whether they obtained a faculty role at a teaching-focused or research-focused university. For example, Participant 4 stated: "Even if I go into a teaching university, I have intentions in continuing very strongly my research and keeping that up. I think it is very important and it is something that I like doing." Additionally, participants started to make the connection between research and practice and contributing to the counseling profession:

> I think research is extremely important because that is what clinicians refer to whenever they have questions about how to treat their clients, and so I definitely rely upon research to understand views in the field and I value it myself so that I am more well-rounded as an educator. (Participant 6)

Research Question 2: How Do CEDS Develop Their RI During Their Doctoral Program?

The following four subfactors provided a description of how CEDS develop RI during their training: intentional program design, research content knowledge, research experiential learning, and research self-efficacy. Each subfactor contains action-oriented tasks.

Subfactor 1: Intentional Program Design

Participants discussed the impact the design of their doctoral program had on their development as researchers. They talked about three action-oriented tasks: (a) *implementing an intentional curriculum*, (b) *developing a research culture (present and limited)*, and (c) *active faculty mentoring and modeling of research*. Participants appreciated the intentional design of the curriculum. For example, Participant 5 described how research was highlighted across courses: "In everything that I have had to do in class, there is some form of needing to produce either a proposal or being a good consumer of research . . . it [the value of research] is very apparent in every course." Additionally, participants talked about the presence or lack of a research culture. For example, Participant 2 described how "at any given time, I was working on two or three projects," whereas Participant 7 noted that "gaining research experience is not equally or adequately provided to our doctoral students." Some participants discussed being assigned a mentor, and others talked about cultivating an organic mentoring relationship through graduate assistantships or collaboration with faculty on topics of interest. However, all participants emphasized the importance of faculty mentoring:

> I think definitely doing research with the faculty member has helped quite a bit, especially doing the analysis that I am doing right now with the chair of our program has really helped me see research in a new light, in a new way, and I have been grateful for that. (Participant 1)

The importance of modeling of research was described in terms of faculty actually conducting their own research. For example, Participant 11 described how her professor "was conducting a research study and I was helping her input data and write and analyze the data . . . that really helped me grapple with what research looks like and is it something that I can do." Participant 10 noted how peers conducting research provided a model:

> Having that peer experience (a cohort) of getting involved in research and knowing again that we don't have to have all of the answers and we will figure it out and this is where we all are, that was also really helpful for me and developing more confidence in my ability to do this [research].

Subfactor 2: Research Content Knowledge

All participants discussed the importance of building their research content knowledge. Research content knowledge consisted of three action-oriented tasks: (a) *understanding research design*, (b) *building awareness of the logistics of a research study*, and (c) *learning statistics*. Participant 1 described their experience of understanding research design: "I think one of the most important pieces of my research identity is to be well-rounded and [know] all of the techniques in research designs." Participants also described developing an awareness of the logistics of research study, ranging from getting IRB approval to the challenges of data collection. For example, Participant 9 stated:

> Seeing what goes into it and seeing the building blocks of the process and also really getting that chance to really think about the study beforehand and making sure you're getting all of the stuff to protect your clients, to protecting confidentiality, those kind of things. So I think it is kind of understanding more about the research process and also again what goes into it and what makes the research better.

Participants also explained how learning statistics was important; however, a fear of statistics was a barrier to their learning and development. Participant 2 said, "I thought before I had to be a stats wiz to figure anything out, and I realize now that I just have to understand how to use my resources . . . I don't have to be some stat wiz to actually do [quantitative research]."

Subfactor 3: Research Experiential Learning

Research experiential learning describes actual hands-on experiences participants had related to research. Within our theory, three action-oriented tasks emerged from this subfactor: (a) *engaging in scholarly activities*, (b) *conducting independent research*, and (c) *having a graduate research assistantship*. *Engaging in scholarly activities* included conducting studies, writing for publication, presenting at conferences, and contributing to or writing a grant proposal. Participant 5 described the importance of being engaged in scholarly activities through their graduate assistantship:

> I did have a research graduate assistantship where I worked under some faculty and that definitely exposed me to a higher level of research, and being exposed to that higher level of research allowed me to fine tune how I do research. So that was reassuring in some ways and educational.

Participants also described the importance of leading and conducting their own research via dissertation or other experiences during their doctoral program. For example, Participant 9 said:

> Starting research projects that were not involving a faculty member I think has also impacted my work a lot, I learned a lot from that process, you know, having to submit [to] an IRB, having to structure the study and figure out what to do, and so again learning from mistakes, learning from experience, and building self-efficacy.

Subfactor 4: Research Self-Efficacy

The subfactor of research self-efficacy related to the process of participants being confident in identifying themselves and their skills as researchers. We found two action-oriented tasks related to research self-efficacy: (a) *receiving external validation* and (b) *receiving growth-oriented feedback (both negative and positive)*. Participant 3 described their experience of receiving external validation through sources outside of their doctoral program as helpful in building confidence as a researcher:

> I have submitted and have been approved to present at conferences. That has boosted my confidence level to know that they know I am interested in something and I can talk about it . . . that has encouraged me to further pursue research.

Participant 8 explained how receiving growth-oriented feedback on their research supported their own RI development: "People stopped by [my conference presentation] and were interested in what research I was doing. It was cool to talk about it and get some feedback and hear what people think about the research I am doing."

Discussion

Previous researchers have found RI within counselor education to be an unclear term (Jorgensen & Duncan, 2015; Lamar & Helm, 2017). Although our participants struggled to define RI, our participants described RI as the process of identifying as a researcher, the experiences related to conducting research, and finding value and interest in research. Consistent with previous findings (e.g., Ponterotto & Grieger, 1999), we found that interest in and value of research is an important part of RI. Therefore, our qualitative approach provided us a way to operationally define CEDS' RI as *a formative process of identifying as a researcher that is influenced by the program design, level of research content knowledge, experiential learning of research, and research self-efficacy*.

Our findings emphasize the importance of counselor education and supervision doctoral program design. Similar to previous researchers (e.g., Borders et al., 2019; Carlson et al., 2006; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Protivnak & Foss, 2009), we found that developing a culture of research that includes mentoring and modeling of research is vital to CEDS' RI development. Lamar and Helm (2017) also noted the valuable role faculty mentorship and engagement in research activities, in addition to research content knowledge, has on CEDS' RI development. Although Lamar and Helm noted that RI development may be enhanced through programmatic intentionality toward mentorship and curriculum design, they continually emphasized the importance of CEDS initiating mentoring relationships and taking accountability for their own RI development. We agree that individual initiative and accountability are valuable and important characteristics for CEDS to possess; however, we also acknowledge that student-driven initiation of such relationships may be challenging in program cultures that do not support RI or do not provide equitable access to mentoring and research opportunities.

Consistent with recommendations by Gelso et al. (2013) and Borders et al. (2014), building a strong foundation of research content knowledge (e.g., statistics, design) is an important component of CEDS' RI development. Unlike Borders and colleagues, our participants did not discuss how *who* taught their statistics courses made a difference. Rather, participants discussed the value of experiential learning (i.e., participating on a research team), and conducting research on their own influenced how they built their content knowledge. This finding is similar to Carlson et al.'s (2006) and supports Borders et al.'s findings regarding the critical importance of early research involvement for CEDS.

Implications for Practice

Our grounded theory provides a clear, action-oriented model that consists of multiple tasks that can be applied in counselor education doctoral programs. Given our findings regarding the importance of experiential learning, we acknowledge the importance for increased funding to ensure CEDS are able to focus on their studies and immerse themselves in research experiences. Additionally, design of doctoral programs is crucial to how CEDS develop as researchers. Findings highlight the importance of faculty members at all levels being actively involved in their own scholarship and providing students with opportunities to be a part of it. In addition, we recommend intentional attention to mentorship as an explicit program strategy for promoting a culture of research. Findings also support the importance of coursework for providing students with relevant research content knowledge they can use in research and scholarly activities (e.g., study proposal, conceptual manuscript, conference presentation). Additionally, we recommend offering a core of research courses that build upon one another to increase research content knowledge and experiential application. More specifically, this may include a research design course taught by counselor education faculty at the beginning of the program to orient students to the importance of research for practice; such a foundation may help ensure students are primed to apply skills learned in more technical courses. Finally, we suggest that RI development is a process that is never complete; therefore, counselor educators are encouraged to continue to participate in professional development opportunities that are research-focused (e.g., AARC, ACES Inform, Evidence-Based School Counseling Conference, AERA). More importantly, it should be the charge of these organizations to continue to offer high quality trainings on a variety of research designs and advanced statistics.

Implications for Future Research

Replication or expansion of our study is warranted across settings and developmental levels. Specifically, it would be interesting to examine RI development of pre-tenured faculty and tenured faculty members to see if our model holds or what variations exist between these populations. Or it may be beneficial to assess the variance of RI based on the year a student is in the program (e.g., first year vs. third year). Additionally, further quantitative examination of relationships between each component of our theory would be valuable to understand the relationship between the constructs more thoroughly. Furthermore, pedagogical interventions, such as conducting a scholarship of teaching and learning focused on counselor education doctoral-level research courses, may be valuable in order to support their merit.

Limitations

Although we engaged in intentional practices to ensure trustworthiness throughout our study, there are limitations that should be considered. Specifically, all of the authors value and find research to be an important aspect of counselor education and participants self-selected to participate in the research study, which is common practice in most qualitative studies. However, self-selection may present bias in the findings because of the participants' levels of interest in the topic of research. Additionally, participant selection was based on those who responded to the email and met the criteria; therefore, there was limited selection bias of the participants from the research team. Furthermore, participants

were from a variety of programs and their year in their program (e.g., first year) varied; all the intricacies within each program cannot be accounted for and they may contribute to how the participants view research. Finally, the perceived hierarchy (i.e., faculty and students) on the research team may have contributed to the data analysis process by students adjusting their analysis based on faculty input.

Conclusion

In summary, our study examined CEDS' experiences that helped build RI during their doctoral program. We interviewed 11 CEDS who were from eight CACREP-accredited doctoral programs from six different states and varied in the year of their program. Our grounded theory reflects the process-oriented nature of RI development and the influence of program design, research content knowledge, experiential learning, and self-efficacy on this process. Based on our findings, we emphasize the importance of mentorship and faculty conducting their own research as ways to model the research process. Additionally, our theory points to the need for increased funding for CEDS in order for them to be immersed in the experiential learning process and research courses being tailored to include topics specific to counselor education and supervision.

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Preparing Counselor Education and Supervision Doctoral Students Through an HLT Lens: The Importance of Research and Scholarship

Cian L. Brown, Anthony J. Vajda, David D. Christian

We examined the publication trends of faculty in 396 CACREP-accredited counselor education and supervision (CES) programs based on Carnegie classification by exploring 5,250 publications over the last decade in 21 American Counseling Association and American Counseling Association division journals. Using Bayesian statistics, this study expounded upon existing literature and differences that exist between institution classifications and total publications. The results of this study can be used to inform the training and preparation of doctoral students in CES programs through a Happenstance Learning Theory framework, specifically regarding their role as scholars and researchers. We present implications and argue for the importance of programs and faculty providing research experience for doctoral students in order to promote career success and satisfaction.

Keywords: **doctoral counselor education and supervision, Carnegie classification, Happenstance Learning Theory, publication trends, Bayesian statistics**

Pursuing a doctoral degree in counselor education and supervision (CES) can be a daunting task. Although there are some levels of certainty, there is also a great degree of uncertainty, especially with regard to recognizing the valuable experiences that will inevitably lead to career opportunities, satisfaction, and success (Baker & Moore, 2015; Del Rio & Mieling, 2012; Dollarhide et al., 2013; Dunn & Kniess, 2019; Hinkle et al., 2014; Zeligman et al., 2015). CES doctoral students enrolled in programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) can expect to develop core areas of practice such as counseling, supervision, teaching, leadership and advocacy, and research and scholarship. Happenstance Learning Theory (HLT) provides a framework through which those planned and unplanned experiences—and the degrees of certainty and uncertainty—of doctoral students can be understood. For example, mentorship and career development throughout the course of the doctoral program impact students' experiences (Kuo et al., 2017; Perera-Diltz & Duba Sauerheber, 2017; Protivnak & Foss, 2009; Purgason et al., 2016; Sackett et al., 2015). Previous research indicates that research and scholarship are highly emphasized factors for impacting career opportunities and success for potential and current CES faculty (Barrio Minton et al., 2008; Newhart et al., 2020). However, the exact requirements for publications and scholarship in CES remain unclear and often vary by institution and program (Davis et al., 2006; Lambie et al., 2014; Ramsey et al., 2002; Shropshire et al., 2015; Wester et al., 2013). In order to better understand potential implications for faculty, programs, and doctoral students looking to enter academia, researchers must continue exploring CES publication and scholarship trends.

Research and Scholarship in CES

Research and scholarly activity are a responsibility and priority among faculty in higher education in order to further inform the profession and promote productivity. Thus, "developing doctoral

Cian L. Brown, MS, NCC, LPC, BCN, is a doctoral candidate at the University of Arkansas. Anthony J. Vajda, PhD, NCC, is an assistant professor at the University of Arkansas. David D. Christian, PhD, LPC, is an assistant professor at the University of Arkansas. Correspondence may be addressed to Cian Brown, University of Arkansas, 751 W. Maple St., GRAD 117, Fayetteville, AR 72701, clb061@uark.edu.

counselor education students' research and scholarship competencies needs to be supported and nurtured in preparation programs where the faculty and systemic climate may promote these professional skills, dispositions, and behaviors" (Lambie & Vaccaro, 2011, p. 254). Although additional research is warranted, researchers have conducted several studies to better understand the landscape of publication trends among counselor educators and CES programs. To date, all prior studies have primarily relied on self-report surveys and have not examined longitudinal trends (Lambie et al., 2014; Newhart et al., 2020; Ramsey et al., 2002).

Ramsey et al. (2002) conducted survey research regarding the scholarly productivity of counselor educators at CACREP-accredited programs at the various levels of Carnegie classification from 1992 to 1995. Of the 104 programs they contacted, only 113 faculty at 47 institutions responded. According to their research, faculty at research and doctorate-granting institutions (the Carnegie classifications at the time) reported spending more time publishing journal articles than faculty at comprehensive institutions, while all CES faculty, regardless of their institution's Carnegie classification, perceived journal articles as the most important form of scholarship for tenure/promotion decisions. Although Ramsey et al.'s research provides insight into the perceived role publications play for tenure/promotion, relying on self-reported publication patterns means it is impossible to know if their results are consistent with the actual publication trends for faculty of CES programs of various Carnegie classifications.

Lambie et al. (2014) accounted for this limitation by using online research platforms to identify publication trends of faculty at CACREP-accredited doctoral programs. Their research provided important information related to the publication process for counselor educators at doctoral-granting institutions but is limited in that their sample only consisted of 55 programs, whereas as of 2020, there were 85 CACREP-accredited doctoral programs. Lambie et al. (2014) emphasized the role of doctoral students and the necessity of mentorship in scholarly writing and publishing as outlined by CACREP standards. Through modeling and mentorship, counselor educators prepare doctoral students to transition into academic positions. The purpose of their study was to identify potential implications for supporting CES faculty and the career development of doctoral students (i.e., future counselor educators) by looking at the effects of faculty members' academic rank, gender, Carnegie classification of current institution, and year doctoral degree was conferred on their rate of scholarly productivity over a 6-year time period. Between 2004 and 2009, counselor educators published a mean of 4.43 articles (*Mdn* = 3.0, *SD* = 4.77, range = 0–29 published articles) across 321 identified peer-reviewed journals. Lambie et al. (2014) further pointed out the variance in publication among CES faculty. Specifically, 20% of CES faculty published an average of 11.6 articles over the 6-year period, while 62% published an average of 3.02, and 16.1% did not publish any articles during this span of time. Their results also revealed a significant difference between the publication rates based on an institution's Carnegie classification, where faculty at very high (R1) and high (R2) research activity institutions published significantly more than those at doctoral/professional universities. In addition, Lambie et al.'s (2014) finding that CES faculty who had more recently completed their doctoral degrees had the highest publication rates indicated programs are better preparing doctoral students to produce scholarly work. Their findings also implied that doctoral preparation programs can promote career readiness by implementing research competencies, such as scholarly writing and research mentorship, early in doctoral programs.

Newhart et al. (2020) similarly assessed publication rates among 257 counselor educators using a self-report survey across CACREP-accredited programs at various Carnegie classifications and academic ranks. Their stated purpose was to expand the current literature on CES publication rates using self-reported data to include non-tenured faculty and master's-level–only programs. Their survey yielded a 17% response rate after randomly selecting 1,500 faculty members to participate. Respondents

reported an average of 14.24 articles published or in press at the time of the survey, with an average of 1.69 publications per year. Carnegie classification appeared to be a significant predictor of publication rates across institutions, with faculty at more research-focused institutions publishing more often than faculty with lower research expectations. Similar to previous studies, results related to Carnegie classification appeared to underscore the emphasis certain programs place on publication standards, which can inform doctoral students' decisions regarding which environments might be more suitable and conducive to their aspirations upon entering into academia. Although timely, Newhart et al.'s study has several limitations. There was no apparent time frame, leaving one to assume the reported information reflected participants' total career publications, which could potentially skew the data. The 17% response rate for this study was another potential limitation, as it yielded responses from only 257 counselor educators with varying levels of experience. And as they highlighted, the use of self-report data may influence response bias and risk inflation of reported results based on desirability and bias.

Although previous researchers have asserted that doctoral-granting institutions are more likely to emphasize publishing (Barrio Minton et al., 2008; Lambie et al., 2014; Ramsey et al., 2002), research has yet to establish this as fact by comparing actual publication trends across a variety of institution types. Barrio Minton et al. (2008) began to address the differences when they called for future research to "examine publication trends and histories of counselor educators who are employed in programs in universities that are likely to place a high emphasis on publication" (p. 135) but failed to define, with certainty, the type of universities that emphasize publications. Despite the call for a revised definition of scholarship 17 years ago (Ramsey et al., 2002), scholarship is still heavily defined based on number of publications (Whitaker, 2018). These prior studies highlight the increased need for the use of observational data over a longitudinal period to verify self-reports and increase understanding of publication writing for the career development and mentorship of CES doctoral students.

Preparing CES Doctoral Students

Although the exact extent is unknown, research and scholarship are clearly important factors for employability as CES faculty as well as career satisfaction and success (Lambie et al., 2014; Sackett et al., 2015). Preparing CES doctoral students to be employable, happy, and successful in academia requires (a) understanding the extent to which research is required at various institutions and (b) ensuring they are exposed to the necessary curricula related to research (Lambie et al., 2008, 2014; Lambie & Vaccaro, 2011; Sackett et al., 2015). Although we aim to clarify research expectations, it is important to first establish a framework to guide CES programs and faculty. HLT is one such framework that emphasizes planned and unplanned experiences that influence career direction (Krumboltz, 2009). Using HLT, CES faculty and programs can provide better learning environments and mentorship experiences through leveraging planned and unplanned activities. From this lens, faculty encourage students to engage in planned experiences aligned with their career aspirations while also being open to potentially formative unplanned experiences, especially related to research and scholarship.

Happenstance Learning Theory (HLT)

According to HLT, career development is the result of numerous planned and unplanned experiences over the course of life in which people develop skills, interests, knowledge, beliefs, preferences, sensitivities, emotions, and behaviors guiding them toward a career (Krumboltz, 2009). The process of career development from an HLT perspective involves individuals "engaging in a variety of interesting and beneficial activities, ascertaining their reactions, remaining alert to alternative opportunities, and learning skills for succeeding in each new activity" (Krumboltz, 2009, p. 135). From an HLT stance, individuals must take five specific actions toward career development (Krumboltz, 2009). Initially, they must acknowledge anxiety toward career choice as normal and understand that the career development

process as a long-term endeavor influenced by both planned and unplanned experiences. Next, it is important to allow identified concerns to be a starting point for further exploration. Third, they need to explore how past experiences with unplanned events have influenced current career interests and behaviors. Fourth, they should reframe unplanned experiences as opportunities for growth and learn to recognize these opportunities in their everyday lives. Finally, it is important that individuals remove or overcome any and all blocks to career-related action.

In an endeavor to explain career development and choice, HLT points to various planned and unplanned experiences throughout the life span (Krumboltz, 2009). Planned experiences include events individuals initiate such as pursuing a doctoral degree, choosing a particular CES program, identifying a focus of study, selecting courses as part of a program of study, and approaching specific faculty for advising and mentorship in an effort to achieve career aspirations. Unplanned experiences include events that individuals have no control over that often lead to revised career aspirations such as influential course instructors; type and quality of advising and mentoring; and various opportunities to teach, present, and publish with program faculty. Even though "the interaction of planned and unplanned actions in response to self-initiated and circumstantial situations is so complex that the consequences are virtually unpredictable and can best be labeled as happenstance" (Krumboltz, 2009, p. 136), unplanned experiences are particularly important to HLT. In fact, it is important that individuals take advantage of these unplanned experiences as opportunities to grow—something they are less likely to do if their predetermined career aspirations are too rigid (Gysbers et al., 2014).

For CES doctoral students, HLT is particularly pertinent in that although many enter programs with clear career aspirations, these career goals often remain fluid, changing and developing through planned and unplanned experiences throughout the training process. Although this drive to reach predetermined goals can serve as motivation, individuals who have made firm career decisions tend to focus on experiences that affirm their choices and overlook or fail to engage in unplanned experiences not related to their career goals (Gysbers et al., 2014). Thus, it is important that CES faculty not only encourage doctoral students to be open minded about potential career outcomes, but also provide opportunities for doctoral students to engage in formative unplanned experiences.

Although CACREP provides specific mandatory standards that must be accounted for, they allow programs to exercise flexibility and creativity in how they address them (CACREP, 2015; Goodrich et al., 2011). Students can expect a specific knowledge base but also have opportunities for paving their own career path because of the uniqueness of each CES program and other factors such as pre-enrollment career aspirations, unplanned life events, challenges or successes in courses, program emphasis, and mentorship. Both planned and unplanned experiences involve facing challenges, leading to developmental and transformational tasks that influence the integration of multiple identities, self-efficacy, and acceptance of responsibility as a leader in the counseling profession (Dollarhide et al., 2013). From an HLT framework, these transformational tasks are particularly significant, as they can be the catalyst for revised career aspirations or the reinforcement of previously determined career goals. This highlights the importance of advising and mentoring, and the need for ample opportunities for students to engage in diverse experiences so that these transformations can occur.

Planned Experiences

Doctoral students in CACREP-accredited CES programs can expect planned experiences relating to coursework that integrates theories relevant to counseling, the skills and modalities of clinical supervision, pedagogy and teaching methods related to educating counselors, research designs and professional writing, and leadership skills. Although CES programs are designed to provide planned

experiences related to all of the roles of a counselor educator (CACREP, 2015), the emphasis placed on each varies depending on the program and institution. CES faculty prepare doctoral students for a future in teaching, research, and service, often through experiences co-instructing counselors-in-training, scholarly work, and leadership roles advocating for the profession (Protivnak & Foss, 2009; Sears & Davis, 2003).

CACREP (2015) standards require that doctoral students learn research design, data analysis, program evaluation, and instrument design; however, there are not strict requirements or guidelines indicating what scholarly activities must be experienced before students graduate. Research experience is considered important because future CES faculty will likely be expected to engage in scholarship of some form, including writing journal articles, presenting at conferences, conducting program evaluations, and preparing other scholarly works such as grants and training manuals. However, after finding that less than a third of CES doctoral students had published a scholarly article, Lambie and Vaccaro (2011) concluded that CES programs must provide more planned experiences for student research engagement. Finally, because doctoral students inevitably learn valuable lessons in research and scholarship through the planned experience of completing a dissertation, CES programs must provide adequate training for students to successfully complete this milestone (Lambie et al., 2008).

Unplanned Experiences

CES doctoral students also have various opportunities for unplanned learning experiences with research and scholarship through coursework and collaboration with peers and faculty. Unplanned experiences that appear to be particularly important for CES doctoral students often occur through mentoring (Kuo et al., 2017; Perera-Diltz & Duba Sauerheber, 2017; Protivnak & Foss, 2009; Purgason et al., 2016; Sackett et al., 2015). Mentorship experiences include relationships with advisors and dissertation chairs, work beyond the classroom setting with faculty mentors, and relationships with counselor educators from other universities or institutions. Kahn (2001) posited that research-specific mentoring and collaborative research projects can create an environment conducive for CES doctoral students to develop research skills by observing faculty.

Several studies have highlighted the importance of mentorship in the career development of CES students (Casto et al., 2005; Cusworth, 2001; Hoskins & Goldberg, 2005; Nelson et al., 2006; Protivnak & Foss, 2009). Protivnak and Foss (2009) interviewed 141 current CES doctoral students who stressed the helpfulness of mentorship while navigating their doctoral program but also discussed the consequences of a lack of mentorship and support. Participants who received mentorship stated that it helped with balance and guidance in the program, while participants without adequate mentorship shared feelings of frustration and being on their own. Further, Love et al. (2007) found that research mentoring was a predictor of whether or not CES doctoral students became involved in research projects.

CES Program Characteristics Influencing Engagement in Research Experiences

All of these research experiences, both planned and unplanned, will vary across programs and depend on a multitude of factors, one of which might be the Carnegie classification of the institution where the program is housed. Carnegie classification divides colleges and universities that house CES programs into several categories, including the following: doctoral universities, master's colleges and universities, baccalaureate colleges, and special focus institutions. Doctoral universities are further classified based on a measure of research activity into one of three levels: R1, for very high research activity; R2, for high research activity; and D/PU (doctoral/professional universities), for moderate research activity. If previous literature indicating that doctoral-granting institutions are more likely to emphasize publishing and produce more publications (Barrio Minton et al., 2008; Lambie et al., 2014;

Ramsey et al., 2002) is accurate, then this might impact doctoral students' career aspirations as well as exposure to and engagement in research-related experiences.

According to HLT, CES doctoral students' career aspirations can influence *how* they engage in certain planned experiences and *if* they choose to engage in certain unplanned experiences (Krumboltz, 2009). For example, a student focused on a career at an institution with less emphasis on research (e.g., master's university) may put forth minimal effort in research courses and opt out of any unplanned experiences related to scholarly activity, such as accepting an invitation to join a research team. Also, it is possible that CES doctoral students at R1, R2, and D/PU institutions might have varying exposure to opportunities to engage in unplanned experiences related to research and scholarship if faculty at those institutions are spending less time in the role of researcher. For instance, Goodrich et al. (2011) found that in a survey of 16 CACREP-accredited counseling programs, only six programs had established research teams and only four programs required students to submit scholarly work to a professional journal before they could graduate.

Purpose

This study was designed to explore the current trends in publication rates of faculty in CES programs over a 10-year time period. Using a Bayesian analysis, we examined the following questions:

- Research Question 1: What are the differences among CES programs' faculty publication rates based on all Carnegie classifications?

    o Research Question 1.a: Are there differences among master's-level programs based on Carnegie classifications in terms of faculty publication rates?
- Research Question 2: Does observable data support prior literature findings regarding publication trends among CES programs at institutions with different levels of Carnegie classification?

Bayesian analysis is appropriate when "one can incorporate (un)certainty about a parameter and update his knowledge through the prior distribution" of probabilities (Depaoli & van de Schoot, 2017, p. 4). The inferences made by Newhart et al. (2020) were used as prior information to inform the collected observational data for this study. Newhart et al. used self-reported survey data to run a Poisson regression with the same variables proposed for this study. However, their data focused primarily on the differences among research institutions and combined non–research-designated institutions (i.e., master's universities) into a single category. Newhart et al.'s output helped inform the limitations of the observational data collection procedures, such as error in using database search engines. Additionally, this is the first known study to examine observational data of publication trends for CES programs, which might provide an under- or overestimation when compared to self-reported data. Alternatively, the use of self-reported data has often been stated as a limitation because of participant bias, which might inflate the outcomes. Therefore, it would be helpful to compare inferences from both sets of data. An initial comparison of parameter estimates between both studies will inform the trends of publications between Carnegie classifications.

For this study, and similar to Newhart et al. (2020), Carnegie classification operated as the predictor variable and number of publications as the outcome variable. The results of the comparison and Bayesian hypothesis testing of data will provide a means to verify self-reported data trends between Carnegie classification using parameter estimates and further information regarding the scholarly productivity

over a 10-year period and insight toward publication trends among non–PhD-level institutions using the posterior distributions.

Method

In order to answer the research questions, a list of all CACREP-accredited counseling programs in the United States was compiled by the principal investigator using the CACREP website directory. Next, a list of peer-reviewed journals affiliated with the American Counseling Association (ACA) was created. All journals were included, regardless of whether they published during the entire 10-year time period. Database search engines (e.g., EBSCO Academic Search Complete) and publisher websites were used as the primary tools to locate all articles published in every identified journal during the specific time period. After articles were secured, a database was created where authors' associated institutions at the time of publication were indexed. At least one author for each publication was associated with a CACREP-accredited counseling program, an inclusion criterion for this study. Thus, if an article was authored by two faculty at two different CACREP-accredited programs, both institutions received credit for that publication. Finally, each institution's most recent Carnegie classification was identified. A total of 5,250 publications authored by faculty at 396 institutions with CACREP-accredited programs were included in the analysis. The total number of publications accounts for articles with multiple authors from different institutions, with potentially different Carnegie classifications, being counted more than once. For example, an article authored by two faculty, one from an R1 institution and one from an M1, was counted as two publications. The rationale for this was that each institution listed on any given article would receive credit for this publication. R1 programs accounted for 37.68% ($M = 33.53$) and R2 accounted for 31.37% ($M = 25.34$) of publications in ACA-affiliated journals (see Table 1 for a detailed breakdown of institution and publications in ACA-affiliated journals).

Table 1

Breakdown of Observed Data of Total Publications by Carnegie Classification

Carnegie Classification	# of Programs	%	# of Pubs	%	Total Publications		
					Mean	*SD*	Var
R1—Very High Research Activity	59	14.86	1,978	37.68	33.53	30.53	932.05
R2—High Research Activity	65	16.37	1,647	31.37	25.34	28.29	800.45
D/PU—Doctoral/Professional Universities	71	17.88	652	12.42	9.18	13.36	178.52
M1—Larger Master's Program	116	29.47	802	15.28	6.91	9.71	93.90
M2—Medium Master's Program	43	10.83	105	2.00	2.44	3.14	9.87
M3—Smaller Master's Program	13	3.27	20	0.38	1.54	2.30	5.27
Bacc.—Baccalaureate Colleges	9	2.27	9	0.17	1.00	1.32	1.75
SF—Special Focus Institutions	20	5.04	37	0.70	1.85	2.56	6.56
Total	396		5250		13.26	21.32	

Note. This table provides the descriptive statistics for programs and publications by Carnegie classification. Only CACREP-accredited programs were included.

Data Analysis

   Following the data collection, the observed data was entered into and analyzed using SAS statistical software system to run the Markov chain Monte Carlo procedure with the Metropolis–Hastings algorithm to generate the estimated models. A Bayesian theoretical approach was taken to use prior information elicited from Newhart et al.'s (2020) publication, "Factors Influencing Publication Rates Among Counselor Educators." It was determined that a Poisson regression analysis was appropriate for determining the relationship between a predictor variable and an outcome variable characterized in the form of a frequency count. One assumption of Poisson models is that the mean and the variance are equal (homogeneity of conditional means). If this assumption is violated, a negative binomial model can account for a large difference between the variance and mean by estimating a dispersion parameter (Agresti, 2007). The test for the assumption of equal conditional mean and variance was violated, indicating overdispersion. Overdispersion occurs when the data has greater variability. The following negative binomial model was used to run a negative binomial regression (where D is the dispersion parameter): $E(Y) = \mu$, $Var(Y) = \mu + D\mu^2$.

   Next, the self-reported data collected from Newhart et al. (2020) was used to determine prior information to distinguish the differences between Carnegie classification and publication rates using R1 institutions as a baseline (see Table 2). The logarithm of the ratio was used for the prior mean of the distribution.

Table 2

Newhart et al. (2020) Self-Reported Total Publications by Carnegie Classification

Carnegie Classification	Total Publications		
	M	*SD*	Ratio
R1: Doctoral Universities – Very High	25.78	26.15	-
R2: Doctoral Universities – High	19.74	18.53	0.766
D/PU: Doctoral/Professional Universities – Moderate	13.31	14.78	0.516
Master's Universities	7.98	7.46	0.309

Note. Ratio reflects multiplicative factor in relation to baseline R1.

Results

   A negative binomial regression was used to (a) determine what the posterior probability publishing rates of non-R1 programs were compared to programs at R1 institutions and (b) examine if Newhart et al.'s (2020) self-reported data was plausible given the observed data. An initial model contained 10,000 burn-ins with a total of 100,000 iterations; however, this model lacked efficient information as determined by the effective sample size and efficiency. Next, Gibbs sampling with the Jeffreys prior was used and produced similar posterior parameter estimates and increased efficiency, indicating robustness; however, the effective sample size did not increase. Therefore, a sum-to-zero constraint was used to re-parametrize the model by centering the parameters. This resulted in coefficients representing group deviations from the grand mean, where in prior models the coefficients represented group deviations from the reference group. The following results are reported using the WAMBS checklist procedure for reporting Bayesian

statistical results (Depaoli & van de Schoot, 2017). The WAMBS checklist consists of four stages and 10 points to appropriately understand, interpret, and provide results of Bayesian statistics. The following paragraph outlines these 10 steps as applied to the current data.

First, normally distributed, non-informative priors were used (see Table 3). Second, model convergence was inspected by visually inspecting trace plots and using Geweke's statistic. A visual inspection of the posterior parameter trace plots provided evidence of chain convergence in which each chain centers around a value and has few fluctuations displaying a "fuzzy" pattern. Geweke's statistic compares the differences in means across chains to test convergence by comparing the first 10% of the chain to the last 50%. According to the Geweke's statistics results, all values are within the range of +/- 1.96 and retain the null hypothesis with $p > .05$ (nonsignificant), indicating convergence. Convergence remained after doubling the number of iterations. Third, the chains did not appear to shift and converge at another location after doubling the iterations, with parameters centering around the previous estimates. Fourth, each parameter histogram was reviewed and determined to have adequate representation of the posterior distribution. Fifth, after determining the model had converged, the chains were inspected for dependency as evidenced by the autocorrelations. The model appeared to have low autocorrelations, with each chain approaching and reaching zero between 10 and 20 lags, indicating low chain dependency. In addition to low autocorrelations, the effective sample size indicated the model was robust with information as evidenced by (ESS > 10,000) and positive efficiency. Prior to interpreting the output, we compared the model using the informative prior information, which slightly pulled the posterior mean estimates closer to that of the prior information; however, the results were effectively the same. Sixth, the posterior distribution appeared to make substantive sense as evidenced by smooth posterior density plots with reasonable standard deviations within the scale of the original parameters. Steps 7 through 9 were skipped in cases where only non-informative priors were used. Lastly, Step 10, the Bayesian way of interpreting and reporting results, was followed.

To answer the first research question, the post-summary means that are group deviations from the grand mean (intercept) were taken to determine the differences of Carnegie classification in comparison to R1, yielding the parameter estimate *B* (see Table 3).

Table 3

Posterior Summaries

Parameter	Priors	*M*	HPD Interval		*B*	*exp(B)*	*1/exp(B)*
Intercept	N (0, 10)	1.612	1.4251	1.8018	3.521	-	-
R1	N (0, 10)	1.909	1.6013	2.2142	-	-	-
R2	N (-0.27, 10)	1.628	1.3315	1.9199	-0.28	0.756	1.323
D/PU	N (-.66, 10)	0.612	0.3142	0.9038	-1.295	0.274	3.650
M1	N (-1.17, 10)	0.317	0.0617	0.5824	-1.587	0.206	4.854
M2	N (-1.17, 10)	-0.712	-1.0935	-0.3411	-2.619	0.073	13.699
M3	N (-1.17, 10)	-1.164	-1.8311	-0.4917	-3.082	0.046	21.740
Bacc	N (2, 10)	-1.609	-2.4932	-0.7119	-3.512	0.029	34.483
SF	N (2, 10)	-0.982	-1.5083	-0.4479	-2.897	0.055	18.182
Dispersion	N (1, 1)	0.885	0.7506	1.0275	1.118	-	-

Note: exp(B) reflects the times fewer publications in relation to R1; 1/exp(B) reflects R1 x more publications in relation to parameter.

The results of the negative binomial regression indicated faculty at R1 programs published at a rate of 1.32 times that of faculty at R2 programs. Faculty at R1 programs published 3.65 times more than faculty at D/PU programs and 4.85 times more than faculty at M1 programs. Figure 1 provides a visual density plot of the posterior summaries of the group deviations from the intercept. An interpretation of the visual analysis indicated publication rates among faculty arranged into three groupings based on the observed data in the estimated model: R1 and R2 programs, D/PU and M1 programs, and the remainder of the program types.

Figure 1

Posterior Density Plot
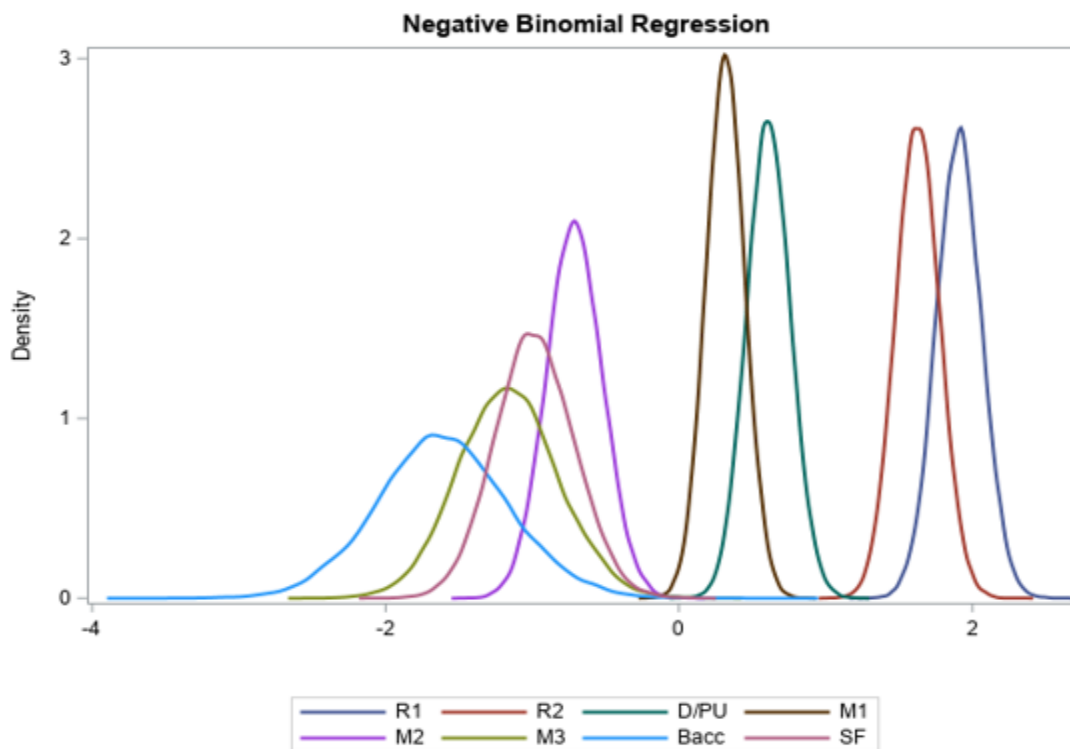
Note. Posterior density plot for differences from the grand mean.

To answer the second research question, a series of Bayesian hypothesis testing was conducted. Hypotheses tests were only conducted for doctoral- and master's-level programs because Newhart et al. (2020) only provided information regarding doctoral- and master's-level programs. The observed data collected yielded higher mean and standard deviations for each Carnegie classification compared to Newhart et al. Therefore, instead of comparing the differences among means, it appeared more appropriate to assess the differences between self-reported and observed data ratios regarding program Carnegie classification publication productivity. Newhart et al.'s self-reported data indicated that in relation to R1 programs, faculty at R2 programs published .77 times fewer articles, faculty at D/PU programs published .52 times fewer articles, and faculty at master's-level programs published .31 times fewer articles (see Table 2). These ratios were converted using the logarithmic form to be used as the prior means. After determining the differences of the observed data from the previous question, the prior means were used to compare the plausibility of Newhart et al.'s data with the observed data.

Surprisingly, the self-reported ratio between R1 and R2 programs was similar to the observed; therefore, the hypothesis test yielded a 52.35% probability of Newhart et al.'s (2020) self-reported finding of the ratio between R2 and R1 programs falling below the posterior estimate and 47.65% probability of it falling above (see Figure 2). However, the remainder of self-reported data fell above the posterior estimates with 99%–100% probability. Therefore, the plausibility of Newhart et al.'s findings regarding the ratio between R1 and R2 programs was 100%; however, the plausibility of all other programs was 0%–1%. It appears Newhart's self-reported data was potentially underestimating differences in publication ratios between programs beyond R2 programs in relation to R1 when compared to the observed data.

Figure 2

Plausibility of Newhart et al. (2020) Data
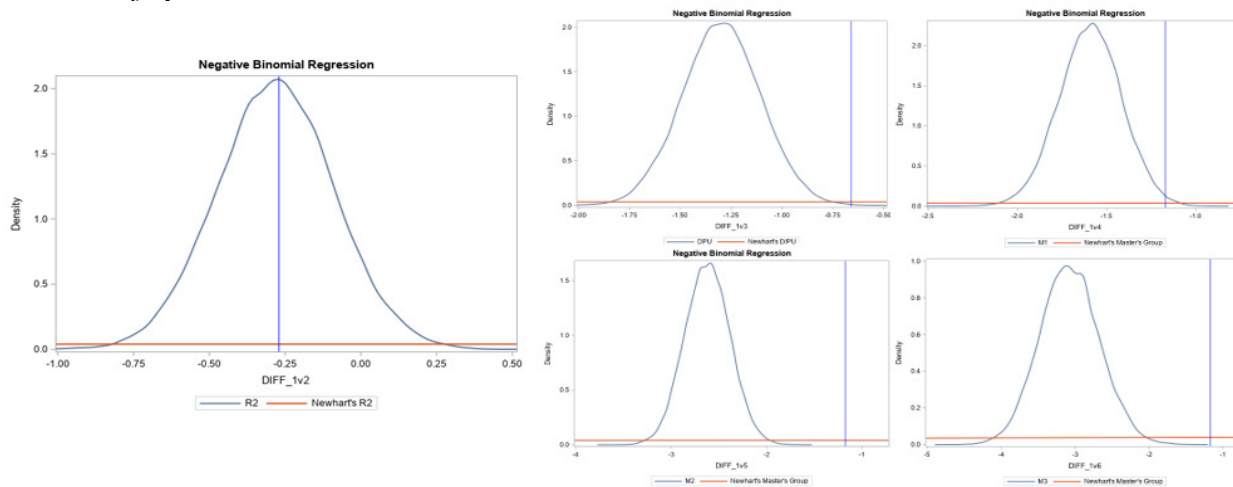
Note. R2, D/PU, M1, M2, and M3 program estimations are displayed in relation to R1 programs.

Discussion

In this study, we examined the actual publication trends of CES faculty by reviewing all articles published in ACA-affiliated, peer-reviewed journals from 2008 to 2018. The results of this study support the perceived relationship between higher Carnegie classification and increased scholarly productivity (Barrio Minton et al., 2008) and confirm previous self-reported research findings (Ramsey et al., 2002) that faculty at higher-ranked institutions spend more time publishing. A review of the results and previous literature indicates several unique findings relevant to faculty, programs, and doctoral students. The differences between Carnegie classifications show that although CES faculty at R1 universities publish at higher rates, as anticipated, CES faculty at R2 and R1 universities are publishing at similar rates in ACA journals. CES faculty in programs at R1 and R2 institutions produce the highest number of publications, accounting for 69.1% of publications from 2008 to 2018, suggesting these programs will have the highest demands for research activity. Interestingly, although they are publishing less frequently than R1 and R2 programs, publication rates appear to be similar for CES faculty in programs at D/PU and M1 institutions. Together they account for 27.7% of publications over the past decade, a considerable amount of research in the counseling profession. Counseling programs at M2, M3, Baccalaureate, and Special Focus institutions have the lowest

publication outcomes, accounting for 3.3% of publications over the past decade, a finding consistent with previous literature (Barrio Minton et al., 2008; Ramsey et al., 2002) and the method by which Carnegie classifications are attained.

The fact that CES faculty at M1 institutions, which supposedly do not place high emphasis on research, are publishing at a rate similar to faculty at D/PU institutions is interesting. It is possible that CES faculty at M1 institutions are spending more time engaged in scholarly activity because of the perceived importance of publishing for tenure/promotion (Barrio Minton at al., 2008; Ramsey et al., 2002; Ray et al., 2011; Whitaker, 2018). Applicants for tenure-track positions, as well as tenure-track CES faculty already at these programs, might expect to experience pressure to publish at a higher level similar to that of D/PUs for a variety of reasons. Faculty at M1 institutions might feel motivated to increase their publications as their institution attempts to change classification, which could result in increased external funding, attained interest of high-quality faculty, and gained recognition (Olson, 2018). Alternatively, CES faculty working at M1 or D/PU institutions who plan to apply to programs at institutions with high or very high research activity might feel pressure to publish more frequently in order to advance their careers as desired (Lambie et al., 2014). Salary may also influence CES faculty considering institutional moves, with annual salaries at R1 institutions averaging $17,000 more than R2, and annual salaries at R2 averaging $9,000 more than D/PU and $7,500 more than M1 institutions (Chronicle of Higher Education, 2018).

Another unique finding is that it appears the observed differences between R1 and R2 CES faculty publication rates match Newhart et al.'s (2020), providing further evidence CES faculty at R1 classified institutions as a whole are publishing at a rate 1.32 times higher than CES faculty at R2 institutions in ACA-affiliated journals. It also appears Newhart et al.'s findings underestimate program differences and do not account for the differences among master's-level programs as evidenced by the higher rate of publication by CES faculty at M1 programs.

The results of the current study highlight the importance of an emphasis on research and scholarship in CES doctoral programs in order to prepare future CES faculty to be successful in their roles. As doctoral students begin their job search, students seeking faculty positions face the uncertainty of not knowing where positions will be available and at what types of institutions. Although some doctoral students may have a clear idea of the type of institution where they wish to work, it is not guaranteed they will secure their desired position. In a profession that is growing quickly and becoming increasingly competitive, it is essential that CES programs support doctoral students in honing their research skills for career success and to promote job satisfaction. In programs where CES faculty are expected to publish at higher rates, doctoral students with inadequate preparation are at risk of becoming unsatisfied in their positions, which can result in decreased productivity and retention (Wong & Heng, 2009). Therefore, a focus on research and scholarship in CES programs not only helps in the career development of doctoral students but promotes retention of faculty in the long term (Sangganjanavanich & Balkin, 2013).

Limitations

Limitations of this study include issues regarding sample and journal selection. Regarding journals selected, because previous research indicates that counselor educators most often publish in counseling-related journals (Barrio Minton et al., 2008), we chose to limit our study to ACA division journals. However, many counselor educators publish in non-ACA journals, such as *Professional School Counseling* and the *International Journal of Play Therapy*. Our sample included only programs that were listed as CACREP accredited in August of 2018, which will have included programs that were either merging or losing accreditation, as well as not including programs that have since become accredited.

Additionally, not all programs may have been accredited during the entire 10-year time frame, and an institution's Carnegie classification possibly could have changed during that span as well. Specifically, during the 10-year time frame used for this article, Carnegie classifications were reviewed every 5 years. Currently, review and reclassification occurs every 3 years. Future research could account for this by organizing publications in 3-year clumps and including reclassification as a variable for data analysis. Future research also might consider additional counseling journals not affiliated with ACA, the quality and type of manuscripts published (e.g., conceptual, qualitative, quantitative), and the presence of doctoral student authorship in the published manuscript. Further, exploring publications by specific years will reveal particular trends over the 10-year time period.

Implications

Viewing the results of this study through an HLT lens, planned experiences are structured by the program in order to ensure that CACREP standards are met and that students become competent and knowledgeable CES faculty. However, faculty members are positioned to provide opportunities for doctoral students to have unplanned experiences and to support doctoral students navigating unplanned experiences beyond their control. In terms of research, the authors of this article argue for the necessity of increased opportunities for CES doctoral students to engage in unplanned experiences such as formal research teams, supervised research projects, and research collaborations through conducting studies, writing journal articles, and presenting scholarly work. Research and scholarly activity are an integral part of being a CES faculty member (CACREP, 2015).

Balancing the expectations of various CES roles, such as teaching, student mentorship, research, and leadership, creates a natural pressure for faculty members contributing to challenges such as difficulties with time management and role confusion (Smith & Leppma, 2017). For faculty members expected to produce several articles per year, tenure and promotion requirements may increase this perceived pressure, as one's job security often depends on one's rate of publication. Tenure and promotion requirements promote the need for quality scholarship published in peer-reviewed journals; however, the expectations of CES roles are not consistent across CES universities and programs, resulting in differences on the impact on scholarly productivity and perceived pressures to engage in efforts to publish (Ray et al., 2011). These expectations for faculty may also influence the level of engagement CES faculty have with students regarding their research projects and endeavors. According to Section C of the *ACA Code of Ethics*, counselors have an ethical obligation to "engage in counseling practices that are based on rigorous research methodologies" (ACA, 2014, p. 8), and an entire section (Section G) is dedicated to research and publication. The ACA code not only offers guidance for ensuring research is conducted ethically to protect participants' rights, but it also calls for research to be used as a means for promoting a healthier and more just society. CES faculty are charged to produce research and to engage doctoral students in developing and participating in research publication (Lambie et al., 2014; Wester et al., 2013). Future research exploring annual publication expectations and the number of publications at important tenure/promotion milestones for CES faculty could provide clarity regarding program and university workloads.

The authors suggest programs and faculty create ample opportunities for doctoral students to engage in research through the use of research teams and establishing expectations to publish during their doctoral tenure. Programs largely vary in their research training; although some programs provide clear and established research teams, a majority do not. Further, fewer programs require students to submit a publication to a professional journal prior to candidacy (Goodrich et al., 2011). By providing doctoral students with research mentorship and opportunities to collaborate on scholarly work, faculty

members increase the likelihood that doctoral students will engage in research activities. Doctoral students who not only engage in research-related activities but publish while in their doctoral program are more likely to have increased interest, engagement, and competence in research-related tasks (Lambie & Vaccaro, 2011). Doctoral program faculty should not only design courses that teach research methods but should infuse research and scholarly writing into every course. Although it might seem more difficult to do this in certain types of courses, such as those with a clinical focus, CES faculty could use those opportunities to teach and practice action research (Whiston, 1996), qualitative research (Hays & Wood, 2011), or single-case research designs (Ray, 2015), giving students the tools necessary to efficiently produce quality research, especially if they obtain faculty positions in CES programs.

Additionally, students can approach faculty advisors for assistance identifying their interests and strengths and seek out mentorship opportunities that align with their career ambitions during the initial year of their doctoral program. Further, as mentors and advisors, faculty members can help doctoral students identify their interests and strengths, set career goals, and align those goals with appropriate types of institutions. For instance, it appears that programs at D/PU institutions with moderate emphasis on scholarship and research may want to develop or continue to develop research mentorship for doctoral students to improve their job placement opportunities. Further, although M1 institutions are not involved in the training of doctoral students, this group comprises a majority of programs, indicating that a good portion of doctoral students will be working at master's-level institutions, and if placed at an M1, they may still have an intrinsic or extrinsic responsibility to conduct and publish research.

Conclusion

The authors sought to further understand the publication trends of faculty in 396 CACREP-accredited CES programs based on Carnegie classification by exploring 5,250 publications over the last decade in 21 ACA and ACA division journals and how these results can be used to inform CES training and preparation of doctoral students through an HLT framework. Although findings indicate that programs at R1 and R2 institutions account for nearly 70% of research, a majority of the remainder of CES literature (nearly 28%) is produced by D/PUs and larger master's programs (M1s), indicating a greater emphasis on research than previously perceived at non-doctoral institutions. Programs and faculty can provide enriched experiences through advising and mentorship to better prepare future counselor educators in the areas of research and scholarship.

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Relational Cultural Theory–Informed Advising in Counselor Education

Kirsis A. Dipre, Melissa Luke

Relational cultural theory emerged in the 1970s as a reaction to the dominant view of women in psychology and continues to challenge societal values while promoting social justice. Key tenets of relational cultural theory are to promote growth-fostering relationships and move toward connection. These may be applied in a variety of contexts within higher education. This conceptual manuscript provides an overview of advising relationships, particularly within counselor education. A thorough review of relational cultural theory and its potential utility in advising is presented. Then a case conceptualization is provided to illustrate how faculty advisors can enhance their advising practices and better address interpersonal dynamics within the advising relationship. Implications for using this framework in multiple higher education settings are discussed.

Keywords: relational cultural theory, advising, counselor education, higher education, interpersonal dynamics

Advising is crucial in enhancing counseling students' opportunities for success and for supporting their professional preparation as licensed counselors and/or counselor educators (Barbuto et al., 2011; Knox et al., 2006; Kuo et al., 2017; Mu & Fosnacht, 2019; Robbins, 2012). Yet advising is not always part of the doctoral preparation of faculty members (Ng et al., 2019) and not always adequately prioritized and supported within counselor education programs (Furr, 2018). Further, advising is considered part of teaching responsibilities at some institutions and part of service activities at others (Ng et al., 2019). Depending on the institution, advising may not be prioritized (He & Hutson, 2017). This is concerning considering the importance of advising for the academic success of students (Knox et al., 2006; Kuo et al., 2017) and their further development in the counseling profession (Ng et al., 2019; Sackett et al., 2015). According to the American Counseling Association's *ACA Code of Ethics* (2014), counselor educators have a responsibility to deliver career advisement and expose their students to opportunities for supplementary development. Although faculty advising responsibilities are not clearly defined and remain woefully underexamined (Ng et al. 2019), this conceptualization extends consideration of advising beyond the formulaic tasks of providing course registration support and incorporates exploration of life goals.

Consistent with this new conceptualization, the counselor education advising role has shifted from a perfunctory extracurricular service to a more process-focused co-curricular relationship that can include a systemic approach (Ng et al., 2019). This conceptualization is representative of the functions of a faculty advisor in counselor education, as the profession requires students to consider their investment in being lifelong learners (Kuo et al., 2017; Sackett et al., 2015). Therefore, counselor education advisees are tasked with completing the curricular requirements in their program of study to develop the knowledge and skills needed for professional success in addition to continuing their education through engagement in authentic and developmentally appropriate activities.

Advisors are well positioned to assist in the foundational planning for students' success within the counseling profession. To accomplish this, well-equipped advisors require a strong knowledge

Kirsis A. Dipre, MA, NCC, is a doctoral candidate at Syracuse University. Melissa Luke, PhD, NCC, ACS, LMHC, is Associate Dean for Research and Dean's Professor at Syracuse University. Correspondence may be addressed to Kirsis A. Dipre, 130 College Place, Suite 440, Syracuse, NY 13210, kadipre@syr.edu.

base predicated on theoretical foundations (Musser & Yoder, 2013; Sackett et al., 2015). Although no one advising approach is adequately situated to assist everyone optimally, it is the advisor's ethical obligation to be well informed regarding their own approaches and ways to adjust to meet the individual and contextual needs of their advisees (Kimball & Campbell, 2013). Despite the growing differentiation of advising from mentoring, few theories or models have been purported to undergird the advising process in counselor education (Ng et al., 2019). The present manuscript aims to fill this gap by providing counseling advisors with a theoretically sound and research-grounded framework to enhance their advisory practice using relational cultural theory (RCT). In subsequent sections, the relevance of RCT for advising in counselor education and its central assumptions will be discussed, the current state of advising in counselor education will be described, and a relational cultural advising case conceptualization will be provided to assist counselor educators in better understanding and developing RCT-informed advising practices.

Relevance of RCT to Advising

RCT originated as a developmental model for women; however, broader applicability was quickly recognized given the commonalities across people and the impact of societal values on people's functioning (Jordan, 2018; Jordan et al., 1991; Walker, 2004). Presently, RCT is utilized across a variety of clinical populations as well as in non-clinical settings (Jordan, 2017, 2018; Robb, 2007). For example, Luke (2016) described the use of RCT with children experiencing gender dysphoria; Cannon et al. (2012) described its use in group treatment settings with adult women; and Fletcher and Ragins (2007), as well as Hammer et al. (2014), noted its utility in mentoring contexts. More recently, Schwartz (2019) described the utility of RCT within teaching across higher education contexts. Because RCT is predicated on the co-construction of knowledge both by individuals and groups, RCT is readily translated into new settings and contexts (Rogers & Stanciu, 2015), in this case advising within counselor education programs.

Relational Cultural Theory

In its most basic form, RCT posits that humans need social connections throughout the life span, placing social connections at the center of human development. Both this basic postulate and the usefulness of RCT have been consistently supported in empirical studies (Eisenberger & Lieberman, 2005; Lenz, 2016; Schore, 2015). To gain an understanding of human development, RCT-oriented practitioners rely on several core assumptions. As outlined by Miller and Stiver (1997) and later Jordan and Dooley (2000), the eight core assumptions are as follows: (a) people grow through and toward relationship; (b) mature functioning is reflected in movement toward mutuality rather than separation; (c) growth is characterized by relationship differentiation and elaboration; (d) growth-fostering relationships are based on mutual empathy and empowerment; (e) authenticity is required for real engagement in growth-fostering relationships; (f) development is a mutual exchange through which all involved contribute, grow, and benefit; (g) the goal is to develop increased relational competence over one's life span; and (h) mutual empathy and mutual empowerment are at the core of human development. Advisors can enhance their advising practices by enacting these eight tenets to provide advisees with opportunities to develop the intra- and interpersonal relational awareness and skills requisite in counseling and counselor education work contexts while also offering greater support for students in navigating graduate training programs within counselor education. The application of RCT tenets will be demonstrated in a later section using a case study.

Development

During the 1970s, a time in which the helping professions were dominated by ideologies developed by White males and the United States was roaring with a desire for change, psychologist Jean Baker Miller transformed the way we think about human development (Cohn, 1997; Hartling, 2008; Robb,

2007). Rather than striving for independence, as posited by the leading psychotherapy theories, Miller (1976) argued that human beings grow through and toward relationship. Almost 20 years after the development of the initial relational model, it underwent a significant shift. As this model evolved and expanded into its current theory, the scope was broadened to include an exploration of power in relationships (Walker, 2004). To this day, the RCT-related literature continues to grow (Comstock et al., 2008; Hall et al., 2018; Hammer et al., 2014; Purgason et al., 2016; Rogers & Stanciu, 2015).

In addition to exploring gender, this work has also focused on understanding the connections of relationships across differences in race (Purgason et al., 2016; Walker, 2004), ethnicity (Hall et al., 2018), sexual/affectional orientation, and gender identity (Luke, 2016) in both counseling and in the workplace. Thus, the scope of RCT has widened from solely focusing on women to addressing identity and power structures within all relationships, and now includes considerable attention to populations of minority status across a variety of contexts (Cannon et al., 2012; Comstock et al., 2008; Hammer et al., 2016; Schwartz, 2019; Walker, 2004, 2010). Similarly, scholars have more recently applied RCT beyond the therapeutic relationship to various processes within academia, including mentorship (Gammel & Rutstein-Riley, 2016; Hammer et al., 2014), clinical supervision (Williams & Raney, 2020), pedagogy (Hall et al., 2018; Schwartz, 2019), and advising for doctoral students of color (Purgason et al., 2016).

Philosophical Underpinnings

Since the inception of RCT, Miller and colleagues recognized the alignment of their observations of women's experiences with the positivistic perspective (Robb, 2007; Rogers & Stanciu, 2015), in that the observable realities could be understood through reason and logic. At the same time, theorists also situated RCT within the postmodern perspective because the theory intentionally acknowledges the possibility for multiple truths (Hansen, 2004; Rigazio-DiGilio, 2001; Rogers & Stanciu, 2015). Epistemologically, the theorists positioned RCT from a social constructivist standpoint (Jordan, 2018), meaning that the theory emphasizes the individual's unique phenomenological experiences in relation to the social systems in which they are embedded. Thus, through RCT, one takes into account historical and cultural contexts that inform one's meaning-making systems. RCT is also grounded on the premise that social construction of identities and the significance of power and hierarchy within relationships limits relational images and expectations (Birrell & Bruns, 2016; Jordan, 2018; Jordan et al., 1991). Broadly, a constructivist theory assumes that reality is created by individuals (Hansen, 2004; Jaccard & Jacoby, 2010), making subjectivity essential in understanding a person's experience of reality. In contrast, a social constructionist theory assumes that reality is constructed by groups and, therefore, subjectivity is removed (Hansen, 2004; Rigazio-DiGilio, 2001). Although these epistemic positions may seem inherently contradictory, they intersect to create an individual–systems dialect within RCT. According to Hansen (2004), the integration of epistemologies permits greater inclusivity, allowing for a more complex conceptualization of the relational processes, particularly those that are part of RCT-informed growth and development (Rogers & Stanciu, 2015), including those in advising (Purgason et al., 2016). Thus, we argue that RCT is well positioned to address the unique needs of advisees as individuals (constructivist) while also addressing these advising needs as they arise within counselor education graduate programs and as part of larger systems (social constructionist).

Advising in Counselor Education

For faculty members in counselor education, advising may not be prioritized in terms of responsibilities and may only be considered as part of courses they may be teaching, and/or as part of the tenure and promotion process (He & Hutson, 2017; Kuo et al., 2017). Yet, the advising relationship is one of the few structures in place to facilitate student success (Barbuto et al., 2011; Knox et al., 2006), and

despite its centrality in counselor education (Purgason et al., 2016), the literature on advising and the advisory relationship is scarce within counselor education. Since the publication of the *2016 CACREP Standards* by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP; 2015), there has been increased attention to the advising process (Ng et al., 2019).

Within counselor education, however, the extant literature on advising has focused on the responsibilities and priorities of the advisor (Knox et al., 2006) and neglected the processes involved in engaging in a "positive developmental relationship" (Ng et al., 2019, p. 54). Moreover, the focus of the literature also prioritizes advisement of doctoral students, overlooking the importance of appropriate advising for master's students. Despite CACREP's (2015) recommendations for programs to assign students in entry-level programs an advisor, few scholars have explored advising of master's students in counseling programs. Instead, research has centered on the advising of master's students pursuing doctoral studies (Farmer et al., 2017; Sackett et al., 2015). Still, these studies did not directly investigate the advisory process with master's students in counseling programs, contributing to the widening gap between the limited scholarship focused on advising master's students and the growing doctoral student advising literature. Recently, Rogers and colleagues (2020) discussed master's students' attachment, cognitive distortions, and experience of feedback in supervision. They discovered that attachment anxiety led to increased cognitive distortions, which further contributed to difficulty with corrective feedback during clinical supervision. Similar to feedback within supervisory relationships, advisors provide students with feedback during advising; therefore, it is important for faculty advisors to be aware of their advisees' experiences of this process. As such, RCT provides a theoretical framework to strategically approach such situations with cognitive complexity and clinical sensitivity.

Advising Approaches

Generally, an advisor in higher education is typically a faculty member whose responsibility is to guide their advisees through their programs (Mu & Fosnacht, 2019; Ng et al., 2019). This is usually accomplished through implementation of one of three distinctive approaches to advising outlined by Crookston (1972/2009). The *developmental approach* is used to attend to students' progress throughout their educational careers, making it holistic in nature. Through this approach, the advisor aims at assisting students in the exploration of career and life goals as well as teaching the necessary skills to reach these goals. The *prescriptive advising approach*, in which the role of the advisor is to provide information related to courses, policies, and logistics, may also be adopted. This advising approach is didactic; the advisor's goal is to assist the advisee to meet their academic requirements, and the process is often initiated by the advisee. Finally, advisors may choose to use a *proactive approach* in which the advisor establishes a strong relationship with the advisee. The advisor leads the process and reaches out to the advisee during critical points and when the advisee may be at risk or belong to an underserved population. The goal is to provide additional support to the advisee (He & Hutson, 2017; Mu & Fosnacht, 2019).

Although there have been no counselor education–specific advising theories put forth in the literature to date, the conceptual literature has been informed by mentoring enactment theory (Mansson & Myers, 2012), bioecological systems theory (Ng et al., 2019), and RCT (Hammer et al., 2014; Purgason et al., 2016). Moreover, despite McDonald's (2019) contention of the centrality of theory-informed training for advisors, no research was identified that directly examined advising outcomes resulting from one theoretical approach or that addressed differences across the advising approaches most commonly used within counselor education, although current literature suggests the developmental approach is most widely used in higher education. This is evidenced by the shift away from prescriptive tasks and movement toward advancing career goals that align with advisees' personhood (Kuo et al., 2017; McDonald, 2019). To date no studies have examined if this holds true

in counselor education specifically. That said, the extant advising literature has continued to show that advising is key for ensuring student success (Robbins, 2012; Sackett et al., 2015). Because of the uniqueness of each advisory relationship, as well as the characteristics of each advisee, we can say that no specific approach or strategy of advising will be sufficient in assisting the needs of all advisees. Similar to the supervisory and counseling relationship, there is complexity in attending to individual, developmental, and systemic needs within the advisory relationship (Barbuto et al., 2011; Mu & Fosnacht, 2019). Therefore, it is imperative that counselor educators serving as advisors are well versed in varying approaches to advising, particularly because of the lack of actual training received by faculty serving in this capacity (He & Hutson, 2017; Kimball & Campbell, 2013).

The advising relationship in and of itself has been found to be essential in the success of students in doctoral programs (Knox et al., 2006; McDonald, 2019). Most recently, Purgason and colleagues (2016) used an RCT framework to enhance the advisory process for doctoral students from underrepresented identities in counselor education programs. They argued the RCT framework provided a strong foundation for attending to the multicultural and social justice competencies in the counselor education profession. This argument aligns with our view. Further, we propose that RCT provides a comprehensive foundation for enhancing the advisory relationship of all advisees in counseling programs regardless of program level. Generally, an advisor operating from an RCT-informed perspective may be closely monitoring their advisees' and their own unique ways of interacting within the relationship. Explicit attention to this would be part of ongoing advising discussions. In accordance with the eight basic RCT assumptions, the advisor would approach the advising process as a means for growth and empowerment for both themselves and their advisees. In our own RCT-informed advising practices, we have used the eight RCT assumptions as a guide for process and outcome goal planning and as a framework for recording advisement notes. The current manuscript builds on the extant conceptualization of RCT-informed advising and uses a case vignette to illustrate and discuss the application.

Case Vignette

Dr. Mare Smith is a 36-year-old, White female counselor educator working at Playa Del Rio University in the southwestern region of the United States. Since joining the faculty 5 years ago, Dr. Smith has taught seven different courses: Introduction to Counseling, Counseling Theories and Application, Social and Cultural Issues in Counseling, Couples Counseling, Human Sexuality, Marriage and Family Practicum, and Marriage and Family Internship. Dr. Smith receives one course release from the typical 3:3 annual course load for her work as program coordinator for the Marriage, Couple, and Family Counseling master's program and her service as Chapter Faculty Advisor of the Counselors for Social Justice chapter in her department. In addition, as part of her institution's new strategic plan to expand their online course delivery, Dr. Smith has volunteered to develop online sections of the Introduction to Counseling, Social and Cultural Issues in Counseling, and Human Sexuality courses so that these can be offered in the next academic year. In exchange for this work, she will receive a $4,000 stipend for each course. Although not contractually obligated, Dr. Smith has typically taught two courses each summer; however, this past summer Dr. Smith elected to teach only one course so she could begin preparation of her promotion and tenure dossier, which needs to be submitted by October 15.

While collecting the documentation necessary for her dossier, Dr. Smith reviewed her scholarly productivity, her servant leadership profile, and her teaching evaluations and advising reports. Even though Dr. Smith entered academia with a handful of academic publications co-authored with her doctoral advisor and other graduate students on the research team, she is pleased that she has continued

to publish one piece almost every year for a total of seven peer-reviewed articles (three research, four conceptual) and two book chapters. In addition, Dr. Smith recognized that like many female faculty and faculty from historically marginalized groups, she has continued to engage in a high level of servant leadership across her program, department, college, community, and the counseling profession. In addition to program coordination and chapter faculty advisement, Dr. Smith has chaired and/or served as a member of the admissions committee of her program and the portfolio review committee in her department each year. She has also been a member of the diversity committee in the college for 3 years and was part of four faculty search committees in other departments. Moreover, Dr. Smith has recently been named an ad hoc reviewer for the journal published by the National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC), *The Professional Counselor*, and she also serves as a mentor through the NBCC Minority Fellowship Program. Overall, Dr. Smith's student evaluations have steadily increased over time, and she typically receives scores of approximately 4.5/5 across all courses other than in Social and Cultural Issues in Counseling, where her average evaluations hover at about a 4.0/5. Knowing that student evaluations for online courses tend to be lower than for in-person classes, Dr. Smith is relieved that the online classes will not be completed by the time her dossier is submitted. That said, as a well-respected and sought after advisor to almost 35 students each year, Dr. Smith is hoping that her favorite advisee, Tatyana Acevedo, follows through on her intention to nominate Dr. Smith for the college's Graduate Advisor Award.

Tatyana Acevedo is a 24-year-old, Afro-Latinx second-year student who works at the college library while also completing her master's degree in marriage, couple, and family counseling. Early in her first semester, Tatyana stood out from her classmates in Dr. Smith's Introduction to Counseling class, not only for her exemplary preparation and high level of engagement in class, but also for the complexity and depth with which she approached both academic and professional issues. Through their advising relationship, Dr. Smith had communicated her appreciation for Tatyana's complex ways of thinking and ability to relate to others in class. This paved the way for an advising relationship in which Tatyana felt supported, empowered, and appreciated by Dr. Smith. Following the midterm exam, Tatyana met with Dr. Smith to review the three questions she missed on the exam, and this is where they discovered a shared interest in cultural empathy and cultural humility research. During this meeting, and the bi-weekly meetings thereafter, Tatyana and Dr. Smith discussed a range of topics, including Tatyana's program of study and aspirations after graduation, as well as contemporary professional issues. At the end of the spring semester, Dr. Smith broached the possibility of collaborating with Tatyana on a summer writing project related to cultural humility. Dr. Smith was careful to proactively discuss the parameters of the project and timeline, reviewed what constituted authorship and their respective contributions to the project, and addressed the inherent power dynamics within and across their relational roles and how these might be experienced. This discussion and the many similar ones that ensued throughout the project were all tremendously meaningful to Tatyana. Although she frequently remarked about how much she learned about cultural humility and the technical aspects of scholarly writing from Dr. Smith, Tatyana was also vocal about the growth she experienced as both a person and professional through the project. For these reasons, Tatyana informed Dr. Smith at the end of the summer and before the manuscript was submitted of her intention to apply to doctoral study in counselor education and supervision and nominate Dr. Smith for the annual Playa Del Rio University Graduate Advisor Award, with material for both due in the fall. Although Dr. Smith had always enjoyed Tatyana and believed in her potential, she felt particularly validated by their work together on this project and through learning of its impact on Tatyana's career decisions.

Nonetheless, Tatyana and Dr. Smith missed their agreed-upon deadline for the manuscript submission and eventually decided that they would suspend their work until applications and the dossier were submitted in the fall. As Tatyana developed the nomination letter and secured three

letters of support for Dr. Smith, she was also completing her applications for admissions to doctoral programs. Concurrently, Dr. Smith worked on finalizing her own candidate statements and dossier to be submitted for promotion and tenure. Though their meetings became less frequent, Tatyana and Dr. Smith joked about embarking on new stages of their respective journeys and that they "would meet up again" once applications were submitted. Tatyana tried to hold on to this plan when Dr. Smith did not respond to a request to share her CV and advising statement/mentoring philosophy for the award nomination packet, as well as when she learned that Dr. Smith was delayed in submitting Tatyana's recommendation forms for doctoral study. Although no communication occurred between them, Tatyana became increasingly worried that Dr. Smith would either refuse to submit or fail to submit her recommendation letters by the programmatic deadlines. Regardless of her growing nervousness Tatyana tried to be understanding, but things came to a head in today's advisement meeting.

Despite Tatyana having emailed Dr. Smith 3 weeks ahead to schedule an advising meeting and having listed the items she wished to discuss, Dr. Smith seemed surprised and unfocused when Tatyana arrived on time for the meeting. Tatyana reflected that Dr. Smith seemed distracted and then recounted examples of similar observed behavior over the past month and a half. Although Tatyana's initial observation was couched in empathy and concern, she became increasingly animated in her frustration with Dr. Smith's unavailability and her anxiety about the possibility that Dr. Smith might not meet impending deadlines. Tatyana's disappointment was evident when she indicated that she thought Dr. Smith was prioritizing the development of her online courses because she was getting paid and her promotion and tenure dossier because it benefitted her, and that she was putting Tatyana's requests for recommendation letters on the "back burner." With irritation spilling over, Tatyana finally said, "Since I don't have your materials for the packet, I am not sure how I can move ahead with the nomination, not that it makes as much sense now anyway." At this point, Dr. Smith became aware of the multiplicity of roles and inherent power differentials between herself and Tatyana, which she had not addressed, complicating the issue further. Dr. Smith also realized she had not explicitly discussed the various roles she and Tatyana were operating under and how the interactions between these roles may cause some friction, especially if some roles were prioritized over others. With increased awareness regarding the nature of the situation, Dr. Smith recognized the opportunity to intentionally enact her theoretical grounding in RCT within her advisement relationship with Tatyana.

RCT Application

Grounded in the bioecological systemic considerations discussed by Ng and colleagues (2019), Dr. Smith could choose a variety of RCT-based interventions to address the advisement rupture with Tatyana. In its most basic form, bioecological systems theory suggests a person's development and interactions with their environment are influenced by biological and psychological factors, all of which should be considered in the advising process. This means that the advising process is dependent on the advisor's understanding of the advisee's contextual situation as it pertains to the training program, institutional characteristics, and individual factors. To demonstrate the multiple potential "points of entry" (Luke & Bernard, 2006), the following section will present brief illustrations of the RCT tenets in action when applied to the case vignette of Tatyana and Dr. Smith.

It is important to note that the authors are providing one possible way an RCT-oriented advisor would demonstrate their alignment with the theory through the case study. Therefore, the authors recognize there are a myriad of options for how to apply RCT in advising relationships, all of which are individual and context specific. The reader is encouraged to consider their unique situation and use the information presented in this article to guide their choices when implementing a relational cultural approach to their advising practices.

Considering Dr. Smith's new understanding of her failure to attend to ethical issues and rupture that arose as a result of the multiplicity of roles with Tatyana, Dr. Smith would have to address this regardless of her chosen point of entry and intervention. In addition, Dr. Smith's recognition of her failure to maintain an RCT-oriented advising framework throughout their relationship is essential in the process to repair the rupture with Tatyana. This process would begin with an acknowledgement of Dr. Smith becoming sidetracked and self-focused, failing to communicate in the middle when the advising relationship was no longer a mutual exchange, and further, Dr. Smith's lack of awareness of her impact on Tatyana. For instance, it was clear that Dr. Smith became focused on the pressures of her promotion and tenure process, in which advising of students is highly undervalued with the focus being primarily teaching, research, and service (Furr, 2018), therefore neglecting her advising practices with Tatyana.

Consistent with tenet (f) of RCT, development is a mutual exchange through which all involved contribute, grow, and benefit (Jordan, 2018; Rogers & Stanciu, 2015), one possible point of entry would be for Dr. Smith to receive Tatyana's feedback with openness and avoidance of defensiveness while also acknowledging her limitations within the advising relationship. In addition, Dr. Smith would be recognizing the impact of this breach on her own and Tatyana's development as advisor and advisee in this process. By responding with receptiveness, Dr. Smith will communicate to Tatyana that she is respected and valued in the relationship. Further, with acknowledgement of her limitations, particularly her lack of awareness of Tatyana's experience, Dr. Smith will be assuming a place of vulnerability. As an advisor, in a position with inherent power over her advisee, recognition of her lack of knowledge and awareness may bring about discomfort. This discomfort when coupled with her identity as a White woman, in which she has been afforded unearned advantages over her advisee, may intensify the feelings of vulnerability Dr. Smith may experience.

On the other hand, Tatyana risked vulnerability by naming the lack of responsiveness from Dr. Smith, challenging the inherent power differential in the relationship and leaving her in a place of uncertainty. Despite the discomfort being experienced by both Tatyana and Dr. Smith, there is a demonstration of tenet (b), mature functioning is reflected in movement toward mutuality rather than separation (Jordan, 2018). In accordance with her RCT theoretical grounding, Dr. Smith must be careful to attend to the shared vulnerability in the space, meaning sharing her experience authentically without asking for Tatyana to "take care of her." She can accomplish this by making her intention clear to Tatyana and expressing that her actions were not okay, accepting responsibility while conveying the inevitable nature of disconnections within the advisory relationship. Through these interventions, which are consistent with the aforementioned tenets of RCT and the latter with tenet (e), authenticity is required for real engagement in growth-fostering relationships (Jordan, 2018; Walker, 2004), Dr. Smith and Tatyana would be able to bring themselves fully and authentically into connection, which is crucial for moving the advisory relationship forward and is an indication of engagement in a growth-fostering relationship.

Another point of entry demonstrating tenet (c) of RCT, which states that growth is characterized by relationship differentiation and elaboration (Comstock et al., 2008; Jordan, 2018), would be to leverage the previous conversation that Dr. Smith had initiated with Tatyana around the inherent power dynamics that exist in the advising relationship. In this illustration, Dr. Smith would be anchoring on the elaboration of their identities and their impact on their advisory relationship. Further, Dr. Smith would acknowledge the risks taken by Tatyana in confronting Dr. Smith and how these risks are being experienced, therefore demonstrating exploration beyond the immediate context. Through this acknowledgement Dr. Smith would be validating Tatyana's experiences of the varying levels of power Dr. Smith holds as a White woman and advisor. The acknowledgement should integrate the social context and the impact of larger systems on Tatyana as a young Afro-Latinx woman in the United

States. In this conversation Dr. Smith could reflect to Tatyana how Dr. Smith's lack of responsiveness may be emulating Tatyana's experiences of larger societal systems that disregard her needs, as is the experience of many Black people in the United States (Walker, 2004). In acknowledging the personal and professional risks for Tatyana of reflecting her experiences of being put on the "back burner," Dr. Smith would be collaborating with her in rebuilding a sense of safety in the ruptured connection. This experience may then lead to Dr. Smith working to empower Tatyana to name the destructive practices and recognize the oppressive impact of controlling images that may be playing a role in their interaction, which demonstrates an alignment with tenet (h), which states that mutual empathy and mutual empowerment are at the core of human development (Jordan, 2018). At this point, Dr. Smith may struggle with feelings of discomfort around her White privilege and use of power-over dynamics rather than power-with dynamics by temporarily prioritizing her own needs related to the promotion and tenure process over her advising relationship with Tatyana. Recognizing the lack of program support and unrecognized work that is required of the advising role, Dr. Smith may also struggle with the realization of her own discomfort as a female faculty member seeking tenure and how this may have contributed to the lack of attention to her advising duties and eventually the rupture with Tatyana.

Similarly, Dr. Smith may choose to begin by fostering empowerment and expressing mutual empathy for both herself and Tatyana. This choice demonstrates consistency with tenet (d), growth-fostering relationships are based on mutual empathy and empowerment (Jordan, 2018; Rogers & Stanciu, 2015), through which Dr. Smith could apologize to her advisee for putting her on the "back burner" while remaining open to the possibility that the apology may not be accepted and that this would be the first step in moving the advisory relationship forward. Dr. Smith could provide Tatyana with an explanation for her lack of responsiveness and then redress her delay by honoring the commitment to submit the recommendations immediately. Dr. Smith could take responsibility for missing the collaboratively developed manuscript submission deadline and then provide Tatyana with a clear date by which she will submit Tatyana's recommendation letters before the institutional deadlines. This may provide reassurance to Tatyana while also encouraging an exploration of her own reactions to Dr. Smith and how they may be influenced by past experiences. Consistent with the assumptions of RCT, Dr. Smith should engage Tatyana in a discussion of the unique ways in which each of them conceptualized and enacted their relational images within their advising relationship and invite collaborative processing of how these learnings can inform not only their ongoing work together but also their respective future professional relationships with others. Through engagement in this type of self-exploration to understand their own relational images and sources of disconnection, Dr. Smith and Tatyana can then alter their conceptualization of themselves and one another, allowing for an even more transparent discussion of shared responsibility.

As part of this discussion, Dr. Smith should express genuine understanding that given all of what has occurred, Tatyana may still no longer wish to submit the nomination packet. She could further express commitment to Tatyana's continued success and offer to collaborate with her in developing a plan of action for their ongoing advising relationship. In taking this course of action, Dr. Smith would further display consistency with tenet (a), people grow through and toward relationship (Comstock et al., 2008; Jordan, 2018), by building on the relational resilience already demonstrated by Tatyana's broaching of the problematic dynamics impinging on the advisory relationship. By intentionally focusing on relational resilience Dr. Smith would be reworking the empathic failure that occurred within the advisory relationship. This would communicate to Tatyana that not only is the advisory relationship important, but that she is important and therefore the relational courage she demonstrated is valued by Dr. Smith, as both she and Tatyana have been changed by their interactions.

Dr. Smith may also choose to enact her theoretical grounding in RCT by validating Tatyana's experience of disconnection verbally and non-verbally. It is important that Dr. Smith communicate her appreciation for Tatyana's expression of her experiences in the advisory relationship as well as Tatyana's advisory needs. This approach demonstrates an alignment with tenet (g), the goal is to develop increased relational competence over one's life span (Jordan, 2018), as Dr. Smith works to create an open space for Tatyana to continue to express herself by making her respect for Tatyana and her experiences clear, and further develop Tatyana's relational competence. Once Tatyana can share her experience Dr. Smith may choose to clarify Tatyana's interpretation of the rupture as a lack of responsiveness. In doing so, Dr. Smith would gain a greater understanding of Tatyana's strategies of disconnection. By actively assessing for Tatyana's strategies of disconnection (Jordan, 2017, 2018; Robb, 2007) that could be present, Dr. Smith may be able to assume appropriate responsibility for her contribution to the advising rupture. Dr. Smith may then be able to elicit Tatyana's collaboration in negotiating ways to move forward from a difficult place in the relationship, exemplifying tenet (f), development is a mutual exchange through which all involved contribute, grow, and benefit (Jordan, 2018; Rogers & Stanciu, 2015), by highlighting mutual investment in the process and relationship. She may ask the following questions to achieve this goal: Can we do something about this difficulty in our relationship? What do I or we need to do to shift toward a trusting and collaborative relationship? By asking questions like these, both Dr. Smith and Tatyana are developing a template for negotiating difficulties in the advisory relationship. Further, Dr. Smith may use this interaction to empower Tatyana in using the advisory relationship as an indicator of personal and professional growth by highlighting the risks taken and the relational courage Tatyana displayed through expression of her disappointment and frustration to Dr. Smith.

Discussion

As highlighted above, there are multiple possible points of entry for Dr. Smith to embody an RCT-informed theoretical grounding. Regardless of the selected point of entry (Luke & Bernard, 2006), it is imperative that Dr. Smith be authentic with her discomfort while being guided by anticipatory empathy as understood in RCT (Jordan, 2018; Rogers & Stanciu, 2015). To do so, Dr. Smith must acknowledge her limitations in awareness, and further express openness to learning about the parts she does not know. Consistent with the RCT tenets and recommendations for effective advising relationships (Ng et al., 2019), there is a call for intentionality from both the advisee and advisor. By intentionally attending to the rupture in the advising relationship, Dr. Smith has the opportunity of strengthening the advising relationship and modeling the negotiation of boundaries, roles, and expectations that in turn has the potential to foster relational resilience in both herself and Tatyana.

Application of RCT-informed advising with Dr. Smith and Tatyana illuminates the salience of mutuality within the working alliance in the advisory relationship as part of effective advising practice. Other scholars have stressed this saliency as well. First, empirically explored by Schlosser and Gelso (2001), the advisory working alliance was defined as "the portion of the relationship that reflects the connection between advisor and advisee that is made during work toward a common goal" (p. 158). When framed in this way, it is evident that the advisory relationship is delineated through a relational perspective that includes the basic tenets of RCT, primarily mutuality, authenticity, and engagement in a growth-fostering relationship (Jordan, 2018). Further, the outcome of advising, whether positive or negative, is dependent on the characteristics of both the advisor and advisee (Knox et al., 2006). This consideration is highlighted in the case presented through Dr. Smith's careful consideration of the salient characteristics of both Tatyana and herself as she determines an appropriate course of action.

Another important consideration is the advisee's level of development, which may vary widely. As Kimball and Campbell (2013) suggested, one's advising approach emerges through a process guided by one's interpretations of how best to support the developmental needs of students. Therefore, it is important to adopt a guiding theory to advising that attends to the uniqueness of each supervisee and their experiences (Kuo et al., 2017; McDonald, 2019) and reflects a responsiveness to their developmental needs (Barbuto et al., 2011). Similar to the role of the supervisor's development within developmental theories of supervision (Bernard & Goodyear, 2019), the advising process is further influenced by the advisor's own level of development, including their values and beliefs, assumptions, ascribed theories, and advising approaches and strategies. Within counselor education, it is common for one's counseling theory to serve as a guiding framework across other roles and contexts, including academic advising (Bernard & Goodyear, 2019). This practice is seen across disciplines, where advising scholars often borrow theoretical insights from other disciplines to inform their current knowledge base (McDonald, 2019; Musser & Yoder, 2013). This exchange has enriched our understanding of advising and further illuminated the opportunity to use RCT-informed advising within counselor education.

In the case of Dr. Smith, it is evident her grounding in RCT provided multiple points of intervention through which to address the rupture with Tatyana. These points of entry are conducive to the desired outcomes of advising and attentive to the needs of the advising process in general. Although the case illustration above focused on the rupture in the relationship, it is important to highlight the appropriateness of RCT in advising in general. Advisors can also use an RCT-informed perspective to meet a broader range of the developmental advising needs of their advisees in a way that is conducive to both personal and professional growth (Purgason et al., 2016). Doing so is consistent with advising literature that emphasizes the importance of theory-consistent and growth-promoting courses of action within the advising space (Kimball & Campbell, 2013; Musser & Yoder, 2013).

Implications

Despite the lack of formal training in advising (Barbuto et al., 2011), as well as the lack of institutional support for advising practices (Furr, 2018; Ng et al., 2019), advising continues to be an essential component of the duties of counselor educators. This manuscript illustrates an application of RCT-informed advising with the aim of promoting a theory-based approach to enhance the quality of the advisory process for both advisors and advisees. There are multiple implications for training, practice, and research.

We encourage incorporation of RCT-informed advising into the curriculum of doctoral students in counselor education. A natural fit for such integration would be intentional inclusion of advising training as part of professional issues and/or pedagogy instruction. This topic warrants increased attention within counselor education doctoral training. Supervision of RCT-informed advising could also familiarize new professionals with the additional requirements of their roles. Extending advising training into the doctoral internship experience or as a potential supervised or apprenticeship activity could provide ongoing mutual, authentic, growth-promoting engagements wherein the tenets of RCT are enacted and experienced in training, hopefully paralleling what the student replicates with their future advisees.

There are important implications for the practice of RCT-informed advising as well. First, as the theory-based advising and mentoring literature expands, there is a viable frame for the dissemination of RCT-informed advising into a wide range of disciplines across higher education. RCT-informed advising offers a practical option for incorporation and adaptation into relationally focused disciplines

like counselor education. In addition to its natural fit to relationally oriented disciplines, we contend that RCT-informed advising may in fact hold a particular promise in disciplines that have not traditionally attended to the inter- and intrapersonal processes associated with educational and professional development. Advising has moved beyond the academic domain of selecting appropriate classes for advancement in each field. Instead, it has shifted toward a multilayered and complex interaction between the developmental, academic, social, and institutional domains (Musser & Yoder, 2013). Therefore, a theoretical grounding in RCT would provide advisors with a framework that is easily translated into the shifting advising practice.

Although there is support for the application of RCT to varying domains within counselor education, specifically supervision and mentorship, there remains little research around RCT-informed advising. To advance the empirical grounding, researchers could begin to examine the outcomes of RCT-informed advising in counselor education, as well as across other disciplines. We encourage researchers to build on existing scholarship addressing the impact of the advising working alliance, particularly the impact of an RCT-informed advising working alliance. In addition, future research can investigate the differences across RCT-informed advising and other models of advising. To do so, both qualitative and quantitative inquiry are needed, and both can increase the visibility of RCT-informed advising as a viable option to be utilized across higher education.

Conclusion

RCT provides a powerful tool for the enhancement of advising across disciplines in higher education, particularly within counselor education and supervision. Counselor educators who can engage with their advisees through this lens may find that they are attending to the complex interactions between the multiple domains involved in advising, fostering greater personal and professional growth within themselves and their advisees. RCT advising offers a viable opportunity for new advising techniques to be implemented to promote creative ways of meeting the ever-increasing demands of higher education. Considering the increased attention of RCT in the counselor education literature in the last decade (Hammer et al., 2014; Lenz, 2016; Purgason et al., 2016; Rogers & Stanciu, 2015), RCT-informed advising can promote not only individual development, but also that of the larger profession through a shared language for collaboration in developing strategies, skills, and resources.

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Mentoring Doctoral Student Mothers in Counselor Education: A Phenomenological Study

Vanessa Kent, Helen Runyan, David Savinsky, Jasmine Knight

When the pursuit of doctoral studies and motherhood intersect, the risk of attrition increases. Although other studies have explored the challenges of student mothers in academia, this study looked at how mentorship might mediate them. This phenomenological study examined the mentoring experiences of doctoral student mothers or recent graduates in counselor education and supervision programs (*N* = 12). Unanimously, participants articulated that their professional identity was enhanced by their identity as mothers, but balancing multiple roles required supportive mentors. Participants described the personal qualities of effective faculty and peer mentors, many also mothers who understood their needs. Mentoring served as a protective factor in helping navigate barriers, providing academic and emotional encouragement, reducing isolation, and creating realistic timelines. Suggestions for mentoring programs and advocacy are discussed.

Keywords: mentoring, doctoral student mothers, counselor education, phenomenology, advocacy

Over the past decade, surveys have indicated incoming doctoral students are less traditional than previous generations (National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics [NCSES], 2017; Offerman, 2011). These students (e.g., women, minorities, and international students) may experience cultural maladjustment while attending traditionally structured academic institutions (Holley & Caldwell, 2012; Ku et al., 2008; NCSES, 2017). This may lead to dissatisfaction, isolation, and subsequent attrition (Holley & Caldwell, 2012; Ku et al., 2008; NCSES, 2017; Offerman, 2011; Stimpson & Filer, 2011).

Focusing on women, the number earning doctoral degrees has steadily increased over the past 20 years (NCSES, 2017). Percentages reached a record high in 2008–2009 as women earned slightly over 50% of all doctoral degrees, except in male-dominated fields, including engineering, mathematics, and physical science (Miller & Wai, 2015; NCSES, 2015). Furthermore, with a ratio of six females to one male completing bachelor's and master's degree programs yearly, the majority of those entering the doctoral pipeline are expected to be female (Miller & Wai, 2015). These incoming female doctoral students are likely to be in their prime childbearing years, in dual-income households if married, and caring for dependents (Lester, 2013; Offerman, 2011; Stimpson & Filer, 2011). Finding ways to assist these doctoral student mothers in completing a doctorate requires further investigation.

Although earning a degree in higher education can bring personal satisfaction, higher professional status, and economic gains, the process can also result in unforeseen stress and challenges to work–life balance, leading to dissatisfaction and attrition (Brus, 2006; Lynch, 2008; Martinez et al., 2013; Offerman, 2011; Stimpson & Filer, 2011). Despite the rigorous selection process, attrition rates for doctoral students hover between 40%–60% (Council of Graduate Schools, 2010). Beyond academics, extenuating factors that contribute to the attrition of doctoral students include stress; financial hardship; commitment conflicts; unexpected life interruptions; mental and physical health issues; and changes in the family structure,

Vanessa Kent, PhD, NCC, LCMHC-S, LMFT, is an assistant professor at Regent University. Helen Runyan, PhD, NCC, LPC, is an associate professor at Regent University. David Savinsky, PhD, ACS, LPC, LMFT, CSAC, is an associate professor at Regent University. Jasmine Knight, PhD, NCC, is an assistant professor at Regent University. Correspondence may be addressed to Vanessa Kent, 1000 University Drive, Virginia Beach, VA 23464, vaneken@regent.edu.

including having children (Brus, 2006; Lynch, 2008; Martinez et al., 2013). When the doctoral student is a new mother or the primary caregiver, these factors become exacerbated (Brus, 2006; Holm et al., 2015; Lester, 2013; Lynch, 2008; Stimpson & Filer, 2011). Because of the structural design of higher education and cultural pressures of motherhood that seem at odds with each other, graduate student mothers are at higher risk of attrition than almost any other American academic group (Lester, 2013; Lynch, 2008).

Challenges Facing Doctoral Student Mothers

The challenges of student mothers navigating the competing roles of academic scholar and primary caretaker are well documented (Holm et al., 2015; Lester, 2013; Lynch, 2008; Pierce & Herlihy, 2013; Trepal et al., 2014). Mothers pursuing doctoral degrees may find balancing academics and employment a daily challenge, compounded by the second shift of childcare and housework (Lynch, 2008; Pierce & Herlihy, 2013; Stimpson & Filer, 2011). Despite movement toward an egalitarian view of child-rearing among contemporary couples, the burden of overseeing the household duties and childcare remain largely the mother's responsibility (Lester, 2013; Medina & Magnuson, 2009; Misra et al., 2012). Student mothers juggling multiple roles report dissatisfaction in their work–life balance because of time and scheduling demands, as well as hindrances in the workplace and higher education (Brus, 2006; Holm et al., 2015; Lynch, 2008; Trepal et al., 2014). Research on support for this vulnerable population points to faculty and peer support as possible mitigating factors to attrition and dissatisfaction (Bruce, 1995; Holm et al., 2015; Trepal et al., 2014).

Mentoring Relationships That Mitigate Attrition

Research spanning almost two decades correlated strong advisor and mentor relationships with successful student outcomes (Bruce, 1995; Clark et al., 2000; Holley & Caldwell, 2012; Patton & Harper, 2003). Mentoring has been especially important for underrepresented populations such as international students; students of color; first-generation college graduates; women in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics (STEM) disciplines; and female students/faculty who were also mothers (Brown et al., 1999; Holm et al., 2015; Kendricks et al., 2013; Ku et al., 2008). A *mentor* is a person who provides professional and personal support to assist the less skilled mentee in becoming a full member of a particular profession (Brown et al., 1999; Clark et al., 2000). This study focuses on academic mentors, both formal and informal. Formal mentoring involves a faculty member, formally assigned to or requested by the student, whose roles may include but also extend well beyond that of an advisor, dissertation committee member, supervisor, or instructor (Hayes & Koro-Ljungberg, 2011; Patton & Harper, 2003). Informal mentoring can be categorized by who provides the mentoring: faculty or a peer. Informal faculty mentoring occurs as a faculty member organically connects with a student on common interests to provide support, often around motherhood, suggesting the importance of access to a faculty member who is also a mother (Hermann et al., 2014; Holm et al., 2015; Trepal et al., 2014). Peer mentoring provides that connection through an informal relationship between a more senior doctoral student and a junior doctoral student (Noonan et al., 2007). Peer mentoring may occur as part of a structured program, but it more often occurs organically as upperclassmen fill this need through joint interests, scholarly activities, or motherhood (Lynch, 2008; Noonan et al., 2007).

Shifting from a traditional hierarchical model, relational mentoring encompasses not only the advising relationship to promote career and professional development but also the genuine empathic relationship that emerges from a reciprocal, collaborative approach (Gammel & Rutstein-Riley, 2016; Kelch-Oliver et al., 2013). Results are greater accessibility to the mentor, opportunities to share knowledge in research and publishing, extended support to students, knowing students on a more personal level, fostering friendships, and building community (Brown et al., 1999; Bruce, 1995; Hadjioannou et al., 2007; Hayes & Koro-Ljungberg, 2011). Benefits of relational mentoring include mutual growth opportunities for both

the mentor and mentee, greater academic achievement, personal satisfaction, and increased social and emotional support (Gammel & Rutstein-Riley, 2016; Kelch-Oliver et al., 2013).

Connections with other student mothers is an important support mechanism, reducing isolation with increased social support (Hermann et al., 2014; Lynch, 2008; Patton & Harper, 2003; Trepal et al., 2014). Chief factors influencing female doctoral students' satisfaction in their programs were female faculty and peers serving in supportive/mentoring roles, sharing resources (such as childcare), addressing stress, and encouraging healthy choices around family life (Bruce, 1995; Brus, 2006; Holm et al., 2015; Trepal et al., 2014). Studies specific to African American women in psychology found that same race/gender mentorship was imperative in recruitment, retention, and training of this population (Kelch-Oliver et al., 2013; Patton, 2009).

Female mentorship may be an untapped resource in counselor education and supervision (CES), as there is little research exploring the mentoring of doctoral student mothers (Bruce, 1995; Holm et al., 2015; Trepal et al., 2014). Without clear guidelines on how mentoring might support doctoral student mothers, current mentoring programs and training practices may be inadequate. In this study, we sought to investigate the mentoring experiences of students who were navigating the dual roles of mother and student in CES programs. Although past studies have explored mentoring programs of doctoral students (Clark et al., 2000; Holley & Caldwell, 2012; Ku et al., 2008) and the experiences of student mothers in doctoral programs (Holm et al., 2015; Trepal et al. 2014), we sought to determine *how* mentoring benefits doctoral student mothers.

Method

Qualitative research is a suitable choice for investigating questions pertinent to counselor education, as it lends itself to rich data collection through interactions between the researcher and participants (Hays & Singh, 2012). A subset of qualitative research, phenomenological research is aimed at increasing understanding of the complexity of people's lives by examining the individual and collective experience of a particular phenomenon (Creswell, 2013). We chose a phenomenological approach to understand how student mothers experienced mentoring while in a CES program. This seemed to be the best lens through which to explore our research question: What is the lived experience of doctoral student mothers formally or informally mentored by faculty and/or peers? With a greater understanding of this phenomenon, counselor educators may apply this knowledge in recognizing and meeting the needs of student mothers to reduce attrition.

Research Team

Our research team consisted of a doctoral student mother (first author and now a faculty member) and three faculty members in a CACREP-accredited CES program at a small, private university. During their doctoral studies, two of the three women were mothers of young children and the male faculty member became a first-time father. Currently, the faculty researchers are advancing through their tenure track while parenting elementary-age children.

Before the study, we met as a team to discuss our experiences of mentorship as students and junior faculty as well as how we experienced the climate of our institution toward families. The first author shared that her research interest grew out of her own experience as well as the struggles of doctoral student mothers in her cohort, necessitating support from peers and faculty members. Eager to learn how doctoral student mothers experienced faculty and peer mentoring across institutions, we watched this study begin to take shape. Acknowledging our biases and bracketing our assumptions,

we set them aside to allow a fresh perspective of the participants' experiences to emerge. LeVasseur (2003) described this process of bracketing as suspending understanding of the topic to shift toward a position of curiosity.

Procedure and Participants

   After receiving approval from the university's Human Subject Review Committee, we recruited participants using a professional counseling electronic mailing (CESNET-L) and by emailing CES department heads at four universities in the Eastern United States. The email provided criteria for the study with a link to the demographic questionnaire and informed consent form. Criteria included: (a) completed at least one year of doctoral studies in a CACREP-accredited CES program or had graduated within 2 years; (b) formally or informally mentored by faculty, peers, or both; and (c) mother of at least one child below the age of 18 residing with them during their counselor education doctoral training. Not wanting to limit participants because of location, we chose to interview participants using a telehealth video platform. This resulted in a wide geographical sample as shown in Table 1. University types included three Research 1, one historically Black college and university (HBCU), one hybrid, and seven liberal arts institutions. Twelve participants were selected to be interviewed based on meeting criteria and in keeping with sample size guidelines for phenomenological studies (Creswell, 2013). Participants ranged in age from 29–37 ($M = 34$, $SD = 2.4$). Participants identified racially as European American ($n = 9$) and African American ($n = 3$). Ten became pregnant during their doctoral studies: six were first-time mothers, and two miscarried twice. Children's ages ranged from 10 months to 12 years, with most under the age of 3. In addition to being students, all participants were employed during their studies as school counselors, in private practice, or in agency clinical work. Six of the seven interviewees were employed as an adjunct professor, school counselor, researcher/consultant, program director of a counseling department, private practice counselor, and university counseling center director; the seventh was a new doctoral graduate.

Table 1

Participant Demographic Information

Geographic Location		Status in CES Program		Pregnant While in Program		Ages of Participants' Children		Type of Mentor by Gender	
Midwest	2	2nd year	2	1st year	2	3 years or under	6	Faculty	Female: 16 Male: 4
Northeast	2	3rd year	3	2nd year	3	4–6 years old	6	Peer	Female: 13
Northwest	2	Graduated ≤ 6 months	5	3rd year	4	7–12 years old	4	Supervisor	Female: 7
Southeast	4								
Southwest	2	Graduated 2 years	2	4th year	2	13 years old +	1	Other	Female: 1

Data Sources

   Each participant completed a demographic questionnaire and signed an informed consent form for voluntary participation. The questionnaire inquired about age; sex; race/ethnicity; relationship status;

length of time in the CES program; year graduated; if they were pregnant or adopted children and the number of children/their ages while in the program; and if they were mentored by faculty, peer, or both.

The first author conducted the 12 interviews through V-SEE, a Stanford-created, telehealth videoconferencing application that supports online collaboration. It allowed the participants and research interviewer to interact synchronously via audio and video. Interview length ranged from 60–75 minutes as participants described their mentoring experiences. The interview settings were descriptively "in the field," as they were interviewed in their offices, cars, and homes. Three had their babies/toddlers with them during the home interviews. Participants described their university type, cohort structure, and employment status. The first author asked each participant open-ended questions using a semi-structured interview format developed from our review of the literature on mentoring, motherhood, and issues concerning doctoral student mothers. The questions included: (a) "What factors, if any, influenced your decision to be mentored?" (b) "Can you describe your mentoring experience in detail?" (c) "Can you speak to your work–study–life balance while being mentored?" (d) "Can you speak of your academic progress and/or professional development while being mentored?" (e) "Describe the characteristics or traits of a mentor that are important for doctoral student mothers," and (f) "What, if anything, could a counselor education department do to promote successful mentoring experiences for doctoral student mothers?" With qualitative inquiry, the goal is to include enough participants to adequately understand the phenomenon in question (Hays & Singh, 2012). Wanting to capture a fresh perspective from these doctoral students who were mentored, many while becoming mothers for the first time, all 12 interviews were retained, yielding in-depth descriptions of their experiences. Pseudonyms were assigned to participants prior to data analysis to protect their identities.

Data Analysis
Phenomenological data analysis is concerned with examining participants' experiences to understand the depth and meaning of those lived experiences (Hays & Singh, 2012; Moustakas, 1994). Delving into large amounts of transcription data, the goal is to develop a composite description or essence of the experience that represents the group as a whole (Moustakas, 1994). The first author began the inductive method of analysis by engaging in horizontalization, the process of identifying non-repetitive, non-overlapping statements from the first three interview transcripts (Hays & Singh, 2012; Moustakas, 1994). Next, the first author clustered these statements in units of meaning or themes and then wrote textual descriptions of "what" the participants experienced, including verbatim examples from the transcripts (Creswell, 2013; Moustakas, 1994). The first and second investigators met weekly to discuss and rework these themes. From there, they wrote a structural description, "how" the experience happened in the context of the setting or circumstances and who was involved (Creswell, 2013; Moustakas, 1994). The first author used these themes to analyze the rest of the transcripts with care given to reanalyzing previous interviews as new themes or subthemes emerged. The team met to finalize the central themes and subthemes that emerged collectively from the participants' reflections, contextualizing them into a holistic understanding of the essence of the mentoring experience (Hays & Singh, 2012).

Validation strategies included recognizing and controlling for research bias through bracketing, capturing participants' viewpoints through substantial engagement, and triangulation through cross-checking codes and themes and by using thick participant descriptions (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). Using basic member checking, participants reviewed their transcripts for accuracy, with two making clarifying comments (Creswell, 2013; Hays & Singh, 2012). The first and second authors met weekly to process reflection notes to bracket any biases and discuss themes to allow triangulation of data (Creswell, 2013; Hays & Singh, 2012). The two other members of the team reviewed the themes/subthemes matched with descriptive statements for cross-checking purposes

(Hays & Singh, 2012; Lincoln & Guba, 1985). To address confirmability and transferability, they kept an audit trail beginning with interview notes, transcripts, reflective journals, and coding pages with descriptive statements. Finally, the authors provided thick descriptions, allowing the reader to enter into the study to a greater degree to reach their own conclusions and stir further discourse around these critical issues in counselor education (Denzin & Lincoln, 2011).

Results

Three overarching themes centered on identity: the qualities and shifting identities of doctoral student mothers, the qualities and roles of faculty/professional and peer mentors, and the barriers and hardships that led to losses and unmet goals despite mentorship experiences. Participants shared how mentoring evolved around their identities as mothers, students, and professionals; what they experienced as support or discrimination by faculty and peers; how their mentors served as a protective factor despite hardships and barriers; and what was needed in terms of advocacy to successfully develop counselor educator identities.

Theme I: Identities and Qualities of Doctoral Student Mothers

Perseverance and resilience characterized the lived experiences of these doctoral student mothers facing unexpected challenges that threatened to slow progress or impede career goals. Sara, who found out she was pregnant shortly after being accepted into her doctoral program, shared, "I ended up having a really horrible labor and a C-section. My baby spent the first week in ICU. We were only home a short time after having major surgery, but I still went back to school 3 weeks later." Natalie also shared her version of perseverance: "I took my comps when I was 38 weeks pregnant [laughter]. I had to keep standing up and going to the bathroom. 'Then I said, I can have this baby now!'"

Making the shift from student to mother or mother to professional requires integrating multiple identities and corresponding roles. "I always had it drilled into my head by my mother that I would be called 'doctor' before I was called 'mom.' So many of us are both education-oriented and family-oriented, being in counseling," remarked Allison. Similarly, Lisa voiced how she embraced her changing identity: "You grow in confidence as a person and through motherhood. Learning what worked and what didn't work. Just having a better sense of myself, my strengths, knowing my worth, knowing my value, and just feeling secure in it."

With the multiple identities came the challenge of meeting academic rigor and motherhood responsibilities, often with conflicting timelines. Although all the participants described themselves as serious students, they made it clear that their children were their number one priority. They willingly sacrificed time and personal needs in hopes of careers that offered greater flexibility and financial stability. "Yes, you're exhausted because you are running a marathon every single day. At the end of the day, you don't have that little space for yourself," said Lisa. Mothers often felt the pull between having to choose work or studies and time with their families. Bethany, a school counselor, explained, "I struggle with mommy guilt even with my job, as my child is one of the first ones in the building and last ones to leave every day." Bethany also recounted, "One of the biggest mom guilts is a picture of my child around the age of 5. I am sitting in a chair surrounded by books and papers as he fell asleep on the couch waiting for me to do something with him. That was really tough." Amy described her typical schedule:

> I get up at 6:00, play with the kids, get them off, and get to work . . . until 10:00 pm, kids come in my bed and snuggle. Then I finish grades and go to bed at 3:00 am.

100% of the weekends are dedicated to the children. Want them to say . . . 'Mom was present.' That's hard when the career path and academics are so consuming.

Lisa felt inadequate in both roles at times: "I'm working so hard. . . . and I am not a good enough mom and I'm not a good enough student. . . . not doing a great job at anything."

Several participants reported that their mentors helped them establish healthy boundaries and taught them how to prioritize commitments. Tonya shared, "Today is going to be about work . . . or today is going to be about school. I appreciated having faculty members who had young families, knowing that someone understood that." When the demands of work became unhealthy, Bethany revealed it was her mentor who said, "You've got to reshuffle. You are drowning, and you are miserable. You have to let some of this school stuff go." On prioritizing, Natalie shared, "When I went into this program, I said that I am not going to miss anything in my personal life, even if it takes 4 or 5 years."

Doctoral student mothers commonly identified as non-traditional students. Not only was this gender-influenced, it was also the result of added caregiving responsibilities that prevented them from engaging in opportunities afforded to traditional students. They often felt isolated from their peers or labeled as less committed, which resulted in differential treatment and exclusions. Lisa explained:

> I always felt like some kind of outlier . . . like all the other cohorts are like these tight little units. I'm always slipping in and then dropping back out. Would see them on Facebook all hanging out and going out for drinks . . . or they would be publishing or going to conferences. I was working and taking care of children.

On being non-traditional, Morgan, a mother of two, working 25–27 hours per week, shared, "No one in my cohort had children and none had outside jobs." Several participants noted how their male counterparts were able to go full-time without having to deal with family-related interruptions, be questioned for having babies, experience guilt when traveling, or juggle as many commitments. Kayla, reflecting on experiencing negative remarks about her clingy child when she had to travel for work, noted, "They had wives that stayed at home, so their experience has been completely different." On comparing her needs to those of traditional students, Lisa shared, "Mentoring for students who don't have kids, it's . . . talking about publishing together or presenting together. For me, it really is how are you helping me navigate this program."

Theme II: Identities and Qualities of Effective Mentors

For all participants, mentoring was more than academic advising. Often, it was the mentor's combined qualities of temperament, leadership, scholarship, and friendship that helped these doctoral student mothers navigate their programs effectively. Participants described the criteria for selecting their mentors: specific personality traits, women who were also mothers, who shared research interests, and those who modeled career–life balance. The three African American women also considered race an essential factor in mentor selection. Tonya, the sole woman of color in her cohort, connected with other African American faculty outside her department and graduates who were mothers, while Dana experienced mentoring by most of the faculty at her HBCU. Allison based her mentorship selection on personality: "I needed someone who doesn't have my exact personality but who can keep my ideas focused and keep me on track—tough, but supportive."

Some chose female mentors because they believed they would provide greater support and speak to the female experience in academia. Lisa's mentor selection was through gender matching: "I

chose the only woman in my program that has children . . . so I feel like she gets me, and she gets the experience of motherhood and has a great perspective on things." Amy shared that her mentor "could speak to my strengths and could commiserate the experience of being a woman in academia."

Participants described effective mentors as encouraging, supportive, and flexible, displaying qualities of warmth, empathy, and trustworthiness. Most depicted their mentors as master cheerleaders and challengers. Morgan explained that two mentors filled different roles: "I have the mentor's office that I go cry into . . . and the office that I go in and come out sharper for. I think you need both of them." Sharon chose four mentors: "One was especially about writing and research . . . one that was just about my self-care and well-being, and one primarily about the academics. . . . [and] one that kind of combined it all, but who I could talk to about the mommy guilt."

Mentors provided a balance between the demand for excellence and practicality and compassion. Creative flexibility and realistic expectations without judgment rounded out the mentors' qualities. Mentors were available beyond the usual office hours and willing to meet at convenient locations such as a coffee shop or home. Morgan commented on the open-door policy of her mentor: "Availability is important. You can walk in and talk . . . whether it is just casual conversation or coming in with a need." Participants described how their mentors went above and beyond to provide creative accommodations. Lisa shared the flexibility of her mentor: "We co-taught and she would work around whatever my schedule was. We would have meetings after the kids went to bed. She really understood my situation and was just so affirming."

Mentoring had a personal side that provided not only a safe interchange of ideas but allowed for vulnerability and transparency. As doctoral student mothers verbalized their hardships, their trusted mentors were not only an emotional outlet but a therapeutic balm providing empathy and care. Their mentors often shared similar lived experiences that created a deeper connection, emotional bonding, and lasting friendship. Sharon found comfort when she faced a personal challenge: "My youngest child was diagnosed with autism very early. When I went to my mentor, she shared that her child was diagnosed with autism as well. We were able to connect and really process our lives as working moms." During hardships and personal challenges, mentors provided comfort and encouragement. Tonya shared how her mentor was there for her after her miscarriage: "I told [my mentor] that I had this little person inside of me and now I don't. She started crying and asked me, 'What do you need right now?'" Tonya's mentor encouraged her to put off writing her comps for a semester to process the loss.

Effective mentors provided professional modeling and career guidance, being personally supportive while navigating the logistics of becoming a counselor educator. Mentors endorsed them for leadership positions, taught them how to negotiate salaries, and helped create a pathway for career satisfaction. On developing their professional identity, graduates were indebted to the mentors. Bethany explained how mentorship groomed her for research: "When I was accepted to the program, [my mentor] took me under her wing and said, 'Let's find a research project to do together.' So we wrote a grant for it and she mentored me through that whole process." Natalie explained how her mentor helped develop her professional identity: "She pushed me to see myself better. . . . something that women have a hard time doing is advocating for themselves in the workplace. She not only modeled that, but she taught me how to do it."

Participants valued the family orientation of their mentors and voiced the need for their mentors to be family advocates. Without these advocates, many felt unequipped to compete with negative voices and dismissive attitudes. Allison shared her experience of feeling supported in her decision to get pregnant:

My advisor/mentor and I were having one of those heart-to-heart conversations. I actually started crying and said, "All my husband and I talk about is babies . . . every weekend. I'm ready; but education-wise, it just doesn't seem like a possibility." My advisor looked me straight in the eye and said, "If you want a baby, have a baby." I shouldn't have needed permission, but I wanted to know that I was going to be supported.

Mentors helped doctoral student mothers create timelines that respected their family needs as well as their academic and professional goals. Morgan's mentor said, "We'll navigate your schedule in an appropriate way that works for the program and for your family." She then built her plan based upon her schedule and personal journey.

Effective mentoring paralleled hallmarks of counselor education in promoting wellness, advocacy, and empowerment. Seven of the 12 described how their mentors practiced good self-care and modeled positive well-being. Allison discussed how her mentor helped to put work–life balance in perspective: "She was a role model of balance. She would say, 'You're working too hard. You need to spend some time with your family.' I have been able to come out of the program . . . [with] great work–life balance." Mentors' practice of self-care made it easier to emulate wellness practices and achieve greater work–life balance. Allison summed it up: "My mentor has this beautiful, wonderfully doting family. . . . Successful children, a supportive husband, and a career—that's the type of woman I want to be."

Participants described how mentoring served as a protective factor in reducing attrition. Their rich mentoring experiences helped them succeed in the program and manage the challenges of conflicting roles. Their mentors' encouragement and support became their lifeline through transitions such as marriage, pregnancy, divorce, and illness. Mentors were especially protective of participants facing cultural or institutional barriers, advocating during their pregnancies and beyond. Allison described how she felt protected from other faculty by her mentor throughout her pregnancy: "I was tired a lot during my pregnancy. If other faculty members got upset that I wasn't able to fulfill a requirement, she went to bat for me . . . supporting me by saying, 'Well, in all fairness, she is pregnant.'"

Qualities of Peer Mentors

Three-fourths of the participants were peer mentored, having sought out peers who were also mothers. Although only two of the participants were involved in a peer mentoring program, all 12 conveyed the value of having a more senior member of their program available for questions, advice, encouragement, and engagement in academic activities. Many shared how mentors offered supportive advice, as they were familiar with the journey ahead. Nicole said, "Peer mentoring is beneficial because you get to see someone who has recently been there, and having others from older cohorts can provide help and insight." Participants gravitated toward other mothers who understood their plight and built mentorships based on the common ground of motherhood intersecting with student life. Peer mentors shared their journeys, insider information on coursework, and realistic timelines; they became fellow presenters and publishers, and provided encouragement along the way. Bethany shared that she often wrote with a peer mentor who understood when she said, "Let's have a realistic mom timeline." Natalie shared the reciprocal nature of peer mentoring: "She and I relied a lot on each other just for support and mentorship. She had her baby 6 months before I did and I am learning a lot about the work–life balance and stuff from her."

Peer mentorship was relational as well as academic. Several participants shared how peer mentoring helped reduce feelings of isolation, as their availability for meet-ups and socializing differed greatly from their peers who did not have children. Tonya explained how she was able to receive encouragement over

mommy guilt from a peer mentor who was also a mother. She "talked to her a lot about what worked for her, how she really tried to put her son first . . . which was helpful for me to hear, because I just felt terrible about it all the time." Navigating the program without a faculty mentor, Kayla found much of her support through her peer mentor: "We became close and she would let me know about the things to be looking for, to be preparing for upcoming classes. She really had my best interest in mind." On the close friendships forged through mentorship, Dana stated, "She has become my sister. . . . We talk about frustrations, helping me lay boundaries and be okay leaving my child."

Participants provided specific ideas as to how to implement peer mentorship programs. Ideas included identifying other student mothers for networking opportunities and information, such as childcare services, understanding school policies, and general support. They also recommended working through organizations such as Chi Sigma Iota to create networks, organizing graduate student meet-ups that are family-friendly, and having older cohorts reach out to newer cohorts throughout the year.

Theme III: Identifying Barriers Facing Doctoral Student Mothers

Stigma and discrimination, lack of accommodations, and need for advocacy emerged from the participant interviews. These barriers produced the hardships these mothers encountered, generating losses and unmet career aspirations. Ten out of 12 expressed awareness of faculty and students' bias toward non-traditional students, especially women who had families. A majority of the participants felt that as doctoral student mothers, they did not have a strong voice in the institutions that they represented. Often, attitudes of faculty toward doctoral student mothers were dismissive and discriminating when they did not fit into the traditional mold of academia. Others determined that faculty and department heads were simply unaware of the hardships and needs of student mothers and therefore perceived them as less motivated or incapable of meeting the rigorous demands of academia. Perhaps some experienced it most deeply through the lack of research and training opportunities, such as graduate assistantships (GA). Amy discussed her frustration and discouragement at being overlooked for a GA position: "I got the strong inclination that it was because I [got] married and that I couldn't dedicate myself as a typical GA. . . . I would have liked to have been given a chance to prove myself."

Others also felt that their limited visibility resulted in biased and discriminatory attitudes from faculty and peers. Lisa explained feeling written off as "not the person looked [at] to do a presentation with someone or to do a publication." While her peers were writing with faculty, she regretted that she couldn't "be physically present . . . especially when [she] was working and trying to juggle all of these roles."

Over half of the participants experienced negative attitudes toward their decisions to marry or start their families while in their doctoral programs. Lisa shared that "a faculty member told me point blank that I shouldn't have a second child in the program." Amy shared the messages she received on becoming pregnant in her last year of coursework: "Comments from students and faculty were like 'Why can't you just wait until after you are done as you are so close?' or 'What are your plans when you have a kid?'" Bethany explained how the faculty's lack of understanding of her minimum progress on her dissertation during her season as a mom, new wife, and full-time school counselor was demoralizing: "For my [program evaluation] this year, I received a grade of no progress in all areas . . . so I have two articles published and won a regional school counselor of the year award. I walked away feeling like I don't measure up."

Many participants spoke of the feeling of invisibility as doctoral student mothers by the lack of accommodations such as lactation facilities, childcare options, and clear or even existent leave of absence

policies. Of the participants interviewed, only two spoke of having access to childcare on campus. Most had to rely on partners, parents, babysitters, or other students to meet these needs, especially those needing evening hours or experiencing long commutes. During emergencies, when childcare failed or a child was sick, these mothers were at the mercy of professors, department chairs, and supervisors to decide if they could get coverage for their duties or bring their babies to meetings, classes, or groups. Few felt childcare issues or illnesses were justification for missing classes or meetings. Similarly, lactation facilities were haphazard, as the majority of buildings had no dedicated nursing rooms. These new mothers had to use student lounges, borrow windowless offices, pump in their cars, or get up early to pump to avoid the hassle on campus. Sharon revealed that "the only place to pump was the bathroom or car. I don't feed my child in the bathroom so I'm not pumping in the bathroom."

Finally, participants described frustration over the lack of clear policies when attempting to stop the doctorate clock for maternity leave and in taking time off from assistantship positions that carried weighty financial penalties. Some maneuvered through with placeholder internships, others accumulated hours so that they could take off after their babies were born, and still others shifted down to part-time. In most cases, their mentors helped them find the path of least hardship and greatest flexibility. Lisa reflected on a lack of clear policies: "There need to be better structures to support women and support children. It shouldn't all have to fall on me, because I'm always going to come up short." Despite these barriers, five participants were satisfied with the support provided and viewed their department as accommodating non-traditional students effectively even with ambiguous policies.

Regardless of the hardships encountered, what participants regretted the most was their unmet career aspirations. These doctoral student mothers worked diligently to complete their programs but often had significant delays. The range of doctoral completion/expected completion was 3–7 years. Some regrets included not being able to complete hours for licensure, having fewer research opportunities, presenting less often at conferences, and missing out on other duties that would have enhanced their curriculum vitae. Allison lamented her losses: "I wasn't able to commit the time to seeing clients, as I didn't want to be at the clinic until 9:00 pm when my son goes to bed." Lisa added humor to her dilemma of unfulfilled aspirations: "I want to be a full-time faculty member, tenure track at the end of this. That is going to be really challenging because my CV is very short. I am going to attach pictures of my children."

Call for Advocacy and Awareness

Although discrimination and other barriers in higher education institutions were fairly commonplace, participants articulated several solutions: (a) expand mentorship opportunities, (b) teach and model work–life balance, (c) improve accommodations for students with families, (d) provide professional opportunities around flexible scheduling, (e) increase awareness and support from faculty, and (f) promote advocacy at departmental and university levels. Five participants had already positioned themselves in the role of mentors and advocates for those coming behind them. Three were involved with research that highlighted these issues. "Mentorship should be a requirement and not an option because we know we work well if we have mentors," remarked Sharon. Dana suggested that graduate programs should survey students to determine the climate of the program and if students are receiving mentorship, and identify mentors who could best address their needs. Bethany believed that universities must expand mentorship, even if it means extending beyond department lines: "Counselor ed departments need to say, 'Hey, we can't meet all of your needs as a mother, or a single mother, but I know someone who can, and I want to be intentional and connect you with this person.'" Bethany also suggested that "peer support groups would be really cool. I was the 'lone wolf' for a little bit. Could create campus-wide support groups for graduate students . . . and provide childcare and free pizza for the kids." The important piece was not having to navigate this alone, as Sara remarked: "Facilitating

connection between doctoral student mothers, rather than us having to find our own connections, would be helpful. Making sure there's a space for moms."

The main component named was to increase the visibility of the needs of student mothers and provide an understanding of their experiences by shifting the mindset of lowered expectations by faculty and peers to knowing that they can and will be successful with support. Advocacy requires understanding the experiences of women, especially mothers, and identifying the barriers they still face in academia and the workplace. Sara shared the need for greater equity for doctoral student mothers, saying that it "isn't fair that women who have decided to be moms have to put their own dreams secondary. Women need to know that they are welcome and there is a place for them if they do decide to get pregnant."

Participants suggested that counselor education programs should teach how to create a framework of work–life balance. Flexible timelines were part of the template for success. Allison suggested that timelines could be a helpful option for those considering doing both doctoral work and motherhood, because her mentor said, "Don't do it until after second year . . . [it's a] lot easier to stop and start the dissertation process."

Providing for physical needs, such as having a lactation room, was also critical to sending a welcoming message. Participants described the need for maternity and sick leave policies that were family-friendly. Participants agreed that they needed faculty and departments to acknowledge their capability to complete their doctorates, accept their value to the profession, and support their life choices. Allison voiced a clear directive for faculty and peer mentors:

> The biggest characteristic needed for a mentor is supporting and that it just takes one person . . . one relationship at the school who was going to be accepting of me regardless and who was going to help me with my goals . . . not just my goals to be a PhD but [my] goal to be a mother and a good wife.

Discussion

Participants' voices highlighted how, with the support of their mentors, they were able to navigate the often murky waters of a PhD program. Perhaps because 10 of the 12 mothers were pregnant while in their program, they neither cared nor were able to hide their motherhood identity. This is only the second study at the time of this review that specifically included women who were pregnant while in CES programs. Similar to the findings of Holm and colleagues (2015), these participants viewed motherhood as a positive attribute that blended well with CES principles in enhancing their work and vice versa.

Participants experienced mentoring as relational and protective. Building on the findings of several studies that suggested mentoring might add a protective factor for success and satisfaction (Holm et al., 2015; Lynch, 2008; Neale-McFall & Ward, 2015; Trepal et al., 2014), this study found that mentors focused on providing logistical support to bolster academic progress while fostering work–life balance to promote the overall well-being of the student. These mentors provided emotional support for the participants' decision to become pregnant and provided regular check-ins throughout the pregnancy, new motherhood, and in many cases, beyond graduation into a professorship.

Also important to this study was the reciprocal relationship. Beyond responding with care and compassion, mentors shared their own motherhood experiences that mirrored their mentees. Supervisors

who expressed vulnerability increased the feeling of friendship and deepening of the relationship. This supported other research that described mentoring relationships that include an emotional connection that was both empathic and empowering (Gammel & Rutstein-Riley, 2016; Holm et al., 2015; Trepal et al., 2014). In a similar finding to that emerging from Kelch-Oliver and colleagues' (2013) study of mentorship, the three African American participants experienced "mothering" by female African American faculty mentors and the "sisterhood" of peer mentoring that went beyond academic walls. For these women, mentoring helped navigate cultural barriers. Not only was it important that they have female faculty, but also choosing women who lived under "double minority" as Patton (2009, p. 71) described gave them both perspective and support around the complexity of race, gender, and motherhood in academic settings and society as a whole.

Doctoral student mothers connecting with other student mothers reported experiencing greater encouragement and satisfaction in those academic peer relationships compared with their relationships with peers without children. Similar to previous findings (Lynch, 2008; Trepal et al., 2014), peer mentoring by other student mothers reduced feelings of isolation, as often these women were the sole mothers in their cohort. They relied on other mothers in earlier cohorts or recent graduates to guide them on how to balance academics and family life.

Participants who had wellness and work–life balance modeled felt better equipped to pursue an academic career path, while those who had poor work–life balance modeled felt less prepared to be successful in academic institutions. Participants who experienced greater discrimination from their institution lacking in family-friendly policies shared their intentions to put their family's needs first by accepting non-academic jobs, moving closer to relatives, or waiting until their children were older to enter a tenure-track position. This coincides with decades of research (Alexander-Albritton & Hill, 2015; Wolfinger et al., 2008) on graduate women with academic careers that are perceived as non-supportive of family–work balance.

Results also gave voice to the need for change that promotes advocacy concerning parenthood and family-friendly accommodations to aid in decreasing discrimination, both structurally and psychologically. These women had already become advocates and peer mentors. Congruent to earlier research findings, participants identified the need for institutional support in the form of establishing peer mentorship networks that connect other mothers across cohorts and departments, clarifying maternity leave policies, adopting non-penalizing pause-the-clock policies for dissertation work, offering accommodations such as lactation rooms and childcare, and providing flexibility around timelines (Holley & Caldwell, 2012; Holm et al., 2015; Lester, 2013; Lynch, 2008; Stimpson & Filer, 2011). Finally, participants challenged counselor educators to lead the way in addressing inequalities and dismissive attitudes of motherhood in academia by creating a level of openness to family life and choosing to support their students' goals as counselor educators and mothers.

Limitations and Future Directions

This study has limitations because of transferability issues, the possibility of research bias, and delimiting criteria. Although major geographic regions and university types were represented, participants were racially, culturally, and economically similar, as all were married and in dual-income families. As this study recruited only mothers in CES programs, implications from this study for doctoral student fathers who are primary caregivers or doctoral student mothers in other disciplines may not be transferable. Additionally, several mothers in this study had children with medical or mental health issues, but this study did not specifically set out to focus on families with special needs.

Concerning the research design, as research instruments, we may have inadvertently interjected personal biases into the interview process and coding. The goal was to minimize this through bracketing, journaling, member checking, and reviewing themes with research members. Although semi-structured interview questions guided the research and allowed for organic responses, perhaps another approach might have yielded additional themes. All the participants held jobs in addition to their studies and motherhood duties. Several discussed the effects of work on life balance and needing to reduce hours to part-time, but no distinct theme emerged. Perhaps a specific question on how mentoring may mediate the strains of employment might reveal additional content. Finally, the experiences recorded represent women who remained in their programs. With attrition close to 50% (Council of Graduate Schools, 2010), this research did not address those who dropped out of the program, so other needs or barriers may be missed.

Suggestions for future research include either expanding the concept of caregiving or narrowing the focus to specific sub-groups. Specific to CES, research might investigate mentoring from a faculty point of view to determine why and how faculty choose to mentor, as well as any training for the role. A focus group or interviewing both the mentor and other faculty who interacted with these student mothers might also add to the thickness of the context. Revealed reciprocal benefits that mentors and mentees incur in their relationship could be applied to future training programs for counselor educators. A study specific to peer mentorship might yield unique findings and inform strategies for launching or enhancing successful programs. Quantitative studies might evaluate the effectiveness of existing mentoring programs and expand them for non-traditional students.

Conclusion

Findings from this phenomenological study are cautiously optimistic, as they appear to strengthen the body of knowledge around the importance of relational mentoring and suggest it may be an important protective factor for doctoral student mothers. Research suggests that mentoring is an effective means of support for women (Bruce, 1995; Holm et al., 2015; Kelch-Oliver et al., 2013), but in this study, it appeared to be the most salient component for successful completion of their doctoral programs. Combining the effects of dual roles, medical and mental health hardships, isolation, lack of family-friendly accommodations and policies, and struggles with work–life balance made the mentoring experience essential.

Adding to the body of knowledge around mentoring, this research denotes specific qualities of effective mentors and provides rich descriptions of the relationships and roles valued by these student mothers. This may be helpful in CES training, in selecting future mentors, and in setting up mentorship programs. Equipped with clear directives, CES departments can develop mentorship programs, pairing senior professor mentors with junior professors to teach mentoring skills, rewarding faculty for outstanding mentorship, establishing peer mentoring programs, and developing alumni mentorship opportunities. Within programs and across campus, faculty and staff can assist in connecting student and faculty mothers, promote family support groups, and organize family-inclusive activites. Meanwhile, counselor educators can provide flexibility around scheduling comprehensive exams, dissertation timelines, and research opportunities. Counselor educators can lead in bringing this issue to the discussion table around program development and advocacy initiatives. Medina and Magnuson's (2009) statement that "Mothers are the people through whom others' lives are changed" (p. 90) fits well with the ideals of counselor educators; therefore, retaining these mothers in higher education is an important endeavor.

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nbcc

"They Stay With You": Counselor Educators' Emotionally Intense Gatekeeping Experiences

Daniel A. DeCino, Phillip L. Waalkes, Amanda Dalbey

Emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences can require counselor educators to engage in a complicated, time- and energy-consuming, and draining series of events that can last years and involve legal proceedings. Research related to counselor educators' experiences of intense emotions while gatekeeping remains limited. The aim of this transcendental phenomenological study was to investigate counselor educators' (*N* = 11) emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences. Five themes emerged from the data: early warning signs, elevated student misconduct, dismissal, legal interactions, and change from experience. By being transparent about their feelings and challenges regarding emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences, counselor educators may compel other faculty, counselors in the field, and doctoral students to be better prepared for emotional gatekeeping experiences.

Keywords: gatekeeping, counselor educators, transcendental phenomenological, emotionally intense, experiences

Gatekeeping is an important role for counselor educators in order to uphold ethical standards within the counseling profession and to protect clients, students, and faculty (Homrich & Henderson, 2018). Allowing unprepared individuals to become counselors can impede positive client outcomes in therapy and even harm clients (Homrich & Henderson, 2018). The American Counseling Association's *ACA Code of Ethics* (2014) defined *gatekeeping* as "the initial and ongoing academic, skill, and dispositional assessment of students' competency for professional practice, including remediation and termination as appropriate" (p. 20). In addition, the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP; 2015) standards require counseling program faculty to follow gatekeeping procedures in line with university policy and the profession's ethical codes.

Previous researchers have explored gatekeeping procedures (Swank & Smith-Adcock, 2014), gatekeeping policy (Rust et al., 2013), models for evaluating student counselor competence (Lumadue & Duffey, 1999), and problematic student behaviors (Henderson & Dufrene, 2013). Although research has focused on gatekeeping in counselor training, how counselor educators experience emotions tied to gatekeeping practices remains relatively unknown. Faculty who have engaged in some gatekeeping practices (e.g., remediation and dismissal) have reported experiencing strong emotions that may negatively impact the gatekeeping process (Wissel, 2014). Therefore, the purpose of this transcendental phenomenological study was to illuminate counselor educators' emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences. We defined *emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences* as multilayered, complex, time-extended events that counselor educators identify as emotionally memorable.

Emotions and Gatekeeping

In more serious cases, gatekeeping can be a multilayered series of interactions with administrators, university appeals boards, and lawyers (Homrich & Henderson, 2018). Ziomek-Daigle and Christensen (2010) framed counselor educators' gatekeeping in terms of *preadmission screening*, *postadmission screening*,

Daniel A. DeCino, PhD, NCC, LPC (Colorado), is an assistant professor at the University of South Dakota. Phillip L. Waalkes, PhD, NCC, ACS, is an assistant professor at the University of Missouri–St. Louis. Amanda Dalbey, MA, graduated from the University of South Dakota with a master's degree in clinical mental health counseling. Correspondence may be addressed to Daniel DeCino, 414 E. Clark St., Vermillion, SD 57069, daniel.decino@usd.edu.

remediation plan, and *remediation outcome* phases. In many cases, students and educators often proceed through Ziomek-Daigle and Christensen's linear gatekeeping phases, but in other cases, gatekeeping is non-linear. In these non-linear cases, a student may be dismissed from their program, file an appeal, and be granted re-admittance. In these intense gatekeeping scenarios, a considerable amount of attention, time, and energy are often required of counselor educators. Although Ziomek-Daigle and Christensen's phases are aimed to promote more structured gatekeeping practices, little is known about what phases, specific topics, or dimensions of counselor educators' experiences with intense gatekeeping may exist.

A fear of legal consequences as a result of gatekeeping practices can influence counselor educators' decision making (Crawford & Gilroy, 2013). Homrich et al. (2014) found that gatekeepers experience negative emotions, including fear and apprehension, surrounding student dismissals. Recently, Schuermann et al. (2018) utilized consensual qualitative research to reaffirm counselor educators are fearful of some gatekeeping outcomes (e.g., threats of lawsuits or legal consequences). Despite this potential for negative feelings, little is known about how counselor educators' emotions may be tied to gatekeeping-related lawsuits and how these experiences are processed and managed.

Gatekeepers can pay an emotional price for gatekeeping students (Gizara & Forrest, 2004). In a collective case study of 12 counseling psychologist site supervisors, participants unanimously expressed that student impairment issues (e.g., when students acted unprofessionally at clinical sites) were the most painful events to confront with supervisees (Gizara & Forrest, 2004). Similarly, participants interviewed in Wissel's (2014) phenomenological study on counselor educators' experiences of terminating students for non-academic reasons (e.g., students causing harm to clients during practicum) reported these experiences were uncomfortable because of role dissonance and responsibility. Kerl and Eichler (2005) claimed counselor educators may experience a "loss of innocence" as a consequence of emotionally taxing, isolating, and professionally challenging gatekeeping experiences (p. 83). Kerl and Eichler also stressed that counselor educators should emotionally explore the meaning of their gatekeeping experiences to uncover how these feelings interact with their gatekeeping practices. Unless emotions surrounding gatekeeping are addressed, counselor educators may "remain stuck in a place that holds on to us with powerful and overwhelming emotions" (Kerl & Eichler, 2005, p. 84).

Because gatekeeping can generate intense emotions, counselor educators' failure to understand and bracket their emotions could result in flawed decision making that serves their needs instead of the ethical codes of the profession (Brear & Dorrian, 2010). Providing specific insights and strategies to help counselor educators become aware of their emotions during intense gatekeeping experiences may help them protect themselves, other faculty, peers, and future clients. Yet, there is currently a lack of depth in our understanding of counselor educators' emotions related to gatekeeping. Therefore, guided by Moustakas' (1994) notion that transcendental phenomenological studies should seek to uncover the essential structure of a particular phenomenon, our study sought to answer two research questions: First, what are the common elements of counselor educators' emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences? Second, what, if any, important insights did counselor educators gain from emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences?

Method

Phenomenological research generates descriptions of experiences that "keep a phenomenon alive, illuminate its presence, accentuate its underlying meanings, enable the phenomenon to linger, and retain its spirit, as near to its actual nature as possible" (Moustakas, 1994, p. 59). Therefore, we chose to use a transcendental phenomenological approach for this study to capture and share the

essence of counselor educators' lived experiences with emotionally intense gatekeeping (Lopez & Willis, 2004). Transcendental phenomenology allowed us to (a) explore how emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences affect counselor educators personally and professionally, (b) bracket our own assumptions about emotionally intense gatekeeping, and (c) understand the common elements of participants' gatekeeping experiences.

Participants

Participants qualified for inclusion in this study if they self-reported at least one emotionally intense gatekeeping experience and were currently employed as a counselor educator at a CACREP-accredited institution. Eleven counselor educators participated in this study, representing years of experience between 2 and 37 years ($M = 19.8$, $SD = 11.58$). Table 1 provides a snapshot of participant demographics.

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Name	Gender	Race or Ethnicity	Rank	Degree Major	Degree Type	Yrs. Exp. CES
Sue	Female	White	Assistant	CES	PhD	0–5
Rosie	Female	White, Caucasian	Full	CP	PhD	20–25
Rose	Female	White, Caucasian	Associate	CES	PhD	15–20
Mike	Male	Caucasian	Full	CEs	EdD	25–30
Mark	Male	White	Full	CES	PhD	35–40
Maria	Female	White, Caucasian	Associate	CES	PhD	5–10
Lila	Female	Multicultural	Full	CP	PhD	25–30
Frank	Male	Caucasian	Full	CES	EdD	20–25
Rita	Female	Hispanic	Associate	CES	PhD	20–25
Herbie	Female	Asian	Assistant	CES	PhD	5–10
Dan	Male	White	Adjunct	CES	EdD	30–35

Notes. All participant names are pseudonyms. For gender, race, or ethnicity, participants' responses were recorded verbatim. CES = Counselor Education and Supervision. CP = Counseling Psychology. PhD = Doctor of Philosophy. EdD = Doctor of Education. Yrs. Exp. CES = Years Working as a Counselor Educator and Supervisor.

Recruitment Procedures

To seek out counselor educators with emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences (Miller et al., 2018), we recruited participants through three purposeful sampling and screening procedures. First, participants were recruited based on their authorship of at least one gatekeeping article published in a journal or magazine that noted their professional experiences with gatekeeping. Four articles addressing the authors' personal experiences with gatekeeping were identified. Those authors were sent an email inviting them to participate in this study. Second, we used a purposeful sample of accredited counselor education programs listed on CACREP's official website. This search yielded a total of 880 potential counselor training programs. We generated a stratified sample three times that resulted in three separate batches of 23 programs. Program coordinators were sent emails asking them to share the study invitation with their faculty members who may identify as having one or more emotionally intense

gatekeeping experiences. Third, snowball sampling was used by asking all participants to identify other potential participants who fit our criteria for participation. To meet the study's eligibility requirements, participants were required to (a) be employed at a CACREP-accredited counselor training program; (b) be instructors or adjunct, full, associate, or assistant professors (Schuermann et al., 2018); and (c) have been involved in at least one emotionally intense gatekeeping experience as a counselor educator.

Data Collection Procedures
Semi-Structured Interviews

After the lead researcher obtained IRB approval, we collected interview data through telephone and Skype interviews. We contacted potential participants with a description of the study, including our definition of emotionally intense gatekeeping, and a copy of the informed consent form. Interested participants responded to our requests via email and the lead researcher scheduled a time to interview them. Semi-structured interview questions were designed from a review of the relevant literature on gatekeeping and our own professional experiences with gatekeeping as counselor educators to gather rich and thick descriptions of the phenomenon (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Interview questions, including "What do you remember most vividly about your emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences?", were emailed to all participants prior to their interviews. Before audio recording began, all participants created a pseudonym to protect their confidentiality. All interviews were audio-recorded using Garageband. Interviews were between 24 and 45 minutes and were transcribed by Rev.com. Once interviews were transcribed, audio files were deleted.

Letter-Writing Activity

Once interviews were completed, participants also were invited to complete a letter-writing activity based on their emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences. Letter writing can provide a concrete and lasting record of one's experiences as opposed to spoken words, which usually disappear after they are spoken (Goldberg, 2000). We used this letter-writing activity to help triangulate the data. The letter-writing instructions asked participants to revisit their emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences, if other prior life events may have influenced their perceptions of gatekeeping, and what, if anything, they learned from these experiences. We received three letters, ranging from 94 to 2,027 words ($M = 786$).

Data Analysis

We used Moustakas' (1994) five-step transcendental phenomenological process to analyze the data. First, prior to reading the transcribed interviews and letters, the research team (composed of all three authors of this article) met and existentially bracketed (Gearing, 2004) their experiences with emotionally intense gatekeeping, identifying biases or presuppositions. Next, we read the transcripts and letters twice independently and began familiarizing ourselves with participants' experiences. We reconvened to discuss our initial impressions of the data and engaged in *horizontalization* (Moustakas, 1994), or highlighting and clustering significant statements into groups with similar meaning. Forty-six initial codes were created and grouped into clusters to generate textural descriptions of the phenomena. We met three more times to discuss our emerging themes, reconcile any discrepancies in our analysis, and reach consensus on the findings. In between each meeting, team members independently reflected on the codes and emerging phenomena. We reconvened a fifth time and developed nine larger themes that were organized as textural and structural clusters, or *meaning units* (Starks & Brown Trinidad, 2007). Through this process of *phenomenological reduction* (Moustakas, 1994), we refined our themes and identified the crucial elements of participants' experiences. At this point, two themes were discarded because of inconsistent support and a lack of consensus among the research team. Next, an external auditor, who was a counselor educator with qualitative research experience and numerous publications in counseling journals, reviewed the initial coding and theme construction and provided feedback to

the research team. The auditor suggested the removal of one theme and the consolidation of two others. The research team discussed the external auditor's feedback and incorporated their theme reduction suggestions to help clarify the meaning and representation of the data. Finally, we met one more time to discuss our final five themes and confirmed that our findings accurately represented the essence of participants' experiences of emotionally intense gatekeeping.

Trustworthiness

In this study, we used several measures to achieve congruent trustworthiness within the phenomenological research tradition (Flynn & Korcuska, 2018). First, in order to uncover the essence of our experience without completely detaching from the world, we bracketed our prior theories, interpretations, and assumptions of the phenomena through multiple team discussions (Gearing, 2004). To track our discussions during the data collection and analysis phases, the lead author kept a reflexive journal to help us account for our presuppositions and interpret the data accurately. Second, we offered participants a member check of their interview transcripts. Each participant was asked to review their transcript for accuracy and was provided an opportunity to elaborate further on their initial statements. Five participants elaborated on their thoughts to clarify meaning. Third, the lead author kept an audit trail detailing the times and dates of participant interviews, sampling procedures, and member checks, and a summary of the discussions between the researchers (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Fourth, the letter-writing activity yielded another data source to triangulate our findings (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Finally, the auditor in this study challenged the research team to revisit our prior assumptions of emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences to ensure monitoring of potential bias.

Reflexivity Statement

The research team included two counselor educators employed as full-time faculty at two different midsized universities in the Midwest United States, and one graduate student with knowledge of gatekeeping and research experience at the first author's university. The first author identifies as a White, able-bodied, middle-aged male and pre-tenured counselor educator. The second author identifies as a White, able-bodied, middle-aged male and pre-tenured counselor educator, and the third author identifies as a White, able-bodied, young adult female counseling graduate student. Our main assumptions before starting this study were that (a) emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences elicit only negative emotions from faculty; and (b) discussion of emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences is considered taboo for fear of litigation or unwanted attention. These assumptions stemmed largely from our own experiences as students in counselor training programs. Each of us experienced times when we knew faculty were engaged in gatekeeping. These experiences modeled gatekeeping for us and demonstrated how faculty balance protecting students from peers who may be engaged in problematic behaviors.

Results

We identified five themes from counselor educators' emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences: (a) early warning signs, (b) elevated student misconduct, (c) student dismissal, (d) legal interactions, and (e) change from experience.

Early Warning Signs

Most participants ($n = 10$) discussed behavioral and academic issues with students that, at first, appeared to be fixable through remediation and interventions. During these experiences, participants reported feeling shock, frustration, irritation, and sadness. For example, Rose shared how faculty noticed that a student was making poor choices and how they tried to intervene quickly:

> She really had tried to push herself too far, farther than she was ready to go. . . . I just
> knew the person, in spite of the faculty repeatedly saying don't push yourself too
> hard to where you're not even able to show up at your practicum internship site on a
> regular basis. They ignored our advice. And when somebody is simply not showing
> up on a regular basis, that's behavior that can't go on.

In other examples, participants shared stories of students exercising poor boundaries. In these experiences, students displayed behaviors that were symptomatic of larger issues that would reveal themselves later. Dan shared:

> This student was chronically late, and when the student arrived, instead of just
> sliding in quietly, the student would make an entrance. . . . After this became a
> chronic problem, there seemed to be resistance. The next semester was similar, except
> by now, I could see that the student was being avoided by many of his classmates.

Like Dan, participants discussed a variety of outcomes after their early interventions with students regarding their problematic academic and professional behavior(s). Often counselor educators' interventions helped students remediate and correct their behaviors. In other cases, students continued to act inappropriately or committed more serious infractions.

Elevated Student Misconduct

All 11 participants described a more serious student violation after initial warning signs. These violations required a higher level of faculty intervention. In these interactions, participants felt anger, betrayal, and confusion. Sue discussed her emotions and process surrounding discovering her students had cheated:

> I had one earlier this year that was very emotionally intense, that affected me personally
> and professionally, that was around academic honesty and integrity. During one of my
> classes, I discovered that a group of students cheated on an examination—a group of
> five out of a classroom of 12, so a very significant percentage. It was really shocking at
> first. I really did go through the stages of grief now looking back.

For several other participants, more serious violations occurred during students' practicum or internship courses. Mike described hearing about one student's ethical violation from their practicum site supervisor: "She has taken it upon herself to recruit individual clients from her group to see on her own, at home!" These events brought out anxiety, despair, and anger in faculty members and required more direct interventions, including direct meetings with students, discussions of students during faculty meetings, or removal of students from a class or courses.

Student Dismissal

Participants (*n* = 9) reported feeling many intense emotions in their experiences when dismissing students. Most expressed extreme sadness and frustration with students. Students were usually dismissed after failing to comply with remediation plans (e.g., retaking an ethics course, attending personal counseling) within the time frame allotted. Some remediated students chose to leave the program on their own account. Some participants questioned if they were acting in the best interests of the profession, program, and university. For example, Rose reflected on her personal feelings and professional responsibilities with emotionally intense gatekeeping:

I would say that [gatekeeping experiences] took a lot out of me, emotionally. It was exhausting. Even today, I don't feel the intensity that I felt at the time. But there's still emotion. There's still kind of a sadness and disappointment that we had to have conversations. And certainly, I'm very hopeful that . . . the people who were removed from the program have found something else to do where they can be successful.

Participants' decisions to dismiss students also impacted them unexpectedly. Lila explained:

Once in a while it's also very sad because you see people with a lot of potential, good people, that because of what's happening in their lives might make poor choices. And the sad part is to see somebody with so much potential getting themselves into trouble because of personal issues. And then the investment they have made in their education and all this money they have put into it, it comes to an end because they made poor choices. It's very sad to see something like this. It stays with you. Those are the things that sometimes will wake me up at three, four in the morning and think, "Ah, I wish things were different."

Legal Interactions

Among the most disruptive and emotionally intense phase of many participants' (*n* = 7) gatekeeping experiences were legal proceedings. These moments were often physically and emotionally taxing, confusing, and disruptive on personal and professional levels. Participants frequently second-guessed their thoughts and behaviors. Usually this phase started with notification of a lawsuit that was filed on behalf of the student against the faculty, program, or university. Mark shared his feelings after discovering he was one of the primary people named in a lawsuit:

I was the department chair, and I had to deliver the news. I was named in the lawsuit along with the dean, and the Board of Trustees, and one other faculty member. . . . I questioned whether I had done things properly. I felt vulnerable. I felt like that my reputation might be compromised.

Legal proceedings involving participants (*n* = 6) were jury and judge trials in either civil or criminal court and sometimes generated publicity outside of their institutions. Several participants shared that legal proceedings came with an emotional cost to them and their respective programs. For example, Dan felt emotionally exhausted with his lengthy involvement with the legal system:

Along the way, there was tremendous amounts of angst, and time, and energy, and aggravation spent on this student, and on the trouble that he generated, and the accusations that he was making . . . 12 or 18 months later, we were notified that he had hired an attorney, and that he was going to sue the college. Depositions followed, hours of depositions. Because I was the faculty member that had the most time with him, I was deposed for about a day and a half, where his attorney asked me every imaginable question six different ways from Sunday. It was not a pleasant experience. Anyway, there would be many, many months that would go by without hearing anything, and then we'd be told that, "Okay, we've been scheduled for a trial." Then we get up to the trial and there'd be some continuance, and the can would get kicked down the road again. From the time the student was expelled from the program to deposition, it was four years. From the time of the actual jury trial, it was 10 years.

Most participants were surprised and saddened by students' efforts to win legal proceedings. Participants were aware of the importance of their legal encounters, yet also unsure how to balance them with multiple professional responsibilities. Lila expressed:

> This was a student that was terminated and the student sued, started a lawsuit. . . . The student re-mortgaged their home so they could hire that attorney and take the university to court, take us to court. It was disruptive to our teaching because . . . the trial was happening about an hour and a half away. So we would have to find somebody to cover our class. We would get there, there would be delays, so we would be asked to go again the next day. . . . And we won the case because we had followed the policy and the student had refused to remediate . . . so the student lost their home. I mean it was a really sad situation.

Change From Experience

All participants in this study shared what they learned from their emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences. In this theme, participants offered advice and wisdom for other counselor educators.

All participants shared that their emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences reinforced their commitment to ethics, program standards, transparency, and fairness. Despite their feelings of guilt and humility resulting from their experiences, participants wanted to be more proactive and clear with their gatekeeping processes. Dan shared:

> It was a learning, not just for me, but for our entire faculty that we need to be really clear every step of the way, about who we are as a program, what do we stand for, what expectations do we have? And that when those expectations are in some way violated or are bent, we need to be very clear with the student about what's going on. And when or if we ever arrive at a place where we see a student who is having this kind of a problem, we need to take action sooner.

Every participant expressed a commitment to engage in future gatekeeping practices more effectively. Several expressed feeling unsure about gatekeeping initially but eventually replaced vacillating feelings with more confidence and greater self-efficacy. Herbie noted:

> I think initially there was much more apprehension and dread. Just a lot of uncertainty and a lot of ambiguity about like, okay, how is it going to go? What do I need to say? How can I be clear? How am I wrapping up this conversation and their understanding of the message I'm trying to communicate? Well, at the same time as, you know, like being a counselor, like how can I be like positive and supportive at the same time, which is a hard place to be in when you're also being the disciplinarian. And I think now because I've had many more experiences with gatekeeping, and having those tough conversations, it's much clearer to me. I go in and I have in my mind a plan that I need to follow.

Nine participants shared how bracketing their personal beliefs, emotions, and opinions of students helped them become more effective and ethical gatekeepers. Frank commented:

> I was less aware of my emotional triggers years ago. And realizing that there are lots of different values, beliefs, knowledge, and skills that I bring in that I use to judge

a situation. And in doing so I have to remember to bring it into the present. That I have to be able to separate what my values and beliefs, skills, and competencies are and what is expected of the profession, especially as delineated in the code of ethics.

Most participants also discussed how their programs and departments changed as a result of their intense gatekeeping experiences. Changes often occurred at multiple levels. For example, Sue shared, "I tightened my syllabi. I went back through the code. I actually advocated and we re-wrote all of the syllabi for my entire university in grad counseling."

All but one participant (*n* = 10) offered current and future counselor educators advice on emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences. Eight participants specifically mentioned that counselor educators should rely on trusted and supportive colleagues to help navigate emotionally intense gatekeeping. Dan said:

I want to say how critically important it is to make sure that you build a team of faculty, not just for the day when you're going to have to engage in a gatekeeping process, but for all kinds of reasons. Building a team where there's real trust, where there's emotional vulnerability, and where differences about ideas . . . can be addressed is so very important.

In other examples, participants shared how each faculty member in their program developed a role. These roles helped faculty share responsibility with gatekeeping duties while also promoting due process and professionalism. Rosie commented:

We look at [gatekeeping] in a behavioral way, but certainly with a respect for the student's interpersonal processes and personality style. . . . We're always good at keeping each other (faculty) accountable. . . . We balance each other out. Then, when we do meet with the student as a faculty, if on one of those occasions we think that is necessary, we take different roles. We decide who's going to be what person in that process.

Several participants offered tips for working with administrators (e.g., deans, human resource representatives, university lawyers, provosts, presidents), including how faculty may need to explain ethical codes, program policy, and gatekeeping philosophies to them. Lila shared, "Be prepared outside of the department, there are appeals committees. They may see it differently than you and your faculty see it." Maria offered more proactive advice:

At the beginning of a semester, reach out to deans or upper administration, that, "we are looking to tweak or update our gatekeeping policy; we'd like to run it by you and get your feedback, and we'd also like to run it by legal counsel through university." And that helps everybody be informed up front, and things tend to go much better when everybody knows what to expect and what our obligations are as gatekeepers.

Finally, all participants talked about ways in which counselor educators and counselor programs can better prepare doctoral students and support early career faculty for emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences. Herbie offered:

[The] messages I received and modeling that I saw were really helpful in me understanding the need for gatekeeping. Because the parameters that were set forth in both my master's and my doctoral program, were just really clear on what's okay and what's not okay. And then having a cohort family . . . and having that support network and being able to talk about experiences that I was observing . . . within a safe container was really helpful.

Discussion

To ensure the counseling profession is composed of qualified, competent, and ethical counselors, counselor educators must gatekeep even if they may experience intense emotions. The emotions stemming from participants' intense gatekeeping experiences included dissonance, discomfort, guilt, anger, and role confusion, as well as empathy, compassion, and sensitivity for students. These emotions were similar to those reported by participants in other studies (Gizara & Forrest, 2004; Wissel, 2014). Regardless of the type (i.e., professional or academic) and the level of severity of gatekeeping counselor educators experienced, participants' experiences were persistent and draining. Counselor educators engaged in intense gatekeeping should prepare for exhausting, emotionally layered events that will impact them professionally and personally. In addition, the time-intensive nature of emotionally intense gatekeeping is noteworthy. Several counselor educators reported that numerous years (the longest being 10) were needed for due process (i.e., academic appeals and legal proceedings).

The findings from this study also extend the concept of gatekeeping beyond the boundaries of what happens within a counseling student's program and institution. Ziomek-Daigle and Christensen (2010) noted that unsuccessful remediation efforts may yield either students leaving their program voluntarily or being dismissed. This study highlights that when students challenge dismissal decisions, the dismissal process can involve legal proceedings that can last for numerous years. Over half of the participants in this study discussed legal encounters of some kind related to intense gatekeeping, and this may indicate that legal encounters related to gatekeeping may be occurring more frequently among counselor educators (Homrich et al., 2014; Schuermann et al., 2018).

Most participants expressed that their gatekeeping experiences fostered their professional growth, but also came with personal emotional costs. Many participants said that their intense gatekeeping experiences unexpectedly affected them personally. Some participants indicated they felt trapped because they could not share details of their emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences with partners, family, or others outside their department because of student confidentiality constraints. This finding aligns with Kerl and Eichler's (2005) assertion that unless faculty actively take steps to process emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences, the experiences themselves may hold power over faculty until they are properly addressed.

Finally, as a result of their intense gatekeeping experiences, many participants took more preventative and systematic approaches to protect the counseling profession, students, and future clients by preparing for future intense gatekeeping encounters. Participants reported processing their feelings about gatekeeping as well as reassessing individual responsibilities plus program and university polices to better align with the *ACA Code of Ethics* (2014). Homrich (2009) suggested that faculty, including adjunct instructors and clinical supervisors, should plan for challenges that may arise when gatekeeping students. Multiple faculty stressed that their admissions decision making and criteria for new students were improved as a result of their emotionally intense gatekeeping. For instance, faculty

reported recognizing rigid beliefs and concerning behaviors more quickly during admissions interviews and when students were starting their graduate training (Swank & Smith-Adcock, 2014.) Participants also reported how changes in gatekeeping practices at the individual (e.g., confronting problematic behaviors quicker), institutional (e.g., discussions with provosts and deans about professional ethics and gatekeeping practices), and professional (e.g., publishing articles) levels often took time and focused effort to change perceptions among stakeholders and others connected to their programs.

Implications for Counselor Educators and Counselors

Based on our findings, we noted several implications for counselors and counselor educators. First, counselor educators should consider how doctoral training programs can facilitate learning related to emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences that include discussion of students' potential emotional reactions to gatekeeping. Doctoral students may benefit from more transparency among current counselor educators in discussing their emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences. Discussions may help normalize how maintaining professional relationships with students and navigating intense emotions can be useful learning experiences during their doctoral training. Doctoral student gatekeeping training may inadvertently create dual relationship conflicts between master's students and doctoral students if there are pre-existing relationships. Although a faculty mentor's sharing of a student's gatekeeping context may help doctoral students learn, faculty should balance this with the need to maintain the student's confidentiality (Rapp et al., 2018).

Furthermore, more mentorship for future and beginning counselor educators regarding emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences may help alleviate adverse feelings. Departmental discussions of gatekeeping policies, a culture of openness, and mentorship from senior faculty (Homrich, 2009) can help reduce feelings of isolation, anger, sadness, betrayal, and other negative emotions for future and inexperienced faculty. Over half of participants mentioned mentorship from experienced faculty as support that helped them manage feelings of stress, anxiety, and fatigue during emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences. In addition, several participants in this study, regardless of prior experience with emotionally intense gatekeeping, sought consultation and comfort from other faculty within their departments. Counselor education programs should have a designated mentor for faculty who may feel overwhelmed with an emotionally intense gatekeeping experience and keep open lines of communication for all faculty (Homrich & Henderson, 2018). Of note, two participants expressed that they were aware of colleagues at other institutions who were unable to find encouragement and mentorship while imbued in intense gatekeeping, and those faculty either found other jobs or left the profession entirely.

Third, participants in this study experienced challenging and intense emotions surrounding legal proceedings. Counselor educators and clinicians should consider that lawsuits related to gatekeeping, impairment, and professional competence are on the rise (Schuermann et al., 2018). Counselor educators and counselors in the field should be better prepared for lawsuits and retain legal counsel, consult with colleagues, utilize personal counseling, and take other protective and therapeutic measures (Gaubatz & Vera, 2002). In addition, counselor educators and counselors may want to utilize self-care strategies to help bracket and monitor their emotions to allow for clear thinking and more ethical and intentional decision making if confronted with a lawsuit (Dugger & Francis, 2014).

Limitations

This study has three limitations. First, only three participants had less than 10 years of experience. Because perspectives, practices, and philosophies on gatekeeping can differ with experience (Schuermann et al., 2018), early counselor educators may have different experiences of emotionally

intense gatekeeping. Second, only one participant in this study identified as an adjunct instructor. As institutions of higher education increase the number of their courses taught by non–tenure-track faculty, perspectives from adjuncts, lecturers, instructors, and other non–tenure-track training professionals, who are held to the same ethical standards and gatekeeping expectations, may be warranted. Likewise, site supervisors can play a vital role in the gatekeeping process and their perspectives on gatekeeping are important as well. Finally, given the complex and ongoing nature of emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences reported by participants, another data source (e.g., follow-up interviews) and more letters from participants might have provided a more thorough understanding of emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences.

Implications for Future Research

This study was a first step in describing counselor educators' emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences. Researchers of future studies might explore faculty groups' collective emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences through focus groups. More understanding of how counselor education programs collect and document student information, make gatekeeping decisions, develop gatekeeping policies and procedures, and rely on gatekeeping-related ethical codes and standards are needed. Additionally, insights from adjunct instructors and clinical site supervisors who have experienced emotionally intense gatekeeping or students who have successfully completed remedial plans may provide unique perspectives on gatekeeping. Understanding how students navigate remediation plans and their emotional reactions to them may inform counselor educators and the profession as to what matters most to students and how to better reach them (Foster et al., 2014). Similarly, site supervisors often have more knowledge of students' work with clients than counselor educators and may be an underutilized resource in gatekeeping practices. Finally, more research on counselor educators' experiences with legal proceedings are warranted. Although several legal cases have generated considerable attention (see *Plaintiff v. Rector and Board of Visitors of the College of William and Mary*, 2005; *Ward v. Wilbanks*, 2009), this study seems to be the first that qualitatively explored counselor education faculty members' experiences specifically with legal encounters. How counselor educators balance lawsuits and professional responsibilities, the prevalence of lawsuits against counselor education faculty for gatekeeping practices, and counselor educators' levels of legal preparedness are rich topics for future study.

Conclusion

In conclusion, findings of this transcendental phenomenological study reveal the intense emotions counselor educators may experience when gatekeeping. In support of others' research (Kerl & Eichler, 2005; Wissel, 2014), participants felt intense emotions such as anger, sadness, frustration, and vulnerability, as well as empathy for the affected students. Emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences seem time-consuming, usually involving multiple faculty members and administrators, as well as sometimes requiring legal counsel. The findings reveal how faculty should moderate their emotions and uphold ethical standards while engaging in emotionally intense gatekeeping. Finally, emotionally intense gatekeeping experiences can inspire counselor educators to revise their program policies, syllabi, and approaches to gatekeeping practices.

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Teaching Gatekeeping to Doctoral Students: A Qualitative Study of a Developmental Experiential Approach

Brenda Freeman, Tricia Woodliff, Mona Martinez

In addition to developing teaching, clinical supervision, and research skills, new entrants into the counselor education workplace will also face the challenging responsibility of gatekeeping. Gatekeeping can be both anxiety-provoking and time-intensive for new faculty members. To enhance the confidence and competence of new entrants into counselor education faculty positions, strong doctoral preparation in gatekeeping is critical. In this article, the authors describe a developmental experiential model to infuse gatekeeping instruction into counselor education and supervision doctoral courses. The model includes six experiential gatekeeping modules designed for instruction at three developmental levels. A phenomenological qualitative study of the model was conducted, leading to the discovery of four themes: *importance of gatekeeping, behind the curtain, understandings vary by developmental level*, and *uneven responses to experiential learning*. Developmental, pedagogical, and administrative implications for counselor educators are discussed.

Keywords: counselor education, gatekeeping, doctoral preparation, experiential model, phenomenological

For new entrants into the counselor education higher education workplace, involvement in gatekeeping can be unavoidable and challenging. Although direct gatekeeping responsibilities may be conducted by associate and full professors in many institutions (Schuermann et al., 2018), assistant professors often teach courses in which gatekeeping issues arise. Evidence suggests that faculty perceptions of gatekeeping differ by academic rank (Schuermann et al., 2018), with untenured professors reporting greater concerns about gatekeeping than tenured faculty (Gaubatz & Vera, 2002). Bodner (2012) asserted that "faculty and supervisors may receive little guidance on how to implement such [gatekeeping] procedures in a highly ethical manner and/or how to approach complex and challenging gatekeeping dilemmas" (p. 60).

The gatekeeping role is taught during doctoral preparation. In the doctoral standards set by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP), Section B (Doctoral Professional Identity) requires the instruction of students in five core areas, two of which (teaching and supervision) include gatekeeping standards (CACREP, 2015). Supervision standard 2.i. requires programs to include in the curriculum "evaluation, remediation, and gatekeeping in clinical supervision" (CACREP, 2015, p. 35). Teaching standard 3.f. states that the curriculum must include "screening, remediation, and gatekeeping functions relevant to teaching" (CACREP, 2015, p. 36). The inclusion of gatekeeping in CACREP standards signals the importance of providing doctoral students with the knowledge, skills, and experiences necessary for them to be effective in their future role as gatekeepers.

There is a dearth of literature on pedagogy for teaching gatekeeping to doctoral students. Barrio Minton et al. (2018) conducted an analysis of select published articles and concluded that there has been

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Brenda Freeman, PhD, NCC, LCPC, CPC, is a professor at the University of Nevada, Reno. Tricia Woodliff, PhD, NCC, ACS, CPC, is an assistant professor at the University of Nevada, Reno. Mona Martinez, PhD, CPC, is Downing Clinic Director at the University of Nevada, Reno. Correspondence may be addressed to Brenda Freeman, William Raggio Building Rm. 3007, University of Nevada, Reno/0281, Reno, NV 89557, brendafreeman@unr.edu.

a lack of focus on doctoral-level counselor education preparation. With limited publications centered on doctoral preparation and a generally minimal focus on pedagogy, the instructional approaches to prepare doctoral students for gatekeeping are largely unknown.

The purpose of our study was to design and deliver a developmental experiential model for increasing doctoral student competence in gatekeeping and to examine student reactions to these learning experiences. We have titled the gatekeeping instructional approach the Developmental Experiential Gatekeeping (DEG) Model. The DEG Model was designed and implemented at one CACREP-accredited counselor education and supervision (CES) doctoral program in the Western United States with a focus on preparing students for academic positions. This article presents the results of a phenomenological qualitative study of the experiences and reactions of doctoral students to the DEG Model. The insights gleaned from the study are discussed from the standpoint of improving pedagogy for gatekeeping instruction. The rationale for the study was that gatekeeping is a challenging aspect of counselor education teaching and supervision roles, particularly for new entrants into academia. Effective preparation in gatekeeping practices may not decrease the strain of dealing with difficult student remediation, suspension, and potential legal issues, but preparation is necessary to bolster strong gatekeeping and remediation practices.

Developmental Framework With Experiential Pedagogy

The DEG Model is an approach to instructing doctoral students in gatekeeping through the delivery of six curricular units divided into three developmental levels. The model was developed and implemented at a midsize institution (classified in the Carnegie system as an R1: Doctoral University – Very High Research Activity) with three counseling master's programs and a doctoral program in counselor education and supervision located in the Western region of the United States. All programs were fully accredited under the CACREP 2016 standards (CACREP, 2015).

The DEG Model is grounded in both developmental and experiential pedagogy. The *developmental framework*, based in cognitive developmental theory, endorses sequential movement in learning processes within an established hierarchy (Bloom, 1956; Loevinger, 1976; Piaget, 1977). Higher levels are not attained without first accomplishing less complex levels of cognitive understanding. The development of formal operations, in which more sophisticated connections and abstract concepts are understood, is gradual and is based upon the interaction between cognition and experiences (Case et al., 2001; Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Formal operations are situation specific (Eggen & Kauchak, 2001). Students may have reached formal operations in learning domains where they have a supporting framework of experiences, such as in post-internship counseling skills, and yet not function in formal operations in other content domain areas (such as research skills).

The *experiential learning approach*, reportedly a more powerful pedagogy than didactic instruction alone (Borowy & McGuire, 1983; Shreeve, 2008), is focused on gaining knowledge through direct experience. The process typically begins with preparation for the experience, followed by engaging in the experience, and culminating with reflection or testing of observations (Galizzi, 2014; Kolb & Kolb, 2009). Positive outcomes associated with experiential pedagogy include increased student engagement in the learning processes, improvements in cognitive functioning, greater acquisition of knowledge across a variety of subject areas (Galizzi, 2014; Greene et al., 2014; Tretinjak & Riggs, 2008), increases in historical empathy, improved critical thinking, and greater cultural open-mindedness (Greene et al., 2014). Borders et al. (1996) found didactic and experiential practices were related to a significant increase in student self-appraisal of supervision capacity. It is reasonable to assume that because

Table 1

DEG Modules: Developmental Level, Content Domains, and Source Material

Level	DEG Module	Content Domain	Examples of Source Material[a]
Level 1, Module 1	Grappling With Gatekeeping Through Dialogue	Purposes and processes of gatekeeping; rationale for gatekeeping; ethics in gatekeeping; licensure boards and accreditation bodies and gatekeeping	Bodner, 2012; Brown, 2013; American Counseling Association, 2014; Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs, 2015; Lumadue & Duffey, 1999
Level 1, Module 2	Professional Fit and the Prevention of Future Adversity: Dispositional Assessment in Admissions	Admissions procedures in counselor education; suitability and dispositional assessment; impairment and problematic dispositional behaviors; dispositional assessment approaches	Elpers & FitzGerald, 2013; Swank & Smith-Adcock, 2013; Winograd & Tryon, 2009; Brear et al., 2008; Tate et al., 2014; Reddy & Andrade, 2010; Taub et al., 2011; Swank et al., 2012; McCaughan & Hill, 2015
Level 2, Module 1	Gatekeeping Issues in Clinical Supervision Through the Lens of the Discrimination Model	Supervisor roles in gatekeeping; giving feedback to supervisees; evaluation of supervisees; discrimination model	Association for Counselor Education and Supervision Taskforce on Best Practices in Clinical Supervision, 2011; Swank, 2014; Gazzola et al., 2013; Gizara & Forrest, 2004; Miller, 2010; Bernard, 2006; Bhat, 2005
Level 2, Module 2	Mentoring Students Through Monitoring Remediation	Designing and monitoring remediation plans	Dufrene & Henderson, 2009; Henderson, 2010; Kress & Protivnak, 2009; Lamb et al., 1987; McAdams et al., 2007; McDaniel, 2007; Russell & Peterson, 2003; Bemak et al., 1999; Crawford & Gilroy, 2013; Russell et al., 2007
Level 3, Module 1	Gatekeeping Through a Systems Lens: Designing an Ecological Gatekeeping Map	Ecological model and gatekeeping; collaboration and teaming in gatekeeping; shadow organization; higher education culture	Forrest et al., 2008; Johnson et al., 2008; Jacobs et al., 2011; Goodrich & Shin, 2013
Level 3, Module 2	The End of the Road: Gatekeeping and Heartbreaking Adversity	Legal issues in gatekeeping; due process; working with legal counsel; documentation; managing grievances	Brown-Rice, 2012; Elpers & FitzGerald, 2013; Enochs & Etzbach, 2004; Forrest et al., 1999; Frame & Stevens-Smith, 1995; Homrich, 2009; Hutchens et al., 2013; Kerl et al., 2002; McAdams et al., 2007

[a]Source materials appear in order of recommended reading.

Grappling With Gatekeeping in Level 1, Module 1

In this module, for three consecutive classes (9 clock hours), first-year students were required to read and discuss journal articles on foundational gatekeeping topics selected by second-year students with guidance from the instructor. The structured class instruction and discussions on the readings

were facilitated by the second-year students. The experiential component for first-year students was engagement in structured dialogue. The experiential component for second-year students was teaching gatekeeping and leading discursive discussion with first-year students under live faculty supervision. Students then reflected on the process.

Dispositional Assessment in Admissions in Level 1, Module 2

Armed with background knowledge from Module 1, students participated in the dispositional assessment training video for the Professional Disposition Competence Assessments—Revised Admissions (PDCA-RA; Freeman & Garner, 2020; Garner et al., 2020). The training video entails participant ratings of dispositions during admissions interview clips without training, followed by training in the assessment process, post-training rating of interview clips, and instructions on use of the PDCA-RA in actual admissions interviews. Following the PDCA-RA training, the doctoral students co-interviewed (with CES faculty) the master's program applicants, using the PDCA-RA as the admissions dispositional assessment tool. This was followed by written reflections about the experience.

Gatekeeping Issues in Clinical Supervision in Level 2, Module 1

This module was preceded by several weeks of instruction in clinical supervision theory and the assignment of one master's-level supervisee to each doctoral student. Midway through the semester, students were instructed in best practices for giving evaluative formative and summative feedback in clinical supervision through the lens of the discrimination model (Bernard, 1997). The experiential component of this module consisted of students being required to deliver either formative or summative (positive or corrective) evaluative feedback to clinical supervisees related to the expected student dispositions under faculty supervision. Students then reflected on the process.

Mentoring Students Through Monitoring Remediation in Level 2, Module 2

This module was designed to provide doctoral students with an experiential opportunity to partner with faculty in providing support for master's students working on mild remediation issues. Examples of mild remediation issues included problems with class attendance or punctuality, difficulty adjusting to the professional expectations of graduate school, and challenges with interpersonal relationships in the classroom. The faculty team working in concert with the master's student needing remediation determined the nature of the specified growth experiences for the master's student. The doctoral students then implemented structured processes to support the remediation process, such as facilitating a reflective process on a student's effort to become more culturally sensitive or serving as an accountability partner for a student working to become more conscientious. Doctoral students were not involved in working with any students where dismissal was a likely outcome. Doctoral students then wrote journal reflections on the experience.

The Ecological Gatekeeping Map in Level 3, Module 1

With the developmental goal of synthesizing complex knowledge, students were tasked with creating an ecological gatekeeping map. The process began with didactic instruction in Bronfenbrenner's (1977) ecological systems theory, followed by discussions of microsystems, mesosystems, exosystems, and macrosystems in higher education. The goal was to assist students in acquiring a systems perspective on gatekeeping, including subsystem interactions that influence the feasibility and outcomes of remediation, suspension, and dismissal of counseling students. As part of the module, students were introduced to the concept of the *shadow organization* (Allen & Pilnick, 1973). Allen and Pilnick (1973) described organizations as having two organizational structures—one being the visible structure obvious in the university organizational chart and the other (the shadow organization) consisting of the unwritten cultural expectations and daily behaviors of the institution. An example of the shadow organization

influencing gatekeeping would be if the counseling handbook states that the program gatekeeps, but there is an unwritten culture in which the administration will not allow the program to dismiss even the most unethical student. Working as a team, the students had 6 weeks to interview administrators and faculty, collect policy and procedure documents, read and apply relevant literature, and prepare a group presentation of a visual ecological gatekeeping map.

Gatekeeping and Heartbreaking Adversity in Level 3, Module 2

The final DEG module began with assigned readings of gatekeeping legal cases. Students were then charged with the responsibility to create a non-academic dismissal scenario, write and compile all documentation, and prepare to dramatize the scenario through a mock dismissal hearing. Roles adopted by students for the mock hearing included the fictitious master's counseling student, the faculty member central to the dismissal scenario, the department chair, and the college dean. The mock hearing was enacted and was judged in real time by a university attorney and a university administrator (a dean or provost). Immediately following the hearing, the judges processed the hearing with the students, offering legal and procedural corrections. Students then reflected on the experience.

Method

The question "What are the lived experiences of doctoral students as they engage in gatekeeping instruction?" was addressed through qualitative methodology. Because we were interested in the subjective experiences of the student learners, the qualitative study was conducted using a phenomenological approach (Creswell, 2013; Moustakas, 1994). Investigation through deep exploration of lived experiences is part of the phenomenological paradigm (Creswell, 2014). Deep exploration of lived experiences with the gatekeeping experiential activities was congruent with the goal of understanding the journey of doctoral students to capture the essential meanings of gatekeeping. Husserl (2001) postulated that it was possible for researchers to bracket their own experiences to capture the essence of the experiences of others, which was one of the objectives in this analysis. The ontological assumption, informed by the constructivist paradigm, was that socially constructed multiple realities of gatekeeping exist (Mertens & Wilson, 2012).

The study was primarily conducted as scholarly inquiry into the developing professional identity of doctoral students relevant to the gatekeeping role. Aligned with the research question, the data analysis was accomplished through a phenomenological tradition, with a primary goal of revealing rich and concrete descriptions of the learning process and the translation of formal and experiential instruction into professional identity.

Subsequent to the analysis, the findings were also used to inform program development and pedagogy for counselor educators. This secondary use of the findings to inform program improvement is aligned with the values branch of program evaluation in which participant responses to program experiences are often viewed through a qualitative, constructivist perspective (Abma & Widdershoven, 2008). The use of the findings to inform counselor education pedagogy did not influence the interview protocol, data collection, or analysis process, which were conducted utilizing the phenomenological approach.

Participants

For phenomenological studies, Creswell (2013) recommends between 3 and 15 participants. At the point of data collection, there were 12 students enrolled in the CACREP-accredited counselor education and supervision doctoral program where the DEG modules were delivered. The doctoral

program was housed in the College of Education at a midsize university, classified in the Carnegie system as an R1: Doctoral University – Very High Research Activity.

Each of the 12 potential doctoral student participants had experienced some or all of the DEG modules, allowing the research team to gain insights from different levels of doctoral student professional identity development. Two students were removed from the participant pool because of a conflict of interest, yielding a participant pool of 10 students. Following human subjects research review board (IRB) approval, the 10 potential participants were contacted by email and invited to participate in the study. All 10 consented to be interviewed; however, one student was unavailable during the data collection window, leaving nine study participants.

As a precaution to mask the identity of the participants, specific demographics are not reported in this article. In general terms, the participants were primarily self-reported females, predominantly White, and ranged between 24 and 39 years old. Educationally, all participants had earned master's degrees in counseling prior to entering the doctoral program. The students earned their counseling master's degrees in institutions located in the West, South, Southwest, East, Midwest, and Rocky Mountain regions.

Procedure

All nine doctoral student participants agreed to be interviewed and to allow electronic recording. Face-to-face interviews ranging in length from 30 to 60 minutes were conducted by a single member of the research team. No incentives were offered. Participants were informed that they could skip any of the interviewer questions. The items for the semi-structured interview protocol were first written by the lead author and then piloted with the second and third authors. The final items were determined by consensus of the research team. The interview protocol included nine items. Three were global items such as "Describe your learning experiences with gatekeeping and remediation in counselor education." Of the remaining six items, each was dedicated to one of the DEG units. The interviewer first asked the student if they recalled having participated in the specific unit, followed by the prompt: "Please describe your experience with this unit. What was that learning experience like for you?" The same question was repeated for each of the six units.

Although the DEG Model was part of required coursework, participation in the study was strictly voluntary. To protect student participants from social pressure to participate in the study, all communications with participants were initiated by a single member of the research team with no evaluative relationship to the students. Further, the interviews were conducted during a time frame when no participants were enrolled in courses instructed by any member of the research team.

As a second source of data, student reflections were collected at the end of each unit. The reflections were ungraded and were used in the study to triangulate the interview data for the purpose of considering the consistency between the interview data and the reflections, part of the establishment of trustworthiness. The reflection data consisted of written, open-ended reflections on the experiences of students with each of the DEG modules. The reflections were submitted immediately following the experience with each DEG module. To scaffold the reflection process for students who found unstructured, open-ended reflections challenging, three prompts were offered: "Please share your reactions to the learning experience you engaged in today." "What did you learn today that you consider to be important to your understanding of gatekeeping and remediation?" and "What questions come to mind as a result of engaging in this learning experience?"

Data Analysis

The overarching purpose of the data analysis process is to bring structure and order into understanding the data for the purpose of addressing the research questions (Patton, 2015). In phenomenological research, there are many paradigms and differing worldviews on data analysis, including the issue of whether it is most suitable to analyze participant narratives through an ideographical approach or amass the data into qualitative themes (Moules et al., 2015). Accumulation of data with an analysis of themes was selected as the phenomenological data analysis approach. The results of the study were analyzed through Creswell's (2014) approach to phenomenological analysis. Throughout the analysis, the research team bracketed their presuppositions and assumptions. The purpose of bracketing was to allow the voices of the participants, not the researchers, to dominate the analysis.

Following the interviews, the recordings were transcribed (using pseudonyms), and the transcriptions were reviewed for accuracy. The analyses of both the interviews and the reflections were conducted using NVivo12 (QSR International). The interview analysis was a three-part process that included open coding, thematic analysis, and thematic integration (Rossman & Rallis, 1998). The process began with reading and rereading the transcripts to deduce a list of core meanings for each transcript. This work was conducted by the lead author and verified by independent analysis of the second author. Once core meanings of individual transcripts were agreed upon, the meanings were cross-analyzed for repetition and clustered into themes and subthemes by the first and second authors working independently of one another. Team consensus was reached, and the data were then organized into a codebook. Data saturation was accomplished when it was determined that no new themes were emerging. The themes were then reviewed in relation to one another to clarify overlapping areas and collapse subthemes into broader themes. Direct quotes were extracted to support both textural and structural descriptions. After the analysis of the interview data, student reflections were analyzed using the codebook derived from the interview data. An "inconsistent" codebook category was created to code data inconsistent with the data found in the interviews. An "other coding" category was created to code data that reflected new concepts or themes not apparent in the interview data.

Reflexivity

An important aspect of considering trustworthiness in phenomenological research is addressing bias (Creswell, 2013). The research team consisted of two White female researchers and one Hispanic and American Indian female researcher. One was a tenured full professor with extensive CES experience. Another had conducted research related to dispositional assessment. The third member of the research team had no specific background or personal experiences with gatekeeping. The team members had a wide range of experience in program evaluation and qualitative research. The shared assumptions of the research team were that understanding gatekeeping was an important professional obligation and that doctoral students with career aspirations of entering counselor education needed a solid foundation in gatekeeping.

Trustworthiness

The process of establishing trustworthiness began with an understanding that the findings represented only one of many interpretations of the data (Corbin & Strauss, 2008). Early in the process, we consulted with a qualitative research expert who confirmed the analysis process (D. Barone, personal communication, December 2, 2018). Peer debriefing was used throughout the process (Creswell, 2014). The debriefing process included the research team presenting tentative findings at one regional and one national counselor education conference, a process that fostered research team deliberation on the interpretation of the data.

The areas for bracketing were identified prior to the interviews and consisted primarily of the delineation of the presuppositions and assumptions of the research team in order to avoid hindering the capacity of the team to listen to the participants. The actual bracketing was performed during the analysis stage by making notations of areas where presuppositions and assumptions might influence interpretation. Participants were not asked to bracket their assumptions. Direct quotes were heavily relied upon in the analysis to assure that the voices of the participants were heard throughout the process. An expert reviewer, a counselor educator not involved in the study, audited the results (Creswell, 2014; Patton, 2015), providing the team with feedback. Last, member checking was used to ascertain that we had not misunderstood or used participant statements out of context.

Results

The analysis yielded four themes: *importance of gatekeeping*, *behind the curtain*, *understandings vary by developmental level*, and *uneven responses to experiential learning*. Pseudonyms used during data collection were replaced with participant numbers for reporting purposes.

Importance of Gatekeeping

The theme *importance of gatekeeping* describes the valuing of gatekeeping, remediation, and dispositional assessment by participants. Across all participants, gatekeeping and related processes were perceived as critically important. The rationale for valuing gatekeeping varied from participant to participant, with most offering more than one justification. Five participants positioned their responses within the professional mandate to protect the public. P1 stated:

> I learned that some of my experiences as a counselor really influenced the importance that I put on gatekeeping . . . I've been doing counseling . . . so I had exposure to what it looks like when counselors in the field aren't well suited or act from their own personal needs.

Two participants reflected that the protection of the public was particularly important because of the attraction of emotionally wounded individuals to the profession. As stated by P2:

> [Gatekeeping and remediation] . . . are extremely important because people oftentimes I find go into the counseling field for the wrong reasons. Whether it's a personal history with mental health issues and they're trying to solve their own issues or because. . . maybe they like the power differential that is created in a helping relationship . . . they want to somehow take advantage.

Protecting counseling programs, universities, and the profession was also expressed as a reason for valuing gatekeeping. P3 stated: "The counseling profession is our own and needs to be protected," later adding, "Despite how difficult it can be, if warranted, I want to play hardball to protect my students, other faculty, alumni, program, and the profession."

Behind the Curtain

Eight of the nine participants reported that they had limited awareness of gatekeeping and related processes in their master's programs. P4 stated: "I mean, I'm sure we were gate checked in my master's program, but I don't really remember anything about it." Participants discussed the process of learning about gatekeeping after the experience of being unaware of it in their master's programs,

noting that this process gave them a glimpse of what goes on *behind the curtain*. P9 described it as being given a different seat in the house, stating:

> In my master's program, I didn't have any knowledge of anything like this . . . but now in my first year of the doctoral program, I feel like I have so much more of an understanding and kind of . . . like a different seat in the house. I can see how it all works and the importance of it.

Feelings associated with peeking behind the curtain were varied. P3 described it with positive affect: "So the first seminar class was really helpful. It was very much like the Wizard of Oz, pulling the curtain back and seeing what goes on behind everything in higher education." P4 reported it to be an unsettling experience: "So our first year when we were learning about it, it was still a bit mysterious . . . kind of scary . . . I didn't really know this process was going on . . . not like, so overtly. . . . it was kind of like, oh my God."

Understandings Vary by Developmental Level

All participant interviews reflected the theme *understandings vary by developmental level*. Some participants overtly addressed changes in developmental understandings, like P3, who said simply: "I thought it was tricky until it wasn't." She described her journey as becoming more comfortable over time. P5 reported: "I think the scaffolding was appropriate. . . . more content focused initially and then more at the process level with the application piece later on. It wasn't like we were jumping right into applicability before we actually understood the different concepts."

From the standpoint of developmental level, Level 1 students like P6 were inclined toward a concrete understanding of the concepts: "So my understanding of gatekeeping and counselor education is that it's a process to make sure that the counseling students are where they're supposed to be . . . academically and emotionally." More advanced students like P1 reflected greater complexity in their understandings:

> So part of our responsibility as counselors is to make sure the field is engaging ethically, and if we're allowing people that are wounded in such a way that they're not able to engage productively as counselors, then as a profession we're acting essentially unethically. . . . Counseling is fundamentally about the person of the counselor and so we have to take that into account as counselor educators . . . gatekeeping or remediation become a big part of the more nebulous component of what makes a good counselor.

Another developmental issue was that the experiential frame or voice reflected by the participants varied throughout the process. Sometimes, particularly but not exclusively early in the developmental process, participants spoke with a student voice. At other points, participants reflected on their experiences through the perspectives of a clinical supervisor or counselor educator, reflecting a faculty voice. Sometimes participants shifted between the two voices. P5 directly addressed this issue:

> So each of us was going through the process of being evaluated because there was a gatekeeping process for us as doctoral students . . . and so knowing that that was happening for us at the same time we were teaching it . . . it was just a pretty complex process.

P4's comment on learning to give direct feedback in the clinical supervision unit reflects a conflicted voice:

> But with a supervisee, it was different because you're also in this evaluative role. . . . I wanted to like, be really supportive, you know . . . [but] I also had to evaluate their work. I wanted to be direct, but I also don't want to give them a bad evaluation. It was just very difficult.

In this statement regarding the Level 1 module, P8 spoke through a counselor educator perspective:

> I'm thinking about potentially becoming a faculty member . . . in interviewing at universities, I'd like to really try to understand their philosophy of gatekeeping and remediation to see if it could, like, be a good fit for me. If I went to a school and found out they didn't do gatekeeping, I would have a really hard time being there . . . it's just kind of like, "Well, what are we doing to ensure that the people we're serving are protected?"

Uneven Responses to Experiential Learning

Across all nine interviews, participants indicated a strong, positive response to experiential learning. However, some experiential elements were more powerful than others. Reflecting on the experience of participating in the PDCA-RA training video and the master's admissions interviews, P7 stated: "I think it was just really, really fun to be a part of the training . . . and then to actually get the chance to do it again during admissions." Teaching gatekeeping was described as a positive experience by P4:

> Being forced to teach anyone anything is a good learning experience . . . a lot of pressure is on me. Like, oh, I really, really need to know this stuff so I can teach it pretty well. So, I definitely knew my presentation . . . so that was a good learning experience.

In relation to the mock hearing, P5 reflected: "I learned a lot. I was actually the student in the mock hearing and so I learned . . . from their perspective what they might experience, but I also learned from the other side of it too, from the institution side."

Not all experiential activities were considered impactful. Three participants reflected that the remediation experiential module was confusing. The confusion may reflect on the module but could also be related to the concept that remediation is not a science and requires judgment, experience, and consultation with others. Stated by P8: "It was hard for me to tell [if the student made improvements] because I didn't have like a clear baseline." P1 reported: "I mostly ended up just having confusing conversations with the student."

The ecological gatekeeping map also appeared to be lacking in experiential power. Although the group experience of working together on the module was deemed valuable, three participants could not recall what they learned from the experience. A word count showed participants gave shorter descriptions on the ecological map than on any of the other experiential units. It is possible that a deeper level of preparation in the ecological model would enhance the experiential learning. Understanding the system elements of higher education and how they overlap with gatekeeping is fraught with complexity, even for junior faculty.

Analysis of Reflections Data

The data from the reflections were used to triangulate the interview data. In general, there was a high level of consistency between the reflections (submitted immediately following the modules) and the qualitative interviews (conducted after a time lapse). One interesting finding more evident in the reflections than in the interviews was the description of the emotional reactions to gatekeeping material. At the end of the analysis process, we created word clouds (pictorial displays of word frequencies) of the most common words used by participants. Through this process, we discovered there was a high frequency of a minimum of 12 emotionally laden words such as "scary" and "upsetting" in the data set, with more emotionality expressed in the reflections than in the interviews. Because the reflections were written, it appears that students were more likely to express emotional reactions in reflections than in the qualitative interviews. It is also possible that because the reflections were collected right after the experiential learning activities, emotional reactions were more accessible when the students wrote their reflections than at the time of the interviews.

Discussion and Implications

The CACREP expectation that counselor educators instruct doctoral students in gatekeeping and the awareness that new entrants to the counselor education workplace may experience considerable distress in their roles as gatekeepers inspired the study. Although gatekeeping and remediation may require a relatively small time commitment for new counselor educators, the nature of the work can be difficult and legalistic. The predominant goals of the study were to develop and infuse into the doctoral curriculum an experiential model for gatekeeping instruction and to gain insights into the lived experiences of doctoral students as they engaged in the learning modules.

The DEG Model is presented as one approach to doctoral instruction in gatekeeping. The experiential and developmental foundations for the approach are strongly supported in research, but literature on the application of these theories to the context of teaching gatekeeping to doctoral students was not available. Thus, the DEG Model and the qualitative study of the student learning experiences with the model are exploratory in nature. Nine students reported their perceptions and reactions to the DEG Model. An analysis of the lived experience of the students led to the discovery of four themes: *importance of gatekeeping*, *behind the curtain*, *understandings vary by developmental level*, and *uneven responses to experiential learning*.

All nine participants were of one mind that gatekeeping, dispositional assessment, and remediation are important. Given that all nine students were from different master's programs representing institutions located in various regions of the country, this finding suggests that gatekeeping has assumed a position of primacy as an essential function in counseling academic programs and an expected role for counselor educators. Earlier gatekeeping research reported hesitancy in trainees related to gatekeeping because of factors such as program culture, lack of protection for the gatekeepers, and confusion about the standards for gatekeeping (Shen-Miller et al., 2015). The results of this study suggest a possible shift in the perspective of new entrants to the counselor education workplace. In addition, state licensure boards have underscored the importance of gatekeeping the profession. Shen-Miller et al. (2015) also found that trainee ambivalence about the gatekeeping role mirrored faculty ambivalence, suggesting that faculty modeling of appropriate gatekeeping and remediation may be a critical factor in the changing attitudes of doctoral students. An alternative viewpoint is that though the students unanimously supported a belief that gatekeeping is important, their belief system may not translate well to their first actual gatekeeping situation as a counselor educator. The study participants had no direct experience with the often painful situations faculty face when legal action or student grievances are directed against them.

The *behind the curtain* theme illuminated the lack of transparency in gatekeeping, in that students were surprised by the gatekeeping processes. The finding is puzzling because remediation and gatekeeping literature encourages transparency in identification of dispositions, remediation processes, and reasons students might be dismissed from any given academic program. Perhaps for legal or other reasons counselor education programs are somewhat opaque in their explanations of gatekeeping.

The results provide support for delivering content in gatekeeping through developmental and experiential approaches. Consistent with developmental theory (Piaget, 1977) and findings in doctoral instruction in clinical supervision instruction (Baker et al., 2002; Granello & Hazler, 1998), students began the process with concrete understandings and moved toward more complex interpretations. Also, mirroring other studies in doctoral pedagogy (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Granello & Hazler, 1998), students attributed learning to engagement in experiential activities, rarely referencing lectures or reading assignments except as sources of foundational knowledge.

Aligned with developmental theory (Piaget, 1977), we learned that experiential learning must be carefully cross-walked to parallel to the developmental level of the participants. Two of the six modules (Mentoring Students Through Monitoring Remediation and Gatekeeping Through a Systems Lens: Designing an Ecological Gatekeeping Map) contained experiential elements that in retrospect the authors believe were not well aligned with the developmental levels of the students. Regarding the remediation module, at the time of the study, the doctoral students were working to embrace the new roles of teacher, researcher, and clinical supervisor. Adding the difficult-to-define role of remediation mentor was perhaps experienced as role overload. On the ecological map, the authors hypothesized that the task was too complex, requiring more didactic instruction and experience with systems in organizations.

The finding that two experiential elements were perhaps not targeted at the designated developmental level was less critical than the underscoring of the importance of conducting research on pedagogy in doctoral-level courses. Until conducting the study, we were unaware that the two experiential units were problematic and would have argued that the ecological gatekeeping map was one of the strongest experiential components in the DEG Model.

Implications for Counselor Education

The findings of the study led to insights that inform program development and pedagogy for counselor educators. The values branch of program evaluation (Abma & Widdershoven, 2008) advocates the use of qualitative analysis to develop deeper understandings of how knowledge is constructed.

The finding that doctoral students expressed more emotion in the immediate aftermath of experiential activities reinforces the importance of prompt attention to emotional processing after experiential components. The emotional–motivational theory on learning posits that anxiety negatively impacts concentration and desired outcome as well as reduces interest in engaging in future learning experiences in the content area. This relationship is well documented in research on math anxiety (Passolunghi et al., 2019). Anxiety was expressed in some student reflections, but not unexpectedly, as gatekeeping can be laden with conflict.

The results point to several practical pedagogical issues referred to in program evaluation theory by Stufflebeam (2003) as *input factors*. One such factor is that experiential pedagogy requires more instructional time than didactic instruction. The authors concluded that the importance of gatekeeping and the overall positive results justified the time investment but recognize the difficulties involved in implementing time-intensive experiential activities. The findings reflect another counselor education

input issue, which is the importance of building strong relationships with administrators and the legal department in order to offer students the opportunity to gain perspectives on gatekeeping from stakeholders outside the core counseling faculty. The End of the Road: Gatekeeping and Heartbreaking Adversity module could not be implemented without strong relationships with administrators and legal services.

The unique contributions of this study for counselor educators include an underscoring of the importance of instructing doctoral students in gatekeeping and the power of using experiential strategies. The interview data showed that students initially had a concrete interpretation of gatekeeping, but through participation in the experiential modules, they reported more comprehensive understandings. The importance of matching the learning experience to the developmental level of the student has been previously well established in developmental theory, but through the study we gained the insight that doctoral instruction in gatekeeping should begin at a concrete developmental level. The doctoral students in our study may have been advanced in terms of clinical and research skills, but their initial understanding of gatekeeping was unidimensional.

The study also underscores the importance of helping students reflect and identify their individual belief systems and personal approaches to gatekeeping. Although legal services may recommend that faculty consistently speak in one voice on gatekeeping issues, an essential first step in eventually developing departmental consensus is transparency between individual faculty on their differing perspectives. Beyond the department level, this ongoing conversation is also foundational to growing the profession in our collective understanding of gatekeeping. The study highlights the importance of starting this process at the doctoral student level.

Limitations and Future Research

One limitation of the study is that qualitative research is not intended to be generalized. Therefore, it is unknown if the findings apply to doctoral students enrolled in other counselor education programs. Although there were advantages in utilizing a participant pool with different levels of engagement in the DEG Modules, a limitation associated with this research team decision was that participants who had only experienced early modules may have reflected different perspectives if they had been interviewed after participation in the final modules. Second interviews were not conducted. Another limitation is that the students, though not enrolled in courses from the lead author at the time of the study, may still have been influenced to offer a positive perspective on their learning experiences. Follow-up post-graduation interviews could be a useful mechanism to address this limitation.

A limitation inherent in the design of the DEG Model is that although the design was appropriate for the context of one CES doctoral program, it may not be applicable to the institutional environments of other CES doctoral programs. The context of a high research institution may differ from an institution with a stronger focus on teaching, which could influence student reactions to the DEG Model. A second limitation related to the model itself is that departmental agreement was necessary to infuse gatekeeping material into three courses with different instructors with differing personal values and beliefs on gatekeeping. In addition, agreement to include doctoral students in master's remediation experiences and admissions interviews was necessary to implement the DEG Model. This level of faculty collaboration may not be possible in all doctoral programs.

More research on counselor education doctoral preparation is needed. The dearth of CES research on pedagogy for instructing doctoral students is apparent in content areas well beyond gatekeeping.

Within pedagogy for doctoral student preparation in gatekeeping, research is needed on outcome measures for the attainment of gatekeeping competence. In addition, a greater understanding of the impact of the personal experiences of those doctoral students who were remediated during their master's preparation on their perspectives as future gatekeepers would be useful to the profession. Also, research on the amount of instructional time needed to effectively teach gatekeeping to a level of minimum competence is needed.

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Recruiting, Retaining, and Supporting Students From Underrepresented Racial Minority Backgrounds in Doctoral Counselor Education

Jennie Ju, Rose Merrell-James, J. Kelly Coker, Michelle Ghoston,
Javier F. Casado Pérez, Thomas A. Field

Few models exist that inform how counselor education programs proactively address the gap between diverse student needs and effective support. In this study, we utilized grounded theory qualitative research to gain a better understanding of how 15 faculty members in doctoral counselor education and supervision programs reported that their departments responded to the need for recruiting, retaining, and supporting doctoral students from underrepresented racial minority backgrounds. We also explored participants' reported successes with these strategies. A framework emerged to explain the strategies that counselor education departments have implemented in recruiting, supporting, and retaining students from underrepresented racial minority backgrounds. The main categories identified were: (a) institutional and program characteristics, (b) recruitment strategies, and (c) support and retention strategies. The latter two main categories both had the same two subcategories, namely awareness and understanding, and proactive and intentional efforts. The latter subcategory had three subthemes of connecting to cultural identity, providing personalized support, and faculty involvement.

Keywords: underrepresented racial minority, recruitment, retention, counselor education, doctoral

For the past several years, doctoral counselor education and supervision (CES) programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) have experienced a greater enrollment of students from diverse backgrounds (CACREP, 2014, 2015). According to the CACREP Vital Statistics report (2018), two-fifths of doctoral students have a diverse racial or ethnic identity. This stands in contrast to the less than 30% of full-time faculty in CACREP-accredited programs who identify as having a diverse racial or ethnic identity. In 2012, the total doctoral-level enrollment in CACREP institutions was 2,028, where 37% of the students were from racially or ethnically diverse backgrounds (CACREP, 2014). Enrollment increased to 2,561 in 2017, with 1,016 students from racially or ethnically diverse communities, which translates to 39.7% of total enrollment (CACREP, 2018).

Accompanying this trend is a growing awareness that diverse doctoral students in counseling and related disciplines are not receiving adequate support and preparation to succeed (Barker, 2016; Henfield et al., 2011; Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002; Zeligman et al., 2015). CACREP-accredited

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Jennie Ju, PhD, LPC, is an assistant professor at Palo Alto University. Rose Merrell-James was an assistant professor at Shippensburg University. J. Kelly Coker, PhD, MBA, NCC, BC-TMH, LCMHC, is a professor and program director at Palo Alto University. Michelle Ghoston, PhD, ACS, LPC(VA), LCMHC, is an assistant professor at Wake Forest University. Javier F. Casado Pérez, PhD, NCC, LPC, CCTP, is an assistant professor at Portland State University. Thomas A. Field, PhD, NCC, CCMHC, ACS, LPC, LMHC, is an assistant professor at the Boston University School of Medicine. Correspondence may be addressed to Jennie Ju, 1791 Arastradero Road, Palo Alto, CA 94304, jju@paloaltou.edu.

programs are charged with making a "continuous and systematic effort to attract, enroll, and retain a diverse group of students and to create and support an inclusive learning community" (CACREP, 2016, section 1.K.). Yet few models exist that inform how CES programs proactively address the gap between diverse student needs and effective support. Literature is limited on this topic. Little is known about effective and comprehensive structures for recruiting, supporting, and retaining CES doctoral students from underrepresented minority (URM) backgrounds that take into consideration CACREP standards, student needs, economics, sociocultural barriers, and student opportunities.

In this study, we used Federal definitions of URM status in higher education to guide our inquiry. A section of the U.S. Code pertaining to minority persons provides the following definition for *minority*, and it is the one we chose to use in our study: "American Indian, Alaskan Native, Black (not of Hispanic origin), Hispanic (including persons of Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and Central or South American origin), Pacific Islander, or other ethnic group" (Definitions, 20 U.S.C. 20 § 1067k, 2020). This definition is important to higher education, as it is used by institutions to allocate funding for URM students. We note here that cultural diversity also spans other aspects of minority status, such as gender identity, sexual/affectional identity, and ability/disability status, among others. We restricted the focus of this study to exploring racial identity pertinent to URM status, following the U.S. Code definition.

Recruitment of Doctoral Students From URM Backgrounds

Understanding the diversification of doctoral students in CES programs begins by first considering effective methods for recruitment used by those programs. Recruitment of CES doctoral students of color may necessitate intentional and active approaches, such as building personal connections in the community and family (Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017; McCallum, 2016). CES doctoral programs might consider recruitment not as a yearly endeavor, but a long-term, day-to-day strategy. Early exposure, responsiveness to student needs (e.g., financial needs), commitment to diversity (e.g., hiring and retaining faculty members from diverse backgrounds), community relationships, and program location have all been identified as important factors to consider in the extant literature.

Early Exposure and Recruitment

Programs can promote more representative recruitment through earlier exposure to the disciplinary field and community connections (Grapin et al., 2016; Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017; McCallum, 2016). Introducing the possibility of pursuing doctoral studies in CES during the high school and undergraduate experience can increase student familiarity with the profession and may promote their long-term attention to the field (Luedke et al., 2019; McCallum, 2016). McCallum (2015, 2016) found that early familial and social messages about the low viability of doctoral studies was a deterrent among African American students and that mentorship and exposure to doctoral careers by professionals can help renew interest. Many undergraduate students from culturally diverse backgrounds lack opportunities to learn and develop ownership of doctoral-level professions and in some cases lack knowledge that those professions even exist (Grapin et al., 2016; Luedke et al., 2019).

Responsiveness to Needs and Commitment to Diversity

To successfully recruit doctoral students from culturally diverse backgrounds, CES programs need to be responsive to potential students' needs. In fact, a program's commitment to diversity and the demonstration of that commitment through student and faculty representation have been found to be highly influential factors in applicants' decisions to enter a doctoral program (Foxx et al., 2018; Grapin et al., 2016; Zeligman et al., 2015). An additional aspect of this responsiveness in recruitment is the program's ability to ensure and provide financial support to incoming students (Dieker et al., 2013; Proctor & Romano, 2016). Given the unique barriers experienced by culturally diverse

communities throughout the educational system, doctoral programs can be prepared to compensate for some of these obstacles through financial and academic support.

Community Relationships and Program Location

In keeping with recruitment as a long-term endeavor, research has found that community relationships and program location are essential when recruiting doctoral students from culturally diverse backgrounds (Foxx et al., 2018; Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017). CES programs can look to build relationships with their local culturally diverse communities and recruit from those communities, rather than looking nationally for their doctoral students (Foxx et al., 2018; Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017). Proctor and Romano (2016) found that proximity to representative communities and applicants' support systems had a significant impact on their decision to enter doctoral programs. Community connections also offered more opportunities to clarify admission requirements for interested students, a barrier for many first-generation students (Dieker et al., 2013; Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017).

Support and Retention of Culturally Diverse Doctoral Students

Once admitted to a doctoral program in CES, program faculty are required by the CACREP (2015) standards to make a continuous and systematic effort to not only recruit but also to retain a diverse group of students. To do so, faculty should be attentive to both common and unique personal and social challenges, experiences of marginalization and isolation, and acculturative challenges that students from URM backgrounds may face.

Personal and Social Challenges

Students from URM backgrounds have faced ongoing challenges with their ability to establish a clear voice and ethnic identity in predominately Euro-American CES programs (Baker & Moore, 2015; González, 2006; Guillory, 2009; Lerma et al., 2015). This phenomenon has been written about for decades (Lewis et al., 2004). Lewis et al. (2004) described the lived experiences of African American doctoral students at a predominantly Euro-American, Carnegie level R1 research institution. Key themes that emerged included feelings of isolation, tokenism, difficulty in developing relationships with Euro-American peers, and learning to negotiate the system. Further review of the literature found consistent challenges across diverse students, especially with establishing voice and ethnic identity (Baker & Moore, 2015; González, 2006; Lerma et al., 2015). Guillory (2009) noted that the level of difficulty American Indian students will face in college depends in large measure on how they see and use their ethnic identity. Utilizing a narrative inquiry approach, Hinojosa and Carney (2016) found that five Mexican American female students experienced similar challenges in maintaining their ethnic identities while navigating doctoral education culture.

Challenges of Marginalization and Isolation

Marginalization and isolation were additional common themes across diverse groups. Blockett et al. (2016) concluded that students experience marginalization in three areas of socialization, including faculty mentorship, professional involvement, and environmental support. Other researchers have also concluded that both overt and covert racism is a contributing factor to marginalization in the university culture (Behl et al., 2017; González, 2006; Haizlip, 2012; Henfield et al., 2013; Interiano & Lim, 2018; Protivnak & Foss, 2009). Study themes also indicated that students often expressed frustration from tokenism in which they felt expectations to represent the entire race during doctoral programs (Baker & Moore, 2015; Haizlip, 2012; Henfield et al., 2013; Lerma et al., 2015; Woo et al., 2015). Henfield et al. (2011) investigated 11 African American doctoral students and found that the challenges included negative campus climates regarding race, feelings of isolation, marginalization, and lack of racial peer groups

during their graduate education. Similarly, using critical race theory to examine how race affects student experience, Henfield et al. (2013) found African American students experienced a lack of respect from faculty because of their racial and ethnic differences. Students who had previously studied at historically Black colleges and universities (HBCUs) or Hispanic serving institutions (HSIs) reported that the lack of racial/ethnic diversity representation during doctoral study in predominantly White institutions (PWIs) contributed to their experience of stress, anxiety, and irritation (Henfield et al., 2011, 2013).

Culture and Acculturation Challenges

Collectivity and community seem to be consistent values that doctoral students from URM backgrounds have expressed as missing or not understood by faculty (González, 2006; Lerma et al., 2015). For example, faculty may not understand *familia*, a Latinx student's obligation to family (González, 2006; Lerma et al., 2015). Several authors have reported that culturally diverse doctoral students experience difficulty adjusting to a curriculum or program that values a Eurocentric individualist form of counseling (Behl et al., 2017; Interiano & Lim, 2018; Woo et al., 2015).

International students also experience similar anxiety and stress during their doctoral studies in the United States. In addition to adjusting to speaking and writing in a language that may not be their primary language, their supervision skills and clinical abilities can be questioned by Euro-American supervisees despite international students having advanced training and supervisory status (Behl et al., 2017). Interiano and Lim (2018) used the term "chameleonic identity" (p. 310) to describe foreign-born doctoral students' attempts to adapt to the Euro-American cultural context of their CES programs. They posited that international students experienced a sense of conflict, loss, and grief associated with the pressure to adopt cultural norms embedded in Euro-American counseling and higher education in the United States.

Strategies to Support and Retain Culturally Diverse Doctoral Students

To address these stressors and barriers to persistence in doctoral studies, faculty members can employ several strategies to support and retain students from culturally diverse backgrounds, such as mentorship, advising, increasing faculty diversity, understanding students' cultures, and offering student support services.

Mentorship

Some scholars recommend intentional utilization of mentorship as a strategy for improving retention and graduation rates of diverse students in higher education (Evans & Cokley, 2008; Rogers & Molina, 2006). Chan et al. (2015) defined mentoring relationships as a "one-to-one ongoing connection between a more experienced member (mentor) and less experienced member (protégé) that is aimed to promote the professional and personal growth of the protégé through coaching, support and guidance" (p. 593). Chan and colleagues added that mentoring can involve transferring needed information, feedback, and encouragement to the protégé as well as providing emotional support.

Zeligman and colleagues (2015) indicated that mentoring impacts both the recruitment and the retention of doctoral students from URM backgrounds. The quality and significance of mentoring relationships and participants' connection with faculty members during a doctoral program seems to influence choice in continuing doctoral study for URM students (Baker & Moore, 2015; Protivnak & Foss, 2009). Blackwell (1987) noted that the most powerful predictor of enrollment and graduation of African American students at a professional school was the presence of an African American faculty member serving as the student's mentor.

Although a powerful tool for recruiting and retaining diverse doctoral students, mentoring can also create retention issues if inadequate or problematic. Students may receive ambiguous answers to advising questions and may not receive support when life circumstances interfere with study (Baker & Moore, 2015; Henfield et al., 2013; Interiano & Lim, 2018). In such situations, some students may seek other faculty mentors within the department (Baker & Moore, 2015; Henfield et al., 2013; Interiano & Lim, 2018) or may specifically establish mentoring relationships with faculty from diverse cultural backgrounds to receive greater support for their experience of being a person of color (González, 2006; Woo et al., 2015; Zeligman et al., 2015). Diverse students may also seek mentors from outside of their doctoral program. Woo and colleagues (2015) found that international students selected professional counseling mentors from their home community that they considered to be caring and nonjudgmental of their doctoral work in comparison to faculty supervisors they felt were neither culturally sensitive nor supportive of international students.

Because of an existing disparity in the availability of African American counselor educators and supervisors who can serve as mentors to African American doctoral counseling students, Euro-American counselor educators and supervisors can provide mentorship support to underrepresented African American doctoral students. Brown and Grothaus (2019) conducted a phenomenological study with 10 African American doctoral counseling students. The authors found that trust was a primary factor in establishing successful cross-racial relationships, and that African American students could benefit from "networks of privilege" (p. 218) during cross-racial mentoring. The authors also found that if issues of racism and oppression are not addressed, it can interfere with establishing mentoring relationships.

Establishing same-race, cross-race, and/or cultural community affiliations provides support to culturally diverse doctoral students. In addition, increasing faculty diversity can be a viable measure to support and retain diverse doctoral students.

Increasing Faculty Diversity

The presence of diverse faculty members in CES has been discussed in the literature as a positive element in the recruitment, support, and retention of diverse doctoral students (Henfield et al., 2013; Lerma et al., 2015; Zeligman et al., 2015). Henfield and colleagues (2013) emphasized the need to proactively recruit and retain African American CES faculty to attract, recruit, and retain African American CES doctoral students. Recruiting and retaining faculty members from URM backgrounds requires intentional effort. Ponjuan (2011) suggested the development of mentoring policies that establish Hispanic learning communities and improve overall departmental climate as efforts to help increase the number of Latinx faculty at an institution. The next section discusses the relational significance of having counselor educator mentors who share cultural backgrounds and worldviews.

Understanding of Students' Culture

Lerma et al. (2015) recommended that doctoral faculty in CES programs be responsive to both the professional and personal development of their students. One area of dissonance for doctoral students from URM backgrounds involves differences in cultural worldview. Marsella and Pederson (2004) posited that "Western psychology is rooted in an ideology of individualism, rationality, and empiricism that has little resonance in many of the more than 5,000 cultures found in today's world" (p. 414). Ng and Smith (2009) found that international counselor trainees, particularly those from non-Western nations, struggle with integrating Eurocentric theories and concepts into the world they know. This presents opportunities for counselor educators to intentionally search for appropriate pedagogies and to critically present readings and other media that portray the multicultural perspective (Goodman et al., 2015).

Counseling departments can promote, facilitate, and value a multicultural orientation when focusing on student success and development. Lerma et al. (2015) and Castellanos et al. (2006) emphasized the need to understand the importance of family and peer support among Latinx students and faculty, specifically in recreating *familia* in the academic environment to help increase resilience. When working with African American students, Henfield et al. (2013) recommended that faculty should possess an understanding and respect of African American culture and be more "cognizant of how a history of oppression may influence students' perception, behavior, and nonbehavior" (p. 134). Faculty members should also possess an understanding of student financial difficulties and potential knowledge gaps in preparation for graduate school (González, 2006; Zeligman et al., 2015).

Student Support Services

Another effective area of support for doctoral students from diverse backgrounds is student-based services. These services include broader institutionally based resources, student-guided groups or activities, and community-based efforts. Institutional resources that seem to hold promise in increasing support for and the potential success of diverse students include race-based organizations (Henfield et al., 2011). Peer support has been consistently identified as an important factor in doctoral student persistence (Chen et al., 2020; Henfield et al., 2011; Rogers & Molina, 2006). Student-centered organizations can effectively provide a sense of belonging and an environment that facilitates peer support among those with shared interests on campus (Rogers & Molina, 2006). Henfield et al. (2011) found that African American students sought collaborative support through race-based campus organizations and with students who share similar backgrounds and interests. Multicultural-based, student-centered organizations and events are resources that institutions utilize as active support for multicultural individuals that contribute to "sustaining diverse students to reach the finish line of graduation with a strong foundation from which to launch their counseling career" (Chen et al., 2020, p. 10).

Chen et al. (2020) and Behl et al. (2017) have both reported that writing centers are an important support for international students as well as students from refugee, immigrant, and underprivileged communities. Ng (2006) reported that counseling students from non–English-speaking countries often experience challenges related to English proficiency. Chen et al. (2020) added that tutoring in writing is critical for students who come from cultures that are unaccustomed to the formal use of writing styles (e.g., APA style). Furthermore, helping international students understand classroom norms and culture through an orientation as part of the onboarding process can be a preventive support (Behl et al., 2017).

Purpose of the Present Study

The CACREP standards have created expectations and requirements for counseling programs to recruit, retain, and support students from diverse backgrounds. There now exists a wide swath of literature that has reported a variety of efforts toward these goals (Baker & Moore, 2015; Evans & Cokley, 2008; Rogers & Molina, 2006; Woo et al., 2015). Yet at the time of writing, there is not a clearly articulated path for CES programs to follow with regard to these efforts. For example, there is currently no information available regarding which strategies are more successful or easier to implement than others. This study aimed to address this gap in knowledge for how to attract, support, and retain students from diverse backgrounds in CES doctoral programs. The purpose of our study was to explore: (a) strategies doctoral programs use to recruit, retain, and support underrepresented doctoral students from diverse backgrounds, and (b) the level of success these programs have had with their implemented strategies.

Methodology

Throughout the study, we were grounded by a shared belief in constructivist philosophy that participants' realities are socially co-constructed, and therefore, all responses are valued regardless of frequency. From this philosophical position, we chose to approach the topic using a qualitative framework (Lincoln & Guba, 2013). Grounded theory was selected because it utilizes a systematic and progressive gathering and analysis of data, followed by grounding the concepts in data that accurately describe the participants' own voices (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2015). This approach allows the integration of both the art and science aspects of inquiry while supporting systematic development of theoretical constructs that promote richer comprehension and explanation of social phenomena (Charmaz, 2014; Corbin & Strauss, 2015). Through the grounded theory approach, we hoped to establish an emergent framework to explain practice and provide recommendations for CES programs striving to support diverse doctoral students.

This study was part of a larger comprehensive qualitative study based on the basic qualitative research design described by Merriam and Tisdell (2016) that examined a series of issues pertinent to doctoral counselor education. Preston et al. (2020) described the larger qualitative project that involved the collection and analysis of in-depth qualitative interviews with 15 doctoral-level counselor educators. This article focuses on the analysis of interview data gathered through two of the interview questions: 1) Which strategies has your program used to recruit underrepresented students from diverse backgrounds? How successful were those? and 2) Which strategies has your program used to support and retain underrepresented students from diverse backgrounds? How successful were those?

Researcher Positioning, Role, and Bias

The last author utilized the etic position, which is through the perspective of the observer, to conduct all interviews with selected participants. Approaching the interview process around the topic of doctoral-level counselor education through the etic status was important because the author had not worked in a doctoral-level CES program previously but has been a member of the counselor education community.

The situational context was composed of the researchers' and participants' experiences and perceptions, the social environment, and the interaction between them (Ponterotto, 2005). Therefore, we engaged in reflexivity to increase self-awareness of biases related to this topic (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). This required continual examination of the potential influence that identified biases may have on the research process. In keeping with the standard of reflexivity, we recorded our personal experiences as they related to the research questions with the use of memoing to bracket potential biases throughout the coding and analysis process.

All members of the research team are from CACREP-accredited institutions in the Western and Eastern parts of the United States. The coding team consisted of the first four authors. The fifth author contributed to writing the manuscript, and the sixth author conducted the interviews as part of the larger study and assisted in writing sections of the methodology. All four coding team members had previously been doctoral students in a CES program, though only one of the coding team members had ever worked in a CES doctoral program as a full-time faculty member. This person thus had emic positioning, while other team members held etic positioning.

Four of the five members of the coding team were from diverse backgrounds themselves and were influenced by their personal experiences as doctoral students. Two members of the coding team identified as cisgender, heterosexual African American females. One member identified as a cisgender, heterosexual Asian American female and another as a cisgender, heterosexual Euro-American female. The coding team members were aware of potential biases around expectations toward the programs discussed in the transcripts and recognized the need to closely examine personal perceptions and understanding of the interview data.

Two coding team members observed the lack of racial/ethnic diversity at the counseling programs where they currently work. They experienced Eurocentric, non–culturally responsive methods of support and development that led them to recognize the potential bias of shared experience with multicultural participants. One coding team member was Euro-American and was a part of an all Euro-American doctoral cohort. The program they attended had an all Euro-American faculty and she wondered whether the predominantly Euro-American participants in this study had an understanding of the challenges of diverse students. Having taught in doctoral programs, this researcher was aware of potential biases around types of universities that might be successful in recruiting but less so in retaining diverse students.

Participants

Participants were selected based on the following study design criteria: 1) current full-time core faculty members in CES, and 2) currently working in a doctoral-level CES program that is accredited by CACREP. At the time of writing, there were 85 CACREP-accredited doctoral CES programs in the United States (CACREP, 2019). Purposeful sampling was used to identify and recruit participants who had experiences working in doctoral-level counselor education (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Information-rich cases were sought to understand the phenomenon of interest.

Maximum variation sampling was also employed for the purposes of understanding the perspectives of counselor educators from diverse backgrounds with regard to demographic characteristics and program characteristics and to avoid premature saturation (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Based on the belief that counselor educator perspectives may differ by background, the research team used the following criteria to select participants: (a) racial and ethnic self-identification; (b) gender self-identification; (c) length of time working in doctoral-level CES programs; (d) Carnegie classification of the university where the participant was currently working (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2019); (e) region of the counselor education program where the participant was currently working, using regions commonly defined by national counselor education associations and organizations; and (f) delivery mode of the counselor education program where the participant was currently working (e.g., in-person, online; Preston et al., 2020).

The 15 study participants belonged to separate doctoral-level CES programs, with no more than one participant representing each program. The sample was composed of 11 participants (73.3%) who self-identified as White, with multiracial/multiethnic ($n = 1$, 6.7%), African American ($n = 1$, 6.7%), Asian ($n = 1$, 6.7%), and Latinx ethnic backgrounds ($n = 1$, 6.7%) also represented. Seven participants self-identified as female (46.7%), eight participants as male (53.3%), and none identified as non-binary or transgender. The majority of participants identified as heterosexual ($n = 14$, 93.3%), with one participant (6.7%) identifying as bisexual.

Participants' experience as faculty members averaged full-time work for 19.7 years ($SD = 9.0$ years) and a median of 17 years, with a range from 4 to 34 years. For most of those years, participants worked

in doctoral-level CES programs (M = 17.3 years, SD = 9.2 years, Mdn = 16 years), ranging from 3 to 33 years. More than half of participants (n = 9, 60%) spent their entire careers working in doctoral-level CES programs. Geographic distribution of the programs where participants worked were as follows: eight belonged to the Southern region (53.3%); two each (13.3%) belonged to the North Atlantic, North Central, and Western regions; and one program (6.7%) belonged to the Rocky Mountain region. Twelve participants (80%) were working in brick-and-mortar programs, and three participants (20%) were working in online or hybrid programs. With regard to Carnegie classification representation, nine (60%) were working at Doctoral Universities – Very High Research Activity (i.e., R1) institutions, two (13.3%) were working at Doctoral Universities – High Research Activity (i.e., R2) institutions, and four (26.7%) were working at universities with the Master's Colleges and Universities: Larger Programs designation (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2019; Preston et al., 2020).

Procedure

After receiving approval from the last author's IRB, the last author used the CACREP (2018) website directory to identify and recruit doctoral-level counselor educators who worked at the CACREP-accredited CES programs. Recruitment emails were sent to one faculty member at each of the 85 accredited programs. Fifteen of the 34 faculty (40% response rate) who responded were selected to participate on the basis of maximal variation.

Interview Protocol

Each interview began with demographic questions that addressed self-identified characteristics such as race, ethnicity, gender, sexual/affectional orientation, years as a faculty member, years working in doctoral-level CES programs, number of doctoral programs the participant had worked in, and regions of the programs in which the counselor educator had worked. A series of eight in-depth interviews followed to address the research questions of the larger qualitative study. Interview questions developed in accordance with Patton's (2014) guidelines were open-ended, as neutral as possible, avoided "why" questions, and were asked one at a time in a semi-structured interview protocol, with sparse follow-up questions salient to the main questions to ensure understanding of participant responses. Adhering to the interview protocol as outlined in Appendix A helped to ensure that data was gathered for each research question to the highest extent possible. Participants received the interview questions ahead of time upon signing the informed consent agreement. A pilot of the interview protocol was conducted with a faculty member in a doctoral-level CES program prior to commencing the study.

The interviews lasted approximately 60 minutes and were recorded using the Zoom online platform. One exception was an interview that occurred in-person during a professional conference and thus was recorded via a Sony digital audio recorder. All demographic information and recordings were assigned an alphabetical identifier known only to the last author and were blinded to subsequent transcribers and coders.

Data Analysis

Data analysis, as outlined by Corbin and Strauss (2015), employs the techniques of coding interview data to derive and develop concepts. In the initial step of open coding, the primary task is to "break data apart and delineate concepts to stand for blocks of raw data" (Corbin & Strauss, 2015, p. 197). During this step, the coding team sought to identify a list of significant participant statements about how they and their department perceive, value, and experience the responsibility of recruiting, retaining, and supporting underrepresented cultural groups. We met to code the first three of 15 transcripts together via Zoom video platform. The task of identifying codes included searching for data that was salient to the research questions and engaging in constant comparison until reaching saturation (Corbin & Strauss,

2015). We maintained a master codebook of participant statements that the team decided were relevant, then added descriptions and categories to the codes. Utilizing this same strategy, the remaining 12 transcripts were coded in dyads to make sure the coding team was not overlooking pertinent information.

When discrepancies occurred, the coding team utilized the following methods to resolve them: (a) checking with each other for clarification and understanding of each person's view on the code, (b) reviewing previous and subsequent lines for context, (c) slowing down the pace of coding to allow space for reflection on the team members' thoughts and feeling about a code, (d) considering the creation of a new code if one part of the statement added new data that was not covered in the first part of the statement, and (e) referring back to the research questions to determine relevance of the statement. Discrepancies in coding were questions around statements that: (a) were vague, (b) contained multiple codes, (c) were similarly phrased, (d) reflected a wish rather than an action on the part of the program, and (e) presented interesting information about the participant's program but did not address the research question.

The subsequent step of axial coding involved the task of relating concepts and categories to each other, from which the contexts and processes of the phenomena emerge (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). The researchers then framed emerging themes and concepts to identify higher-level concepts and lower-level properties as well as delineated relationships between categories until saturation was reached. In the step of selective coding, the researchers engaged in an ongoing process of integrating and refining the framework that emerged from categories and relationships to form one central concept (Strauss & Corbin, 1998).

Trustworthiness

Standards of trustworthiness were achieved by incorporating procedures as outlined by Creswell et al. (2007) and Merriam and Tisdell (2016). The strategies included enhancing credibility through clarification of researcher bias to illustrate the researchers' position as well as identifying a priori biases and assumptions that could potentially impact our inquiry. In addition, the research team members were from different counselor education programs, which contributed to moderating bias in coding and analysis. In an attempt to avoid interpreting data too early during the coding process, the researchers used emergent, in vivo, verbatim, line-by-line open coding. Furthermore, the interviewer intentionally chose not to participate in coding the data in order to minimize bias through being too close to the data. To promote consistency, the last author clearly identified and trained research teams associated with the larger study. The last author also used member checking and kept an audit trail of the process to enhance credibility. Purposive sampling and thick description were used to ensure adequate representation of perspectives and thus strengthen the transferability and dependability qualities of the study (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Results

Implementing *strategies that make a difference* was the central concept in describing the process of CES faculty participants' experience with recruiting and retaining diverse doctoral students. These strategies refer to programmatic steps that counselor educator interview participants had found to be effective in the recruitment, support, and retention of culturally diverse doctoral students. This central concept was composed of three progressive and interconnected categories, each with its own subcategories, properties, and accompanying dimensions. These three categories were *institutional and program characteristics*, *recruitment strategies*, and *support and retention strategies*. The three major categories shared the subcategory of *awareness and understanding,* while the recruitment strategies and

support and retention strategies categories shared the subcategory of *proactive and intentional efforts*. The conceptual diagram of these categories and subcategories is depicted in Figure 1.

Figure 1

Conceptual Diagram of Strategies That Make a Difference in Recruiting and Supporting Culturally Diverse Doctoral Students
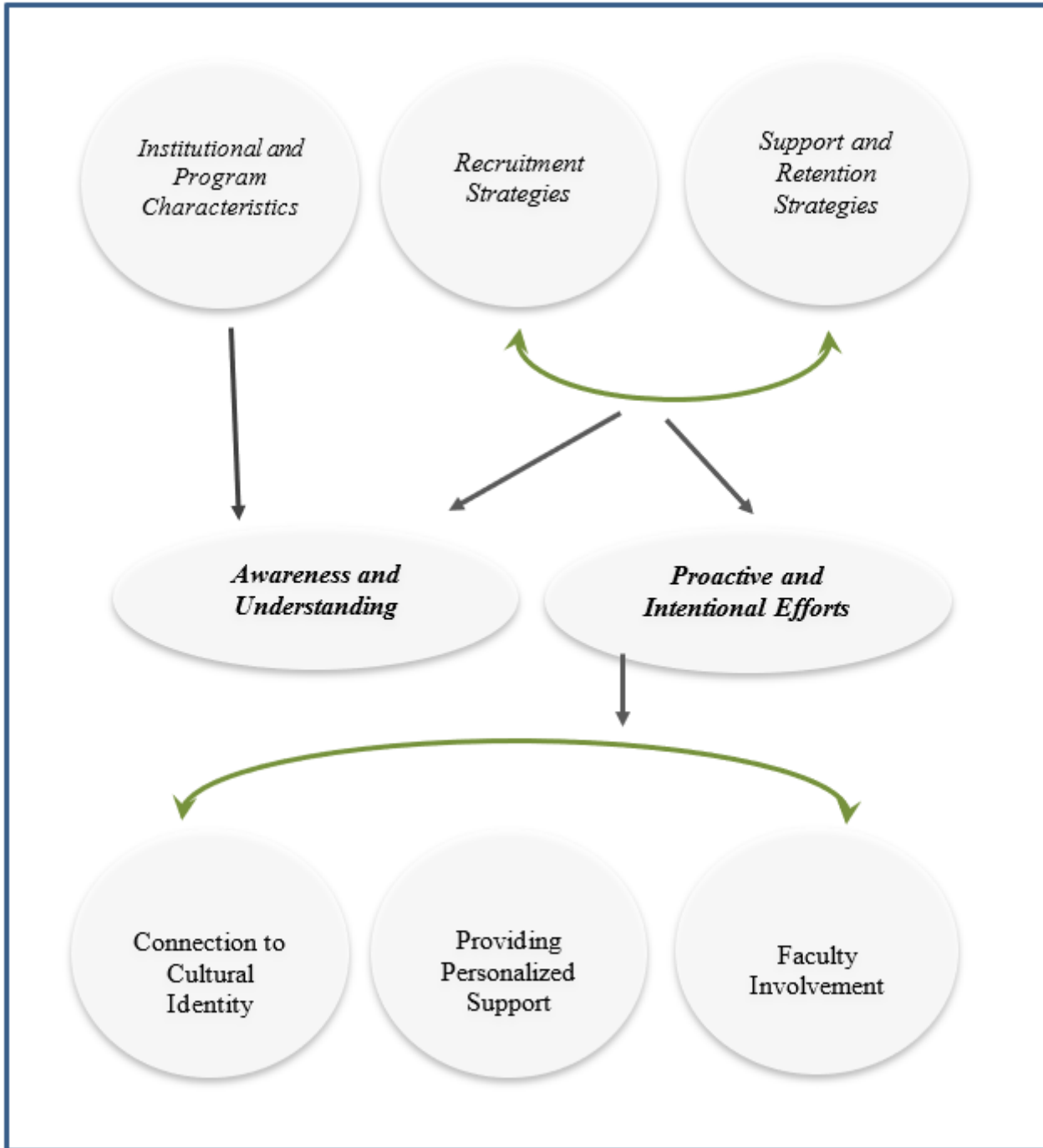
Institutional and Program Characteristics

The category *institutional and program characteristics* refers to features that are a part of program identity. This category was significant, as it represents the backdrop for a unique set of conditions in which the participants experienced the limitations as well as strengths of the program environment. Institutional and program characteristics may be part of the institution's natural setting that the faculty participant had little control over, such as geographic location, institution size, institution reputation, tuition cost, or demographic composition of the area in which the program was located. At times, these factors were helpful for recruitment purposes. One participant described how the program's geographic location positively impacted the recruitment of prospective students, including diverse students: "We are the only doctoral program in the state, so I think that carries some clout." Another participant added, "A lot of it is financial . . . They largely choose programs because they are geographically convenient, so they can work or be close to family. So, their choice is largely guided by economic and geographic factors."

Institutional and program characteristics also included factors that influenced support and retention of diverse students through their doctoral journey. Characteristics mentioned as either a hindrance or a support for diverse students included: (a) presence of diverse faculty, visual representation, and student body; (b) supportive environment for diverse students; (c) faculty attitudes and dispositions which create either a welcoming or hostile sociocultural climate; (d) fellowship or scholarship monies intended for diverse students; (e) evidence of valuing of and commitment to diversity; (f) multicultural and social justice focused activities; and (g) faculty who share common research interests with their students. From this list, it was evident that doctoral students seemed best supported by program qualities and actions that communicated a valuing of and commitment to diversity.

Awareness and Understanding

Participants indicated awareness that the context in which the institution and program exist presents as either a hindrance or a benefit to diversity. For example, geographic location and demographic composition of the locality can pose a barrier to recruitment as one participant expressed: "Our university itself is not going to attract people. It is a very White community." This participant understands that this means the program will need to develop specific recruitment efforts to mitigate this potential barrier to "show students that this is a program that would be welcoming and take proactive steps to do that."

Participants also indicated an awareness that students can sense whether diversity-related issues will be given priority. One participant stated, "Students are really astute about getting a sense for how committed a department is to diversity. So, having tangible evidence there is a willingness to commit to diversity at the faculty level is super important." Another participant shared, "Our interview process is a barrier . . . There can be some privileged White males who are highly, highly confrontational, and I don't think that's an appropriate recruitment style for sending a welcoming message to minority candidates."

Recruitment Strategies

The second major category identified in the data, *recruitment strategies*, pertains to the process of developing and implementing plans for the primary purpose of attracting individuals from diverse backgrounds to apply and enroll in the program. The recruitment strategies category is composed of two subcategories that are shared with the support and retention strategies, namely awareness and understanding and proactive and intentional efforts.

Awareness and Understanding

Participants shared a variety of responses regarding their awareness and understanding of the importance of creating a diverse learning community. Some participants reported that their departments proactively sought to recruit underrepresented students, whereas others acknowledged that their departments made no such attempt. At times, this was due to the structure of recruiting at the university: "Our program doesn't necessarily get involved in admissions that much . . . We have an admissions team, and they have a whole series of strategies in place." At other times, participants reported that their program was unintentional about recruiting diverse students: "We don't have any good strategy particularly. It's accident, dumb luck and accident." One participant experienced distress and confusion because of their program's perceived misalignment with CACREP standards: "These are key standards for programs, and one that programs have struggled with, and we certainly have too."

Proactive and Intentional Efforts

Participants reported engaging social resources such as personal connections and networks to recruit diverse students. As one participant described, "Recruiting diverse students begins with personal networks. So, we use personal networks, professional networks, alumni network." In addition to recruiting through alumni and professional organizations and conferences, participants found success through partnerships with community agencies as well as building relationships with HBCUs and HSIs. One participant captured the process this way: "It's about maintaining relationships with graduates, with colleagues. We know, for us to diversify our student body, we cannot just look to the surrounding states to produce a diverse student body. We have to go beyond that."

In addition to reaching out to master's programs with sizable diverse student populations, one common strategic effort involved finding financial support for diverse doctoral students, from departmental, institutional, or external funding sources. One participant stated, "We also know in our program where the sources for funding underrepresented populations are; we know how to hook people into those sources of funding." Another participant shared, "Our institutions have funding mechanisms, including some that are for historically marginalized populations or underrepresented populations. We have been successful in applying for those and getting those."

Participants indicated a commitment to making changes to their typical mode of recruitment strategy and recognized that supporting diverse students required the implementation of strategies that differed from typical recruiting and retaining activities. Three subcategories that emerged as representing effective recruitment and support strategies were (a) connection to cultural identity, (b) providing personalized support, and (c) involvement of faculty.

Connection to Cultural Identity. Consistent with the literature, participants reported that students seemed drawn to programs that valued their cultural background and research interests associated with their identity. For example, participants reported that it was important to have faculty who are interested in promoting social justice and diversity and sharing similar research interests to their students. As one participant described: "The student picked us because we supported their research interest of racial battle fatigue." This participant had shared with their prospective student that "I'm really excited about that [topic], and it overlaps with my own research in historical trauma with native populations."

Personalized Support. Participants indicated personalized support was crucial to recruiting diverse students to their CES doctoral program. One participant reported that most of the diverse students who chose to attend their doctoral program typically shared the same response when asked

about their choice: "Their comments are consistent. . . . They say, 'We came and interviewed, and we met you, and we met the students, and we feel cared about.'"

Faculty Involvement. Third, faculty involvement was an essential component of proactive and intentional efforts. Faculty involvement seemed to take a variety of forms: (a) activities related to promoting multiculturalism and social justice, (b) engagement in diverse areas of the profession and representing the program well, and (c) advocating to connect potential students to external funding resources or professional opportunities. One participant explained faculty involvement this way: "An anchor person who strongly identifies not only with their own diversity, but also with a body of scholarship related to diversity." Another participant shared, "Our faculty have had some nice engagements with organizations and research strands focused on multiculturalism and social justice issues." These types of involvement made an impact on the impressions of prospective students from diverse backgrounds: "We have students who came to us and said, 'I looked at the work your faculty were doing, I looked at what they said was important on the website, and it struck a chord with me.'"

Support and Retention Strategies

The third major category of *support and retention strategies* was characterized as responding to awareness and understanding of diverse students' perspectives, experiences, and needs while enrolled in the doctoral program. Participants reported that faculty engaged in proactive and intentional efforts that integrated considerations for cultural identity, personalized support, and faculty involvement.

Awareness and Understanding

As with recruitment, participants reported that successful retention and support of enrolled doctoral students integrated considerations for the students' cultural identity as well as values, needs, and interests that are a part of that identity. One participant described exploring missing aspects of each student's experience for the purpose of providing effective support: "It's super important on a very regular basis to sit down with students of color specifically and talk with them about what they're not getting . . . those conversations really are key." Often, these personalized conversations are part of a healthy, intentional mentoring relationship in which students are purposely paired with faculty who can understand their experience, support them in navigating professional organizations, and foster success in the program and in their future career. Two participants added that an effective support strategy involves reaching out and engaging in regular conversations about student struggles and experience with microaggressions, tokenism, or other socioemotional matters.

Some participants reported that diverse students may be lacking in foundational skills and knowledge that put them at a disadvantage in the doctoral program, such as deficits in research competence. Personal conversations between mentors and protégés include being "willing to have difficult conversations about skill deficits" in a manner that encourages and empowers diverse students to succeed.

Proactive and Intentional Efforts

Successful education of diverse doctoral students is a mission that requires thoughtful, intentional, and proactive efforts on the part of doctoral faculty. A participant whose program had a good track record in recruiting diverse students explained, "Proactive efforts take a lot of thought" and aiming for effective retention necessitates "an intentional effort, and that's what it takes to provide comfort for a more diverse group of students." For many participants in the study, showing intentionality started with provision of financial support in the form of scholarships, fellowships, and graduate assistantships. Doctoral faculty also advocated for students by connecting them to funding sources because financial support "is the best predictor of keeping people in the program."

Connection to Cultural Identity. Proactive and intentional efforts were considered to be a step beyond planning, in that doctoral faculty commit tangible and intangible resources along with taking actions toward promoting diversity in the program. In addition to inquiring about the missing aspects of their identity in the program, participants reported that ongoing conversations about cultural identity during the students' program of study was important to support and retention. For example, some students chose a doctoral program to pursue a specific line of research connected with cultural identity and wanted their faculty members to make intentional efforts to help them further their line of inquiry related to cultural issues.

Personalized Support. Participants reported that personalized support was a critical strategy in helping culturally diverse doctoral students to thrive in the program. Participants believed that supportive faculty–student relationships had a strong impact on retention. As articulated by one participant, "One of our strengths is the relationship that we have with our students . . . it may be making the difference in the students that we keep." Participants also used a buddy system whereby each student applicant was paired with a current doctoral student as their go-to person for any questions or concerns, to help them transition into the program.

Faculty Involvement. Embracing diversity is a *proactive and intentional* business, which translated to participants purposefully and thoughtfully changing the way they interact with prospective and current students from diverse backgrounds. Participants reported that diverse students may need more availability and outreach from faculty. As one participant stated, "We try to be available to them when they've got concerns that they need to address. We're always trying to reach out more and being more proactive." This proactive responsiveness and intentional mentoring seemed particularly important with regard to helping diverse students with professional identity development. One participant reflected that "some students coming from diverse backgrounds are going to need to be socialized into the profession, to make them comfortable in that identity." Elaborating further, this participant said that, "this requires a lot of very intentional mentoring" and included formal as well as informal activities. For example, they said, "Even having them come to conferences, to introduce them to people. Having meals with them. Modeling how you interact with colleagues. Making sure they go to luncheons . . . to dinners."

Discussion

In this study, 15 counselor educator participants gave voice to strategies that doctoral programs use to recruit, retain, and support underrepresented doctoral students from diverse backgrounds and their perceptions of the level of success these programs have had with their implemented strategies. We examined these experiences and identified two overarching themes of *awareness and understanding* and *proactive and intentional efforts* in the way they approached the need to recruit and support diverse doctoral students.

During the process of data analysis, a substantive framework emerged to explain participant strategies that had led to success. Analysis of the participants' narratives shed light on counselor educators' awareness and understanding that being proactive and intentional in integrating approaches that connect to the student's cultural identity, provide personalized support, and involve faculty appear to be successful strategies for recruiting, retaining, and supporting diverse students. These categories reflect a program's commitment to and demonstration of diversity, with the necessity of intentional and active approaches indicated in literature (Evans & Cokley, 2008; Hipolito-Delgado et al., 2017; McCallum, 2016; Rogers & Molina, 2006). Commitment to diversity has been found to be a highly influential factor in applicants' decisions to enter a doctoral program (Haizlip, 2012; Zeligman et al.,

2015) and once enrolled, for students from URM backgrounds to feel a sense of inclusion, connection, and belonging (Henfield et al., 2013; Hollingsworth & Fassinger, 2002; Protivnak & Foss, 2009).

The literature has indicated that a program's commitment and intentionality about increasing the diversity of both students and faculty has a direct impact on the number of applicants received by that program (Zeligman et al., 2015). Participant narratives from this study supported this strategy. Diverse students are drawn to programs that value their cultural background and the research interests that come with that identity. This might mean presence of diverse faculty and student body, being encouraged to express their uniqueness, and having faculty who share their research interests. The unique needs, values, and interests of diverse students require CES faculty to be mindful of providing personalized support during the recruitment process as well as during their enrollment in the program. These can be in the form of intentional mentoring, support in addressing possible skills deficits, having personalized conversations, and engaging in a buddy system. A third essential strategy is faculty involvement in multiculturalism and social justice issues, engagement in diverse areas of the profession, and advocating for students academically, professionally, and socioeconomically.

Implications for Counselor Education

The findings from this study reveal the need for a change on the part of some CES doctoral programs in developing intentional and proactive efforts to recruit, support, and retain students from culturally diverse backgrounds. In this study, several participants noted that their doctoral program employed passive recruiting and retention strategies, which appeared to be inadequate and contrary to CACREP standards. Some participants also highlighted barriers to both recruiting and retaining diverse doctoral students, such as unclear standards and faculty attitudes and behaviors that include complacency, defensiveness and dismissiveness, lack of awareness, and assumptive thinking about diversity. Other CES departments seem to be partially implementing a comprehensive and systematic plan for recruiting and retaining diverse students. For example, they may utilize alumni networks to help with recruiting diverse students but lack a plan to support and retain enrolled students.

An important potential barrier for supporting diverse students in CES doctoral programs is the time required for faculty mentorship. Some participants in the study reported that some diverse students needed more close mentoring, and this time commitment would likely reduce available time for other faculty activities such as conducting research and writing for publication. For faculty on the tenure-track system in research institutions, losing time to research endeavors poses a potential threat to career advancement. One participant shared that while "by and large, most faculty want to mentor diverse students and put the time in," this time commitment stood in opposition to their own tenure and promotion process. This participant elaborated that the pressure to "publish or perish" can "somewhat alter career trajectory for the faculty, if they spend too much time in mentoring." This participant believed that this issue was "one of the real tensions here in academia" and explained that "either you want diversity, and you're willing to reward people who are willing to invest themselves in the diversity . . . or you're not. But you can't have it both ways." It appears that the current structure within universities, such as the criteria for tenure and promotion, can present a significant barrier to supporting diverse students. Prior authors have noted that established university and program culture can create a sense of marginalization for diverse students, making it difficult to both recruit and retain URM doctoral students (Holcomb-McCoy & Bradley, 2003; Zeligman et al., 2015). Faculty may need to advocate for structural changes within their universities to ensure that their students are adequately supported. Some participants in the study indicated that low teaching loads were another avenue of freeing up time for mentoring.

The CACREP standards (2015) contain a mandate for systematic and continuous efforts to retain a diversified student body in counselor education programs. Some participants noted in this study that the actual appraisal by CACREP site visit teams of how this standard was being met was unclear. Confusion about this standard may result in not having a strategy for ensuring that the standard was being met. Clarification and accountability are necessary to ensure that programs are meeting this standard.

It is crucial that counselor education programs continue to develop specific strategies to both recruit and retain underrepresented doctoral students. It is no longer acceptable to rest on the institutional name or location. Intentionality that addresses the needs of underrepresented students should include connection to students' cultural identity, personalized support, and faculty involvement, as these will ensure that students feel wanted and valued throughout the entire process (recruitment to completion).

Limitations

Although grounded theory provides a richness and depth to understanding questions for research, it comes with potential limitations. Clarke (2005) discussed limitations typical in qualitative research and grounded theory. Researchers are faced with an overwhelming amount of information to code, categorize, and analyze. Qualitative researchers can quite easily get bogged down with the complexity and amount of data, which can lead to a diluting of results (Clarke, 2005). The research team addressed this challenge by engaging in a two-step coding process: engaging in group coding of the first three transcripts and then dyadic coding of the remaining transcripts. Through saturation, the research team was able to establish categories that captured the main themes and ideas of the participant statements and check their own biases and values as potentially impacting the interpretation of the codes.

The research team was composed of members who themselves are from diverse backgrounds and who had experiences as doctoral students in CES programs. In addition, all members of the research team currently work in counselor training programs and wrestle with the same questions under review— namely, how to recruit, support, and retain diverse students. The research team attempted to address limitations through developing a priori codes potentially rooted in their own experiences and through recording memos during each group and individual coding session to capture the presence of personal values, biases, or experiences, as well as checking other team members' codes. Although it is impossible to fully account for all potential biases present in a qualitative analysis, these efforts of diligently checking experiences aimed to mitigate this impact on the overall results and conclusions of the study.

Although the coding team believed that data reached saturation at 15 interviews, the sample was small ($N = 15$) for the method of inquiry according to Creswell and Poth (2018). Although we believe that limiting the number of respondents to no more than one faculty member per program was helpful in reducing the potential for bias due to group effect, it is possible that the faculty members surveyed were not the sole representations of their counselor education program. As with many qualitative studies, generalizability to the larger population is limited. However, it is noteworthy that the demographics of the participants in the current study do align with typical cultural representation of counselor education programs (CACREP, 2018).

Future quantitative studies are needed to evaluate the size of the effect of these strategies on recruitment and retention rates of diverse students in CES doctoral programs. For example, future studies could evaluate the relationship between student perceptions of proactive and intentional efforts toward connecting with cultural identity, personalized support, and faculty involvement with actual retention rates of diverse students in CES programs and their overall student satisfaction. Such

information would be helpful to decipher which of these factors has the greatest impact on recruiting, retaining, and supporting diverse students in CES doctoral programs, which would be useful information for current CES doctoral programs.

Conclusion

This study highlights that although more efforts to recruit and retain students from diverse backgrounds are needed, when counselor education programs are intentional and proactive, it has a meaningful impact. What seems to be effective in recruiting, retaining, and supporting diverse students is developing a connection to cultural identity, support that is personalized, and faculty involvement. When students from diverse backgrounds feel some connection to their specific cultural identity and receive personalized support, they are more likely to enter a program and persist. Finally, the involvement of faculty at all levels of the recruitment and retention process is monumental. Students from diverse backgrounds perceive counselor education programs as inviting and able to meet their cultural needs when programming is intentional and proactive.

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Appendix A

Interview Protocol

1. For context, please briefly describe how you self-identify and your background. This information will be aggregated; individual participant responses will not be associated with any quotes in subsequent manuscripts.

> Gender:
> Sexual/Affective Orientation:
> Race and Ethnicity:
> Years as a Faculty Member in a Counselor Education Program:
> Years as a Faculty Member in a <u>Doctoral</u> Counselor Education Program:
> Number of Doctoral Counselor Education Programs You Have Worked In:
> Regions of Doctoral Counselor Education Programs You've Worked In (using regions commonly defined by national counselor education associations and organizations):

2. How might you define a "high-quality" doctoral program?

3. What do you believe to be the most important components? The least important?

4. How have you helped students to successfully navigate the dissertation process?

5. Which strategies has your program used to <u>recruit</u> underrepresented students from diverse backgrounds? How successful were those?

6. Which strategies has your program used to <u>support and retain</u> underrepresented students from diverse backgrounds? How successful were those?

7. What guidance might you provide to faculty who want to <u>start</u> a new doctoral program in counseling with regards to working with administrators and gaining buy-in?

8. What guidance might you provide to faculty who want to <u>sustain</u> an existing doctoral program in counseling with regards to working with administrators and gaining ongoing support?

9. Last question. What other pieces of information would you like to share about running a successful, high-quality doctoral program?

nbcc

The Minority Fellowship Program: Promoting Representation Within Counselor Education and Supervision

Susan F. Branco, Melonie Davis

In 2012, the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration awarded funding for the Minority Fellowship Program (MFP) to be managed by the National Board for Certified Counselors (NBCC) Foundation. The MFP aims to increase representation of minoritized students enrolled in counselor education and supervision doctoral programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP). From 2012 to 2018, the NBCC MFP has disseminated 20–24 monetary fellowships each year. This article reviews representation within counselor education, offers a history of the MFP, provides doctoral fellowship recipient outcome data, and concludes with implications for counselor education.

Keywords: Minority Fellowship Program, counselor education and supervision, National Board for Certified Counselors Foundation, CACREP, representation

In August 2012, the Substance Abuse and Mental Health Services Administration (SAMHSA) awarded $1.6 million to the National Board for Certified Counselors Foundation (NBCCF) to oversee the Minority Fellowship Program (MFP) for underrepresented, minoritized students in doctoral counselor education and supervision (CES) programs (Shallcross, 2012). The groundbreaking award for the counseling profession aimed to increase minoritized student representation in CES doctoral programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP). It is important to note that NBCC now also offers MFP master's-level fellowships for those students committed to collaborating with underrepresented and minoritized populations (NBCCF, n.d.). The goal of this article is to review the status of underrepresented racially and ethnically diverse faculty within counselor education, describe the doctoral MFP, and share the grant outcome data from its inception in 2012 through 2019.

Underrepresentation in CES

Diverse racial and ethnic representation within counselor education impacts recruitment and retention of master's- and doctoral-level students of color (Henfield et al., 2013), perceived quality and content of course instruction to promote diverse perspectives (Seward, 2014), and preparation for graduates to work with diverse client populations (SAMHSA, 2020). Further, the *ACA Code of Ethics* (American Counseling Association [ACA], 2014) mandates that "counselor educators are committed to recruiting and retaining a diverse faculty" (F.11.a, p. 15). Similarly, CACREP (2015) requires that counselor education programs seek to recruit and retain both diverse faculty and students. Although representation of faculty of color in counselor education has increased (Baggerly et al., 2017), the majority of counselor educators are White (71.38%), with 14.52% Black, 4.77% Latinx, 4.03% Asian American, and 0.7% Native American (CACREP, 2018).

Susan F. Branco, PhD, NCC, ACS, BC-TMH, LPC, LCPC, is a clinical assistant professor at The Family Institute at Northwestern University. Melonie Davis, MA, NCC, LCMHC-A, is Professional Development Coordinator for the National Board for Certified Counselors Foundation. Correspondence may be addressed to Susan Branco, 618 Library Place, Evanston, IL 60201, susan.branco@northwestern.edu.

Gains made in ethnic and racial diversity among counselor education faculty and their subsequent experiences have shed light on oppressive factors that impact minoritized faculty members' success. Spanierman and Smith (2017) urged ACA and the American Psychological Association to initiate a closer examination of how White hegemonic practices can be dismantled within their profession and training programs. Research has documented the experiences of faculty of color with microaggressions and disappointment in the counselor education profession during the on-campus interview process (Cartwright et al., 2018) and throughout the tenure and promotion academic journey, including experiencing isolation as a faculty member of color (Pérez & Carney, 2018). Other studies of female faculty of color in counselor education have illuminated the professional and personal strain experienced as they navigate a system traditionally built for White male faculty (Haskins et al., 2016; Shillingford et al., 2013).

However, despite the documented challenges for counselor educators of color, research also has highlighted factors that support their success and resilience in the academy. Cartwright et al. (2018) recommended that counselor education programs seek to understand the mentorship experiences of students of color in order to bolster retention. Henfield et al. (2013) and Spanierman and Smith (2017) echoed support for ongoing mentorship for students of color by faculty of color and intentionally recruiting and retaining faculty and students of color. Likewise, Pérez and Carney (2018) supported developing mentorship for new faculty of color as well as concerted preparation tailored for doctoral students of color to enter the academy. Lerma et al. (2015) additionally proposed the promotion of bicultural flexibility for faculty of color, which includes encouraging maintaining family ties as well as creating academic family support systems to include mentors, advisors, and allies. Next, a review of the MFP will be presented with focus on its incorporation into CACREP-accredited CES doctoral programs.

The Minority Fellowship Program (MFP)

SAMHSA commenced the MFP in 1973 in an effort to increase the number of ethnically and racially diverse, doctoral-level mental health practitioners to serve minoritized communities (SAMHSA, 2020). Currently, the SAMHSA (2020) MFP website notes that although racial and ethnic minority populations account for approximately 28% of the population, only 20% or less of the behavioral health care workforce includes those who identify as ethnically or racially minoritized individuals. Hence, the MFP also aims to reduce mental health disparities with regard to quality of service and access to behavioral health care (SAMHSA, 2020). J. M. Jones and Austin-Daily (2009) described the inception of the MFP as born from the advocacy of a group of Black psychiatrists. They reported that the initial MFP grant funding was distributed to ten doctoral-level minoritized psychology students led by an inaugural MFP Advisory Committee composed of prominent minoritized psychologists. Eventually, SAMHSA awarded MFP grant funding to additional mental health disciplines, including the American Nurses Association, the American Psychiatric Association, the Council on Social Work Education, and the American Association for Marriage and Family Therapy (Shallcross, 2012).

The counseling profession was notably absent from the MFP grant awardee list until 2012, when the U.S. Congress approved the funding to include professional counselors (Shallcross, 2012). At the time, NBCC was awarded a $1.6 million grant to initiate and oversee the MFP for doctoral-level CES students. Then–NBCC President and CEO Thomas Clawson stated:

> The NBCC Minority Fellowship Program will strategically promote and provide fellowships to doctoral students in the counseling profession. The fellows will obtain training in mental health and substance abuse, with specialty training in culturally competent service delivery. Fellows will provide leadership to the profession

through education, research and practice benefiting vulnerable underserved consumers. The fellowship program will increase system capacity by increasing the number of culturally competent professional counselors available to underserved populations through engaging 24 doctoral fellows per year, by promoting national standards in culturally competent care and by providing online and conference-based training to practicing professional counselors. We like to project this yearly number over a decade to imagine more than 200 doctoral-level counselors and counselor educators being added to our ranks. (as cited in Shallcross, 2012, para. 8)

The inaugural NBCC MFP awarded 24 fellowships to doctoral students enrolled in CACREP-accredited CES programs (NBCCF, 2014). From 2013 to 2018, NBCC MFP doctoral-level fellowships were awarded to 138 students (NBCCF, 2018). Table 1 offers a demographic breakdown of doctoral-level NBCC MFP recipients.

Table 1

MFP Demographic Information from 2013–2018

Year	Number of Fellowships Awarded	Female	Male	Other	Racial Category						Doctoral Completion	Post-Doctoral Employment	
					AA	W	H	AI	A/PI	MR		CE	Clinical
2013	24	17	7		17	2	5	-	-	-	100%		-
2014	22	15	7		10	5	4	1	1	1	100%	1	2
2015	23	20	3		18	-	2	1	1	1	100%	7	2
2016	23	19	4		9	3	6	1	2	2	IP	6	2
2017	23	19	4		12	5	1	2	2	1	IP	2	2
2018	23	19	3	1	15	5	-	-	3	-	IP	2	2
2019	20	13	7		10	4	5	-	1	-	IP		-
Total	158	122	35	1	91	24	23	5	10	5		18	10

Note. The U.S. Census defines racial categorization based on identifying with "original peoples" of designated racial group (N. A. Jones & Bullock, 2012, p. 2): African American (AA), White (W), Hispanic/Latinx (H), American Indian (AI), Asian/Pacific Islander (A/PI), and Multi-Racial (MR). IP = degree completion in progress; CE = counselor education.

NBCC MFP Structure

Applications for the doctoral MFP are reviewed by NBCCF volunteers, many of whom are NBCC MFP alumni (NBCCF, 2019). Applicants must demonstrate a strong commitment to working with underserved and marginalized populations—including those who identify as racially, ethnically, and culturally diverse as well as members of the LGBTQIA population—after completion of their CES doctoral degree. Final applicant decisions are made by the MFP Advisory Council, composed of six counselors and/or counselor educators who represent diverse ethnic, racial, or linguistic backgrounds and have extensive experience "providing mental health counseling services to underserved racial and ethnic minority communities" (NBCCF, 2019, p. 63). Before MFP awards are conferred, finalists must agree and attest to the terms of the MFP: (a) documentation of enrollment in a CACREP-accredited program, (b) attendance at required MFP orientation and relevant training, and (c) continued and ongoing collaboration with underserved and marginalized clients or students within counselor education (NBCCF, 2019).

Individual Fellowship Plan. NBCC MFP staff work with each individual fellow to craft an Individual Fellowship Plan (IFP) in which educational and impact goals for the fellow's targeted underserved community are created with the goal of completion during the fellowship year (NBCCF, 2019). Goals must have a stated benefit for or impact on the underserved or marginalized community with whom the MFP fellow is working and must also demonstrate an educational impact for the MFP fellow. Progress toward IFP goals are tracked by MFP staff and in collaboration with assigned mentors throughout the fellowship year in order to provide the necessary resources and support (NBCCF, 2019).

Mentors. MFP fellows are paired with volunteer mentors, many of whom are MFP alumni themselves and/or serve as counselor educators and practicing counselors (NBCCF, 2019). Mentorship occurs throughout the fellowship year in an effort to provide support and guidance for fellows as they navigate completion of their IFP, journey through the CES doctoral program, and consider professional careers (NBCCF, 2019). Mentors and mentees determine mutually agreed-upon goals, meeting times, and frequency, and establish the boundaries of the relationship for the fellowship.

Webinars and Trainings. All MFP fellows attend a minimum of six live or recorded webinars offered by NBCCF in their webinar series Innovations in Counseling: Working with Minority Populations and Building Professional Excellence (NBCCF, 2019). Training opportunities, such as attendance at the ACA or Association for Counselor Education and Supervision national or regional conferences promote fellows' educational and professional IFP goals. The fellowship year culminates in the annual Bridging the Gap Symposium on Eliminating Mental Health Disparities where "counselors, counselor educators, and counselors-in-training come together from around the country to focus on the provision of mental health care for underserved minority, military, rural, and marginalized groups" (NBCCF, 2019, p. 58).

NBCC has awarded MFP fellowships to seven doctoral cohorts since 2013. Many MFP fellows have graduated from their doctoral programs and entered the counseling profession as advanced practitioners, supervisors, and counselor educators. However, a comprehensive description of outcome information from all the cohorts has not been undertaken. Therefore, we aimed to collate MFP data gleaned from awardee demographic information and annual surveys completed by the fellowship cohort members.

Method

In order to access the NBCC MFP cohort data for our analysis, we sought permission from the NBCC MFP administrators. Because our analysis utilized previously collected data by the NBCC MFP administrators and would not divulge protected health information, the project was deemed to be "not human research" by the first author's institutional office of the IRB. Therefore, IRB approval was not warranted.

We aimed to collate the descriptive statistics gleaned from demographic data captured from applications of those doctoral students awarded the fellowship. We also culled qualitative responses from surveys distributed to NBCC MFP doctoral fellows during their fellowship year and 1 year after fellowship completion. The survey created by members of the NBCCF staff overseeing the MFP was developed to meet SAMHSA's reporting criteria for MFP grant recipients. The survey consisted of 39 questions and included nine open-ended questions, allowing for short answers from the survey recipients. We aimed to analyze responses to only one of the survey questions—"In what ways has this scholarship or fellowship been meaningful to you?"—as we believed responses would offer a broad range of fellow experiences. In total, surveys were distributed to 158 active and alumni fellows.

Sample

Surveys were distributed once per quarter, or four times, throughout the fellowship year to active MFP fellows. Alumni fellows who had completed their fellowship year received the survey in June. All surveys were distributed via electronic correspondence using the email on record for each fellow. During the MFP orientation, all fellows were instructed to complete the end-of-fellowship survey as a condition to acceptance of the NBCC MFP enrollment. The demographic and doctoral completion rate data was retrieved from the MFP applications and the surveys captured responses from 54 NBCC MFP cohort members from 2013 through 2018 (Table 1).

Procedure

First, we ensured that all NBCC MFP fellows had previously offered consent for their feedback and participation in the program to be used in a variety of ways including research activities as evidenced in the "Terms and Conditions of Program Participation" (NBCCF, 2019, p. 7). Next, we collated all MFP fellow demographic data using information found in their MFP applications and from the survey responses (Table 1). Surveys were distributed to active fellows four times a year and to alumni fellows once per year in June. In total, the surveys were sent to 158 fellows (both active and alumni).

Authors' Stance

The first author is a 2014 NBCC MFP cohort doctoral fellow alumna and identifies as a Latinx cisgender woman. She is a licensed professional counselor and is also a clinical assistant professor in a CACREP-accredited master's in clinical mental health counseling program. The second author identifies as an African American cisgender woman and is a licensed professional counselor associate. She serves as the Professional Development Coordinator for NBCCF. Both consulted frequently with regard to collating the descriptive and qualitative data for the manuscript.

Data Analysis and Trustworthiness

We utilized thematic analysis (Nowell et al., 2017) to categorize the qualitative data culled from one survey question: "In what ways has this scholarship or fellowship been meaningful to you?" Braun and Clarke (2012) suggested that thematic analysis specifically allows for exploration and understanding of "meaning across a data set" to allow the researcher to "see and make sense of collective or shared meanings of experiences" (p. 57). Specifically, we adhered to the following steps in the thematic analytic process.

We familiarized ourselves with the data and read through the entirety of the survey questions and responses multiple times and then separated out the short-answer responses to the survey question of focus. We then reviewed each short answer to the survey question in multiple rounds to absorb the content. We initiated the coding process by way of extracting meaning from the survey response phrases, and we utilized qualitative software to aid in the categorization of codes, ultimately developing an initial codebook. Next, we examined the codes to note patterns of connection in order to group data together to generate themes and subthemes. The categorization was added to the revised codebook. We reviewed the themes, then created and compared the codes to the themes to determine coherence and/or if we needed to recategorize. During this quality review phase, as described by Braun and Clark (2012), we asked ourselves critical questions to ensure that themes were not really codes and if there was enough data in the survey responses to support the themes. Then we defined and named our themes to aid in clarity and included relevant participant quotes from the survey responses to illuminate the themes. Finally, we added our findings to our initially written literature review.

We followed Nowell et al.'s (2017) recommendations to increase trustworthiness within thematic analysis to correspond with previously described analytic steps. We reviewed the survey responses at multiple points in the data gathering process prior to initiating analysis. We then utilized peer debriefing to discuss the coding process and developed an audit trail where we stored the coding iterations within qualitative software. In this step, we used the developed codebooks to organize codes into themes where subthemes emerged. We continued the vetting process of the themes to ensure the codes fit coherently within each theme and subtheme and adjusted the codebook accordingly. Eventually we reached consensus on the final theme and subtheme definitions. Then, we utilized an outside auditor, a counselor educator, who confirmed coherence for the themes, with one recommendation to provide justification for one subtheme, which we addressed. Lastly, during the reporting phase we asked a staff member of NBCCF to read through the manuscript to confirm that the themes aligned with the data presented.

Results

In regard to the survey question, "In what ways has this scholarship or fellowship been meaningful to you?", the overarching theme of *access to the profession* emerged, as evidenced by the number of responses highlighting the MFP as the "open door that gave me access." Within this theme, the subthemes of *doctoral program completion*, *networking*, *supportive cohort*, *financial support*, and *mentorship* surfaced. The remaining themes included *clinical and multicultural competence*, with the subtheme of *counselor identity*, and *paying it forward*, with the subtheme of *leadership*.

Access to the Profession

Survey respondents' experiences spoke to the overall sentiment of the MFP offering them an opportunity to enter the counseling profession, either as counselor educators or as clinical supervisors. The subthemes in this category described those aspects of the MFP that respondents utilized to gain access to the profession. Many of the responses reflected more than one subtheme.

The first subtheme, *doctoral program completion*, captures those respondents who indicated the MFP aided in their overall success to complete their studies. Examples included:

- "I achieved my dream of a PhD."
- "I would not have been able to complete my degree without it. I have made some lasting relationships."
- "Helped me graduate."
- "I was able to finish my doctoral program."

The following responses demonstrate how several factors supported a successful completion of the CES doctoral program:

- "The fellowship allowed me to complete my PhD and receive extra training to prepare for my career."
- "The fellowship helped me complete my program and support my family."
- "It allowed me to finish my PhD, strengthen my private practice, and get a job as an assistant professor. This fellowship has been the most meaningful and beneficial award I've ever received."

The *networking* subtheme describes how access to other CES doctoral students, professional counselors, and counselor educators benefited fellows' entrance into the profession. Responses underscored how networking aided the fellows both during and after the fellowship year:

- "I was able to connect with other scholars of color and the resources provided by the Foundation."
- "Through the fellowship, I have developed professional and personal relationships that have resulted in jobs, consultation opportunities, and peer networks."
- "Networking has been the key element of the fellowship."
- "It has provided invaluable contacts and collegial relationships that are invaluable."
- "The fellowship was instrumental in making connections with other counselor educators. We have done presentations at conferences together as well as sharing our experiences in counselor education. Also, we have shared resources."

The following responses also merge into the next subtheme related to the benefit of supportive cohort members:

- "I continue to benefit from the fellowship experience through connections with other fellows and by continuing to plow the ground cleared during the fellowship experience."
- "This fellowship has connected me with many leaders in the profession that I would not have been able to connect with. It has also provided another cohort of peers to receive support and encouragement from when career challenges become overwhelming and discouraging."

The next subtheme, *supportive cohort*, reflects how the camaraderie, encouragement, and relationships developed with cohort members acted as positive reinforcement throughout the doctoral CES experience. Statements emphasized the respondents' healthy dependence on the MFP cohort model, in which members may provide motivation and guidance even beyond the fellowship year:

- "My NBCC MFP cohort is my family. I have continued the relationships with other cohort members, and we share resources with one another as well as support one another in the work we are doing."
- "The network of fellows has been my peer group and support system since 2013."
- "The group has guided me through my dissertation and job search."
- "The relationships built from the fellowship provided a long-lasting impact in my professional development."

The penultimate subtheme, *financial support*, described how the $20,000 financial grant offered to doctoral-level fellows aided in their ability to successfully complete their CES doctoral education:

- "The fellowship provided a financial opportunity that allowed me to graduate with less debt. Even more so, it has provided an invaluable professional network."
- "It has changed my life and my career. Being part of the NBCC family is amazing! Taking leaps of faith with the money was the best thing I could have ever done."
- "The NBCC fellowship has meant the world to me because otherwise I would have been in a significant amount of debt in completing my doctoral studies. In the last year of the doctoral program, our school did not provide any funding, so the fellowship brought me to the finish line so that I could initiate my career as a counselor educator."

All exemplify MFP fellow statements regarding the benefit of funding toward their doctoral degree. Similar to other subthemes, some respondents identified many areas that crossed subthemes and contributed to their success: "This fellowship has been instrumental in my successful completion of the doctoral program through resources, mentorship, financial support, and a network of professionals."

Mentorship, the final subtheme in this category, reflects the impact of the mentors supporting fellows through their doctoral journey. Respondents indicated, "It allowed me to get the funding and mentorship needed to successfully graduate and transition into the mental health counseling field," and "The scholarship was meaningful in providing collegial relationships with others pursuing their PhD, connected me with mentors and provided useful resources." Mentorship, among other resources, is a core component of the MFP.

Clinical and Multicultural Competence

Survey respondents spoke to the NBCC MFP's structured training in clinical and multicultural competencies woven within the fellowship year. Some responses included the following:

- "It helped me become more confident about my counseling skills, especially when working with minority populations."
- "Assisted me in completing my dissertation and getting the cultural training I needed."
- "The fellowship allowed me to intern at the U.S. Department of Education, which enriched my understanding of services to people with disabilities."

The annual Bridging the Gap Symposium and its emphasis on mental health inequalities was mentioned in one response: "The [Symposium] networking with other fellows has been valuable. I've been able to build upon my education in regard to health care disparities for people of color."

The subtheme of *counselor identity* describes survey respondents' development as counselors within the profession. Examples included, "This fellowship validated my counselor identity because my interest is with minority populations," and "Expanding my professional development and further defined my counselor identity."

Paying It Forward

The final theme highlights how NBCC MFP fellow respondents desired to give back to the MFP community via mentorship, application reviews, and/or serving on the MFP Advisory Council. Some statements included:

- "I've also been able to give back and mentor others as well as review scholarship/ fellowship proposals. Having those opportunities allowed me to have an influence on the counseling field."
- "Further, I have been able to share my experiences as a fellow with my master's students and encourage them to apply."
- "The most meaningful elements of the fellowship have been the increased professional network and the opportunity to give back to the MFP by working with NBCCF and new fellows."

The subtheme of *leadership* spotlights how the fellowship experience strengthened fellows' leadership capacities and skills. One example included, "The fellowship has afforded me the opportunity to

increase my leadership skills within the counseling profession, as well as provided me with resources and tools to enhance professional networking." Another respondent encapsulated leadership within their fellowship experience:

> I was able to complete my PhD with less financial burden than I had expected. I have made fabulous professional connections with other giants in the field of counseling and cohorts in the fellowship program, which has encouraged my ongoing research and presentation schedule. I have been motivated to give back to my physical community and my academic community because of a newfound sense of responsibility to utilize my degree and skills to their fullest advantage. The fellowship made me realize that my education was much more than a personal and professional milestone, but an opportunity to become a leader and an advocate in the counseling field. I take that very seriously.

Discussion

Since its inception within doctoral counselor education, the NBCC MFP has awarded fellowships to 158 CES doctoral students all committed to continued work with marginalized and underrepresented students and/or clients within the profession. The SAMHSA-funded MFP aimed to increase diversity among doctoral-level clinical providers and educators. The findings suggest the MFP within counselor education is successfully meeting this goal as evidenced by the theme of *access to the profession,* in which survey respondents described how the support system offered by the MFP, including networking, the cohort model, the $20,000 financial award, and mentorship, aided in their completion of their doctoral studies and, in many cases, supported their transition to the profession, either as clinical practitioners or counselor educators. According to the survey results, 18 MFP fellows have entered the counselor education profession.

Additionally, the NBCC MFP is meeting its intended goal to promote multicultural competence by training doctoral-level counselors who then may appropriately serve diverse communities and students. The theme of *clinical and multicultural competence* reflected the advantages of ongoing clinical and multiculturally competent training offered throughout the MFP fellowship year. Former NBCC President and CEO Thomas Clawson also reported that another goal for the NBCC MFP was to train and prepare doctoral-level leaders within the counseling profession (as cited in Shallcross, 2012). This goal is also being met as evidenced by the subtheme of *leadership* within the *paying it forward* theme. The survey respondents described their commitment to give back to their communities as a result of their participation in the NBCC MFP and indicated that acting as leaders within the profession is one relevant way in which to do so. The survey results report 10 participants are serving as clinical supervisors and/or practitioners in their target communities.

In addition, the survey responses also offer glimpses into the NBCC MFP's potential buffers to known challenges faced by counselor educators of color. These include lack of mentorship by other faculty of color (Henfield et al., 2013), isolation (Seward, 2014), and overall lack of preparedness to adjust to the demand of a system created for White males (Spanierman & Smith, 2017). Participants' responses suggest that MFP resources, including mentorship, networking, and the cohort model, offered ongoing opportunities for fellows to engage in communities of support, encouragement, and motivation to complete their doctoral degrees and, in many instances, enter the academy. In some cases, responses indicated that fellows experienced a heightened level of support well beyond their

fellowship year and into their new roles as early professionals. These reported factors might prevent and or buffer challenges experienced by counselor educators of color.

Implications

Several recommendations for counselor educators, supervisors, and doctoral students of diverse backgrounds can be ascertained from what we know about the NBCC MFP since its inception in CES in 2012. First, counselor educators can become knowledgeable about the NBCC MFP and its application deadlines to encourage CES doctoral students committed to working with diverse communities to apply. In so doing, counselor educators can also mentor CES students as they gather application materials.

Secondly, counselor educators and clinical supervisors may increase their multicultural competency knowledge by accessing the clinical trainings offered by NBCCF and may likewise encourage all doctoral- and master's-level counseling graduate program students to access those resources. Such training aligns with Seward's (2014) call to systemically infuse training to address the needs of students and faculty of color. In addition, more direct and open communication about such training needs may also promote an improved classroom and program racial climate (Seward, 2014).

According to survey respondents, many aspects of the NBCC MFP bolstered and supported their efforts to complete their doctoral programs and transition to the profession. Counselor educators, supervisors, and CES doctoral students may capitalize on the access and relationships that are made available through the MFP, thereby creating inclusion and support in academic spaces where faculty of color might otherwise be overlooked or misunderstood. Counselor educators and supervisors may consider how the structural elements of the MFP could be replicated within their programs in addition to the focus on clinical and multicultural training, mentorships, networking, and a collaborative student experience, with emphasis placed on addressing cultural factors to create a supportive environment for students and faculty of color (Shillingford et al., 2013). Such an endeavor requires intentionality through an honest evaluation of CES program recruitment and retention practices of faculty of color (Baggerly et al., 2017), an examination of how multiculturalism and social justice are infused throughout the program (Spanierman & Smith, 2017), and ongoing program assessment.

Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

One significant limitation is the low number of survey responses. Although we had access to survey responses from cohort members between 2013 through 2018, approximately one third of the 158 fellows across the six cohorts responded to the surveys. Therefore, the findings cannot be generalized to all MFP fellows' experiences. Given this limitation, future reviews should include larger numbers of cohort data. To address this limitation, in 2020, MFP administrators initiated a fellow engagement committee to encourage ongoing fellow participation after fellowship completion as well as enforce stricter regulations surrounding survey completion (M. Davis, personal communication, June 29, 2020).

In addition, only one out of the nine short-answer survey questions was selected for data analysis. The remaining survey data could be further analyzed for a more in-depth examination of respondent experiences. Future research should include qualitative studies to gain greater clarity on fellow experiences in order to better understand what aspects of the MFP structure were perceived as most beneficial as well as MFP fellow recommendations for improvements to the program. Additional quantitative research focusing on fellow self-efficacy within counselor education could be conducted

utilizing pre- and post-fellowship year assessments. Another area deserving attention is how the NBCC MFP might recruit and maintain more male-identifying applicants of color given the lower number of males awarded MFP fellowships. Finally, exploration examining counselor education faculty awareness of the MFP would be helpful to learn how to reach a broader audience of potential doctoral applicants.

Conclusion

Since 2012, the SAMHSA-grant funded MFP in collaboration with NBCC has awarded 158 fellowships to CES doctoral students throughout the country. This article reviewed the most recent demographics reflecting diverse representation within counselor education and included challenges encountered by counselor education faculty of color. Next, descriptive outcome data and qualitative themes culled from MFP fellow survey responses were presented. The findings demonstrate evidence that the goals of the NBCC MFP to promote diverse representation within counselor education are being met.

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Faculty Perspectives on Strategies for Successful Navigation of the Dissertation Process in Counselor Education

Michelle Ghoston, Tameka Grimes, Jasmine Graham, Justin Grimes, Thomas A. Field

This research was conducted as part of a larger qualitative study that involved the collection and analysis of in-depth interviews with 15 counselor educators at counselor education and supervision doctoral programs accredited by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP). The participants were asked to identify strategies used to help students navigate the dissertation process and if the strategies were successful. Structural and relational strategies were identified as significant to the successful completion of the dissertation process. Although additional research is necessary to determine if the strategies are successful for faculty and students in other counselor education and supervision doctoral programs, we identified five themes that support the completion of the dissertation process: (a) mechanics of the program, (b) supportive environment, (c) selecting and working with committee members, (d) intentionality in developing a scholar identity, and (e) accountability.

Keywords: dissertation process, counselor education and supervision, CACREP, strategies, doctoral

Nearly 100,000 people pursue a doctoral degree in the United States every year (Jairam & Kahl, 2012). The pursuit of a doctoral degree in one's identified field of study is considered an extraordinary feat. Earning a doctoral degree is an indication that one has achieved the apex in their identified area of expertise. Nevertheless, across all disciplines, the doctoral completion rate lags at 57% (Neale-McFall & Ward, 2015). There is a paucity of literature regarding how individuals navigate the process necessary to obtain a doctoral degree, including completing a dissertation. As with other fields, counselor education has a dearth of research into factors associated with doctoral completion and graduation (Golde, 2005; Hill et al., 2005; Protivnak & Foss, 2009).

The dissertation process can be confusing and arduous despite completing the journey with the support and guidance of a faculty member chairperson (Mauch & Park, 2003). The chairperson holds a senior position in terms of knowledge in the field and understanding of the process needed to ensure a successful dissertation. Although this process can take differing paths depending on the field, completing the dissertation is the ultimate goal in order to cross the threshold of earning a Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) or Doctor of Education (EdD) degree. For doctoral candidates who desire to progress through the dissertation process, a successful dissertation is the difference between achieving the pinnacle of one's educational and professional goals versus remaining at the "all but dissertation" (ABD) phase.

Two major themes exist in the research literature relevant to successful dissertation experiences: the development of research identity and the importance of the advising relationship (Limberg et al., 2013; Neale-McFall & Ward, 2015). Further, Flynn et al. (2012) developed a theory that explains the experiences

Michelle Ghoston, PhD, ACS, LPC, LCMHC, is an assistant professor at Wake Forest University. Tameka Grimes, PhD, NCC, is an assistant professor at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. Jasmine Graham, PhD, is an assistant professor at Indiana University–Purdue University Indianapolis. Justin Grimes, PhD, is an assistant director for the Office of Recruitment, Diversity, & Inclusion for the Graduate School at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. Thomas A. Field, PhD, NCC, CCMHC, ACS, LPC, LMHC, is an assistant professor at the Boston University School of Medicine. Correspondence may be addressed to Michelle Ghoston, 7406 Reynolda Station, Winston-Salem, NC 27109, ghostonm@wfu.edu.

of counseling professionals during the dissertation phase. Their specific theory of initiation, management, and completion of the dissertation includes three elements: relational factors (i.e., personal relationships and friends), professional factors (i.e., career and professional identity), and internal factors (i.e., within the person). These themes are explored to position this study in the context of what is currently known about high-quality doctoral dissertation advising from the perspective of the chairperson, which further supports the theory of initiation, management, and completion of the dissertation process.

Research Identity Development

The experiences and challenges associated with the pursuit of a doctoral degree in counselor education and supervision (CES) have received increased focus within scholarly literature (Hinkle et al., 2014; Hoskins & Goldberg, 2005; Lamar & Helm, 2017; Neale-McFall & Ward, 2015). Critical to the pursuit of a doctoral degree is the scholarly identity forged among students during the dissertation process (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Limberg et al., 2013). For some doctoral students, the pursuit of a doctoral degree in CES is connected to research interests and goals developed during post–master's degree experiences (Farmer et al., 2017; Hinkle et al., 2014). Upon entering a doctoral program, students often maintain those initial interests and goals or adopt new interests that align with expanded goals and/or faculty and program expectations (Lei, 2009). According to Hoskins and Goldberg (2005), congruence between students' goals, faculty expectations, and doctoral program goals is a key determinant of student attrition and persistence in CES doctoral programs.

Faculty have an important role in the development of a scholar and research identity among CES doctoral students (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Limberg et al., 2013). Relationships with mentors and faculty contribute to doctoral students' professional identity development as counselor educators (Limberg et al., 2013). To that end, faculty support is important in doctoral students' research identity development (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Lamar and Helm, 2017). Nevertheless, gaps persist within the study of research identity development in CES. Although there has been examination into students' rationales for the pursuit of graduate education in professional counseling and how this pursuit informs the development of one's professional identity (Limberg et al., 2013), less is known about the experiences of doctoral students in CES (Dollarhide et al., 2013). As a result, little is known about the professional, research, and scholar identity development of doctoral students in CES and how doctoral study impacts the aforementioned areas of identity development (Dollarhide et al., 2013).

Chairpersons provide research-related ideas, strategies, and requirements useful to the development of students' research identity. Examples of ideas and strategies include students seeing themselves as knowledge creators, the ability to identify gaps in literature, and a focus on completing a study that can be done in a reasonable time (Dollarhide et al., 2013). The dissertation stage is a place where students understand and accept their responsibility for creating new knowledge in the field. Yet, as faculty postulate these ideas and disseminate their recommendations to doctoral candidates, there may be a disconnect between seeing one's role as a knowledge creator (student) and gatekeeper (faculty).

As gatekeepers for their doctoral candidates, faculty create barriers and maintain rules around what they deem is research, a structure for how to conduct research, and how the research will impact the field of counselor education. Researchers have yet to explore how students receive this feedback. Having their needs considered and receiving consistent feedback have been outlined as helpful with doctoral students understanding how gatekeeping supports them throughout the dissertation process (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Hilliard, 2013).

Approaches to Advising

The dissertation chairperson has a number of roles to help a doctoral candidate be successful. According to Garcia et al., (1988), a lack of chairperson supervision or mentorship contributes to delayed completion or non-completion of the dissertation process. Given the importance of the dissertation chairperson, understanding chairpersons' approaches to advising and feedback is critical. Previous literature indicates three important elements of chairperson–student interactions in the dissertation process: (a) transparent and supportive feedback, (b) collaborative interactions, and (c) established communication expectations. These will be discussed below.

Transparent and Supportive Feedback

Hilliard (2013) provided a number of recommendations regarding transparent and supportive feedback to doctoral students. First, according to Hilliard, because chairpersons hold a major responsibility to ensure the student receives specific feedback for accepting improvements from other committee members, it is incumbent upon chairpersons to maintain positivity and professionalism when working with students. Second, chairpersons should demonstrate an ability to understand students' needs in the context of their current dissertation stage. Lastly, Hilliard advises chairpersons to make consistent efforts to provide appropriate and useful feedback to students that informs them of their progress toward dissertation completion.

Nevertheless, there are a number of additional challenges in addressing feedback, including the strategies and ideas provided through feedback. Giving and receiving feedback can be challenging. Questions regarding when, where, and how feedback should be given further complicates the feedback process (Purgason et al., 2016). The complication in the feedback process occurs largely because both parties, chairperson and doctoral candidate, have a responsibility to provide and share feedback and oftentimes expectations are not established. However, in general, the chairperson has the added responsibility of initially broaching feedback, as well as establishing norms and expectations around how and when feedback can occur (Purgason et al, 2016).

Finally, faculty provide critical feedback in a supportive manner. Learning is most likely to occur when feedback is critical yet supportive, provided in a timely manner, and given with time for the advisee to receive and respond (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Idrus et al., 2018). The challenge faculty members face in following this structure of providing and receiving feedback is that it can create growth but may lead to feelings of frustration experienced by both individuals (Idrus et al., 2018; Waring, 2017). A response to address this challenge is to consider the whole person (i.e., professional identity and social and emotional wellness beyond academics) and educate students on the usefulness of giving and receiving feedback (Idrus et al., 2018).

Collaborative Interactions

Neale-McFall and Ward (2015) found that CES doctoral students were most satisfied when working with chairpersons who they perceived to be collaborative. This was a significant contributor to doctoral student satisfaction with the dissertation process. Additionally, Hilliard (2013) recommended that chairpersons work collaboratively by utilizing dissertation committee members' expertise.

Established Communication Expectations

Hilliard (2013) noted that students are more likely to move successfully through the dissertation process if there are clear expectations communicated, written, and agreed upon with the faculty. Expectations that include each of these elements provide a foundation for the way feedback will be given and received. Moreover, clear communication expectations can help the doctoral candidate with

productivity and keep both parties accountable throughout the dissertation process (Hilliard, 2013). Clear expectations provide a structure for the dissertation process and help candidates efficiently move through this phase of their doctoral journey (Flynn et al., 2012; Hilliard, 2013). In establishing these expectations, department and program faculty share the roles of the dissertation chairperson as coach and supporter of the doctoral student. Faculty and students have named other essential parts of successfully advancing through the process, including the degree of involvement, having systems of support, mentoring, and fitting within the departmental culture (Dollarhide et al., 2013). Despite naming these essential parts for success, little is known about how these factors impact successful navigation of the dissertation process.

Purpose of the Study

Previous research with current and former doctoral students has found that students see a number of criteria as vital to their success in the doctoral process. These criteria include professionalism, clear expectations, and consistent feedback from their advisor, as well as a collaborative approach to the dissertation and mentoring processes (Neale-McFall & Ward, 2015; Purgason et al., 2016; Sinady et al., 2009). Although these studies provide a detailed picture from the students' perspective, limited research exists regarding the topic of successful dissertation advising from the perspective of faculty advisors. Faculty advisors play an integral role in the success of doctoral students as they progress through the dissertation process (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Limberg et al., 2013). To address this gap in knowledge, this research explored the following question: From a faculty member's perspective, what strategies help students navigate the dissertation process, and how successful are those strategies? A qualitative design was selected to elicit an in-depth analysis of the experiences of faculty members supporting students in the dissertation process, affording the research team the opportunity to value all responses regardless of the frequency or number of responses (Lincoln & Guba, 2013).

Methods

This study was a part of a larger qualitative research study that was led by the fifth author. That larger study utilized a basic qualitative research design, with the primary goal of collecting and analyzing qualitative data, and employed the constant comparative method to collect, code, and categorize the data (Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The data was collected using in-depth qualitative semi-structured interviews (see Appendix) with 15 faculty members in CES doctoral programs. Data collection continued until saturation was achieved and no new ideas were presented. Saturation was determined when the same themes were repeated by multiple participants. Participants responded to interview questions regarding issues pertinent to doctoral CES programs, specifically the components of high-quality programs, strategies to recruit and retain underrepresented students, strategies for working with administrators, and strategies for successful dissertation advising. In this study, a research team comprised of the first four authors analyzed and coded interview data pertinent to the research question: From a faculty member's perspective, what strategies help students navigate the dissertation process, and how successful are those strategies? The goal of employing this research question was to identify successful strategies utilized by faculty to support doctoral students in completing the dissertation process and to understand the effectiveness of these strategies.

Participants

Participants in this study were full-time core faculty members in CES doctoral programs accredited by the Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP). The participants worked in CACREP-accredited CES programs that had doctoral-level students. All participants had experience serving as a dissertation chairperson. Maximum variation sampling—that is, deliberately selecting a wide range of extremes from the population—was used to select participants

to increase the likelihood of a diverse and representative sample (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Participants were selected one at a time to ensure adequate variation of the selection criteria. The selection criteria included: a) gender self-identification, b) racial and ethnic self-identification, c) Carnegie classification of the university where the participant was currently employed (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2019), d) length of time working in doctoral-level counselor education programs, e) the method used to deliver the counselor education program where the participant was currently working (e.g., in person, online), and f) the region of the counselor education program where the participant was currently working. Based on previous research (Cartwright et al., 2018; Hill et al., 2005; Lambie et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2015), each of the noted criterion were believed to have some impact on the participants' perspectives and, ultimately, their responses. Data saturation occurred after 15 interviews. A constant comparative method was utilized to assure saturation.

All 15 participants interviewed for this study taught in separate and unique CES programs. No program was represented by more than one participant. The demographics of the participants included eight self-identified males (53.3%) and seven self-identified females (46.7%). No participants identified as non-binary or transgender. All but one of the participants identified as heterosexual ($n = 14$, 93.3%); the one remaining participant identified as bisexual (6.7%). Racial and ethnic representation, also self-reported, was largely White ($n = 11$, 73.3%). Other racial groups represented included African American ($n = 1$, 6.7%), Asian ($n = 1$, 6.7%), Latinx ($n = 1$, 6.7%), and multiracial/multiethnic ($n = 1$, 6.7%). According to the 2017 CACREP Vital Statistics report, 71.38% of counselor education faculty in CACREP-accredited programs are White (CACREP, 2018). Thus, our sample was representative of the CES profession as it relates to the cultural identification of being White.

The participants averaged 19.7 years ($SD = 9.0$ years) of experience as full-time faculty members. Most of the participants' years as faculty members were spent at the doctoral level in CES programs ($M = 17.3$ years, $SD = 9.2$ years, $Mdn = 16$ years). The number of years as a faculty member ranged from 3 to 33 years.

Procedure

After receiving approval from the last author's IRB, a database of doctoral-level counselor educator contacts who worked at the then 85 programs accredited by CACREP was created (CACREP, n.d.). Thirty-four faculty responded to the request to participate. Of the 34 respondents, 15 respondents (41% response rate) were selected to participate in the study. The process of selecting and interviewing the 15 participants was scheduled and conducted by the fifth author. The selection of the 15 participants was done using maximum variation sampling (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The interviews lasted for approximately 60 minutes and were recorded with the consent of each participant via the Zoom online format. One interview was completed during a professional conference and was recorded with a Sony digital audio recorder. Participants were assigned an alphabetical identifier to protect individual identities during the data analysis process. This step allowed all researchers to be blinded to the participants' identities except for the fifth author. The fifth author did not participate in the coding and analysis process in order to enhance participant anonymity and reduce the potential for bias during the data analysis process.

Interview Protocol

The interview question analyzed for this study was "How have you helped students to successfully navigate the dissertation process?" To start each interview, participants were asked the demographic questions mentioned above. Following the demographic information, eight in-depth questions were asked that addressed the research questions of the larger qualitative study (see Appendix). Per Patton's

(2015) recommendations, interview questions were open-ended, "why" questions were avoided, questions were as neutral as possible, and questions were asked one at a time. The interview protocol was piloted prior to the study commencing. Several questions were divided into two questions to ensure that only one question was asked at a time. A conventional semi-structured interview was used with follow-up questions allowed to ensure understanding of the participant responses. Each participant reviewed and signed the informed consent agreement approved by the last author's IRB prior to the interviews.

Data Analysis

The team coded, categorized, and analyzed data from the 15 interview transcripts. Transcripts were coded using an open verbatim coding process, followed by the development of axial codes using the constant comparative method to create themes that emerged from the data (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). The research team used a shared Google Sheet to document codes, descriptions for the codes, and, later in the coding process, broader categories. All members of the research team had access to each transcript in a Microsoft Word document through Dropbox. Each line of the transcript was read and discussed by team members, and then a verbatim portion(s) of the line that answered the research question was copied to the shared Google Sheet. Once the code was selected, the group determined a description for the code, using the context in the transcript as a guide. The first three of the 15 transcripts were coded collaboratively as a team during online coding sessions. This was necessary to establish consistency among the researchers and to increase trustworthiness in the data (Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Transcripts 4 through 11 were coded in pairs and the final four were coded individually with a second researcher available if there were questions. The first and second authors established a code key upon the completion of the first four transcripts.

Following initial coding, the first two authors met three additional times to come to a consensus regarding the collapsing of codes. For example, the code "playing politics" was initially identified. After all transcripts were coded, this code only had two direct quotes for support. Therefore, during a subsequent coding team meeting, the first two authors determined that this code had limited evidence from the data and it was collapsed into the code "selecting and working with committee members." Creating a code book made it possible for the team to track categories and to ultimately identify the themes that emerged from the data. Verbatim quotes of participants were noted and organized into themes. Themes were agreed upon by the first two authors and reviewed and supported by the third and fourth authors.

The research team continued coding until completion, maintaining agreement on new categories and descriptions added to the code key. Any discrepancies were resolved by all team members, reaching consensus on the final coding. The following steps were adhered to by the team: 1) asking clarifying questions of each other to be sure every perspective was considered; 2) rereading previous lines of the transcript and reading ahead a few lines to better understand context; 3) allowing space to reflect on what each person was thinking and feeling about a code; 4) considering new codes when participant statements seemed to indicate different data points within the same line of the transcript; and 5) referring back to the research question when considering if a statement fit the purpose of the study.

Trustworthiness

To ensure a reliable process, the researchers adhered to a 4-step process proposed by Moustakas (1994). First, the researchers bracketed personal experiences and assumptions regarding what was instrumental in completing the dissertation process. For example, the research team discussed the nature of their own dissertation experiences as people of color at predominantly White universities;

their beliefs that advising has a critical impact on student success, particularly for students of color; and their awareness that the faculty members' perspectives may not speak to what is actually experienced by doctoral candidates. There also was a need to discuss what is actually meant by a *successful* dissertation. For the purpose of this research, the team determined *successful* as completing the dissertation process and having a degree conferred. Additionally, the first author participated in another project from the larger qualitative study that allowed access to participant responses regarding other topics that were not analyzed as part of this study. The information obtained from the other project was not shared during meetings for coding nor data analysis. Further bracketing was achieved by fleshing out any potential areas of overlap with the fifth author, who had knowledge of all transcripts but did not participate in coding. Memos were kept regarding each team member's process.

Second, the researchers completed line-by-line, verbatim coding to identify repeated concepts and words within the transcripts. Third, the research team met on a regular basis to ensure consistency in coding and to resolve any discrepancies in the analysis process. During each of these meetings, memos were maintained to track methodological decisions and reactions to the data. Memos were kept by each coder to note thoughts, reactions, and methodological decisions during paired and individual coding. These memos were reviewed periodically by the fifth author, who was not actively participating in the coding process. Finally, the researchers questioned and investigated the constructs for themes to be sure to indicate the depth and breadth of the participants' perspectives.

Positioning

The coding team was comprised of the first four authors. The coding team consisted of three counselor educators and one graduate school assistant director. Coding team members were from three institutions, with two team members working at the same institution (one counselor educator and one graduate school assistant director). Three of the coding team members identified as Black women, and one member identified as a Black man. All four coding team members held Doctor of Philosophy (PhD) degrees earned within the last 7 years. Two of the four coding team members completed their dissertation process within the last 18 months. All four of the coding team members worked at institutions conferring doctoral-level degrees. All but one coding team member had etic (outsider) status, as they had not yet served on doctoral dissertation committees. One coding team member had emic (insider) status, having served on two dissertation committees and participated in three dissertation defense presentations and discussions. This coding team member had not yet served as a chairperson of a dissertation.

Coding team members with etic positioning knew that their own experiences as doctoral students would be the most present in their minds when coding data. This required a significant amount of bracketing and identification of a priori codes. The first four authors' initial meeting was dedicated to discussing these factors to ensure internal researcher accountability.

Potential biases of the research team included: (a) over-identifying with the data; (b) bracketing own negative experiences; (c) race and gender considerations (how our race and gender impacts how we see the recommendation); (d) having a higher education perspective and not a counselor education perspective; (e) role of privilege and how it plays out in the dissertation process and the lasting impact on early career progress; (f) awareness of differing program structures (some doctoral students mentored master's-level students and developed writing teams, setting them up to be more successful once they had graduated); (g) having participated in faculty searches and seen successful dissertation advising (turning dissertations into manuscripts) be a key component in who is hired; and (h) having projects prioritized over opportunities that helped the doctoral candidate be more successful (e.g., publications, grants). These were all areas that required the coding team to discuss

and process prior to delving into the transcripts. The coding team regularly challenged each other (i.e., suggested that a team member stop and reevaluate their position as it seemed more personal than based on the data) regarding these potential biases throughout the process.

The researchers identified a priori codes that included: (a) participants will be of the dominant culture; (b) how voices are centered would impact the data and results (hearing from the faculty member versus hearing from the student); (c) communication between student and chair, as well as student and committee, being important; (d) lack of awareness of race and gender influences on the dissertation advising process; (e) belief that the influence of the full identities of the doctoral candidate on their dissertation experience would not be captured in the data; (f) type of university (i.e., traditional, hybrid, online) impacts advising process; and (g) the doctoral student's timeline does not align with the chairperson's expectations of what the student needs (can impede the student getting to the end of the process successfully). Reconciling the a priori codes required coding team members to be open and honest regarding how their own experiences and perceptions have impacted their lens as educators and researchers. All researchers agreed to engage in these discussions during each meeting to ensure proper bracketing and to reduce the potential for bias negatively impacting the coding and analysis process.

Results

Five themes were identified based on the analysis of interviews with the 15 counselor educators who have served as dissertation chairpersons. The first and second authors collapsed 11 broader categories into the five emerging themes. The themes identified demonstrated some impact on a successful dissertation process: (a) mechanics of the program, (b) selecting and working with committee members, (c) intentionality in developing a scholar identity, (d) supportive environment, and (e) accountability. Each of these themes will be expounded upon below.

Mechanics of the Program

The mechanics of the program theme referred to program structures put in place that allowed students to move through the dissertation process. These program structures addressed the curriculum sequence and timelines. Faculty acknowledged that successfully navigating the dissertation process required a structured process on the program's part. A participant commented that, in their experience, having an unstructured program usually led to "more ABDs than if it is structured." Such a structured process started with "getting to know faculty members in terms of their research interests and identities and processes." As students developed this knowledge, they were able to see examples of different faculty research identities within counselor education, while also learning which professor might be a good fit as the chairperson for their dissertation committee.

From there, programs put curriculum sequences in place that allow students to begin thinking about the dissertation process from the start of their doctoral journey. According to multiple chairpersons, doctoral students in their programs had at least one class in which they wrote research papers or miniature dissertation proposals that could be a starting point for their actual dissertation proposal. Creating this structure in the program, they believed, also supported students in developing a scholar identity, a theme that will be addressed in more detail later in this article. As one participant shared, "Students would essentially write a mini version of their dissertation proposal with lots of feedback and guidance from the course instructor and lots of check-ins with their major professor." The class and check-ins became accountability measurements for the students, and these were established by the program as formalities rather than steps the students had to implement on their own.

Finally, chairpersons highlighted the importance of timelines as a necessary program structure to ensure student success in the dissertation process. These timelines are often externally imposed by larger entities, such as the graduate school and the university. In some circumstances, external deadlines created additional chaos for students. As a participant noted, sometimes an email was sent to the chairperson by administrators saying, "Grad College has changed their timeline for drops and deposits of thesis." In response, all the faculty member can do is "forewarn [the students]." Instances such as these were out of the control of the chairperson. On the other hand, internal deadlines created by the program and agreed upon between the student and dissertation chairperson were beneficial. Overall, chairpersons who highlighted timelines in discussions with students noted a higher level of success in completing the dissertation process.

Selecting and Working With Committee Members

Selecting and working with committee members specifically applied to which faculty members were invited to serve on the dissertation committee. The dissertation committee tends to include three, and in some cases four, faculty members. These members often include the chairperson, a co-chairperson, a methodologist and, in some cases, a specialty person (someone who has expertise with the identified topic). Participants indicated that the selection of these members could have a strong impact on the likelihood of successfully completing a dissertation rather than the student remaining ABD. Although there was some variability in whether the doctoral candidate selected the committee members or if this was done by the chairperson, all participants were consistent in disclosing the importance of selecting the "right" committee members.

Several participants reported that faculty and students should give careful thought to committee composition before inviting faculty to serve on a student's dissertation committee. Some faculty members can cause problems, such as being unresponsive and unsupportive. As one participant noted, "I don't let [doctoral candidates] select [faculty members] who have a history of causing problems on committees." Participants further noted that some students can get caught in political power dynamics between faculty. When this happens, the doctoral student has little to no power and has to rely on the chairperson to intervene.

Another participant noted that some faculty members are simply not able to be a part of a dissertation committee, stating, "Some faculty members are *horrible.* And some faculty members are not capable of being helpful to students. They have agendas of their own and they obstruct the progress." When faculty obstruct progress, it can have significant impacts on the student's likelihood of defending a dissertation successfully. When advising students, giving careful consideration to the composition of the dissertation committee seemed to be an important strategy to increase student likelihood of completing their dissertation.

Intentionality in Developing a Scholar Identity

Intentionality in developing a scholar identity was an important element of a successful dissertation strategy. Participants indicated that doctoral candidates should begin considering their dissertation topic and also identifying research methods of interest to them. As one participant shared, "When [doctoral candidates] are taking research methods . . . we encourage our students from day one to identify the general area of research that they're interested in and then apply that in research methods and stats and qualitative." Two participants both noted that students are more likely to go through the motions of completing a dissertation when they have not been thoughtful about their dissertation topic and have not been identifying a preferred methodology to address research questions pertinent to their topic.

In addition to helping students develop a research identity, participants identified the need for a balanced advising approach that helped students complete dissertations rather than becoming stuck in attempting to complete an unwieldy and unachievable dissertation. Participants reported that doctoral faculty needed to strike a balance between supporting the research ideas and interests of students and helping students identify projects that are achievable and realistic. As one participant noted, "It's more about finding the balance between what's gonna be a good and meaningful study for the student— hopefully what's going to be a potential contribution to the field—and then what can be done."

The participants noted that faculty should attend to the student's development of a scholar identity during the dissertation process. Per one participant, as the chairperson, there is a need for "demystifying what research development looks like."

Supportive Environment

The importance of creating a supportive environment was another key factor expressed by participants. A supportive environment, as described by several participants in this study, is relational: "[Mentoring] needs to happen in the context of relationship." A supportive environment appears to be established when faculty individualize their advising and mentoring to each student's personality and unique circumstances. As one participant stated, "Just as when we have to meet the client where they are, we also have to apply the same principle to our doc students." Participants also reported that doctoral students needed different approaches and styles of advising. One participant shared, "My style varies depending on the student and my assessment of the student's needs." Some students will need more direct instruction than others, as "not every student needs the same level of guidance." Other participants felt that faculty members could best guide students if they engaged in sustained relationships with them over time—"knowing somebody well enough and having enough contact with them over time to foresee some of those obstacles and help them navigate some of the roadblocks." Participants also spoke to the importance of the chairperson detecting how much challenge and support to provide. As one participant stated, "I constantly try to figure out how much [support] is enough for this person, without being so much that they're not learning what they need to learn in the process." A faculty member's established relationship with their doctoral students assists them in making such determinations.

The chairperson must provide feedback regarding whether a student's proposal fits within their identified timeline. As one participant stated, "My job is to ensure that the product is gonna be the best it can possibly be for the timeline that it is." Timelines, program structure, and the supportive environment overlap when the chairperson guides students to discern how to narrow their research idea into a manageable project that could be completed within the expected dissertation timeline. This conversation was another opportunity for faculty to mentor students and provide feedback in a way that would help the students be more successful in the dissertation process.

Many participants felt that a supportive environment enabled faculty to provide feedback and help students get "unstuck." Providing feedback must happen early, otherwise students "just keep making the same mistakes over and over again." When students become stuck in their dissertation process, a supportive environment helps students to be honest about their status. This honesty provides the chairperson with the information needed to give direction and feedback. As one participant shared, "Students almost embellish a little bit on how they were working because they were too afraid to say that they were stuck. So, for us, it's really dissecting that component. 'Where are you stuck? Let's talk about this.'" Engaging in such conversations in an honest and transparent way gave the chairperson the opportunity to target their support toward specific goals that helped the student make progress.

Accountability

Participants reported that faculty chairpersons were in regular contact with their doctoral candidates to provide accountability. For most participants, this contact needed to be face-to-face, whether in person or via an online platform. As one participant shared, "I want that student in my office or on a screen in front of me every single week with actionable goals." For this chairperson, a regular schedule of meetings ensured that there was a "constancy of contact." Another participant agreed with this suggestion and specifically noted that these check-ins should be weekly after the dissertation writing began. The concept of accountability seemed to intersect with the supportive environment because many participants saw accountability as a means of supporting the student throughout the dissertation process.

The five themes identified in this study highlighted what dissertation chairpersons believed led to a successful dissertation. Both structural factors (mechanics, committee selection, and scholar identity) and relational factors (supportive environment and accountability) appeared to impact the success of the dissertation process.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to identify successful strategies utilized by faculty to support doctoral students in completing the dissertation process and to understand the effectiveness of these strategies, as reported by the faculty members. The researchers engaged in verbatim coding to ensure that the perspectives of the participants were captured. Responses appeared to fall within two broad categories of structural and relational strategies. The structural elements highlighted the importance of a timeline and intentional department- and university-level scheduling and selection of committee members who are invested in the process of supporting the doctoral candidate in developing a scholar identity. Relational elements included a supportive environment and accountability as successful strategies in completing the dissertation process.

Structural Strategies

Institutions have their own timelines and processes, which doctoral candidates and chairpersons should know (e.g., approval of committee members, defense timeline, final submission procedures). When institutions change their processes or timelines, it greatly impacts the student's ability to complete the process.

Chairpersons hold a major responsibility in helping the doctoral candidate understand the process of completing the dissertation (Flynn et al., 2012). The chairperson should clearly communicate requirements and guidelines for successfully completing the dissertation process (Hilliard, 2013). Ineffective communication by the chairperson can result in doctoral candidates lacking a clear understanding of the structure, leaving the candidate feeling unsupported and discouraged (Flynn et al., 2012; Hilliard, 2013).

Chairpersons who know their doctoral candidate's strengths and weaknesses must seek committee members whose expertise fills gaps in areas where the student is not a content expert. The chairperson should also consider that the doctoral candidate's success hinges on everyone's investment in the process (Hilliard, 2013). The selection of committee members must thus be intentional, as not all faculty members are appropriate to serve on dissertation committees (Flynn et al., 2012). When the chairperson and doctoral candidate are strategic about selecting dedicated committee members, this may enhance the likelihood of a successful dissertation process. Students

may benefit from reviewing former student dissertations. This current study further supports these structural strategies previously highlighted by Hilliard (2013) and Flynn et al. (2012).

Although a successful dissertation is a goal, the participants indicated the need to also ensure that doctoral candidates develop a scholar identity. This scholar identity allows the doctoral candidate to establish themselves as a researcher beyond the program (Lambie et al., 2008; Lambie & Vaccaro, 2011). The development of a scholar identity brings the process full circle as the former doctoral candidate represents their graduating institution and the profession (Flynn et al., 2012; Lamar & Helm, 2017).

Relational Strategies

Developing a supportive environment is a crucial strategy for a successful dissertation experience (Perera-Diltz & Sauerheber, 2017). Supportive environments include open communication, mentorship, providing helpful feedback, and providing appropriate challenge to candidates when writing the manuscript (Dollarhide et al., 2013; Neale-McFall & Ward, 2015; Purgason et al., 2016).

Communication primarily happens through the use of digital mediums such as email and virtual conferencing, or verbally through face-to-face meetings and telephone calls (Hilliard, 2013). This communication establishes support and a means of accountability. Both the candidate and chairperson should establish expectations regarding when to meet, the purpose of the meeting, and items to bring to the meetings (e.g., written sections of a manuscript, updates on the IRB decision regarding review requests).

Irrespective of the meeting format and candidate support, communication and feedback with candidates must be clear, precise, timely, and offer candidates some direction for how to move forward through their process. Feedback should also hold the doctoral candidate accountable for meeting any agreed-upon deadlines and items to submit. The style and type of feedback provided should be individualized to unique student needs and issues. Hilliard (2013) noted that feedback should (a) be given orally in meetings and electronically on items submitted from the candidate via their manuscript or email; (b) be frequent, with dates listed for each revision or submission of new information; (c) be detailed to what chapter or area in the dissertation the candidate needs to address; (d) be direct around dissertation progress and areas needing more development, and consistent so that candidates can move swiftly through their writing; and (e) include helping students understand the seriousness of academic integrity.

Doctoral candidates need the chairperson to be available and to communicate clearly and authentically. A defensible dissertation happens as a result of navigating the structural and relational components of the dissertation process. This study further aligns with Flynn and colleagues' (2012) theory of initiation, management, and completion. Specifically, the relational and structural categories that emerged, from the perspective of the chairpersons working with doctoral candidates, are all support elements of a successful navigation of the dissertation process.

Implications

Doctoral students' preparedness for the dissertation process varies throughout CES programs. Students' experiences during the dissertation process also vary. The dissertation chairperson plays an important role in both the students' preparedness and experiences. Yet, standards for best practices in dissertation advising in CES are not clearly articulated in the profession. It is possible that some doctoral students, particularly those who need additional support for research or writing, would benefit greatly

from more structured and intentional dissertation methods (Perera-Diltz & Sauerheber, 2017). Without such guidelines, faculty members may rely on their own dissertation experiences to inform their current advising practices as faculty (Knox et al., 2011). Over time, the lack of standardized dissertation advising may contribute to disproportionate outcomes in (a) CES doctoral program completion rates, (b) research identity development among graduates of CES doctoral programs, and (c) overall CES program reputations.

Although chairpersons have many strategies to use in providing feedback, they cannot determine how their feedback impacts their students' progression. Gaining a better understanding of how doctoral candidates internalize feedback may lead to more clarity regarding whether the strategy and style of feedback was successful. A similar study from the perspective of current doctoral candidates or recent graduates would add tremendous value to the field.

Quantitative studies could also explore relationships among variables. For example, the relationship between dissertation advising strategies and career choice is unknown. Schweiger et al. (2012) reported that approximately 50% of doctoral graduates in CES pursue non-academic careers, and it is possible that these graduates have different dissertation advising needs and/or received different forms of dissertation advising than candidates who entered academia after graduation.

Limitations

This study had several limitations. First, respondents were current faculty members in doctoral CES programs, and the data thus represents faculty perceptions and experiences. Future studies are needed to examine the perspectives of students when working with chairpersons to triangulate these strategies. Although prior research has shown that graduate students described similar strategies as those espoused by the participants in this study (Sinady et al., 2009), a follow-up study could be helpful to ascertain whether students felt the findings of this study were commensurate with their own experience.

A limitation of qualitative methodology is the ability to generalize findings. Because dissertation processes look different across programs and universities, it is unclear whether the strategies highlighted by participants in this study are transferable to other programs. Additional quantitative studies are needed that use a larger sample to examine the relationship between these strategies and outcomes such as dissertation completion rates and time to completion.

In this study, the research team only used one definition of success (i.e., completing the dissertation and graduating with a doctoral degree) when coding and analyzing data. Because the participants did not provide their own definition of success, we cannot say with certainty that they had the same conception in mind when responding to the question. Other definitions of success could include developing a scholar identity or being prepared to be an effective counselor educator. These alternative ways of understanding success could impact the way in which the participant responded to the question. In future research, it would be important to clarify these definitions with participants prior to their responding to the question.

Finally, two coding team members had recently completed their own dissertations and may have found it difficult to bracket their experiences during the coding and analysis process. To mitigate these potential biases, the research team frequently discussed and documented their personalized reactions to the data when coding, used multiple coders for the first 11 transcripts, and used consensus coding to resolve discrepancies.

Conclusion

Successfully navigating the dissertation process is a necessary step for obtaining a doctorate in CES. Though many doctoral students start the journey, the degree completion rate remains just above 50% (Neale-McFall & Ward, 2015). The completion rate for doctoral students in CES is currently unknown. Understanding ways that chairpersons effectively support students in the dissertation process can lead to more students completing their doctoral journey. Some of these ways include creating a supportive environment, establishing consistent accountability, and providing timely feedback. As students successfully navigate the dissertation process, they build confidence in their scholar identity and counselor educator identity and move forward into the counseling profession to support future generations of CES doctoral students.

The current study explored strategies for successful navigation of the dissertation process from the perspective of faculty members. Future research should examine the generalizability of our findings throughout other CES doctoral programs. Although some norms and expectations regarding the path to the dissertation in CES may exist, it is possible that other strategies were not fully captured in this study. Moreover, while the current study examined successful dissertation advising from the chairperson's perspective, future research should examine the topic from the perspective of doctoral students and candidates. Moreover, it may be that current doctoral students and doctoral alumni may hold differing perspectives regarding their dissertation experience. To that end, future research may examine recent graduates of CES doctoral programs. A longitudinal study that explores the perspective of current students and the same sample later as alumni may capture nuances not accounted for in existing counselor education literature.

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Appendix

Interview Protocol

1. For context, please briefly describe how you self-identify and your background. This information will be aggregated; individual participant responses will not be associated with any quotes in subsequent manuscripts.
   Gender:
   Sexual/Affective Orientation:
   Race and Ethnicity:
   Years as a Faculty Member in a Counselor Education Program:
   Years as a Faculty Member in a <u>Doctoral</u> Counselor Education Program:
   Number of Doctoral Counselor Education Programs You Have Worked In:
   National Regions of Doctoral Counselor Education Programs You've Worked In:

2. How might you define a "high-quality" doctoral program?

3. What do you believe to be the most important components? The least important?

4. How have you helped students to successfully navigate the dissertation process?

5. Which strategies has your program used to recruit underrepresented students from diverse backgrounds? How successful were those?

6. Which strategies has your program used to support and retain underrepresented students from diverse backgrounds? How successful were those?

7. What guidance might you provide to faculty who want to start a new doctoral program in counseling with regards to working with administrators and gaining buy-in?

8. What guidance might you provide to faculty who want to sustain an existing doctoral program in counseling with regards to working with administrators and gaining ongoing support?

9. Last question. What other pieces of information would you like to share about running a successful, high-quality doctoral program?

nbcc

Gaining Administrative Support for Doctoral Programs in Counselor Education

Rebecca Scherer, Regina Moro, Tara Jungersen, Leslie Contos, Thomas A. Field

Initiating and sustaining a counselor education and supervision doctoral program requires navigating institutions of higher education, which are complex systems. Using qualitative analysis, we explored 15 counselor educators' experiences collaborating with university administrators to gain support for beginning and sustaining counselor education and supervision doctoral programs. Results indicate the need to understand political elements, economical aspects, and the identity of the proposed program. Limitations and areas for future research are presented.

Keywords: counselor education and supervision, doctoral, university administrators, counselor educators, support

The Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs' (CACREP) *2009 CACREP Standards* (2008) included a new requirement for core faculty in both entry-level (i.e., master's) and doctoral programs. This requirement endured in the *2016 CACREP Standards* (2015). Although West et al. (1995) predicted the necessity of growth of CACREP-accredited doctoral-level counselor education programs in the mid-1990s, it was not until 2013 that core faculty in all CACREP-accredited programs were required to possess doctorates in counselor education and supervision (CES; or be grandfathered in from previous employment experience; CACREP, 2008). Master's-level programs that are seeking new CACREP accreditation, as well as existing programs that are seeking to maintain accreditation, must therefore hire faculty with doctorates in CES. This requirement has created a need for greater numbers of doctoral graduates in counselor education, and institutions with master's-level programs may be seeking to establish new doctoral-level programs to meet this need.

The creation of a doctoral program requires intricate navigation of complex systems of administration, accreditation, funding, laws, facilities, infrastructure, and politics. Additionally, universities have different requirements and levels of approval for new program development (S. Fernandez, personal communication, November 27, 2017). Counselor educators proposing a CES doctoral program must have an understanding of the complexity of the specific university (e.g., its organization, the history of university support for doctoral programs, the mission of the institution, the needs of the surrounding community, and the resources required for program development and implementation). Furthermore, counselor educators must have a firm grasp of accreditation standards for both the university's regional accreditation bodies (e.g., Commission on Colleges of the Southern Association of Colleges and Schools), as well as specialty CES accreditation through CACREP.

Rebecca Scherer, PhD, NCC, ACS, CPC, is an assistant professor at St. Bonaventure University. Regina Moro, PhD, NCC, BC-TMH, LPC, LMHC, LCAS, is an associate professor at Boise State University. Tara Jungersen, PhD, NCC, CCMHC, LMHC, is an associate professor and department chair at Nova Southeastern University. Leslie Contos, NCC, CCMHC, LCPC, is a doctoral candidate at Governors State University. Thomas A. Field, PhD, NCC, CCMHC, ACS, LPC, LMHC, is an assistant professor at the Boston University School of Medicine. Correspondence may be addressed to Rebecca Scherer, B43 Plassman Hall, 3261 West State Road, St. Bonaventure, NY 14778, rscherer@sbu.edu.

Structure of Universities

The hierarchical structure of universities varies from institution to institution. In this section, we provide a general outline of how universities are structured to help counselor educators who are interested in proposing a CES doctoral program. This information is very important when considering how to advocate for a doctoral program because of the many organizational layers and levels associated with an institution.

Typically, counseling programs are housed in a department, college, or school of the university (e.g., College of Education). The program is led by a program head, coordinator, or department chair. This person reports to the dean of the college. The dean reports to the provost or chancellor or chief executive officer. The president of the university then supersedes this level.

It is important for faculty members to assess the priorities of their institution for academic, student, and financial affairs. For example, a small private college in an urban area may have a mission to train adult learners and to provide access to education through lower admissions standards and flexible pathways to degree completion. In contrast, a large, public, research-intensive university may have a mission to support exceptional research and secure external grant contracts, and to raise college rankings through metrics such as low acceptance rates (The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education, 2019). Based on administrative experience with doctoral program creation, structural information must be taken into consideration when advocating to administrators on behalf of CES doctoral program development.

Successful Initiation of Doctoral Programs

In the higher education literature, there are a few publications on the creation of doctoral programs. Researchers have proposed that doctoral programs can be successfully initiated in the context of three circumstances: (a) top-down initiation, (b) filling a need in the local area, or (c) focusing on new delivery methods (Brooks et al., 2002; Haas et al., 2011; Slater & Martinez, 2000). In regard to top-down initiation, some authors have proposed that doctoral programs are likely to be launched if the initial idea comes from the provost or president of the university. Slater and Martinez (2000) described the process of successful initiation of a doctoral program in a small institution in Texas. They reported that the president suggested the idea to the dean, with later onboarding of faculty members.

Doctoral programs also seem to be initiated successfully if a need exists for such a program in the local area (Brooks et al., 2002; Haas et al., 2011). Haas and colleagues (2011) emphasized the importance of faculty members and administrators assessing program fit within the region. In both the Brooks et al. (2002) and Haas et al. (2011) studies, the importance of current delivery modalities in successfully recruiting support for a doctoral program, including the use of online delivery and interdisciplinary studies, was presented.

Rationale and Purpose

At the time of writing, no studies could be identified in the CES literature regarding how to successfully gain administrative support for starting a doctoral program in CES. Another manuscript in this special issue (Field et al., 2020) illustrates a potential pipeline problem in counselor education, in particular the need for more CES doctoral programs in the North Atlantic and Western regions of the country. CES faculty members who are contemplating starting a CES doctoral program currently have little guidance on how to gain support for starting a program. In addition, no studies could be located regarding how to successfully sustain an existing doctoral program in CES. The purpose of

this study was to collect and analyze qualitative data to address the research question guiding this study: Which strategies are helpful in gaining initial and ongoing support from administrators for a CES doctoral program, and how successful are those?

Method

This study was conducted as part of a larger basic qualitative study sampling counselor educators. The purpose of the larger qualitative study was to identify perceptions of doctoral-level counselor educators regarding four major issues pertinent to doctoral counselor education: (a) components of high-quality programs, (b) strategies to recruit and retain underrepresented students, (c) strategies for successful dissertation advising, and (d) strategies for working with administrators. In order to explore these four major issues, four research teams were assembled, one of which included the authors of this manuscript. All four coding teams worked together to select these four issues, as it was felt that these issues were most pressing for faculty who were seeking to establish new doctoral CES programs and that little information and guidance existed in these areas. In-depth interviews were then conducted with doctoral-level counselor educators in CACREP-accredited programs to answer a series of research questions that addressed the issues above. Faculty from CACREP-accredited programs were selected because the focus of the larger project was to support faculty who intended to seek CACREP accreditation for new doctoral CES programs.

In the basic qualitative tradition, qualitative data were collected, coded, and categorized using the constant comparative method from grounded theory methodology (Corbin & Strauss, 2015; Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). Basic qualitative designs involve the collection and analysis of qualitative data for the purpose of answering research questions outside of other specialized qualitative focus areas (e.g., developing theory, understanding essence of lived experience, describing environmental observations). Because we were not seeking to develop theory, understand lived experience, or research any other specialized qualitative focus area with this study, and because the research question did not require a specialized approach to data analysis, the large research team selected the basic qualitative approach described above.

Each coding team designed interview questions to directly answer their specific research question. The research questions explored in this study were as follows: Which strategies are helpful in gaining initial and ongoing support from administrators when seeking to start a new doctoral program in CES, and how successful are those? The interview questions that were developed and used as the basis for data collection for this study were: 1) What guidance might you provide to faculty who want to start a new doctoral program in counseling, with regard to working with administrators and gaining buy-in? and 2) What guidance might you provide to faculty who want to sustain an existing doctoral program in counseling with regard to working with administrators and gaining ongoing support?

Participants

Participants met two inclusion criteria for entrance into the study: (a) current core faculty members in a doctoral CES program that was (b) accredited by CACREP. Email requests were sent to 85 CACREP-accredited programs; faculty from 34 programs responded (40% response rate). Interviews were conducted with 15 full-time faculty members at CACREP-accredited CES doctoral programs. Participants were each from separate and unique doctoral programs, with no program represented by more than one participant.

The 15 participants were selected one at a time, using a maximal variation sampling procedure to avoid premature saturation (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016). The authors used maximal variation to understand perspectives from faculty of diverse backgrounds who worked at different types of institutions. Participant selection was predicated on six criteria grounded in research data about factors that may impact perceptions about doctoral program delivery: (a) racial and ethnic self-identification (Cartwright et al., 2018); (b) gender self-identification (Hill et al., 2005); (c) length of time working in doctoral-level counselor education programs (Lambie et al., 2014; Magnuson et al., 2009); (d) Carnegie classification of university where the participant was currently working using The Carnegie Classification of Institutions of Higher Education database (Lambie et al., 2014); (e) region of the counselor education program where the participant was currently working (e.g., Field et al., 2020), using the regional classifications commonly applied in the counseling profession; and (f) delivery mode of the counselor education program where the participant was currently working, such as in-person or online (Smith et al., 2015). As an example of this procedure, the first two participants were selected because of variation in gender, years of experience, and Carnegie classification. The third and fourth participants were selected on the basis of differences from prior interviewees with regard to ethnicity and region. Interviews continued until data seemed to reach saturation and redundancy at 15 interviews.

Although unintended, participant characteristics closely approximated CACREP statistics for faculty characteristics. The demographics of counselor educators in the sample was 73.3% White ($n = 11$), with 73.3% ($n = 11$) of participants working at research-intensive (i.e., R1 and R2) institutions. The sample was highly experienced, with an average of 19.7 years ($SD = 9.0$ years) as a counseling faculty member, with a range of 4 to 34 years. More than half of the participants ($n = 9$) had spent their entire career in doctoral counselor education.

Procedure

The last author of this manuscript sought IRB approval. Once we received IRB approval, potential participants were contacted from 85 CACREP-accredited programs with doctoral-level graduate studies in CES. Fifteen faculty were interviewed based on maximal variation sampling described above. All but one participant ($n = 14$) was interviewed via the Zoom video conference platform, chosen because of its privacy settings (i.e., end-to-end encryption). Interviews were recorded using the built-in Zoom recording feature. One participant was interviewed in person at a national counseling conference. This interview was recorded using a Sony digital audio recorder.

Interview Protocol

Each videoconference interview was begun by collecting demographics and informed consent. Following the introductory phase, interviewees were asked eight questions that addressed the research questions of the larger study. Two of the questions were specific to this sub-research team. Interview questions were developed using Patton's (2015) guidelines to inform question development. Specifically, the questions were open-ended, neutral, avoided "why" questioning, and asked one at a time. The questions were piloted with peer counselor educators prior to the start of the research project in order to get feedback on clarity and ease of answering. Participants received the questions by email before their scheduled interview. The participants were identified using alphabetical letters to blind participant identity to all members of the research team.

Each semi-structured interview lasted at least 60 minutes, during which participants responded to questions that were evenly distributed among the four research teams. Participants were therefore able to respond to interview questions with significant depth. Data did not appear saturated until 15 interviews

had been conducted. Each research team was asked to review the transcripts developed from the 15 interviews to deduce whether adequate saturation had been achieved and until consensus was reached.

Transcription

All interview recordings were transcribed by graduate students. These students had no familiarity with the interviewees and were trained in how to transcribe verbatim. Once completed, each transcript was sent back to the interviewees to ensure accuracy. After all interviewees checked their document, the sections of the transcripts with the questions related to each team were copied and pasted into a document organized by the participants' alphabetical identifiers. Each team was responsible for coding and analyzing the responses to their respective questions from the interviews.

Coding and Analysis

The first, second, third, and fourth authors served as coding team members. The fifth author conducted the interviews as part of the larger study and assisted with writing sections of the methodology only. The demographics of the coding team were as follows. Team member ages ranged from mid-30s to 40s. All four identified as White cisgender females. Two of the coding team members were employed as full-time counselor educators, one identified as an administrator and counselor educator, and one coding team member was completing doctoral training as a counselor educator. Two participants had worked in doctoral counselor education programs, and two had not. We have served on both sides of the faculty–administrator relationship. These differences in backgrounds allowed for both etic and emic positioning pertinent to the topic of working with administrators to start and sustain doctoral programs in CES.

Because of the nature of both insider (emic) and outsider (etic) perspectives, the authors used a memo system when coding the manuscripts. This memo system involved three components. First, we created a blank memo every time a transcript was coded. Second, each time an interviewee's transcribed response provoked some response within one of us, we raised it to the group and reflected on our individual experience. This response was documented in a memo. Third, one of us took notes to bracket any biases that might have been present. Identified biases often stemmed from our own experiences as faculty members talking to administrators, our service in an administrative role, or our own personal experiences developing doctoral programs. This occurred during joint coding team meetings and individual coding meetings once the open coding had been solidified into a set of codes. The memos were kept in a shared, encrypted, electronic folder for later review.

The following steps were followed by the coding team in the current study to ensure trustworthiness of analysis. The four coding team members jointly coded the first three participant transcripts to gain consensus. Following this open coding process, the second author condensed the open codes for the next phase of analysis. The coding team members then reached consensus on the condensed codes. Following agreement, we used the condensed codes to continue the coding process for the next two transcripts in joint coding meetings. This process allowed for discussion to assist with consistent understanding of the codes across the team. Following the joint open coding of the fifth transcript, the remaining 10 transcripts were assigned to one of us for open coding to be completed independently. After the open coding process was completed, the fourth author proposed a framework of the emerging themes. She examined the open codes and considered discussions that emerged throughout the team process to identify the emergent themes from the data. Open codes were only included in the analysis if they emerged in at least four transcripts, which resulted in the removal of three codes from the final results. All team members reached consensus for the themes that were originally identified by the fourth author.

Results

The data analysis process resulted in three emergent themes regarding strategies for gaining initial and ongoing support from administrators for CES doctoral programs and the level of success of those strategies. The three themes were political landscape, economic landscape, and identity landscape. Each theme had five associated subthemes. Each theme and subtheme are discussed in more detail below, and brief participant quotes are inserted to highlight the experiences of the participants in their own words for the purpose of thick description (Merriam & Tisdell, 2016).

Political Landscape

Considering the political landscape appeared to be a crucial strategy for recruiting administrative support when having conversations with administrators about CES doctoral programs. Participants described the importance of understanding the context of conversations with administrators within the larger political system of higher education institutions. The subthemes represented factors that influenced political decisions.

Political Endeavor: "Watching Your Politics"

Participants reported that conversations with administrators were highly political in nature and having these conversations was a form of political endeavor. One example of political endeavor was to ensure that other academic units and programs were in support of a CES doctoral program. As one participant stated, "First make sure that you've got your politics in order, so social work agrees with you and psychology agrees with you. So, you've got support of any competitor on campus." If other academic units or programs are opposed to a CES doctoral program, it may result in administrators being cautious about supporting the program because of fears that they may be caught in the middle of a turf battle.

Gaining administrative support seemed to be predicated on the ability to "strategically build relationships" with administrators, as one participant put it. One participant commented on the complexity of developing these relationships with administrators. This participant believed that faculty needed to strike a balance of being flexible and adaptive to the administrators' agenda and "order of the day," while also retaining one's "own ideology and belief systems." Building relationships with administrators also seemed to involve avoiding unnecessary conflict that may reduce administrator support for faculty ideas. One participant cautioned that "watching your politics" and "keeping your mouth shut when you know you shouldn't be speaking up against key administrators" was important during conversations with administrators to avoid unnecessary conflict that could "hurt your own doc program." Learning this form of engagement seemed to be a struggle for some participants. One participant stated that they "don't know how to navigate those conversations effectively" and felt "saddened and frustrated" as a result.

Status, Prestige, and Recognition: "A Huge Feather in One's Cap"

Participants conveyed that CES faculty could gain administrative support through the strategy of arguing how a doctoral program could enhance status, prestige, and recognition for an institution. One participant commented that "all university presidents want doctoral programs. They want them because of the prestige." This participant elaborated that faculty should therefore "show them how doctoral programs bring recognition, how it raises you in the rankings, and all of those kinds of things." Some participants noted that the degree to which administrators cared about enhanced status, prestige, and recognition depended on the type of institution. For example, administrators who work at an institution that is less concerned with college rankings may be unpersuaded by the potential for enhanced status and recognition.

Participants also encouraged CES faculty to strategically engage in actions that increase recognition for the program and university. Some potential strategies that may appeal to administrators include being "identified as an expert, and to go out and do public radio broadcasts and be featured in the newspaper. Be featured in national publications." This recognition helps with both program and university visibility, which participants believed was important to administrators. Participants also shared that visibility can help to protect the program from losing administrative support. As one participant stated, "If you're invisible in the eyes of the administrators, they're not going to think of you if some opportunities are coming to the fore." This participant further commented that administrators needed to be reminded of the doctoral program through continual visibility efforts, as administrators often operate from an "out of sight, out of mind" position.

Demonstration: "Wanting Empirical Evidence"

Participants identified the strategy of sharing evidence with administrators to support and sustain doctoral programs. As one participant stated, "Once you get to the doctoral level, then we're talking about people wanting empirical evidence." In the early stages of program formation, this evidence might be a comprehensive proposal that is supported by data. As one participant stated, faculty need to develop a "solid plan" and be "as prepared as possible" for conversations in which administrators will "ask a ton of questions."

Once a program is formed, it seems crucial that programs continuously provide updates to administration about program successes to sustain administrative support. Participants identified several approaches to demonstrating the success of a program. Some participants indicated that it was important to keep administration informed about student successes that occurred during doctoral study. One participant reported that their program kept administration informed via email about "every little success of the doctoral program" and provided the following examples: "Every time somebody successfully defends a dissertation, every time somebody presents at a conference, every time somebody gets a job congratulated, the president knows about it." Other participants believed that it was helpful to report program outcomes such as graduation rates and employment statistics, which requires faculty to maintain contact with alumni to understand where they are working after graduation. It therefore seems possible that administrators may differ in which types of evidence they value, requiring faculty to carefully consider which information their administration most values when sending them updates of program successes. As one participant stated, "I think the question is, what information do you need to feed to administration to be convincing?"

Scrutiny: "Internal Credibility Is Super Important"

Participants reported that program faculty should understand the different ways that administration will scrutinize the credibility of a doctoral program. One participant defined credibility as, "Do what you're doing *well*." Administrators might withdraw support for a program that is perceived as not producing quality graduates or has problems such as not graduating students. Administrator scrutiny of the program's financial situation also appears to be an important consideration. Administrators who are concerned about the financial viability of the program may withdraw their support.

Timeline and Trajectory: "It's a Long Journey"

Participants reported that political decisions, such as starting and sustaining academic programs, particularly doctoral programs, may be influenced by unique timelines and trajectories. Participants encouraged faculty to develop the strategy of thinking long-term about cultivating administrative support for a doctoral program. One participant emphasized the need to "work together" with

administrators in a collaborative fashion and make compromises so that administrators will support the doctoral program throughout the "long haul" and "long journey" of the program.

The length of administrator tenure at the university is another factor that faculty are advised to consider. One participant stated that faculty tend to have longer tenure than administrators at their university. As a "lifer," this participant saw "a lot of rotation in and out of leadership." Administrator turnover can result in changes to administrative priorities and agendas, which can impact support for a CES doctoral program. This participant encouraged faculty to "be cognizant of the fact that winds change."

Economic Landscape

Considering the economic landscape and economic realities of starting and sustaining a doctoral program was the second main overarching theme. Developing an understanding of the economic landscape is important context for faculty when preparing for discussions with administrators. Several subthemes comprise the economic landscape, each detailed below.

Financial Aspects: "It Takes a Lot of Money"

Of utmost importance when discussing starting and sustaining CES doctoral programs with administrators is understanding the financial resources required. Many participants spoke about the cost of CES doctoral programs for universities. Participants believed that a crucial strategy to gaining administrator support was being able to explain how programs can be at least revenue-neutral or even generate revenue for the university, as administrators are less likely to support a CES doctoral program that is a drain on financial resources.

Participants varied in their perceptions of whether CES doctoral programs could generate revenue for the university. The key distinction between these participants seemed to be whether they believed doctoral programs should charge students tuition or fully fund them. Some participants believed that "high-quality doc programs do not make money for institutions" because they should be fully funding doctoral students rather than generating tuition revenue. These participants proposed that faculty should instead be "thinking creatively about funding sources" and seeking alternative methods of offsetting the financial burden on the institution. Examples of identified alternate funding sources included grants and undergraduate teaching opportunities for doctoral students.

Others were aware of this prevailing belief that doctoral programs do not generate revenue and argued the opposite: "Most faculty, when they want to start a doctoral program, they repeat this thing that they hear, which is 'doctoral programs cost money, they don't make money.' And that's not true." These participants proposed that student tuition should be used to fund doctoral programs. One participant argued that if tuition exceeded the cost of faculty salaries, the program was likely to be generating revenue. This participant believed that counseling programs could generate money because they were relatively inexpensive. Unlike hard science disciplines, CES doctoral programs do not require expensive lab equipment, and CES faculty salaries are "lower compared to other programs."

Tangible Benefits to Ecosystem: "How Do We Help?"

Participants discussed that administrator support for a doctoral program can be bolstered through demonstrations of how the program is supporting the local community. One participant shared that their program provides data to administrators about the number of hours of free counseling that the program provides to the community, which in turn helps the dean to gain the provost's support for the program. Such data can help administrators when they conduct a cost–benefit analysis for whether to

start a new program or sustain an existing program. Likewise, another participant encouraged faculty to take an "ecological view" and consider "how do we help . . . the surrounding communities?"

Need for Resources: "Pit Bulls in a Fighting Ring"

Participants discussed the need to address the competition for resources when attempting to gain administrator support. Participants mentioned the scarcity of resources that included faculty positions (i.e., lines) and physical building space. This scarcity resulted in programs needing to compete for resources. One participant stated, "I think we're all going to be like pit bulls in a fighting ring over resources at this point." Another participant shared a similar statement: "Once we get outside of our building, it is very territorial. So, we have to basically anticipate resistance from other pockets in the university if we want a new program at the doctoral level." This participant elaborated that the provost needs to be aware of these dynamics and that faculty should attempt to make a strong case for needing resources if they are in competition with other programs.

Competition for resources seemed to occur not only within a university's departments but also between CES programs at different universities. Doctoral applicants appear to be increasingly making enrollment decisions based on tuition costs and graduate assistantships, which increases the pressure for programs to provide financial support packages. One participant reported that it is becoming less feasible to operate a doctoral program without "some form of stipend or assistantship" because "if you don't, there's too many other programs that do." This participant elaborated that administrators must support the program with assistantships and concluded, "I wouldn't try to start a program without it."

Some participants discussed strategies to maximize resources across the college or school in which the program exists, such as with college-wide methodology courses. Such strategies seemed particularly important when adapting to the pressure of accepting more students to make the program revenue-neutral. One participant suggested that such resource sharing was "of utmost importance… in the early beginnings of programs."

Faculty and Program Responsibilities

Faculty have more complex responsibilities when operating a doctoral program compared with a master's program, such as attending conferences with students and engaging in the larger campus community. As one participant stated, "It's also being at events, interacting with administrators, making sure when walking around campus or buildings that they know who you are and that they can connect with what you're doing." Participants explored the economic aspects of the responsibilities that individual faculty members and the larger program have when responsible for the doctoral education of counseling students: "At our institution, you don't get a lot of credit per se, or release time or extra pay for all of the work it takes to mentor doctoral students." This credit that is or is not allocated to doctoral education impacts faculty members' well-being. Another participant cautioned faculty to be aware of "faculty burnout" that accompanies tensions around adequately funding faculty positions: "If you shrink, and you still maintain the same number of students, there is simply not enough time, not enough emotional capacity, to do the good work." Another participant shared that their doctoral programs felt like "hell on wheels" because "we ended up with a program that had more than 100 students with two real tenured faculty running the program."

Influence of University: "Know the Size and Culture"

This subtheme represented faculty considerations of the larger university system context where the counseling program is situated. As one participant summarized, "part of it is looking at the context

of the program in the university." Participants particularly referenced size as an influencing factor. As one participant stated, "Know the size and culture of your institution." University size influenced participants' access to decision-makers: "We're so small that I could literally walk out of my office and two minutes later I can be in the provost's office. I can ask a question. They're very approachable, and so I don't feel intimidated." Understanding the institution's mission and its funding priorities is crucial to forging successful alliances with administrators regarding whether to start and sustain a CES doctoral program. Understanding where a CES doctoral program fits within the institution's academic structure therefore helps faculty to effectively communicate with administrators, and consistently reviewing this can help inform ongoing dialogues with administrators.

Identity Landscape

The overarching identity landscape theme represents how programs both understand their internal identity regarding doctoral education, as well as the external identity factors that contribute to the program. Each subtheme is detailed below with participant quotes.

Operationalize and Define Commitment: "Faculty Have to Buy In"

Gaining faculty buy-in prior to conversations with administrators and gaining approval for a doctoral program was a consistent message relayed by participants. One participant reflected, "Everybody has to be on board and has to buy in to the concept that the mission can't be the mission of one person." Another participant recommended that faculty leadership (e.g., program directors) need to operationalize this commitment through intentional dialogues with faculty. This participant stated that "the evidence for faculty buy-in isn't always there until you probe." They elaborated that faculty leadership can facilitate discussions around the following questions: "Are you willing to do X, are you willing to do Y?" and "If we start a doctoral program, do you feel like you have the skills you'll need or do you fear that you're going to be left behind?" Such conversations appeared important to developing a unified collective commitment to the doctoral program, which was critically important when challenges arose. Other participants reflected on personal buy-in and encouraged self-reflection in this regard: "Things to consider including one's own personal meaning making." Participants reflected that doctoral education was significantly different than master's-level education and required a different level of commitment. Administrators are unlikely to support a doctoral program if the faculty are divided in their commitment to the program.

Understanding Differences: "Know What Your Program Is Worth"

Participants spoke about the need for faculty to possess knowledge about multiple aspects of doctoral education when conveying information to administrators. Faculty should be familiar with the differences between master's and doctoral education, between doctorates in other disciplines within the university, and among doctoral programs at different universities in the state. This information assists faculty "to really know what your program is worth and to be able to explain it." For example, faculty should make administrators aware of how doctoral education can enhance master's-level training rather than result in master's students being "ignored" and treated as "second class citizens."

Participants indicated that administrators may not be familiar with the counseling profession and thus may need education. Participants reported the need for "educating your administrative colleagues about what counselor ed is, what they do, how we train." Another participant stated that "even at the dean level, they don't know what the heck a mental health counselor is. Not a clue." Consistent with this, administrators may also need information about other aspects of the profession, such as the value of specialized accreditation. One participant reported, "I think that we can do a better job of telling our admin the pros of CACREP versus the cons." Education about CACREP

accreditation was important because of the costs associated with accreditation fees and hiring core faculty to meet the CACREP doctoral standards.

Quality in Programs: "High-Quality Output"

Participants reflected on the importance of program quality as a reflection of the programs' overall identity. Program outputs seemed to be a particularly important measure of program quality. Some participants, particularly those at research-intensive universities, emphasized the importance of research-related outputs such as "grants, high-quality output, and visibility." Across participants, employment rates were a particularly important measure of program quality, especially employment in academic and administrative jobs post-graduation. Participants reported that such metrics were useful as a "selling point" to administrators, especially if needs existed for doctoral-level graduates in the local area. As one participant stated, "Some of those outcomes become really important to administrators, and I think that we need to be good at putting those outcomes in front of them."

Participants also shared concerns with program quality. These concerns often centered on admitting more students than can be adequately mentored through the dissertation process. One participant was "concerned about doc programs that bring in cohorts of 20 and churn them out" because they feared that "big doc programs" are "just course-based models without a whole lot happening outside of that. . . . And, you know, I worry about dissertation mentoring."

Program accreditation was explored as an influencing factor in program quality that ultimately influences the overall program identity through reputation. One participant stated, "We built the program around the accreditation standards and took those standards very seriously." Another participant explored how the accreditation process can influence administrators' opinions of the program: "If we had bombed that visit, from the president to the vice president on down, we would have looked really bad."

Advancing the Institutional Mission: "It Has to Match"

Study participants commented on the importance of the identity of the doctoral program connecting to the mission of the larger institution. One participant encouraged faculty to consider the institutional mission when communicating with administrators: "When we advocate for programs, we need to understand the mission of the institution." This participant reported that administrators in a university that values community service may be in favor of doctoral programs that "create more service providers for the local community." Another participant stated that "it has to match the university's mission. I hear that more and more and more." This participant acknowledged that a proposed doctoral program would only receive administrative support if it "fits with the strategic plan of the university." Participants indicated that the program should align not only with the institutional mission but also with the mission of the college or school where the program is housed.

Stakeholder Dynamics: "Making the Administrators Happy"

Participants discussed the variety of stakeholders that faculty should consider when developing a CES doctoral program. Such stakeholders include the students being educated, faculty in the program, administrators who make decisions about the program, and employers of future program graduates. Participants reflected that each stakeholder group can contribute meaningfully to the identity of the program.

At times, a stakeholder group's contributions and agendas may be at odds with those of another stakeholder group. This is particularly problematic when tensions exist between a stakeholder group and administrators. For example, faculty may prefer a smaller program than administrators. One participant stated that "one of the things that I've fought with faculty about my whole life, has been that [faculty] want small classes and they want few students." This participant added that administrators tend to close smaller programs when pressured to cull the number of doctoral programs at an institution, and thus smaller size represents a potential threat to the program: "Any time an administrator is going to cut a program or deny resources to a program, they do it with the program with the least number of students in it. It's just the absolute way it's done." This participant proposed that faculty stakeholders must therefore understand the dynamics of higher education administration when advocating, as "making the administrators happy with the numbers" is an important priority.

Discussion

In this study, we conducted a qualitative analysis of interviews with 15 experts in the field to examine the research question. We identified participant-reported strategies for gaining initial and ongoing support from administrators for a CES doctoral program. The overarching themes of political, economic, and identity landscapes emerged from the data, alongside associated strategies necessary for gaining support. Navigation of complex university systems, including accreditation, finances, legal concerns, infrastructure, and politics, seem to be required for successful initial administrator approval of a CES doctoral program. Awareness of institutional mission and history, purpose, community needs, fiscal realities, and the university's organizational chart also can facilitate approval and successful program sustenance.

Implications for CES Faculty

The findings from this study may be utilized by existing master's degree counseling program faculty who want to create a CES doctoral program. Faculty should embark on a data-driven process to inform administrators of tangible benefits across multiple systems and articulate the financial resources necessary for long-term success. As new CES doctoral programs are proposed, faculty should ensure that university administrators are aware of the relative worth of counselors and counselor educators, particularly in contrast to other mental health disciplines that may exist on campus. They may need to document the tangible benefits that CES programs bring to the university that are in alignment with the university's mission and strategic plan. In 2013, Adkison-Bradley noted, "As universities change and grow, academic programs are often required to justify their request for resources or asked to explain how they uniquely contribute to the overall mission of the college and surrounding communities" (p. 48). Faculty could benefit from open dialogue with administrators and mentors about what it costs the institution to have a doctoral program compared to what revenue and resources a doctoral program can generate. CES faculty also can provide data to explain how accreditation requirements that may appear expensive to administrators (e.g., 1:6 faculty–student ratios in practica; 1:12 faculty–student ratios) do benefit students, clients, and communities, including protection of "broad public interests" (Urofsky, 2013, p. 13).

Faculty must engage in systemic thought that goes beyond the program and department. Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems model provides a useful model for program faculty to understand. This model includes four main systems in which individuals exist—microsystem, mesosystem, exosystem, and macrosystem, with each system growing in size and complexity. Faculty without this perspective risk experiencing their department in a bubble and may not realize how their

smaller microsystem (i.e., program, department) fits within the larger macrosystem of the university. The political landscape can become entangled in the developing exosystem where these systems overlap. This exosystem includes considerations for the college's or school's strategic priorities where the doctoral program is located. Faculty also should consider larger systemic interactions, such as the doctoral program's relationship with the local community, with other master's and doctoral programs in the state, and with other doctoral programs nationally.

The *2016 CACREP Standards* (2015) require doctoral education to focus on leadership. However, the standards require this education to be in relation to counselor education programs and in professional organizations, not specifically in institutions of higher education as larger systems. It is unknown how or if students receive formal education about how to navigate university systems, as it is not typically included in CES doctoral program curricula. However, in our own personal experiences as faculty members and doctoral students, we have found that this knowledge seems to be acquired through observation, experience, and on-the-job mentoring. Unfortunately, this learning may occur when new and junior faculty are under pressure to establish themselves for tenure and promotion. Senior faculty, including those nearing retirement, are likely to possess this systemic knowledge and understanding. This knowledge could be conveyed via formal or informal mentoring programs; however, junior faculty in counselor education programs report a lack of mentoring experiences (Borders et al., 2011). The lack of mentoring could be from a variety of reasons, as junior faculty members may be intimidated by senior faculty (Savage et al., 2004), or senior faculty may lack the commitment to put forth the long-term effort to gain support for a new CES doctoral program.

Faculty must be willing to invest in learning about the processes involved in doctoral program creation—to listen, be respectful, and exercise patience for the time required for program approval, funding, and development. The results of this study indicate that program generation is a political process, and junior faculty must be aware of their environment. Faculty have different levels of input and leadership at different institutions, such as with different forms of shared governance (Crellin, 2010). Faculty who do not understand political savviness, the role of fiscal constraints, and the historical precedents for doctoral program initiation may struggle more than those who understand the lens by which individual institutional decisions are made.

Implications for University Administrators

University administrators could utilize the results of this study to understand how to work with faculty who are requesting the initiation of a new doctoral program. Administrators could consider establishing dedicated time and orientation to new and junior faculty to assist them in conceptualizing how faculty requests are prioritized within the institution, perhaps via a formal mentoring program (Savage et al., 2004). For example, if the university's current vision is to respond to the lack of STEM (science, technology, engineering, and mathematics) graduates in the local job market, counseling faculty could better manage their expectations about the estimated timeline of new degree program creation while aligning their new CES doctoral degree proposal to a more attainable target date. Communication about the timeline of decisions and the patience involved in systemic change (e.g., state legislature involvement) could also benefit the faculty perspective. Opportunities for learning about the organization are a crucial ingredient in organizational change (Boyce, 2003).

Although it is the responsibility of deans and department chairs to communicate the university's vision and strategic plan, administrators should also trust the CES faculty's distinct knowledge of the field and dynamic accreditation standards. Faculty are uniquely qualified to anticipate shifts

in the profession that could impact their programs. From our experience, CES faculty who serve as internship clinical supervisors may also possess unique knowledge of the needs of the surrounding communities through their supervisees' reports of client needs.

It is suggested that administrators include a university organizational chart in new faculty orientation or in the faculty handbook so that faculty can be aware of the hierarchy within the university. The orientation should include a clear explanation of how the particular institution prioritizes agendas and provide a history of the institution, with specific examples of prior program creation in the face of competing needs (e.g., missions, financial). Faculty can then understand how the university invests in its future.

Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

Several limitations exist with qualitative research in general, and with this unique project specifically. In general, qualitative research is limited by researcher bias, interviewer bias, interviewee bias, and participant demographics (Corbin & Strauss, 2015). To control for potential bias during the analysis process, the coding team used several strategies to enhance trustworthiness, including recruiting coding team members who had identities as both CES faculty and administrators, bracketing biases throughout coding, using consensus to resolve discrepancies in coding, and using memos to document decisions. Future studies could seek to triangulate the data from this study to determine whether the findings are transferable to the perspectives of other faculty in CES doctoral programs.

The focus of this particular research study was to explore faculty perspectives regarding how to gain administrative support for initiating and sustaining CES doctoral programs. As such, the perspectives of administrators were not surveyed regarding how to gain administrative support for CES doctoral programs (beyond those counselor educator faculty participants who have served in administrative roles). Future studies, perhaps in the form of quantitative research, could include these perspectives to determine whether the perspectives of CES doctoral faculty are consistent or divergent with administrator experiences regarding how to work effectively with administrators.

We sought to understand strategies for successfully gaining initial and ongoing administrative support for a CES doctoral program. This exploration included both participants who had recently started new programs and those who had long worked in CES doctoral programs. However, an analysis of thematic differences between participants who had and had not spearheaded the creation of a CES doctoral program was not conducted. Future research could explore whether strategies varied for those who had recently started a CES doctoral program versus those who had not. In addition, data were not organized and analyzed by differences in participants' institution type (i.e., private or public), because it was outside the scope of the research question. Finally, the study focused solely on faculty at CACREP-accredited institutions. It is unknown whether the perspectives of participants in this study would be consistent with faculty at non–CACREP-accredited institutions.

Conclusion

The counseling profession continues its efforts to address the pipeline shortage of doctoral-level CES faculty to meet CACREP accreditation requirements. To meet this need, some master's-level programs are seeking to start CES doctoral programs. The findings from this study may be useful to CES faculty when planning a strategic approach for collaboration with administrators regarding the initiation of new CES doctoral programs. This strategic approach will involve exploring political

elements, economical components, and the identity of the proposed program. The findings of this study indicate these areas of knowledge promote a more comprehensive planning process to help prepare for working with administrators on the creation of a doctoral program.

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