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The Journal of the
Pennsylvania Counseling Association

Assessing the Presence of Underrepresented Groups in *Professional School Counseling*
Shawn A. Bultsma, Janet Glaes, Christina J. Stuive, Ericka Souders, & Suzanne Hedstrom 4

"Too High a Cost to Pay": A Critical Examination of the Privilege Walk as a Counselor Training Tool
Emma Stain, Krista Malott, & Miranda Febus 18

The Lived Experiences of Counselors-in-Training Using Clinical Video Teleconferencing During COVID-19
Elisabeth Bray Tomlin & Neil P. Rigsbee 31

Test to Earn Continuing Education Credit 45

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Assessing the Presence of Underrepresented Groups in

Professional School Counseling

Shawn A. Bultsma, Janet Glaes, Christina J. Stuive, Ericka Souders, & Suzanne Hedstrom

Professional School Counseling (PSC) is the national flagship journal of the American School Counselor Association and provides Pennsylvania school counselors with essential literature to inform their practice. The goal of this study was to gain insight into content considered relevant to Pennsylvania school counselors. The presence of various underrepresented groups was examined in *PSC* from 1997 to 2019. Articles were analyzed to determine the frequency that historically underrepresented populations were included as the topic of articles over the period of review. Of particular interest to school counselors in Pennsylvania is whether the presence of underrepresented groups appearing as the topic of articles varied over time in *PSC*, and whether some underrepresented groups received more attention in *PSC* than others.

Keywords: school counseling; multicultural; diversity,

One way to analyze the development of a profession, and the topics which are considered of greatest interest to that profession is to review the journal content of that profession (Bauman et al., 2003, Falco et al., 2011). For example, Delgado-Romero et al. (2005) noted that diverse populations have been historically underrepresented in the participant samples of counseling research. Specifically, the authors examined the presence of diverse populations in the *Professional School Counseling* (*PSC*) journal from 1997 to 2019 (volumes 1 to 22). For the purpose of this study, diverse populations are defined as historically underrepresented groups that may include students/clients, families, school counselors, school communities, or members of the general population who are included as the topic of articles, in the discussion of conceptual articles, or as participant samples in research articles. It is anticipated that an assessment of the presence or absence of underrepresented groups in these volumes will indicate to what extent diverse groups have been represented in content that informs the work of school counselors in Pennsylvania.

Researchers have documented that student populations in U.S. schools are becoming increasingly diverse (Dollarhide et al., 2014; Harris, 2013; Lee, 2001). Passel and Cohn (2011), at the Pew Research Center, projected major changes in U.S. demographics by the year 2050. Non-Hispanic whites, who represented 67% of the population in 2005, will decrease to 47% in 2050. The Hispanic population will rise from 14% to 29% in that same time period, as Asians increase from 5% to 9%. Blacks, who represented 13% of the overall population in 2005, are predicted to remain steady. These changes in national demographics will be reflected in the demographic makeup of our public schools (NCES, 2014). As reported by the Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE; 2021), similar demographic shifts are reflected in elementary and secondary school enrollment patterns in Pennsylvania where the percentage of non-Hispanic whites declined to 63.1% in 2020-2021 from 67.5% in 2015-2016 while the percentage of all other racial groups showed an increase over the same time period.

In light of this increasingly diverse student population (Dollarhide et al., 2014), along with a greater societal focus on social inequities and prejudice (Portman, 2009) and the need for school counselors to provide leadership in the area of anti-racist school counseling (Ratts & Greenleaf, 2017), the critical importance of the multicultural competence of school counselors has been emphasized in literature for close to two decades (Akos & Ellis, 2008; Borders, 2002; Cannon, 2010; Harris et al., 2019).

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Over the years, school counselors have been identified as key players who are best situated to help diverse students with their school-related difficulties, and who play a pivotal role in fighting the oppression these

students experience (Ballysingh, 2019; Barret & Schmidt, 1986; Harris, 2013; Holcomb-McCoy & Chen-Hayes, 2011).

School counselors are uniquely suited to address the complex problems experienced by a wide variety of students, including students living in poverty (Amatea & West-Olatunji, 2007; Bemak & Chung, 2008); Latino students (Ballysingh, 2019; Malott et al., 2009); inner-city youth (Bemak & Siroskey-Sabdo, 2005); homeless youth (Camp et al., 2019); undocumented immigrant youth (Talleyrand & Thanh-Giang Vojtech, 2019); and lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, gender minority, and questioning (LGBTQ) youth (Bidell, 2012; Simons, 2019; Singh & Kosciw, 2017), to name a few. Additionally, Barret and Schmidt (1996) recognized early on that school counselors are frequently the only mental health professionals that these students can access to meet their counseling needs, and they are often called upon to become agents of change within the schools (Education Trust, 2009).

This directive is strongly espoused in the ASCA National Model (2019b), a comprehensive guidance and counseling model that was developed in 2003 to standardize school counseling within the profession. Also in 2003, the Education Trust, an organization unrelated to ASCA, highlighted the essential role of school counselors by establishing the National Center for Transforming School Counseling (NCTSC) and introducing the Transforming School Counseling Initiative to ensure that school counselors have the training necessary to advocate for educational equity and academic success for all students. Literature published in *PSC* has focused on school counselors acting as leaders and advocates on behalf of students who have been traditionally underserved: namely minority students and those in lower socioeconomic groups (Bemak & Chung, 2005; Brown & Trusty, 2005; Davis et al., 2014; House et al., 2002; Strearl et al., 2019).

There is a consistent call in the literature published in *PSC* for increased professional development and training opportunities for school counselors in multicultural awareness and competence (Anstrom et al., 2004; ASCA, 2013; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007; Mitchem-Smith, 2007; Schmidt, 2007). Mitchem-Smith (2007) espouses that the ASCA position statements on this topic are not sufficient and that national, state, and local levels must provide more focus on multicultural competencies. In a study conducted by Anstrom et al. (2004), the authors ascertained that school counselors desire professional development to help them in their work with linguistically and culturally different families and in expanding their understanding of diverse cultures. Time constraints of the school counselors in obtaining this knowledge were also noted.

Fernando and Minton (2011) found that the *PSC* journal, widely considered the flagship journal of ASCA, "plays an important role in the dissemination of information" (p. 428). In conjunction with other journals, it plays a key role in the school counseling profession. The current *PSC* journal is an amalgamation of two journals. In 1997, *The School Counselor* (*TSC*), which was published five times a year, and *Elementary School Guidance and Counseling* (*ESGC*), which was published four times a year, were merged to become *PSC* and is currently included with ASCA membership. *PSC* "is a rigorous peer-reviewed journal that publishes high-quality articles on theory, research and best practices for the profession" (ASCA, 2019a, para. 1) and plays a key role in school counselors developing multicultural awareness and competency.

The importance of professional journals is supported by Harris (2013), who cited "reading literature" (p. 14) as a means of professional development when counselors identify their own stereotypical beliefs via self-assessments. Finding empirically supported information and resources can be challenging for school counselors (Malott et al., 2010), making professional journals a critical professional development source. Sink (2009) also suggested that school counselors become "ardent consumers of best practices evidence" (p. 72) as they fulfill leadership and advocacy roles in the school setting. In a content review of the first 15 *PSC* volumes, Erford et al. (2015) found there was an increase over the 15-year period of time in empirical research-based articles, progressing from basic statistics to more advanced statistics which employed more sophisticated statistical procedures. Erford et al. (2015) hailed this as a "welcomed development that underscores the fundamental understanding that

school counseling is a science-based practice supported by a robust foundation of professional literature and empirical study" (p. 68).

Purpose of the Study

Given the importance of professional development and training opportunities for school counselors in the area of multicultural competence (Anstrom et al., 2004; Hipolito-Delgado & Lee, 2007; ASCA, 2013; Mitchem-Smith, 2007; Schmidt, 2007), coupled with the key role that the *PSC* journal plays in disseminating important information to school counselors (Fernando & Minton, 2011), this study has been designed to consider to what extent scholarly literature in *PSC* has addressed diversity issues.

Research questions that guided this content analysis of *PSC* included the following: (1) does the presence of underrepresented populations as the topic of *PSC* journal articles change over time?; (2) do some underrepresented populations receive more attention as the topic articles than others over time?; (3) what is the presence of various underrepresented populations in terms of the participants and the findings of research articles over time?; (4) are some underrepresented populations noted more frequently than others in the limitations section of research articles over time?; and (5) what is the presence of underrepresented populations as noted by their mention in non-research articles? It is anticipated that this study will provide an opportunity for the profession to consider the extent to which school counselor specific literature in *PSC* has supported professional school counselors since its inception. Since school counselors work with historically underrepresented student groups, this need is becoming ever more critical as student populations in U.S. schools, including Pennsylvania, become increasingly more diverse.

Methodology

The initial team consisted of seven counselor education doctoral students and one faculty member from a Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Program (CACREP) accredited counselor educator program located in the Midwest; the team was reduced when two students discontinued working on the project. The research team met frequently during the early phases of the project; these meetings included extensive discussions regarding which underrepresented groups to include and which subcategories to analyze and code. Researchers agreed on the importance of a broad and inclusive approach to the selection process.

Three underrepresented groups did not require subcategories as there was only one underrepresented category within each of these underrepresented groups: (1) gender (i.e., female), (2) age (i.e., older adults), and (3) socio-economic status (SES; i.e., low SES). Variable subcategories for the other three underrepresented groups included (1) race/ethnicity (i.e., black, non-Hispanic; Hispanic; Asian or Pacific Islander; American Indian or Alaskan native; international; multiracial or mixed heritage; and multi-groupings or multiple races grouped together by authors), (2) sexual orientation (i.e., lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgendered, and questioning), and (3) embodiment (i.e., physical impairment, which impacts movement but does not include wellness; visual impairment; hearing impairment; and mental impairment like low IQ or brain trauma but does not include learning disability. For the last category, the team chose not to use the term disability as it was felt that this term had negative connotations as it denotes a deficit in functioning. A series of coding steps were developed to inform and standardize the coding process, followed by several sample journal coding trials. These trial results established inter-rater reliability and increased familiarity with the coding process.

For this study, the content analysis included articles from *PSC,* volumes 1 to 22, covering the years 1997 to 2019 (N = 1015). When coding, one of the first steps was to determine in which of four types of articles the specific journal article would fall: (1) research, (2) conceptual, (3) editorial, and (4) other (i.e., speeches, test reviews). If the article was coded as research, it was then further subcategorized as either qualitative, survey, quantitative (other than survey), or mixed methodology. Within research articles, the underrepresented groups were coded if they were a topic of the article, noted in the description of the sample, and/or if they were reported in the findings. In the non-research articles, the underrepresented groups

were coded if they were the topic of the article, or if they were mentioned or stated in the article. Excluded from analysis were book and video reviews, forwards, letters, meeting minutes, and introductions. When team members were unsure of how to code any part of the article, coding questions were noted on the coding pages so they could be discussed by the team.

The full research team met several times during the early coding phase of the project to review these questions and come to consensus regarding how to proceed. It became clear that the topic of certain articles was multicultural in nature even though it did not fall into one of our identified underrepresented groups. Changes were made to the coding and direction sheets to reflect this concern as well as including a limitations section and a place for noting when diversity was mentioned generally. The addition of the term "multicultural" was used to code articles whose topics included a multicultural focus without specifically identifying any of the underrepresented groups. All articles that had been reviewed or coded were reviewed again with these changes and additions in mind.

Consistency across coding responses was crucial since this project employed multiple coders. To ascertain the degree of consistency, the Shrout and Fleiss (1979) Intraclass Correlation Case 3 (ICC 3) was used. Coding samples were evaluated in 2004 and again in 2014. ICC 3 was chosen because coders changed over the course of the study, and the ICC 3 allows for all available and active raters to be measured at each point (Shrout & Fleiss, 1979). In both the 2004 and the 2014 coding checks, an entire journal issue was coded. In the 2004 coding check, the ICC 3 coefficient of six raters for the coded issue was .879 with a 95% confidence interval of .865-.892. In the 2014 coding check, the ICC 3 coefficient of five raters was .966 with a 95% confidence interval of .961-.97. These results, indicating a high-consistency level across responses, provided reasonable assurance for the research team that their goal for consistency was met.

As the coding of journal issues was completed, research assistants entered data on a spreadsheet and rechecked the entries for accuracy. Once all data were entered in a spreadsheet, members of the research team began the data analysis process that included descriptive and univariate statistical procedures (ANOVA) using weighted proportions to identify trends over time. This process followed the methodology used by Erford et al. (2011) in their analysis of publication patterns in the *Journal of Counseling & Development* and by Erford et al. (2015) in an analysis of publication patterns in *PSC*.

Similar to the methodology described by Erford et al. (2011) and Erford et al. (2015) in their analyses of publication patterns, data for this content analysis of underrepresented populations were aggregated into convenient class intervals. As described by Erford et al. (2015), creating class intervals using fewer years within each interval would have "reduced the cell sizes and sensitivities of statistical procedures" (p. 63). Similar to Erford et al. (2015), this study created class intervals using volumes rather than years due to the difficulty in discerning publication years for articles when *PSC* was transitioned to an online platform for dissemination. Consequently, five class intervals were created using volumes (i.e., volumes 1 to 5, volumes 6 to 10, volumes 11 to 15, volumes 16 to 20, and volumes 21 to 22) rather than years of publication.

Although it may have made sense to create class intervals by publication editors, this would have created problems with cell sizes as there were times that interim editors were in the position for less than a full year. Additionally, the more recent articles do not name an editor. Consequently, intervals of five volumes for each of the first four intervals and two volumes in the fifth and final interval provided analyses across larger cell sizes. Similar to Erford et al. (2015), power analysis was not necessary for this analysis because analysis involved a total article or population census. Type I error was established at $a < .05$, and Scheffe's test was used for post hoc analysis to determine differences in groups over time similar to the analysis applied by Erford et al. (2015). Finally, effect sizes are reported as eta-squared (h^2) using the same interpretation of Erford et al. (2105) with small effects noted from .01 to .08, medium effects noted from .09 to .24, and large effects noted when greater than .25.

Results

A total of 1015 articles from 1997 to 2019 in *PSC* were reviewed for this study. Table 1 presents the number of articles for each of the five class intervals represented in this analysis. Analysis included an examination of the article types over time; the presence of underrepresented groups as the topic of articles; and, if a research article, whether they were noted in the description of the participants, and/or whether they were reported in the findings or mentioned in the limitations. In non-research articles, the underrepresented groups were coded if they were mentioned or stated in the article. The findings reported here must be viewed against the backdrop of the percentage of articles that were published each year; therefore, the total number of articles included in each interval are reported in the class headings for each of the tables that are included.

Article Types

Of the 1015 articles, 476 were conceptual in nature, representing 46.9% of the articles. Research articles over the same period consisted of 477 articles, which represented 47.0% of the total number of articles. Of the research articles, quantitative (other than survey) were the most common at 19.9% (n = 202) followed by research surveys at 13.4% (n = 136). Qualitative research articles represented 10.9% (n = 111) with mixed methods at only 2.8% (n = 28) of the total number of articles over the 23-year span included in this review. Articles identified as editorial made up 4.8% (n = 49) of the total number of articles. There were only 13 articles (1.3%) identified in the other category (e.g., speeches and test reviews). A comparison of the proportions of types of articles indicates a significant change in the publication pattern of *PSC* over time, using the five class intervals of grouped volumes as described in the methodology section, $F(4, 1014) = 25.898, p < .001; h^2 = .093$.

Similar to the *PSC* publication patterns described by Erford et al. (2015), a significant increase in research articles has continued over time. Research articles accounted for 32.1% of the article types in volumes 1 to 5 and increased in every class interval to a high of 73.8% in volumes 21 to 22. All other article types have decreased over time. Conceptual articles have declined from a high of 58.2% of the articles in volumes 1 to 5 to a low of 23.9% in volumes 16 to 20. There was a slight increase to 26.2% of the articles in volumes 21 to 22. No editorials or other article types appeared in volumes 21 to 22. In fact, other article types were not included beyond the second class interval (volumes 6 to 10).

Underrepresented Groups as the Topic of Articles

The first research question asked, "What is the presence of underrepresented groups in terms of the topic of *PSC* journal articles over time?" Just over one-fifth (22.5%) of all the articles from *PSC* in volumes 1 to 22 (n = 228) included one or more of the underrepresented groups as the topic. Volumes 1 to 5 included underrepresented groups as the topic for 62 of the 318 articles. Volumes 6 to 10 included one or more of these groups in 52 of the 292 articles. The third class interval (volumes 11-15) contained 57 of the 193 articles with underrepresented populations appearing as the topic. Underrepresented groups were the topic in 32 of the 109 articles in volumes 16-20, and they were the topic in 25 of the articles in the 103 articles in volumes 21-22. A comparison of the proportions of underrepresented groups as the topic of articles indicates a change in the pattern of their presence over time, $F(4, 1014) = 3.518, p = .007; h^2 = .014$. A post hoc analysis using Scheffe's procedure to examine multiple comparisons demonstrated a significant difference in the publication patterns between the second (volumes 6 to 10) and third (volumes 11 to 15) class intervals, $p = .047$.

Table 1 provides a breakdown of each of the seven underrepresented groups of interest as the topic (listed from most to least frequent), including a summation of the total number and percentage of all articles that included one or more of the underrepresented groups as the topic. These findings addressed the second research question of whether some underrepresented groups receive more attention than others over time. Table 1 reports that the publication pattern for specific underrepresented groups has changed over time, $F(4, 276) = 5.906, p < .001; h^2 = .08$.

Table 1
Specific Underrepresented Groups as the Topic of Articles from PSC in Volumes 1 to 22

Underrepresented Group	Volumes 1 to 5 (n = 318)		Volumes 6 to 10 (n = 292)		Volumes 11 to 15 (n = 193)		Volumes 16 to 20 (n = 109)		Volumes 21 to 22 (n = 103)		Total (N = 1015)	
	n	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**
Race/Ethnicity	18	24.0	32	56.1	40	54.1	9	22.5	15	48.4	114	41.2
Gender	13	17.3	8	14.0	9	12.2	4	10.0	3	9.7	37	13.6
Embodiment	15	20.0	5	8.8	5	6.8	10	25.0	1	3.2	36	13.0
Socio-economic Status	6	8.0	4	7.0	15	20.3	2	5.0	5	16.1	32	11.6
Sexual Orientation	12	16.0	0	0.0	3	4.1	11	27.5	3	9.7	29	10.5
Multicultural	10	13.3	8	14.0	2	2.7	3	7.5	4	12.9	27	9.7
Age	1	1.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.5	0	0.0	2	0.7
Total	**75**		**57**		**74**		**40**		**31**		**277**	

Note. Some articles included more than one underrepresented variable as the topic and were multi-coded. Therefore, the total values exceed the actual number of research articles included in the analysis. Percentages may not equal 100% because of rounding.

A post hoc analysis using Scheffe's procedure to examine multiple comparisons demonstrated a significant difference in the publication patterns between volumes 1 to 5 and volumes 6 to 10, p = .04. In volumes 6 to 10 the presence of race/ethnicity as the topic of articles was higher than volumes 1 to 5. Both embodiment and socio-economic status were present as the topic of a fewer percent of the articles in volumes 1 to 5 compared to 6 to 10. There was also a significant difference found between volumes 1 to 5 and volumes 11 to 15, p = .011. Race/ethnicity and socio-economic status were both higher in volumes 11 to 15 when compared to volumes 1 to 5. A significant difference was also found between volumes 6 to 10 and volumes 16 to 20, p = .038 Race/ethnicity and socio-economic status were both higher in volumes 11 to 15 when compared to volumes 1 to 5. Finally, a significant difference was found between volumes 11 to 15 and volumes 16 to 20, p = .014 where a similar pattern of lower race/ethnicity and socio-economic status was noted in volumes 16 to 20 in comparison to volumes 11 to 15 while sexual orientation had a higher presence in volumes 16 to 20.

Underrepresented Groups in Research Articles

The third research question asked about the presence of various underrepresented groups in terms of the participants and the findings of research articles over time. These findings were summarized in Tables 2 and 3 respectively. A comparison of the proportions of underrepresented groups as participants in research studies indicates that there is not a difference in *PSC* over time, $F(4, 784) = 1.159$, $p = .327$; $h^2 = .006$. Similar findings hold true when examining the presence of underrepresented groups included in the findings of research articles as summarized in Table 3. A comparison of the proportions of underrepresented groups included in the discussion of findings in research studies indicates that there is no significant difference in *PSC* over time, $F(4, 229) = 1.078$, $p = .368$; $h^2 = .019$.

The fourth research question asked whether some underrepresented populations were noted more frequently than others in the limitations sections of research articles. A comparison of the proportions of underrepresented groups included in the limitations sections of research articles shows no significant difference in *PSC* across volumes over time, $F(4, 133) = 1.628$, $p = .171$; $h^2 = .048$. Diversity that was not specific to any of the underrepresented groups of interest were also included, but this category did not appear in the first three class intervals. It was not until volumes 16 to 20 that limitations included a more generalized consideration of diversity as a limitation in research articles.

Table 2

Underrepresented Groups as Participants in Research Articles from PSC in Volumes 1 to 22

Underrepresented Group	Volumes 1 to 5 (*n* = 102)		Volumes 6 to 10 (*n* = 109)		Volumes 11 to 15 (*n* = 111)		Volumes 16 to 20 (*n* = 79)		Volumes 21 to 22 (*n* = 76)		Total (*n* = 477)	
	n	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**
Gender	67	48.6	86	50.3	85	41.1	56	40.6	57	43.5	351	44.8
Race/Ethnicity	57	41.3	68	39.8	92	44.4	50	36.2	63	48.1	330	42.0
Socio-economic Status	13	9.4	16	9.4	25	12.1	19	13.8	8	6.1	81	10.3
Sexual Orientation	1	0.7	0	0.0	2	1.0	9	6.5	3	2.3	15	1.9
Embodiment	0	0.0	1	0.6	1	0.5	3	2.2	0	0.0	5	0.6
Age	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	1.0	1	0.7	0	0.0	3	0.4
Total	**138**		**171**		**207**		**138**		**131**		**785**	

Note. Some articles included more than one underrepresented group as participants and were multi-coded. Therefore, the total values exceed the actual number of articles included in the analysis. Percentages may not equal 100% because of rounding.

Table 3
Underrepresented Groups in the Findings of Research Articles from PSC in Volumes 1 to 22

Underrepresented Group	Volumes 1 to 5 (*n* = 102)		Volumes 6 to 10 (*n* = 109)		Volumes 11 to 15 (*n* = 111)		Volumes 16 to 20 (*n* = 79)		Volumes 21 to 22 (*n* = 76)		Total (*n* = 477)	
	n	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**	***n***	**%**
Gender	17	53.1	22	48.9	28	38.4	18	37.5	14	44.8	99	43.0
Race/Ethnicity	13	40.1	17	37.8	31	42.5	17	35.4	16	50.0	94	40.9
Socio-economic Status	1	3.1	6	13.3	14	19.2	7	14.6	2	6.3	30	13.0
Sexual Orientation	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	6.3	0	0.0	3	1.3
Embodiment	1	3.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	2	4.2	0	0.0	3	1.3
Age	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	1	2.1	0	0.0	1	0.4
Total	**32**		**45**		**73**		**48**		**32**		**230**	

Note. Some articles included more than one underrepresented variable as discussed in the findings of the research articles and were multi-coded. Percentages may not equal 100% because of rounding.

Underrepresented Groups in Non-research Articles

The fifth research question analyzing the presence of underrepresented groups in non-research articles used a comparison of the proportions of underrepresented groups mentioned or stated in non-research articles to determine whether there were any changes. The comparison indicated a change in *PSC* over time, $F(4, 727) = 10.912$, $p = .001$; $h^2 = .025$. The post hoc analysis using Scheffe's procedure to examine multiple comparisons demonstrated a significant difference between the intervals for volumes 1 to 5 and volumes 11 to 15, $p = .047$, and for volumes 6 to 10 and volumes 11 to 15, $p = .034$; no other differences were identified. Volumes 1 to 5 included a higher proportion of articles that mentioned gender, embodiment, and sexual orientation and lower mentions of race/ethnicity, and socio-economic status compared to volumes 11 to 15. The same was true when comparing volumes 6 to 10 and volumes 11 to 15.

Discussion

The results of this content analysis establish several significant findings relevant to school counselors in

Pennsylvania. The increase in the number of research articles over time in *PSC* (from 32.1% of all article types in volumes 1 to 5 to a high of 73.8% in volumes 21 to 22), corroborates the pattern found by Erford et al. (2015) who reviewed volumes 1 through 15. This fact is encouraging for school counselors and for the profession as a whole, as many in the field have called for the availability of empirically-based best practice evidence (Zyromski et al., 2018) and noted the difficulties in finding such research (Erford et al., 2015; Malott et al., 2010; Sink, 2009).

In light of the increasing diversity in U.S. (Dollarhide et al., 2014; NCES, 2014) and Pennsylvania (PDE, 2021) schools, the need for multicultural competence in school counselors and the availability of research representing appropriate evidenced-based practices linked to underrepresented diverse populations is critical. Following is a discussion of the significant findings in this current study related to the presence of specific underrepresented populations as the topic of *PSC* journal articles as a whole; as represented in descriptions of participants, findings, and limitations in research articles; and finally, as mentioned in non-research articles.

Underrepresented Groups as the Topic of Articles

Only 22.5% (n=228) of all articles in this study (N=1015) included one or more of the underrepresented groups (i.e., age, embodiment, gender, race/ethnicity, sexual orientation, and SES) as the topic. There was a significant difference in the pattern of the presence of underrepresented groups as a topic between the intervals for volumes 6 to 10 and volumes 11 to 15 (found using post hoc analysis). There were significantly more articles with underrepresented groups as the topic published as a whole during the intervals for volumes 11 to 15 (57 out of 193 or 29.5%) compared to those published during the intervals for volumes 6 to 10 (52 out of 292 or 17.8%). It is important not to misinterpret the difference in the n between 52 and 57, which is very minimal. When viewed as a part of the greater whole in each interval, the difference in percentage is quite striking. If the percentage of articles with underrepresented groups as the topic in volumes 6 to 10 were the same percentage (29.5%) as volumes 11 to 15, 86 articles with underrepresented groups as the topic would be expected, instead of the present number of 57. Besides these findings, there were no other differences identified.

When looking in more detail at the specific underrepresented groups as the topic of articles as summarized in Table 1, race/ethnicity is identified significantly more often than all other groups as the topic of all articles (114 out of 1015 articles: 41.2%). An exception to this pattern can be seen when examining volumes 16 to 20 specifically, during which embodiment and sexual orientation were included at higher rates than race/ethnicity. A special issue focused on lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, and queer (LGBTQ) students published in January of 2017 may account for the increase in sexual orientation as a topic of articles in volumes 16 to 20.

A significant difference was also found in the publication pattern for specific underrepresented populations as the topic when comparing the class intervals for volumes 1 to 5 and volumes 6 to 10 and between volumes 1 to 5 and volumes 11 to 15 (see Table 1). During the interval of volumes 1 to 5, 20% of the articles had embodiment as the topic compared to 8.8% and 6.8% in volumes 6 to 10 and 11 to 15 respectively. During the interval of volumes 1 to 5, 16% of the articles had sexual orientation as the topic compared to 0.0% and 4.1% in volumes 6 to 10 and 11 to 15 respectively. One possible explanation for these significant differences could be the fact that during the interval that included volumes 1 to 5, two special issues were published: one on sexual minority youth and one on children and adolescents with disabilities. This could have influenced the number of articles with these two underrepresented groups as the topic. Differences were also found in publication patterns for specific underrepresented populations as the topic between volumes 6 to 10 and volumes 16 to 20 and between volumes 11 to 15 and volumes 16 to 20. Again, a special issue focused on LGBTQ students published during the interval of 16 to 20 likely accounts for the higher percentage of articles with sexual orientation as the topic during that interval (27.5% compared to 0.0% and 4.1% for volumes 6 to 10 and 11 to 15 respectively).

Besides these differences in publication patterns related to the specific underrepresented groups as the topic, there were no other differences. It appears that in all cases, except for one time interval, the topic of race/ethnicity has received significantly more attention over the years. The following thoughts are posed for consideration. Perhaps this preferential focus is acceptable given the changes in the racial and ethnic populations in our schools; however, should there be even more of an emphasis? There is no significant difference between volumes 1 and 5 and volumes 21 and 22, and this fact is not in keeping with demographic changes.

Underrepresented Groups in Research Articles

The findings of this study show that there was no significant difference in publication patterns over time in either the presence of underrepresented groups as participants in research studies or for underrepresented groups included in the discussion of findings. With increasingly diverse populations in U.S. schools (Dollarhide et al., 2014; Harris, 2013; Lee, 2001), and major changes projected in U.S. demographics by the year 2050 (Passel & Cohn, 2011), it is puzzling and disconcerting that there is no corresponding change in the identification of underrepresented groups within research study participants or in reporting the research study findings. Also interesting is the fact that the underrepresented subgroups of gender and race/ethnicity are included more frequently than the other four underrepresented groups (i.e., socio-economic status, sexual orientation, embodiment, and age) in their presence as participants, as well as in their inclusion in the discussion section.

As previously noted, how will school counselors develop their multicultural competence with underrepresented groups if they are not finding pertinent literature related to diverse populations? This is especially important given the emphasis in the ASCA *Ethical Standards for School Counselors* (2016) and in the literature (Holcomb-McCoy & Chen-Hayes, 2011; Moore-Thomas & Day-Vines, 2008; Paisley & McMahon, 2001; Simons, 2019) for competent intervention for a wide range of student issues. These issues include a broader conceptualization of diversity, including socioeconomic status, social class, abilities/disabilities, language, sexual orientation, religious/spiritual identity, and gender identity/expression.

One observation is the discrepancy between the number of times specific underrepresented populations are included as participants in research studies, as compared to their presence in the discussions of the findings. For instance, when looking at gender, this underrepresented group was included in the description of study participants 351 times; however, gender was only discussed in the findings 99 times (28%). This pattern continues for all of the underrepresented groups with a 28% difference for race/ethnicity (94 out of 330), 37% difference for socioeconomic status (30 out of 81), 20% for embodiment (3 out of 15), and 33% for age (1 out of 3). These numbers are curious given the fact that research articles are meant to provide empirically-based best practice evidence which can be expanded to the wider population. It is difficult to generalize knowledge gained from these articles to particular populations if the data are not disaggregated to provide distinctive direction for these specific underrepresented groups. One group, embodiment, appeared to show up at a greater rate in the findings of the research articles at 60% (three out of five), although the number of overall articles is low.

In reviewing data for the fourth research question, no significant difference was found. Only race/ethnicity, gender, and socioeconomic status (listed here from high to low) are mentioned in the limitations sections of all *PSC* research articles from volumes 1 through 22. Sexual orientation, embodiment, and diversity (not otherwise specified) do not show up in the limitations section until volumes 16 to 20. In fact, embodiment goes back to 0% in volumes 21 to 22 (age is not considered here since it would not be considered a relevant population group in a K-12 setting). This reveals that recognition of the omission of certain underrepresented groups from research studies was not seen as a limitation until much later in the history of *PSC* publications (volume 16 was published in October 2012). Even then, mention of these populations lags behind the mention of race/ethnicity and gender. If embodiment, for example, is not considered an important group for consideration in research articles, where will school counselors find the best practice evidence to

effectively assist this population? It is important to note that when limitations of a study are considered, it may take a few years for the trajectory of these limitations to be addressed.

Underrepresented Groups in Non-research Articles

Significant differences were found in publication patterns regarding the presence of underrepresented groups mentioned in non-research articles. These significant differences occurred between volumes 1 to 5 and volumes 11 to 15 and between volumes 6 to 10 and volumes 11 to 15. Changes in publication patterns seem to have occurred between the first 15 volumes, but not between volumes 11 to 22 (representing the time periods between October, 2007 and March, 2019). Race/ethnicity and gender are (as they were in research articles) the two highest reported groups mentioned in all non-research articles (albeit in reverse order). Again, this emphasis on race/ethnicity and gender leaves out other important underrepresented groups such as embodiment, sexual orientation, and economic status, raising some of the same questions that have already been noted in this discussion section.

In non-research articles, race/ethnicity is the most frequently reported group, followed by gender. In research articles, however, the frequency of these two underrepresented groups as participants and discussed in findings are reversed: gender is first, and race/ethnicity is second. This is an intriguing difference – why would gender be reported more frequently than race/ethnicity in research articles? Perhaps in conceptual articles, where the author is free to talk about anything, race/ethnicity comes up more frequently than gender since there are higher numbers of multicultural groups represented than with gender. There is also a reversal in order from research to non-research articles between sexual orientation and embodiment, with embodiment more frequently represented in non-research articles than sexual orientation, and the reverse being true in research articles. As noted previously, the number of articles including sexual orientation and embodiment is small.

One other interesting observation regarding the presence of sexual orientation as an underrepresented group mentioned or stated in non-research articles is the decrease in representation from volumes 1 to 5 through volumes 21 to 20 (9% of articles down to 2.2% of articles). Perhaps the urgency to address sexual orientation has decreased as minority sexual orientation has been more socially recognized and school policies have shifted to protect sexual orientation and gender identity (Russell et al., 2016). School counselors are still working hard to meet the needs of this population and certainly could use more direction than what is represented in these percentages.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations may have affected the findings and interpretation of the findings. There were changes in journal editors over time, which may have impacted the presence of underrepresented populations. However, we did not include a comparison of editors given that some of the class intervals had more than one editor, and *PSC* no longer has a named editor. Additionally, although inter-rater reliability checks were conducted on multiple occasions, coding errors may have occurred due to rater subjectivity and span of this project over time.

Following the methodology used by Erford et al. (2015), the authors of this study chose to divide the journals into five subsets for analysis based on journal numbers. Dividing the journals into smaller subsets covering a shorter range of time could produce variations in the findings which may point to "microtrends" (Erford et al., 2015). Finally, non-research articles received credit when diversity was included through terms such as sexism, racism, ageism, classism, and discrimination due to disability. Research articles that included underrepresented populations in the limitation sections received credit as well. It could be argued that these two examples may not be as substantive as when an underrepresented group is the topic of an article (research or non-research) and perhaps should not be treated as equally important.

Conclusions

Future research implications could include a continued examination of publication patterns which

expand to include other groups as the populations become increasingly more diverse. This will ensure that school counselors in Pennsylvania are prepared to serve all students and stakeholders in their schools. Since the current online platform does not seem to restrict the number of articles within each volume, and although significant variations in publication patterns are not evident, more special issues with underrepresented groups as the topic of articles might make sense in order to expand school counselors' knowledge base regarding diverse populations. Another important direction for future research endeavors includes the need for more underrepresented groups to be reported in the description of participants in research studies. Additionally, it is not enough to include the demographic make-up of various underrepresented groups as participants if the results related to consideration of differences related to these population groups are not reported out in the findings section.

In non-research articles, authors should consider how populations are impacted by the article topic, if at all, particularly for underrepresented groups. For example authors might state whether or not the content has relevance for one or more underrepresented group. Finally, similar content analyses might be expanded to other journals of interest to school counselors. The profession as a whole should consider whether the publication patterns identified in this and future potential studies adequately represents the most instructive topics and underrepresented groups that are most important for the edification of school counselors as they impact their students.

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"Too High a Cost to Pay": A Critical Examination of the Privilege Walk as a Counselor Training Tool

Emma Stein, Krista Malott, & Miranda Febus

The Privilege walk (PW) is an experiential learning activity used to increase learner awareness of positionality and privileges according to one's personal traits or identities. As of recent, educators have begun to ask if this activity's negative impacts outweigh its benefits, particularly for minoritized participants. We describe a study in this article, whereby diversity and equity instructors and students who have engaged in the PW explore this critical question. Adaptations to the activity are explored.

***Keywords**:* privilege walk; multicultural counselor training; social justice; active learning

Educators across disciplines have applied the privilege walk (PW) as an experiential learning activity, in an effort to increase students' awareness of privilege and power based on personal identities (Magana, 2017). This activity asks students to physically move to demonstrate certain privileges, or lack thereof, in response to a facilitator calling out a set of categories that correspond to learner traits and societal experiences. A common tool applied in raising learners' awareness, counselor educators in particular have favored the activity for its active and visual elements, which serve to move learners beyond theoretical knowledge, as a means for personalizing and deepening learning (Brooks et al., 2015).

Counselor educators have cited the importance of increasing student awareness of personal privileges and their resulting impacts on clientele, embedding such goals within field-based competencies (Arredondo et al., 1996; CACREP, 2015; Ratts et al., 2015). In clinical settings, counselors' ignorance of such realities could result in dismissing a client's experiences of oppression, or could lead to treatment decisions that reify existing inequities (Chan et al., 2018; Helms, 2017). Beyond the counselor role, supervisors and educators who lack such awareness could enact similar harm on supervisees or students which, by extension could negatively impact clients being served by those individuals (Hays et al., 2007). It is for these many reasons that training activities such as the PW have been applied in preparing professionals for work across persons with sociodemographic differences.

However, as of recent, educators and scholars have raised critical questions in regard to the use of the PW as a learning tool, asking, in essence, who most benefits, and who potentially experiences harm, from participation in the activity (Ehrenhalt, 2017; Magana, 2017; Parenti, 2021). Magana (2017) cited the PW as flawed due to its deficit framework. In specific, in order to demonstrate some participants' privileges, the activity must show how others lack that same privilege, thereby promoting learning for some at the expense of vulnerable others (Bolger, 2018). Persons with privilege, therefore, experience others' lack of privilege as "outgroup disadvantage" (Johnson, 2017; Jones & Okun, 2003; McIntosh, 1988; Powell et al., 2005), which maintains a societal trope that something is 'wrong' with certain persons outside of their own privileged group (e.g., assuming a deficit view toward minoritized individuals).

Ehrenhalt (2017) asserted that the activity posed negative outcomes for those with privileges as well, potentially triggering those students' strong and negative emotions in realizing personal privileges. Such emotions could, in turn, inhibit their openness to learning, while serving to further entrench personal biases. Others have suggested the individual focus of the activity and its outcomes are the problem in and of

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itself (Gutkin, 2021; Parenti, 2021). Parenti (2021) argued that the PW's emphasis on individual attitudes or identities prohibited greater social change, rendering the activity as performative only. In this way, broader macro-inequities remain unaddressed and unchanged, with its use, particularly in regard to the entrenched social class system in the United States.

In spite of the activity's purported shortcomings and pitfalls, some have suggested its benefits outweigh its potentially negative impacts, and others promote its continued use in adapted form. For instance, Ehrenhalt suggested learners should be prepared for use of the activity, whereby students are trained for greater openness and shifting of their perspectives (such as through the use of mindfulness activities), with ongoing practice in these areas. Torres (2015) suggested altering the activity's deficit-oriented questions, to instead center on the unique strengths of minoritized individuals, in order to create a more complex and strengths-based perspective of participants.

Much of the discourse, both pro and con in regard to the PW as a training tool, continues to be anecdotal or theoretical in nature. Very little research has been done to identify how educators and students actually use or experience the activity. Considering the continued application of the PW, it is important to understand its use and impacts. In this article, we describe the findings of an exploratory study that asked the following overarching research questions: *What are the experiences of implementing a privilege walk*? and; *What are the experiences of being a participant in a privilege walk*?

Privilege Examined

The Multicultural and Social Justice Counseling Competencies (Ratts et al., 2015), the principal cultural competency guidelines of the counseling profession, was developed in response to recognition of the important role our personal identities play in ascribing privileges or experiences of privileges in society (Ratts et al., 2015). Such directives draw from critical and intersectional theory and research (Adams et al., 2007; Shin et al., 2018; Crenshaw, 1991) recognizing the many ways that hierarchy is built into societal structures such as norms, laws, and policies, to render certain groups minoritized due to their various intersecting sociocultural identities (e.g., race, ethnicity, socioeconomic status, gender, sexuality, ability, body shape, etc.) (Crenshaw, 1991; Harley et al., 2011).

Experiencing oppression within these systems can negatively impact individuals' health, mental health, and socioeconomic status—impacts that can be compounded for those with multiple minoritized traits or identities (Young, 2020). Subsequently, without recognition of, and efforts to change, such privileged groups will continue to hold power and resources at the expense of those who have been excluded (Johnson, 2017).

Consequently, privilege is a social hierarchy that creates a distinct division between groups who have, and those who lack, certain benefits (Johnson, 2017). Different privileges combine to place someone in a hierarchical position, with those who have the most privilege gaining advantage according to access to resources and opportunities (Levine-Rasky, 2011) and, in addition, are often protected from experiencing certain negative repercussions in society such as discrimination (Johnson, 2017).

One challenge of creating a more equitable society is the fact that persons may believe that their "benefits" are simply experienced by all or, if not, believe that what they receive is earned, and therefore deserved (McIntosh, 1988). Such perceptions are enhanced by dominant narratives such as *individualism*, which infers that we alone create our own success, and the *myth of meritocracy*, which asserts that hard workers benefit or reap greater rewards in a society viewed as treating all of its citizens as equals (Jones & Okun, 2003). Researchers have found that some persons may also experience privileges as actual aspects of their identities, as an inherent part of who they are, which leaves those persons feeling personally attacked when such privileges are named (Howard, 2010).

Hence, considering this complicated and profound relationship individuals have with personal privileges, it is unsurprising that addressing the topic in a course can be challenging, provoking in learners a range of

strong and negative feelings (Matias et al., 2017). Educators have applied experiential activities as a means for increasing learner awareness in a more creative and enjoyable manner, as a kind of counterbalance to the possible negative reactions learners may have to facing personal biases and/or privileges (Malott et al., 2015; Winans, 2012). The PW is one example of this effort.

The Privilege Walk as an Experiential Learning Tool

Experiential learning is a powerful tool for enacting learner understanding and transformation through action that is accompanied by reflection and peer dialogue (Kolb, 1984). Transformation is realized with experience, which "directly shapes the [neurological] circuits responsible for such processes as memory, emotion, and self-awareness … [by] altering both the activity and the structure of the connections between neurons" (Siegel, 2012, p. 9). Social justice topics lend themselves well to experiential activities and are commonly used to facilitate cognitive and emotive growth (Paone et al., 2018). Although a single activity, or multiple social justice activities in a single course only, will likely fail to transform learning at the same level as infusion across a training program might (Collins et al., 2015).

The PW is a popular experiential activity that applies engaging tactics, including movement, discussion, and asking students to draw upon their personal identities and experiences, in an effort to increase awareness of unearned privileges (Magana, 2017). Historically, there are differing opinions in regard to its origins (Parenti, 2021), although it is clear that the practice was powerfully influenced by McIntosh's written piece on White privilege (McIntosh, 1988). In her article, McIntosh cited real-world aspects of White privilege, such as easy access to health and beauty products tailored to Whites. Over time, researchers and educators have applied such concepts to the (PW) as an interactive, movement-based activity, and more contemporary versions of the activity take into consideration a wider intersectionality of identities and contexts as they relate to privilege and power (Magana, 2017; Malott, 2011).

When using the PW with intersectional categories, a facilitator lists various privileges related to persons' varied traits and identities, with participants lined up together side by side. Examples of items that may be named include the ease of finding certain hair products or 'skin-colored' band-aids in one's local store, the ease of accessing certain rights, such as voting, or physical spaces, due to one's ability or socioeconomic status, or the ability to publicly hold an intimate partner's hand in public without fear of violence from others (Malott, 2011). Students are instructed to step forward if they receive that particular privilege, or backward (or stay in one place) if they do not. At the end of the movement portion, their physical position represents their position in the social hierarchy. Such an activity can be used in various contexts, space permitting, from formal classroom settings to community or organizational settings (Magana, 2017).

In an extensive search for studies on the PW and its impacts or outcomes, only two were found. In one such study (Irby-Shasanmi et al., 2012), 305 college students engaged in a PW focused on health-affiliated privileges, such as access to healthcare and good health. Pre- and post-activity surveys suggested increased student awareness regarding health privilege and decreased beliefs that health issues stemmed solely from individual or genetic impacts. Conversely, in another study (Magana, 2017), researchers assessed a PW with 15 university students, ages 18 to 32, with 3 participants who identified as white. Magana found evidence of thematic outcomes that included awareness, psychosocial growth, impact, and action.

Such findings suggest both positive and problematic impacts of the PW as a learning tool. However, with only two empirical studies to date, and with the continued use of the learning tool, there is a need for additional research to determine how, or if, the activity should continue to be used by educators. Consequently, in an effort to build upon this limited body of literature, the following is a summary of a study that explored participants' experience of the PW, either as educators who applied, or learners who participated in, the activity.

Method

This study sought to evaluate the effectiveness of the PW as a learning activity through the gathering and analysis of qualitative interviews. An interpretive phenomenological analytic lens (IPA) (Smith et al., 2012) was applied in completing the study; selected as a means for exploring how participants make sense of a specific experience which, in this case, entails participation in, or facilitating of, the privilege walk. An IPA is interpretive in nature, allowing the researchers, through the use of a critical and reflexive process, to make sense of individuals' perspectives while also evaluating the influence of researcher preconceptions on interpretations (Shinebourne, 2011). Efforts are made to describe the experience of participants while simultaneously critically exploring that experience in ways participants themselves may be unable to do themselves (Eatough & Smith, 2008).

Participants

Participants (N = 6) were recruited from an East Coast, mid-sized private university. A purposeful sample was selected (Patton, 2002), drawing from diversity trainers known to the researchers, and snowball sampling (Merriam, 1990), whereby known persons were recommended by those initial individuals. All participants identified as female, their ages ranging from 22 to 69 years old (M = 35). Their racial identities included White (n = 2), Black or African American (n = 2), and Biracial/Multiracial (n = 2).

Of the three facilitators of the PW, two were on-campus staff members (one of whom was a specific Diversity Equity and Inclusion educator) and one was a faculty member who was a teacher educator. Of this group, all had implemented the PW multiple times. Two persons from this group had also experienced the PW as participants at some point and so they also reflected upon that experience during the interviews. The remaining three participants were undergraduate students, two of whom had participated in the activity twice, and the third, once.

Researchers

As a research team, we are three women spanning between the ages of 22 and 50. Racially, we identify as White (n = 2) and Black and Latinx (n = 1). One holds a doctoral degree in counselor education, one was an undergraduate student receiving a minor in counseling at the time of the study, and the other, at the time of the study, was a graduate student in higher education whose goal was to obtain a position as a DEI-related dean. Regarding our lived experiences of the study topic, two had participated as learners in the PW multiple times, while one had facilitated the PW multiple times in graduate and undergraduate counseling courses and at university-level and school district trainings. Our assumptions as researchers entailed the belief that participants who possessed minoritized identities would view the activity as enacting greater harm than good, and would possibly gain less learning, overall, as compared to those with a greater number of privileged identities.

Study Process

This study was approved by a University IRB process. Interviews (Appendix) were recorded via Zoom, and were implemented and transcribed by the first author, with interview time length ranging from 16 to 31 minutes (M = 24 minutes). Those who had been diversity trainers were asked to describe their application of the PW (where, when, with whom), their reasons for using it, and their perceived outcomes, including any perceived challenges. They were also encouraged to reflect upon their earlier experiences as participants in the activity, if that emerged spontaneously. Participants who were learners in the PW were asked to describe their various experiences, any learning that emerged, possible challenges experienced, how they may have applied any learning, and how the activity could have been improved (a copy of the questions can be found at the end).

Data Analysis

An IPA interpretive process was used to analyze data (Smith, 2004). In this process, we initially read the transcripts, noting words, phrases, or paragraphs that reflected participant experiences of the activity. Labels were assigned to describe any meaningful segments, and were revisited in the second stage of transcript reviews as potential themes. In that second stage, we met as a team, to compare and contrast initial

findings, returning to review various pages or initial codes in an iterative manner, to eventually identify broader or higher-order themes.

During this process, we collapsed and condensed similar themes into single codes, and placed related themes beneath broader overarching categories. In an example of this, in identifying participant commentaries in regard to their perspectives on the impacts of the PW, several categories emerged that indicated benefits and also detractors of the activity. These codes were eventually collapsed beneath a broader theme of *variable impacts*, to capture the overall perspective of participants that the PW was both positively impactful and, at other times and depending on certain extraneous variables, ineffective.

Once consensus was achieved in regard to final themes, the third author, as an auditor, compared her own findings to the first two authors, seeking corroboration as well as examining themes (or omission of themes) for bias or misinterpretation. The auditor noted one difference in her findings, suggesting that the other researchers' interpretation of a participant's statement was imprecise, leading to a follow-up with that participant in order to clarify understanding.

Efforts at Achieving Trustworthiness

Several actions were taken to establish trustworthiness for this study (Creswell & Poth, 2018). Efforts at transparency were made through the maintenance of an audit trail, to capture the details and process of study development and implementation. The researchers engaged in continuous reflective dialogue in an effort to contend for bias, as well as identifying personal assumptions, identities, and experiences that would likely shape their perspectives of the data. Multiple researchers were used as well to account for bias, with one researcher acting as an auditor, as a means for better identifying bias or misinterpretations.

In seeking to enhance study credibility, an effort was made to prolong participant engagement. In doing this, three member checks were made by the first author, one via email and two via zoom, to request clarifications or elaboration on initial interviews. Beyond this, an additional member check was made with one of these persons, via email, asking for additional commentary on their narrative. This process extended researcher engagement with the data, to ensure that findings accurately represented participant experiences. Additional researcher efforts entailed enhancing transferability through the provision of sufficient study details according to the context, process, and participants, to allow readers to better determine how findings may transfer to their settings (Morrow, 2005), and maintenance of an audit trail by the first author, to increase the dependability of the research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Findings

Participants noted experiencing and using the PW in different settings, including diversity staff and student trainings, undergraduate first-year orientation, leadership trainings for students or staff, and in graduate and undergraduate classrooms. They viewed the tool as a means for beginning a difficult conversation and raising awareness in a creative manner through the use of movement that demonstrated participants' positionalities (e.g., status in regard to power and privileges). All participants noted finding the activity beneficial to a certain extent, and some even noted their experiences as a participant as life-changing (including one individual who identified as a person of color).

However, for the majority (4 out of 6) there were multiple perceived shortfalls to the activity, motivating facilitators to alter the activity in an effort to improve it. In spite of perceived benefits and actions for improvement, all instructors in this study noted that they decided to stop using the activity due to its perceived pitfalls. Following is a summary of thematic findings regarding these experiences and decisions, with use of participant pseudonyms to protect individual identities; variable impacts, impacts on marginalized identities, and improvements and alternatives.

Variable Impacts

Participants noted the PW as impactful, but conditionally so, as impacts varied based on multiple

variables, many of them uncontrollable. For instance, one variable entailed the skill level of the facilitator(s). Kris explained, “How they are facilitated can be detrimental. … to making sure the process is done right.” The ability to process the activity well was noted by many as extremely important to outcomes. Nia’s response was representational when she stated,

> Administering the privilege walk [well] is really really important … I think it will reach that goal every time, just maybe not in the most productive way if the conversation is not as fruitful as it’s intended to be. I think, you can expose people's privileges every time [but] … are they going to be able to turn this into a productive conversation outside of this one activity every time, probably not, unless the facilitation goes as it's supposed to.

Jai also acknowledged the importance of facilitator experience, and noted how facilitation experience over time improved her processing skills: “Over the years, I've developed better questions to help unpack the experience, to help people process what they're going through.”

Several persons noted time limitations as a key factor in reducing the effectiveness of the PW. Due to the limited time usually allotted for the activity, for most, the activity was viewed as simply a “good starting point” for dialogue and learning. As Jill shared, “I would say that just the activity alone doesn't fix everything … it does its job making people a little bit uncomfortable and also making them have the conversation. So, I think it’s a good starting point.” Kris explained in particular why taking more time for the activity was necessary:

> For students to dive deep in it, there has to be continued and sustained dialogue, so us having a conversation about it once … isn’t really as impactful. … . The other piece of it is in these moments, you know, challenging people in a way that exposes some of their biases and then making sure that we get to it, because sometimes there are ouch moments in these conversations, and because the time allotted isn’t enough, we let these ouch moments go to the wayside.

Another limitation was the actual physical space necessary for an effective PW experience. Sam noted of her university setting, “The rooms are terrible … The biggest obstacle for doing this and doing it well is space. How do you push the desks out of the way, so that the twenty students can walk forward?”

Some viewed the context as differentially impacting outcomes. Nia noted student reticence to disclose in an academic setting, sharing, “If it's not in a class setting, people are bound to be more open solely because classes where I'm like, kind of one-track minded on getting a grade, you know, and I'm not always on my way to class to be the most open and transparent.” Of the impact of the sociopolitical context on the activity’s success, Jill stated, “Right before the election … it was kind of awkward because there was an intense, like underlying vibe where there's so much political discourse … the challenge was that people were trying to avoid saying anything political.”

Many viewed activity success as influenced by the group members themselves, with Kris suggesting, “It depends on the group.” Deja explained, “The people that are probably going to be the most conversational afterwards are probably the people that didn't really need to do it (e.g., those who are minoritized).” Jill noted the difference between participants who were voluntarily present or who were committed to diversity and growth, versus those who were present for other reasons, such as being required to take the course or training, recalling, “The one where I led it in like a [volunteer] group, I felt like we were able to go deeper into some of these experiences and talking about personal experiences.” Sam described the negative impact of a single member:

> I had a student who … was disrupting by not participating, by talking to others, and that's what I remember of the activity. So, it's possible the activity actually did achieve something for other people, but I do remember this one particular person was like an antagonist in it, an antagonist in being a non-participant rather than challenging it; saying ‘This is stupid.’

Considering the various ways individual learners could impact the activity, several participants emphasized the importance of relationship building to promote a greater sense of safety in sharing. Nia explained her own reluctance to fully participate, as a participant, due to a lack of relationship in the room: "I was scared to expose certain things. … I'm not gonna lie, I wasn't always as truthful or as transparent … I think the amount of bonding that happens pre-privilege walk is really, really important." Jill also cited the need for greater relationship building, pre-activity, saying, "If you're in a one-off conversation with someone you may not be as honest about, like, how you're feeling."

Impacts on Marginalized Identities

A second theme entailed the perception of the privilege walk as problematic due to the way the activity further marginalized persons with minoritized identities, while seeming to better benefit those with dominant identities. A representative comment on this issue was made by Kris, who noted, "It definitely benefits white students more than it benefits people of color. Because a lot of times, people of color already know all these things, right?" Jai noted, "It helps the people who are in the front of the line recognize that they have privilege but at what cost, and the cost is at the sort of diminution of the people that are at the back of the line. To me as a teacher, as someone interested in social justice, that is too high a cost to pay."

Some explained how even the structure or nature of the activity itself can marginalize, with Nia saying, "Even just saying like "step back step forward," that's like inherently ableist, assuming that everybody can like step forward and step backwards." Sam similarly noted how the physical/visual nature of this activity exacerbated this issue of reification of oppression, enhancing the vulnerability of students who may be some of the 'few' persons of their identities in the room:

> The marginalized groups, they then have to watch their … position in this really physical way, that creates this scale of the haves and the have nots. … by making it visible, it's learning at the expense of the more vulnerable. … Particularly because my classes aren't even very diverse, and so the few students who would be called the diverse students always have to be more vulnerable and more willing to share to help the white students … understand what some of those challenges are.

Participants with privileged identities corroborated those perspectives. Nia, as a White participant, echoed these many issues observed by facilitators, sharing, "You see a gap at the end … the people that are like really behind, it always breaks my heart. … It's hard watching that." Deja noted that such an issue made post-activity facilitation all the more important:

> I think that's why it's important to talk about after because it's awkward when the same people keep going up or back . … and you have to stand there and look at it. It's very different experience than just sitting in a classroom and talking about it.

For these many reasons, all noted that they had stopped using the activity. Jai's response was representative of this decision, as she noted:

> I probably won't be doing that anymore. … Because of the pain that it caused unduly to the people who were in the back of the line, and that the learning of the people at the front of the line was not as important to me as the pain that it cost the people in the back of the line. … It's not worth it.

Improvements and Alternatives

Due to the many issues of the PW, the facilitators noted attempts to modify the activity in ways that reduced create participant vulnerability. Sam explained, "I am really trying hard to design a pedagogical approach that doesn't center on whiteness and dominant identities … [and] gender and class as well."

Some noted adding self-work and small group aspects to the activity, in an effort to make improvements. Of this, Sam said, "I require students to do their own identity work where we complicated it … I have every year used an identity Wheel to help students to pick out how they describe themselves … I have relied on small group guided discussions in small groups to have students do it." Jai also discussed the evolution of the activity, including the use of readings in preparation for the activity,

> You know, you get older and smarter … We definitely made good use of companion readings, Privilege Power and Difference by Allen Johnson … all of these readings, materials that you can use to help establish the context and then physically putting someone in the situation, the idea was that you would have a better idea of how to make use of it.

Others added intersectional identities to the activity, to identify both privileges and oppression experienced by each person, to reduce embarrassment or shame around having to visibly show one's privilege or lack thereof. Jia described the incorporation of an intersectional activity as an alternative dubbed a circle activity, whereby members of social groups are asked to step into the circle, with the ultimate goal to "Make you aware of the people that are *not* there. …[although] It does put people in a position where they have to identify themselves in certain ways that they may not be comfortable with." Some eschewed the idea of asking students to focus on their personal identities altogether, believing the negative impacts of such work were simply too problematic. Instead, they noted assigning identities to participants. Sam described one such effort:

> I remember one of the identities was that you are a young Muslim person and your parents did not know you were out and if you got caught being out, you would be kicked out of your home and you were 14 years old, right? So it really required you to, like, put yourself in those shoes and, and what you might say is like; hey of course loud and proud, right, and step forward. But, when you put in those extra layers it requires you to realize how complex having a marginalized identity is.

As a participant, Nia described her experience of being assigned multiple identities that also included context:

> You do the privilege walk from a point of view of a different person. It makes you not be so, well, 'I'm embarrassed about this.' And after we see where everyone's standing, you have to read your identity from that slip of paper and say, like I was a 13 year old pregnant girl who dropped out of high school and, you know, lives in this kind of neighborhood … everybody can kind of look at it without being defensive or feeling the need to explain their privilege. … Sometimes when you make it a little less personal, people are willing to engage more.

Finally, in spite of efforts to reduce harm with the PW by assigning identities, Sam perceived the outcomes as equally problematic, saying, "There were still students in the classroom who used it to kind of say, 'Well, at least I'm not this person.'" For this reason, several choose to revise or do away with the activity entirely. Of this, Jai noted,

> Rather than using it to show social status we … show just differences, like who likes vanilla ice cream, who has a pet? … So, it's not so much of a privilege walk as it's … a get-to-know-you. More of an icebreaker for me than anything.

Discussion

The Privilege Walk is a well-known activity for raising learner awareness of positionality in regard to personal privileges and lack thereof, both for self and others. Previous authors have suggested controversies surrounding the activity, the largest being that learning often comes at the expense of those who are marginalized (Bolger, 2018; Ehrenhalt, 2017; Magana, 2017). Hence, those that benefit most from the activity possess greater privilege, leaving others at an obvious disadvantage (Bolger, 2018; Magana, 2017).

In this study, participant experiences corroborated the anecdotal and empirical literature (Bolger, 2018), albeit with additional insight into the nuances of the activity's perceived challenges. Participants noted the PW as variably impactful, influenced by multiple factors, including who was in the room, facilitator experience and skill level, why participants took the course or training, what kind of room one had, and how much time there was to process the activity and/or to establish relationships amongst learners prior to the activity. This commentary suggests some tactics facilitators could take to enhance learning, such as taking time to build learner cohesion first and to process at greater length during the activity, and to

secure the presence of a seasoned facilitator. However, so many of the factors listed are out of the facilitator's control, making it seem difficult to ensure positive outcomes on a consistent basis.

In regard to the impacts of member identities on a group experience, researchers have indeed found that group behaviors and participation can be influenced by one's identity in relation to the identities of others in that group (Johnson et al., 2011). For example, Asian American individuals have been shown to participate less when they are the minority in a group setting (Li et al., 1999), African American women participate less via group than African American men (Johnson et al., 2011), while another study showed that larger proportion of males in a group resulted in the discounting of women who expressed opposing opinions (Salerno & Peter-Hagene, 2015). Participants in this study did feel that participant identities mattered and differentially impacted outcomes which, in turn, reduced the quality of learning for others.

Beyond issues with variable impacts, participants all largely perceived variable learning outcomes, believing that those with more privileged identities benefited from greater learning than those with minoritized identities. They viewed the impacts on those with minoritized identities as harmful, reifying learners' lack of privileges and experiences of oppression. Those with privileged social statuses even cited the difficulty of observing this problematic reality while engaging as learners in the activity.

As a result of such challenges, all facilitators discussed efforts at adapting the activity to reduce its perceived detractors. Thematically, the use of multiple intersecting identities was a common modification. Indeed, such an effort may better ensure that PW participants are not identified as solely privileged or marginalized but would experience both in complex manners, reducing the shame or othering that could happen with a single-identity focus PW (Chan et al., 2018). Another common adaptation was asking participants to assume an identity, to reduce personal embarrassment or othering and enhance empathy for others by attempting to 'walk in another's shoes' as a kind of simulation experience.

Interestingly, while there is some evidence to suggest positive benefits of asking learners to take on the identity and perspective of others to increase understanding and empathy for that person (Gutierrez, 2013), researchers have also found that such tactics can invoke learner prejudice (Groom at al., 2009). In addition, researchers have suggested the need for longer-term efforts and ongoing education around social justice issues to better effect positive learner growth/change, rather than relying on a single experience of 'walking in another's shoes' (Menzel et al., 2014). Hence, findings suggest mixed outcomes of asking learners to assume minoritized identities, and begs the question of whether or not the learning outweighs the potential harm of the adaptation. Considering that all facilitators in this study ceased use of the activity, it appears that these individuals had come to the decision that it does not.

Limitations and Future Directions

Multiple limitations exist in regard to the study, one being the limited number of participants and the time frame for interviews. Efforts to counter this issue entailed reaching out multiple times beyond the initial interviews to apply member checks, to collect additional information. Beyond live interviews, additional data was then collected in the form of written participant commentary. This effort enriched or verified prior findings. This limitation was also addressed by the addition of an auditor during the data analysis process to increase the credibility of the research (Lincoln & Guba, 1985). However, in seeking to enhance the transferability of the study, one must consider the similarities of participants to one's own setting (Morrow, 2005).

Considering the limited number of individuals and from a single educational setting, in this study, future researchers could expand location and participant number, with effort to include persons representing a wider variety of minoritized identities. In regard to the learning gained from the PW, one person of color describe the activity as life-changing, with learning impacting her years afterward, which seemed to contradict overall findings. Hence, studies could be enacted to determine how some minoritized persons

do benefit from the activity, in spite of its apparent detractors.

Future researchers can apply this study directly to a counselor-specific population. Additional study ideas include determining impacts of adapted versions such as those suggested by participants, to compare and contrast with the original intervention, particularly in regard to those that assess for intersectional identities. No studies have determined the actual impact of the PW on behaviors. Hence, researchers should prioritize studies that evaluate such outcomes, as well as the long-term impacts on intended behavioral changes.

Conclusion

Participants in this study viewed the PW as impacted by multiple contextual variables. While participants viewed it as effective at enhancing some learners' awareness, ultimately they saw it as problematic in its impacts on learners with minoritized identities. In essence, those with minoritized identities were further minoritized in the process of enacting the activity, so that persons with privileged identities could become aware of the positionality of themselves and others who are less privileged. Hence, learning happened at the expense of the minoritized.

Those experiences, while suggesting the negative outcomes of the PW as a learning activity, provides a baseline for further evaluation of impacts and alternatives that are more inclusive. In spite of this, as authors, we recognize the importance of continuing to find ways to help future counselors to understand privileged and oppressed identities, and related impacts of those statuses, and for both self and others. Questions remain as to whether or not the current PW, as it is known, is worth the potential toll it also can exact.

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The Lived Experiences of Counselors-in-Training Using Clinical Video Teleconferencing During COVID-19

Elisabeth Bray Tomlin & Neil P. Rigsbee

This study examined the lived experiences of counselors-in-training (CITs) providing clinical video teleconferencing (CVT) during COVID-19. The transition from in-person counseling to CVT is significant in its effect on participants and data analyses resulted in the emergence of five superordinate themes among participants: Parallel Experiences, Personal and Professional Disconnect, Experiences of Grief and Loss, Concerns for Clients, and Preparedness and Support. Findings are further discussed, and future research directions are posed.

Keywords: telehealth: CVT: COVID-19: counselors-in-training

In March 2020, the novel coronavirus, also known as COVID-19, was announced as a pandemic in America. Counseling organizations, agencies, practices, and schools moved quickly to remote platforms. Professional counselors and counselors-in-training (CITs) were rapidly transitioning to maintain their client contacts via telehealth, predominantly via clinical videoconferencing (CVT). Research from earlier pandemics of Ebola and Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome (SARS) indicated that psychological need increases during public health crises; the COVID-19 pandemic has yielded similar results, as well as a greater shortage of trained mental health caregivers who can provide telehealth (Figueroa & Aguilera, 2020).

Currently, there is scant research examining the attitudes of CITs toward online counseling of any kind; furthermore, there is no research examining the impact of COVID-19 on CITs practicing CVT. In addition, the literature reveals little evidence of their preparedness to provide telehealth when they enter the field (Pipoly, 2013). CITs who have rapidly transitioned to telehealth during COVID-19 are unlike their past cohorts and will be moving into their careers with different experiences that are likely to impact future clinical practice (Hames et al., 2020). There is currently no research that specifically examines how the recent COVID-19 pandemic has impacted CITs transition to CVT.

Credentialing and professional bodies provide guidance and practice competencies for counselors in using technology with clients. The Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) lists several specific standards (2.F.1.j., 2.F.5.d., 2.F.5.e.) that address the importance of understanding technology within the scope of clinical practice (CACREP, 2015). The ACA Code of Ethics (2014) H.1.a. states that counselors must develop knowledge and skills when using distance counseling and The American School Counselor Association (ASCA) dedicates two sections of their Ethical Codes for School Counselors to telehealth (A.14 and A.15).

Purpose of Study

The emergence of mental health issues during a pandemic is common, though difficult to address due to the complexities of this specific crisis and the lack of evidence in interventions to tackle them (Ransing et al., 2020). During COVID-19, CITs began practicing CVT in their practicum and internship sites, likely with little prior training or education in CVT. The purpose of this qualitative study was to examine how CITs experienced the transition to CVT during COVID-19. The guiding research question was as follows: How do counselors-in-training (CITs) experience the transition to clinical video teleconferencing (CVT) during COVID-19?

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COVID-19 General Impact

COVID-19 is classified as an infectious disease pandemic; consequences of such pandemics include job loss (Kumar & Najar, 2020), social phobias, strained health care systems, increased rates of mortality, economic stress (Holloway et al., 2014) and prejudice and discrimination against specific individuals, groups, or regions impacted by the disease (Van Bortel et al., 2016). COVID-19 is uniquely stressful in several ways. First, there is a pervasive sense of threat, leading to a constant assessment of risk as to whether people or objects are potentially life-threatening (Kamp et al., 2020). Second, “a significant portion of the population has unlimited access to a 24-hour news media cycle” (Rosen et al., 2020, p. 176). The exposure to instantaneous updates and consumption of tragic circumstances may exacerbate symptoms of depression, anxiety, and various mental health issues (Rosen et al., 2020), while also contributing to feeling overloaded by potential misinformation (Kumar & Najar, 2020).

Many years of research underscore social connections as paramount in coping with difficult events and situations (Jetten et al., 2011; Putnam, 2000). In a time of COVID-19, social distancing, stay-at-home orders, quarantine, and overall decreased social interaction threaten these coping mechanisms. The consequences of the COVID-19 pandemic are not only physical (if one is infected), but also financial and psychological (Sibley et al., 2020; Kumar & Najar, 2020). Social distancing has resulted in reduced social gatherings and physical connections, which may result in isolation, loneliness, and fear (Sibley et al., 2020).

Watching the pandemic unfold via various media platforms, coupled with social distancing, financial insecurity, and uncertainty for future safety is also likely to impact individuals’ mental health (Sibley et al., 2020). In fact, early studies in China demonstrated increased levels of anxiety because of COVID-19 (Wang et al., 2020; Qiu et al., 2020). These findings are consistent with anxiety reported during the 2003 SARS outbreak (Kan et al., 2003). Considering the global health crisis, mental health providers were faced with numerous ethical, legal, and practical challenges in transitioning clinical and supervisory work to a remote platform (Hames et al., 2020).

COVID-19 Impact on Counselors

Exposure to instantaneous updates and consumption of tragic circumstances may exacerbate symptoms of various mental health issues (Rosen et al., 2020). Upon review of the existing literature on COVID-19 and CVT, Inchausti et al. (2020) identified three groups at the highest risk of psychological distress: health care- professionals (including counselors), individuals exposed to traumatic events due to the pandemic, and individuals with preexisting mental health disorders. Mental health providers are in high demand during a pandemic and given that some have essential employee status, may be of higher risk in personal health and safety (Dice et al., 2018). Aafjes van-Doorn et al. (2020) explored vicarious traumatization of psychotherapists during COVID-19 and found that “on average therapists experience a moderate level of vicarious trauma, while 15% experienced high levels of vicarious trauma (p.1).

Therapists of all modalities and levels of experience had to grapple with the sudden implications of transitioning their therapeutic technique with little opportunity for reflective practice (Békés & Aafjes-van Doorn, 2020). Counselors also experienced grief in being physically separated from their colleagues, despite ongoing virtual meetings and supervision (Humphreys et al., 2020). While this is an arduous trial for professional counselors, additional challenges are presented for counselors-in-training.

COVID-19 Impact on CITs

Considering the global health crisis, CITs were faced with some similar challenges as their professional cohorts, with some noteworthy additions. CITs in their experiential phase of the educational program (practicum and internship) were navigating one of three courses of action when COVID-19 responses were set into motion: (1) maintaining face-to-face contact; (2) going to a remote platform; or (3) needing to cease their experiential work (Hames et al., 2020). While a combination of approaches could also have been demonstrated, any of these options would likely yield considerable stress (Hames et al., 2020). This distress could be heightened by less control over

these decisions and the "impact on their safety, training, and future employability…as well as limited time and financial resources to manage these changes" (Hames et al., 2020, p. 355). Mitotto et al. (2020) list aspirational and developmental disruptions as particularly salient concerns during COVID-19.

Like professional counselors, CITs engaged in CVT during COVID-19 used their home and personal spaces to work. The need to intentionally cultivate separation from work and home life would be essential for adequate self-care (Hames et al., 2020), and the new fusing of work and home life may contribute to vicarious traumatization. Like professional counselors, vicarious traumatization plays a factor in counselor effectiveness (Aafjes van-Doorn et al., 2020), however, this could have much greater implications for CITs. Vicarious trauma is higher in younger therapists (Halevi & Idisis, 2018) and for those with less training (Adams & Riggs, 2008). Further, the experience of vicarious traumatization is augmented when client and counselor experience the same crisis or natural disaster (Culver et al., 2011), as is the case with the COVID-19 pandemic.

CIT Perceptions of Telehealth

The opinions of counseling students have not been heard regarding beliefs and opinions about working in the online setting (Pipoly, 2013), and the research is lacking in establishing CITs efficacy in providing telehealth (Hames et al., 2020). Certain studies have included CITs in their population sample but were grouped in with professional counselors (e.g., Kupczynski et al., 2017). Telehealth provides an opportunity for counselors to provide care from a unique modality to clients worldwide. Although some graduate programs offer telehealth training or certification, counseling students may be entering a field unprepared to practice in a platform that is likely here to stay post COVID-19 (Rosen et al., 2020).

Methodology

This study utilized an interpretive phenomenological analysis (IPA) methodological approach. IPA is specifically well suited to researching situations and events that have been largely unexplored, or where theoretical pretext is lacking (Smith et al., 2009). The guiding research question was as follows: How do counselors-in-training (CITs) experience the transition to clinical videoconferencing (CVT) during COVID-19?

Data Collection

Prior to data collection, permission was granted by the sponsoring university's institutional review board (IRB). The study sampled 7 CITS, which followed the recommendation of 5-10 participants for an IPA inquiry (Pietkiewicz & Smith, 2014). Participant selection criteria included being aged 18 or older, engaged in a Spring 2020 Masters-level Counseling practicum or internship, and transitioning from in-person counseling to CVT in Spring 2020. Participants were selected via referral through counselor education professional networks in the United States. Participants took part in two Zoom interviews: one 60–90-minute interview (Interview 1) and one 30–45-minute interview (Interview 2). At the start of Interview 1, informed consent was reviewed and obtained, and demographic information was collected for descriptive data. Interview questions encouraged reflection on the affective, somatic, behavioral, and cognitive experience of the phenomenon and utilized the relevant literature, and the researchers' professional experiences.

Data Analysis

For this study, analysis adhered to the six steps outlined by Smith et al. (2009). These included (1) reading and rereading, (2) initial noting, (3) developing emergent themes, (4) searching for connections across emergent themes, (5) moving to the next case, and (6) looking for patterns across cases. Audiovisual interviews were transcribed through third-party transcription services (GoTranscript). The phenomenological data was hand-coded by researchers in two cycles of coding and participants engaged in member checking after each interview. Member checking is intended to ensure that participants confirm the accuracy of their statements prior to coding and analyzing the data (Chan, 2018).

Credibility, Dependability, & Transferability

Measures were taken to boost credibility, dependability, and transferability of the study. Credibility and dependability were enhanced via peer review and ongoing consultation among researchers, providing quality assurance in the findings accurately representing the data. Transferability was increased by providing a rich, transparent analysis of the data (Smith et al., 2009). Member checking was also utilized to enhance the credibility and trustworthiness of the data (Lincoln & Guba, 1985).

Results

Participant Profile

Participants were given pseudonyms of Rowan, Kat, Tatum, Lilly, Jade, Stella, and Avery. All seven participants identified as White women, ages ranging from 24 to 35 years old. Every participant was in the clinical mental health counseling (CMHC) concentration, with four participants in brick- and-mortar academic programs, two in online educational programs, and one in a hybrid academic program. Three participants participated in a practicum or internship site in the Midwest, two in The South-East, one from the North-East, and one from the North-West. Their practicum and internship settings were as follows: community mental health agency (3), college counseling center (2), child advocacy center (1), and private practice (1).

Superordinate Themes

After coding and analyzing the qualitative data from all seven participants and engaging in idiographic and recursive reflection, five superordinate themes were uncovered: (a) Theme 1: Parallel Experiences, (b) Theme 2: Personal and Professional Disconnect, (c) Theme 3: Concerns for Clients, (d) Theme 4: Preparedness and Support, and (e) Theme 5: Experience of Grief and Loss

Theme One: Parallel Experiences

All the participants noted the uniqueness of having to manage the same event (coping with COVID-19) as their clients, and the complexity of how this contributed to their lived experience of the phenomenon of interest. All seven of the participants contributed to the development of Theme One: Parallel Experiences.

Kat spoke about this parallel process of working with clients to manage the adjustment to the pandemic while also attempting to cope with her own personal and professional transition:

> Listen, this is something that's unprecedented. It was like, a generation of interns have been like, 'Oh, now you're forced to be doing telehealth… we all come in with our own baggage, but to add on top of that, being a collective trauma having seen the COVID ourselves. Because it was a double-edged sword. We were trying to help them [clients], but we were also trying to process our own, like what this means for our lives. I was reading about how, again, trauma, like if collectively the COVID trauma has impacted you in some of those collective symptoms. And I was like, oh, and then I could normalize that, not just for myself, but for others who were experiencing similar symptoms.

Kat seemed to indicate that her own process of managing emotional, cognitive, physical, and collective responses to COVID-19 helped her engage with her clients and utilize this as a vehicle of compassion and empathy. Holding client fears and realities while also having her own provided both benefits and caveats in her intern experience.

Rowan similarly spoke to her experience balancing her own emotional experience of COVID-19 while working with clients navigating this same worldwide event:

> I have this like, toddler's language of what it means to be a therapist… and so thinking, you know, 'Okay, I think I might be getting the hang of this,' and then everything switches. And not only do I have to shift with my clients might need from me, I'm also personally handling this pandemic. And you know, it was quite the challenge to hold both in the room of, 'I get what you are saying. And I'm also with you in that.'

Not only are counselors-in- training just learning the proverbial ropes of counseling as new practitioners, but they are learning a new modality within the rare phenomena of experiencing the same collective event (albeit in individualized and relative manners) as their clients. Tatum described her parallel process of working with clients during COVID-19, outlining the emotional toll it took to be present in maintaining similar feelings about the pandemic:

> How hard it was for us students that we're learning to be a therapist, to be in the therapist role, while we were also having to adjust. For myself, I had to put up a good front with all these college students that were struggling with this transition, meanwhile, I myself was struggling. A lot of times, you didn't feel you were given that time to really cope with the change that you were trying to help them cope with … it was the same thing that happening at the same time to our clients as it was to us, but yet we were put in a different role where we weren't really allowed to show the struggle to the same extent.

Jade voiced a similar process in piloting her adjustment while clients were doing the same:

> And then at that point, also like, 'Crap, like, we were going through so much in that moment.' And I was still trying to adjust, and it was hard for me to set the boundary of where I'm adjusting and help my client who is also adjusting to the same thing … like, my own emotions kept getting wrapped up in things when my clients were talking about stuff. I can empathize with people, but it was harder to demonstrate and give that empathy to people when I was still going through things on my own self when I don't really know how to navigate the pandemic myself at that point.

Theme Two: Personal & Professional Disconnect

While transitioning from in-person counseling to CVT, additional changes resulted in a disconnect between what CITs experienced personally and professionally. Participants identified the following subthemes: (1) burnout, (2) boundaries, and (3) concern for practicum/internship hours. The professional construct that seemed to hold up against these personal concerns was professional accessibility for clients. Said another way, regardless of personal concern(s) endorsed, participants felt a robust professional responsibility to maintain continuity of care with clients. All seven of the participants contributed to the development of Theme Two: Personal and Professional Disconnect.

Personal Burnout for Professional Accessibility. Several participants discussed that the personal and professional disconnect they experienced led to symptoms of burnout. Kat mentioned that while the platform of CVT assisted accessibility for her clients, it also came with a feeling of increased exhaustion and decreased bandwidth to interact with family and peers. She stated:

> The pros and cons of being able to work with people that are at a distance … I think there's been some good in being able to have a client who's two hours away but still is getting the services they need … my favorite days were going into the office and working and I wasn't doing that. Once we transitioned to telehealth, it wasn't like I went from loving it to hating it, but I came home much more exhausted, much more drained, less able to have energy to interact with others.

Like several participants, Tatum discussed enhanced and acute physical symptoms of burnout due to the transition to CVT. She stated, "I had a lot of headaches through the whole process. To be totally honest, I got so stressed at one point that my hair started falling out more."

Personal Boundaries for Professional Accessibility. In transitioning to CVT, most participants moved from working in an office to working from home. The distinction between home and office became blurred. Tatum recounted how this impacted her feeling of professionalism:

> I noticed it became more difficult to be that professional person when, you know, I was seeing clients from my bed. And that was like, everybody saw my personal life kind of, so that was weird. It felt very hard to maintain that professional aspect

during sessions and otherwise. I kind of felt like I didn't have a personal life. It kind of all became professional.

Like Tatum, Rowan worked from home and verbalized ways in which obscuring boundaries impacted her self-care.

I feel like there was a lot of blending. There was no working from home. It was, I was living where I was working, and maintaining that boundary was a huge part in my self-care. And not being able to, having those boundaries blurred, um, was really defeating.

Although Avery no longer endured her usual commute when she began working from home, she voiced that the counseling via CVT resulted in "less formality …maybe a little less respect for the counseling environment." While the platform of CVT provided insight into a client's true and practical world, it also resulted in aspects possibly detracting from the clinical work.

Personal Concern for Internship Hours for Professional Accessibility. Several participants cited internship hours as a predominant concern during the transition from in-person counseling to CVT. Specifically, there was concern that the transition to CVT placed them in danger of falling short of their experiential hours needed to fulfill academic requirements. For example, despite her relief in being able to offer ongoing services to clients, Kat feared for the attainment of her internship hours:

It also impacted my direct hours. Getting those, which added, I think just honestly, to the level of stress. I had known myself, and knew that I was going to do it in three semesters and was not going to feel rushed or pressured or anything like that. That being said, I felt rushed and pressured… especially in the role as intern, that was something that was really important, just because that's a goal you try and keep in your mind.

Like Kat, Tatum verbalized feeling the stress of her clients canceling due to lack of privacy, family situations, or internet issues. She stated:

For somebody who is trying to complete their practicum or internship hours, it was even more stressful. And so it was, you know, a lot of worrying about whether or not I was going to get my hours to get done in time. And if I'd be able to move forward in the program.

Jade also noted this, stating, "Like feeling really anxious, just like worried about what was going on in the world, and you know, how am I gonna – like, I was worried about my hours."

Theme Three: Concerns for Clients

As previously mentioned, participants felt a robust duty to fulfill their professional practicum and intern roles, despite personal and professional hardships and barriers. While CVT presented some clients with more accessibility to ongoing services, it also offered caveats. These caveats are described in subthemes of (1) technology issues and (2) clinical issues. Of the seven participants, six contributed to the development of Theme Three: Concerns for Client.

Technology Issues. Participants noted frustration with technology and connectivity problems that arose during the clinical work. Tatum was conducting her practicum at a college counseling center, and the college changed to an entirely distanced education for Spring 2020. She stated, "A lot of students didn't have proper access to the internet. And we had a lot of connecting issues, and it just made for a really difficult time to be able to actually get those sessions in." Stella cited connectivity issues as one of the predominant contributors to a lack of therapeutic rapport. Avery reported most of her clients do not have access to webcams.

Clinical Issues. Tatum noted that working with clients via CVT often presented challenges in keeping attention, but there were also challenges in how to carry out treatment. For example, she stated:

> It was difficult … to actually make progress with them ‘cause they weren’t able to actually go out and do anything. Any of our clients who had like, social anxiety, they weren’t having it because they weren’t having to socialize. And that my clients who had depression were struggling even more because they weren’t able to socialize.

At first glance, this describes some of the pandemic outcomes: being quarantined, social distancing, and being unable to travel to see peers and family. However, this also relates directly to the experiences of counselors-in-training. Some of the interventions, psychoeducation, and coping skills they learned to implement with clients could not be carried out. Therefore, the counseling tools they possessed were not always applicable while providing CVT during Spring 2020. This is further echoed in Rowan’s account:

> Well, the first skill we learned on day one in grad school was the use of silence. Right? And that changed, like the use of silence, didn’t um, have the same impact, right. Like, leaving space was like, ‘Are you there? Or did you freeze?’

Jade echoed that many of her clients did not have video access or the technology needed to facilitate CVT, and this resulted in her losing almost all of her clients during the transition to CVT. Tatum also noted that with clients returning to their home states and countries, the ability to continue counseling was questionable. State laws differ in their licensing requirements; therefore, many clients could not continue or were delayed counseling before temporary licensing announcements were made.

Theme Four: Preparedness and Support

During Spring 2020, CITs were not the only providers transitioning to CVT along with many other professional providers. While professionals may have struggled in preparedness, CITs experienced a nuanced lack of preparation due to being trainees. Several participants used the specific phrase “imposter syndrome” to describe their experience transitioning to CVT. While this phenomenon can be developmentally appropriate for counselors-in-training, it is noteworthy that almost all participants’ language was indicative of this. This theme contains two constructs that are distinct but highly intertwined. Here, *preparedness* refers to participants’ readiness to perform CVT. *Support* refers to the level of guidance and backing they received during the transition to CVT. Of the seven participants, six contributed to the development of Theme Four: Preparedness.

In her community mental health agency setting, Lilly discussed personal and professional concerns she managed in Spring 2020. To help combat this, she engaged in an online training following her site’s transition to CVT:

> Yeah, I did also have plenty of anxiety about it. At least a few weeks to a month after the transition to CVT, I started a training in PESI. The first half is about, you know, everything that could go wrong with client records and security and all of those things that we as counselors don't know much about. So yeah, that was overwhelming. I was like, we have to accept the fact that I'm a counselor in training and I'm training with somebody who hasn't had a chance to train in telehealth before. And none of my professors had any experience with telehealth training before.

Rowan also voiced the disconcerting experience of her supervisor lacking the knowledge or skills to support her in transitioning to CVT:

> I was experiencing a lot of frustration with my site because, well, I was experiencing a lot of what my supervisors were experiencing, which is not something that I'm used to. If I have my own like, personal toddler anxiety or toddler therapist anxiety, I expect my supervisors to be like, 'Yeah that's totally normal.' But they were experiencing the same thing. So that was hard, because I feel like, you know, I’m in internship, this is my first semester of internship and I already have this like, toddler’s language of what it means to be a therapist. And so thinking, you know, ‘Okay, I think I might be getting the hang of this,’ and then everything switches.

Interestingly, the experience transitioning to CVT was also embraced as an opportunity. Stella stated, "I think overall it was a difficult experience professionally, but it really helped me, um, further my professionalism." Tatum stated, "I'm glad that future counselors are going through the schooling are going to have that experience [of CVT] already kind of set in."

Jade used the terms “green in the gills” to describe her developmental counseling skills and "lukewarm confidence” to describe her self-efficacy in her practicum. She spoke both about her experience of preparedness in transitioning to CVT and her experience of support:

> I just wish that we had talked a little bit more about video or telehealth counseling. I think it was mentioned here and there in some of my classes, but it was always little blurbs. I’ve heard other programs had more training or more education on it, and you know, maybe there’s hope out of this experience that programs will restructure a little bit and add more of that to their, at least to their techniques class.

Theme Five: Experience of Grief and Loss

Participants described multiple, complex layers of grief and loss. While there were other reasons behind this grief, they do coincide with the transition to CVT. In this superordinate theme, three subthemes emerged: (1) grief and loss with clients, (2) grief and loss with cohort and site colleagues, and (3) grief and loss with professional expectations. All seven participants contributed to Theme Five: Experience of Grief and Loss.

Grief and Loss with Clients. When participants were transitioning to CVT, they expressed variations of loss in their relationships with clients. Kat describes her relationship with a particular child client that she lost contact with during the transition:

> There was one child that I had my first one-on-one session with, this is the first one. It was so exciting. Like, I bought him a little truck. We were super excited. Um, and he hasn’t returned [after the CVT transition] and I think it’s kind of a struggle to know that he is not getting the counseling that he might need.

Jade reported, "I think I actually lost pretty much all my clients that I first started with, when I moved to telehealth." In discussing this, Jade verbalized somatic sensations that translated into a feeling of regret. Avery’s shift to CVT resulted in the loss of clinical relationships, which landed profoundly on her:

> It was really hard. I loved every one of my clients and looked so forward to seeing them. And so when I could no longer see the ones who didn't have webcams, that was really tough because I never got to see them again. We didn't know where we were going, there was no, like, warning. It wasn't like, 'Oh, this is our last time. Like, I will never see you in-person again before my internship and so, best of luck to you.'

Rowan also described losing clients during the transition to CVT:

> So some of my clients, I just never saw again. That shift for them was too much, and I would call and they wouldn't answer … so that was frustrating to me because this felt like this, like this loss, or like this missed opportunity.

Grief and Loss with Cohort and Site Colleagues. Lilly mentioned loss being a strong theme she remembered in Spring 2020, particularly in her personal, professional, and academic support systems. Tatum stated, “I myself kind of started to struggle with a little bit of depression because I wasn’t seeing any of my classmates.” Jade also noted, “I like, lost my cohort that I got to see all the time” and that while she was still seeing them online, “it’s didn’t feel the same.” Stella discussed losing the connections from physical exposure to her fellow interns, practicum students, colleagues, and supervisor in her internship site:

> It was tough because, you know, I would go over to the counseling center every day that I had an internship, pop into my supervisor's office, tell some jokes, talk about x,y, and z,

and I just felt very isolated because I was counseling remotely on my own. So a loss of connection on two ends.

Grief and Loss with Professional Expectations. In transitioning to CVT, several participants' clinical roles changed dramatically. Thus, the expectations of their professional responsibilities were disrupted, and how to implement these shifted. Kat went from conducting individual counseling, family intakes, and forensic interviews each day to performing individual counseling only. Tatum's role had a spectrum of functions related to individual and group counseling, outreach events, and health promotion. She describes the shift by stating, "I kinda felt like we backtracked. I had to go back to observing and just taking notes and documenting things because it took us a while to understand."

Moving into a practicum or internship experience involves practicing basic skills, theories, and foundational models introduced in the classroom. Some participants felt unable to transfer these skills to an online setting. Rowan stated that she felt disconnected from her clients, "not even get all the body language, not even get everything that would normally just be in the room." Stella mentioned an expectational role as a member of the counseling field, which is that of *helper*. She stated:

I think initially, I was sad. I know that I lost a decent amount of clients as well. So that was really not just a great feeling. And I'm trying to think of a great way to describe it, but it just—I was just experiencing this loss of my role as a helper.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to understand how counselors-in-training (CITs) make meaning of their transition from in-person counseling to clinical video teleconferencing (CVT) in their Spring 2020 practicum or internship. Across fourteen interviews from seven qualifying participants, data converged into the five themes: (a) Parallel Experiences, (b) Personal and Professional Disconnect, (c) Concerns for Clients, (d) Preparedness and Support, and (e) Experience of Grief and Loss.

Theme One: Parallel Experiences

Through analysis of the data, participants identified a variety of parallel processes that intersected their transition to CVT. All of the participants noted the uniqueness of having to manage COVID-19 along with their clients. Like their clients, participants raised personal issues that they were enduring during Spring 2020. They experienced their first professional clinical experience during a pandemic, enduring a shift from what they learned in the program (face-to-face modality) to a new, unfamiliar landscape (CVT). Not only were there several "firsts" being experienced, but they were also highly unusual. Counselors often experience similar events as their clients (e.g., trauma); this is a highly individualized and usually asynchronous experience. Less often, counselors might face phenomena that their clients do, on a broader or more collective scope (e.g., the 9/11 WTC tragedy). The phenomenon of this study (COVID-19) lies in this latter condition. There was a synchronous and ongoing experience of coping with the pandemic on both the parts of the counselor and the client. Participants discussed the complexity of managing their own experience of the pandemic while helping their clients cope with the pandemic. Participants were engaged in a rapid learning curve with advanced skills in managing their emotional, cognitive, and somatic response to a collective tragedy while also assisting their clients in doing this.

This theme was strongly infused throughout the interviews of all participants. Participants had to rapidly construct and utilize self-attunement and emotional regulation skills that many would consider advanced. These synchronous internal processes set some of the foundations for the second theme to be discussed, which describes the disconnect between personal and professional aspects of the participants' experiences.

Theme Two: Personal and Professional Disconnect

During the Spring 2020 transition to CVT, additional transitions resulted in participants' experience of a disconnect between what they faced personally and professionally. Participants listed personal domains in the following subthemes: (1)

burnout, (2) boundaries, and (3) concern for practicum/internship hours. The professional construct that seemed to hold up against these personal concerns was professional accessibility for clients.

Personal Burnout for Professional Accessibility

Participants endorsed experiences of burnout during their Spring 2020 practicum or internship. They indicated CVT required a different level of focus and attention than face-to-face counseling. Domains of fatigue included physical (e.g., headaches, hair falling out), emotional (e.g., mental exhaustion), social (e.g., not wanting to interact with peers or family after seeing clients), and cognitive (e.g., difficulty attending). Wiederhold (2020) discusses the concept of "Zoom fatigue," a relatively new term that describes the exhaustion and/or anxiety that comes from the overuse of teleconferencing platforms. One way to address this is limiting usage. However, as CITs fulfilling experiential hours for their graduate program, participants perceived a lack of ability to limit their practice.

Personal Boundaries for Professional Accessibility

In any graduate counseling program, maintaining boundaries is a domain that is often discussed and anchored in ethical and professional guidelines and the transition to CVT held unique challenges to participants' personal and professional boundaries. The shift to CVT also meant a transition to working from home. Participants were working in the spaces that they had intended to be sanctuaries outside of their professional selves. In doing this, they experienced a blurring of these worlds, creating a lack of clarity and the feeling that their clinical work was always emotionally and physically closer to them. Some were unable to create spaces that were truly apart from other personal areas, and this may have increased a sense of role confusion.

Personal Concern for Internship Hours For Professional Accessibility

Most, if not all, graduate counseling programs require a specified minimum of fulfilled direct experiential hours in a practicum or internship setting. Clients' attendance may have been additionally challenged by technological issues, in addition to other existent reasons. Therefore, participants had less certainty that they would achieve the number of direct hours required.

Theme Three: Client Concerns

Participants strove to meet client needs in their professional practicum and intern roles, despite personal and professional barriers. Participants provided frequent consideration for their clients' experiences transitioning to CVT, perhaps even more so than their own. While CVT presented some clients with more accessibility to ongoing services, it also presented unique problems. These are described in subthemes of (1) technology issues, and (2) clinical issues.

Technology Issues

Participants voiced frustration and disappointment in the technological barriers they faced while using CVT with clients. As an American culture, we may have become familiar with some of the common idiosyncrasies of technology (e.g., "spotty" Zoom reception or dropping a call due to lack of service), but these often nuisance-like occurrences adopted a much more serious outcome in counseling work. Participants felt as though the therapeutic alliance was negatively impacted by technological mishaps. And while technology provided accessibility for many to continue receiving supportive services, it also revealed a gap for clients who lacked the resources to continue counseling.

Clinical Issues

Two major components of this subtheme emerged from the data. First, participants found that their interventions, psychoeducation, and coping skills implemented with clients could not be carried out. This was largely due to restrictions brought on by the pandemic (e.g., travel bans, quarantining). Methods that participants had learned to implement with clients were found to be insufficient. Therefore, the counseling tools they possessed were not always applicable. Second, some participants were managing larger administrative and regulatory puzzles pertaining to licensing laws and scope of practice with CVT during the pandemic. This navigation of licensing laws and emergency-response regulations were additional stressors.

Theme Four: Experience of Preparedness and Support

During the transition to CVT, CITs experienced a nuanced lack of preparation due to being trainees in the field. Participants verbalized terms such as "imposter syndrome," "lukewarm confidence," toddler language," and "green in the gills" to describe their experience of preparedness in transitioning to CVT. While this phenomenon of pervasive self-doubt can be developmentally appropriate for CITs, it is noteworthy that nearly all participants' language was indicative of its presence. However, it also seems that the experience using CVT made them stronger and more resilient as counselors. Several of the participants endorsed feeling proud that they had endured this transition and navigated a modality that causes trepidation for many professional counselors. Participants also associated their preparedness with their level of supervisory support. Counselors' development of professional identity during a practicum and internship relies on supervision. Because some participants' supervisors lacked their own knowledge of CVT, the participants seem to feel less supported in their own transition of practice.

Theme Five: Experience of Grief and Loss

Participants expressed layered experiences of grief and loss during the transition to CVT. While other reasons precipitated their grief, these coincide with the transition to CVT and likely contribute to participants' experiences of CVT. In this superordinate theme, three subthemes emerged: (1) grief and loss with clients, (2) grief and loss with cohort and site colleagues, and (3) grief and loss with professional expectations.

Grief And Loss with Clients

Many participants spoke about discontinuing with some clients during the shift to CVT. It was apparent that participants had taken great care of formulating strong rapport with clients until that shift. When these clinical relationships ended, sometimes with no clinical termination, CITs expressed sadness. This suggests the emphasis that had been placed on developing a solid therapeutic alliance with their clients. There also seemed to be a difference in how participants experienced clients who shifted from face-to-face to CVT and clients who began counseling through CVT only. With the latter population, participants were navigating how to build rapport remotely, rather than feeling as though a connection had already been established in-person.

Grief And Loss with Cohort and Site Colleagues

During the pandemic, many academic programs and mental health sites went remote. This meant that students attending brick-and-mortar institutions no longer shared physical space with their cohort. In addition, CITs no longer shared physical space with colleagues in their practicums and internships. These conditions coincide with the transition to CVT and participants verbalized feelings of isolation and loss. It became apparent that reliable and consistent interaction with both cohort members and colleagues contributed to a grounding sense of professional community. Beyond this, these communities of support acted as protective outlets for the participants. With these exposures being limited or eliminated, participants found themselves experiencing loss that compounded their experience.

Grief And Loss with Professional Expectations

The seven participants began their practicum and internship settings with diverse responsibilities. While some experienced an increase in responsibilities, others experienced a constriction of job tasks. Regardless, there was an overarching expression that their professional expectations were disrupted. Understandably, participants entered their practicums and internships with the expectation that their clinical skills would be further honed and developed. Moving into a practicum or internship entails practicing basic skills, theories, and foundational models first introduced in the classroom. Some participants, however, felt unable to transfer these skills to an online setting. This resulted in the feeling they had somehow lost a full experience, not professionally progressing in the ways they had hoped.

Limitations

The participants in this study were all White and self-identified as women. They were all students in a clinical mental health (CMHC) program. While IPA does not aim to produce generalizable results, it does highlight the potential transferability of findings from one group or context to another (Hefferon & Gil-Rodriguez, 2011). While the condition of having

experienced the phenomenon is most paramount in IPA recruitment, a more diverse sample of participants could have impacted the study's findings and provided a richer picture of the research inquiry.

Implications for Counselor Educators and Supervisors

Online counseling is an increasingly utilized modality and likely here to stay post COVID-19 (Rosen et al., 2020). Therefore, there is a strong basis for counselor education programs to intentionally provide training in CVT at the master's level (Pipoly, 2013). Studies suggest that experience with telehealth and use of telehealth tools play the most prominent roles in counselors' comfort in practicing online counseling (Békés & Aafjes-van Doorn, 2020; Richards & Vigano, 2013). The outcomes of this study support augmented and intentional efforts to provide CITs the academic and experiential training for practicing CVT.

Participants who had supervisors with professional experience using CVT felt more supported than those without this condition. Supervisors having a strong understanding of this impact can more aptly mentor and support CITs who are providing CVT. This would not only prepare a supervisee for the possibility of using CVT in their practicum and internship, but it would build their learning foundation for practicing CVT in their future careers.

Implications for Future Research

Future research efforts would benefit from sampling more diverse CITs, specifically in terms of gender identity, racial identity, age, and educational concentration (e.g., school counselors). As a follow up study, researchers propose the construction and validation of an instrument that measures counselor competency utilizing CVT. There currently exists an instrument for school counselors' intent to use online counseling (School Guidance Counselors' Perceptions of Online Counseling Survey; Glasheen et al., 2013) but there are no existing scales that measure this for clinical mental health counselors. Further, there a not a validated measure for assessing CIT competency or preparedness to provide CVT. Additional future research could include identifying and testing CVT competencies that pertain specifically to mental health counseling. Although interdisciplinary telehealth competencies have been proposed, these have not yet been evaluated through validated research.

Conclusion

During the Spring 2020, the national impact of COVID-19 resulted in counselors making a rapid transition to CVT. Using an interpretive phenomenological method, this study explored the lived experiences of CITs' transition from in-person counseling to CVT at the onset of COVID-19. The experiences articulated by the seven participants in the study supported existing research findings, while also highlighting the increased need for further efforts in preparation to provide CVT.

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Note: Earn 2.0 Free Continuing Education Credits by reading selected articles in this issue. Read the articles identified below and answer 8 of the 10 questions correctly to earn 2 CE credit.

Assessing the Presence of Underrepresented Groups in *Professional School Counseling* (pp. 4-17)

1. The Bultsma et al. study was designed to consider which of the following?
- ☐ a. To what extent are school counselors in Pennsylvania demonstrating anti-racism in their work with students
- ☐ b. To what extent are school counselors in Pennsylvania demonstrating multicultural competence
- ☐ c. To what extent school counselors are reading Professional School Counseling to inform their work
- ☐ d. To what extent the scholarly literature in Professional School Counseling has addressed diversity issues

2. The Bultsma et al. content analysis included how many class intervals?
- ☐ a. Three
- ☐ b. Four
- ☐ c. Five
- ☐ d. Six

3. Bultsma et al. found that a comparison of the proportions of underrepresented groups as the topic of articles indicated a change in the pattern of their presence over time. The post hoc analysis demonstrated a significant difference in the publication patterns between which two class intervals?
- ☐ a. The first and fifth class intervals
- ☐ b. The second and third class interval
- ☐ c. The third and fourth class intervals
- ☐ d. The fourth and fifth class intervals

4. Which of the following has been identified by Bultsma et al. as a limitation of their content analysis?
- ☐ a. The demographics of k-12 students in Pennsylvania have not been clearly identified
- ☐ b. Coding errors may have occurred due to rater subjectivity and span of this project over time
- ☐ c. School counselors in Pennsylvania are not reading the Professional School Counseling journal to inform their practice
- ☐ d. The extent of the changing diversity patterns in k-12 schools is unclear

"Too High a Cost to Pay": A Critical Examination of the Privilege Walk as a Counselor Training Tool (pp. 18-30)

5. The privilege walk is experiential learning because...
- ☐ a. It is accompanied by reflection and peer dialogue
- ☐ b. Participants realize their transformation
- ☐ c. It is an engaging tactic that utilizes movement and discussion.
- ☐ d. It increases self-awareness

6. Participants gave all reasons below as an explanation of how the privilege walk varies EXCEPT…
- ☐ a. Facilitators.
- ☐ b. Space, is there enough room to complete the activity.
- ☐ c. Time for dialogue.
- ☐ d. Number of participants present.

7. Which alternative pedagogical tactic was implemented by the facilitators interviewed in this study, in an attempt to reduce participant vulnerability?
- ☐ a. Assigning participants identities.
- ☐ b. Adding intersectional identities to the activity
- ☐ c. Adding in reflective self-work and small groups before and after the activity
- ☐ d. All of the above.

The Lived Experiences of Counselors-in-Training Using Clinical Video Teleconferencing During COVID-19 (pp. 31-45)

8. This study was carried out in the following methodology:
- ☐ a. Quantitative
- ☐ b. Qualitative
- ☐ c. Mixed-Methods
- ☐ d. Not mentioned

9. According to Pietkiewicz & Smith (2014), an IPA inquiry recommends a sample size of _______ and this study sampled___ participants
- ☐ a. 5-10; 7
- ☐ b. 1-10; 9
- ☐ c. 10-20; 10
- ☐ d. 15-25; 15

10. What is an identified limitation of the study?
☐ a. All participants were White and woman-identified
☐ b. All participants were school counselors
☐ c. The study lacked reliability
☐ d. Several participants dropped out

☐ I certify that I have completed this test without receiving any help choosing the answers.

Feedback

Please rate the following items according to the following scale:

5 – Superior 4 – Above Average 3- Average 2 – Below Average 1 – Poor

	Superior	Above Average	Average	Below Average	Poor
The authors were knowledgeable on the subject matter	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1
The material that I received was beneficial	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1
The content was relevant to my practice	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1
This journal edition met my expectations as a mental health professional	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1
How would you rate the overall quality of the test?	☐5	☐4	☐3	☐2	☐1

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3. **Title Page:** Identify the title page with a running head. The title page should include title (not more than 80 characters), author, affiliation, and an author’s note with contact information. Author’s note should be formatted exactly as it appears in this example:

   Author Name, Department of ____________________, University Name [or Company affiliation].
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4. **Abstract:** Begin the abstract on a new page, and identify the abstract page with the running head and the number 2 typed in the upper right-hand header of the page. The abstract should not exceed 75 words.
5. **Keywords:** Keywords should follow the abstract on page 2 and are limited to 5 words.
6. **Text:** Begin the text on a page 3, and identify the text page with the running head and page number 3 typed in the upper right-hand header of the page. Type the title of the article centered at the top of the page and then type the text. Each subsequent page of the text should carry the running head and page number.
7. **Tables and Figures:** No more than 3 tables and 2 figures with each manuscript will be accepted. Do not embed tables or figures within the body of the manuscript. Each table or figure should be placed on a separate page following the reference list
8. **References:** References should follow the style detailed in the APA Publication Manual. Check all references for completeness, including the year, volume number, and pages for journal citations. Please be sure to include DOI numbers as necessary. Make sure that all references mentioned in the text are listed in the reference section and vice versa and that the spelling of author names and years are consistent.
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