Key aspects of counselling

What is counselling? How does it differ from other helping activities? These are among the first questions which you, as students, may be asked to consider at the start of your training programme. A wide variety of ideas is likely to emerge in response to these questions, because there is no single answer which adequately defines counselling. One way of approaching the problem of definition is to work in small groups and generate as many answers as possible among the participants. A typical working group might produce results similar to the following list.

What is counselling?
- it is a special form of communication with an explicit contract
- it is a confidential and non-judgemental form of helping
- it is based on the principle of empowerment
- it is a relationship in which one person helps another
- it may take place in a group setting, where one person may help several people in a group
- it entails a special kind of listening called ‘active listening’
- it is a process which helps people to clarify and address problems
- it recognises that each person is unique with unique experiences
- it is guided by theories about the causes of problems, and the methods needed to help
- it is an activity carried out by trained people.

These are just some of the usual responses to the question, and in this first chapter we shall discuss them in turn, along with several other important issues relating to the nature of counselling. These include an examination of the difference between counselling skills and counselling theory, as well as an assessment of the uses of counselling in a wide range of professions. We shall also consider some of the situations in which counselling is used, and the kinds of problems which it addresses. Aspects of counsellor training will be highlighted, although aspects of this topic will be taken up and dealt with in more detail in Chapter 10. The following question, along with some possible answers, is also of interest in relation to counselling.
How does it differ from other helping activities?

- Some helping relationships involve giving advice, and counselling doesn’t.
- Other helping relationships may not have the same kind of boundaries.
- There may be a conflict of interests in other helping relationships.
- There are some helping relationships in which the helper might be judgemental.
- Other helpers may offer sympathy rather than empathy.
- Other helpers may not be objective.
- There is an absence of mutual expectation in counselling; this means that the counsellor is there to help the client, and does not expect help from the client in return.
- Counsellors do not impose conditions or expectations upon clients, while other helpers may expect their clients to behave in certain ways.

Although these are not exhaustive lists, they do provide enough material for discussion purposes. However, it is worth making the point straight away that counselling is not the mysterious or inscrutable activity which, in the past at least, members of the public sometimes believed it to be. Counsellors themselves occasionally contribute to mystification but, despite this, consumers are becoming more aware of the purpose and nature of counselling. There are several reasons for this: in the first place, counselling services are advertised, both in the media and on the internet, and it is now commonplace to hear counselling provision referred to following traumatic episodes in the news or TV programmes. But there are also many people who use counselling skills every day in their work, and yet do not describe themselves as counsellors. Additionally, there
are many people who have completed counsellor training yet do not describe themselves as counsellors either. These are some of the people whose roles and responsibilities we shall discuss later in the chapter.

**EXERCISE**

**Responses to questions**
Working individually, look at the answers given to the questions: What is counselling? How does it differ from other helping activities? How many of these answers apply to your own work or professional practice? How many apply to your relationships with family and friends? Afterwards, discuss your ideas and conclusions with other members of your training group.

**Personal expectations**
Working in small groups, discuss the characteristics that you would look for in a helper. Do not go into detail about any personal problems or concerns you might have at this stage. Instead, concentrate on listing, in general terms, those attributes and skills that you think an effective helper should possess.

**Some definitions**

All the responses to the questions raised in this chapter are, in fact, correct, though they do need some qualifying comments. Counselling is indeed a relationship, often between two people, but sometimes between a number of people and another person who is designated to act as counsellor for the group. Counselling, therefore, takes place both in individual and group settings, and in the latter context, two counsellors are occasionally present to work with members of the group. Regardless of the setting, however, the counselling relationship is a special form of communication, and this is true for a variety of reasons. One of the factors which makes it special is the quality of helper listening, which is developed as a result of training. This listening involves attending to what the client means to say, as well as what he is actually saying, and this will be discussed in some detail in the next chapter.

Confidentiality is another important component of the counsellor/client relationship which sets it apart from several other helping activities, although it should be noted that most professional helpers also regard it as essential to their work. Nevertheless, there are still some helping activities, like teaching – for example, where confidentiality towards pupils or students cannot be totally guaranteed. On the other hand, absolute confidentiality may not always be possible in counselling either, and these and other limitations will be addressed in Chapter 10.
Another important aspect of counselling is the concept of client empowerment. In simple terms, this indicates a confidence in the innate potential for self-determination which clients are believed to have. This capacity for self-determination may not always be apparent to the client, and certainly in times of stress or emotional upheaval it may become blocked or temporarily obscured. Counselling can help by enabling clients to look more closely at their experiences, and to clarify them. When this is achieved, ways of addressing difficulties can be devised by clients themselves, and strategies for change can be implemented. The non-judgemental and empathic presence of a trained helper facilitates the processes just described, and the fact that counsellors do not expect any reciprocal help from clients (the kind of help which friends might expect from each other, for example) means that clients feel valued and respected in a way they may not have experienced before. Nor do counsellors impose conditions or expectations on the clients they help, and even when goals and objectives are an integral part of the counselling contract, these are freely negotiated between client and counsellor.

CASE STUDY Rosemary

Rosemary, who was twenty-six, felt that she was ‘stuck’ in her life. She had been to university as a mature student, but after a year dropped out. Her boyfriend was unable to commit to a long-term relationship, and she was unable to get full-time work since she had no qualifications and her employment record was erratic.

Rosemary confided in a close girlfriend about her problems, and later on she talked to her sister and to her mother.

When people are searching for answers they often talk to a number of people in this way. In doing so they hope to find the right person who will help them make sense of their difficulties. Talking to different people also facilitates the process of thinking aloud, and thinking aloud helps to clarify the problem. However, for the process to work it is important to find the right listener/listeners. Rosemary described her experience in the following way:

My mother’s response was to give me a telling off for lacking what she referred to as ‘staying power’. I know that as a mother she was worried about me, but her worry made her unable to listen to and support me. My sister really tried, but she just couldn’t help being judgemental about my poor work record. She has never been out of work herself, so this was something she couldn’t understand. When I confided in my girlfriend she started to give me advice straight away. Though I appreciated her genuine effort to help, I knew that she was encouraging me in a course of action that wasn’t right for me. But she did suggest that I talk to a life
Therapeutic counselling and counselling skills

Therapeutic counselling is an activity undertaken by people who are specifically trained in this field. It differs from many other occupations and areas of work which are often described as ‘counselling’ but, strictly speaking, are not. These other areas include, for example, career counselling, financial counselling, sports counselling and style counselling. In fact, there is a growing tendency to describe any occupation in which advice is given as ‘counselling’. Therapeutic counselling does not include advice giving in its repertoire of skills, although it should be added that clients can hardly fail to be influenced by a counsellor’s attitudes, even when these are not explicitly stated.

In therapeutic counselling, the relationship between helper and client is especially significant and based on the principle of equality. Vulnerable clients may not always feel equal, but it is a principle which all counsellors need to respect and uphold. There is, moreover, no obvious conflict of interest in the relationship, and this is just one of the factors which set it apart from other working relationships. Teachers may, for example, need to discipline pupils, while nurses and social workers often give advice to the people they help. However, a distinction should be made here between the use of therapeutic counselling with clients and the use of counselling skills by other professionals in a variety of work situations. As we noted earlier, there are many people who now undertake counsellor training because they believe the skills they gain will prove useful in the work they do. Because of the training they receive, these people are well
aware that they are not acting ‘as counsellors’ in their professional roles. Instead, they are using the interpersonal skills which they have developed and refined within their counsellor training. A range of interpersonal or counselling skills will also be discussed in Chapter 2 and in subsequent chapters throughout the book. Before looking at the differences between theory and skills, however, it is useful to consider the ways in which counselling has been defined by organisations which are directly linked to it. The following is a definition offered by the British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy:

_Counselling takes place when a counsellor sees a client in a private and confidential setting to explore a difficulty the client is having, distress they may be experiencing or perhaps their dissatisfaction with life, or loss of a sense of direction or purpose. It is always at the request of the client as no one can properly be ‘sent’ for counselling._

(British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy, 2009c)

The BACP also adds that,

_it is not possible to make a generally accepted distinction between counselling and psychotherapy. There are well-founded traditions which use the terms interchangeably and others which distinguish between them. If there are differences, then they relate more to the individual psychotherapist’s or counsellor’s training and interests and to the setting in which they work, rather than to any intrinsic differences in the two activities._

(British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy, 2009c)

It is important to make a distinction between theory and skills in the context of counsellor training. At a basic level, the word ‘skills’ refers to the interpersonal tools which counsellors need to possess or acquire in order to communicate effectively with clients. These essential tools or skills include those of:

- listening and attending
- paraphrasing
- summarising
- asking questions
- encouraging clients to be specific
- reflecting their feelings
helping them to clarify their thoughts
- encouraging them to focus on key issues
- offering forms of challenge when needed.

In addition to these, however, there are other skills which are applicable to the actual organisation of counselling sessions. These basic skills will be discussed in some detail in Chapter 2, along with examples of the way they are used with clients.

Counselling theory, on the other hand, deals with assumptions and hypotheses about the process of human development. The problems and difficulties which can arise at various stages throughout our lifespan, as a result of environmental or other influences, are also considered under the heading of counselling theory. The ways in which different forms of therapy and counselling approach these problems, as well as their individual methods of helping clients, have evolved alongside theories about human development and the acquisition of helpful and unhelpful behaviours. A summary of the three main approaches to counselling theory will be given in Chapter 2. Individual theories will be described in more detail in subsequent chapters.

People who use counselling skills in their work

We have already noted that many people, including doctors, nurses, ministers of religion and teachers, use some counselling skills as part of their work. Doctors, for example, listen to their patients, and they usually try to understand the complex messages which people in distress often wish to convey. There is a growing emphasis on the need for interpersonal skills training among health professionals, but even when this is undertaken, doctors and others cannot devote the necessary listening time to individual patients. In addition to this, doctors frequently tell their patients what to do, and the central focus in doctor/patient encounters tends towards the factual rather than the emotional aspects of problems presented. Smith and Norton (1999) highlight this dimension of doctor/patient interaction when they state that doctors are trained to transmit information. This transmission of information is usually factual in nature, and may as a result neglect affective or emotional aspects of communication. This last point is applicable to people working in other areas of health care too. Despite the limitations just described, however, it is still the case that many health professionals, carers and others use what have come to be known as counselling skills in their daily work. A list of professionals in this category would include the following:

- psychologists
- welfare workers
- career counsellors
- teachers
- nurses, health visitors and midwives
- occupational therapists and speech therapists
- social workers
- physiotherapists
- ministers of religion
- voluntary and youth workers.

This represents only a selection of the many areas of work in which some counselling skills form an integral part of the professional’s role. All of these people are likely to benefit from further training. The reason for this is that even when their interpersonal skills are quite well developed, professional people gain a great deal from further skills training and the process of self-development, which is a fundamental part of counsellor training. These counsellor skills and attributes will be the subject of Chapter 2.

CASE STUDY Mrs Feltmann

Mrs Feltmann was a sixty-eight-year-old patient who attended her central GP surgery suffering from chest pains. She had a history of chronic obstructive airway disease, as well as a long-standing history of anxiety which had worsened over the previous six months. This heightened anxiety was associated with her recent move to the area and was further exacerbated by the experience of chest pains and profound worries about her health generally. Mrs Feltmann’s doctor ensured that all aspects of her physical problems were investigated and treated. He referred her to a consultant chest physician, who suggested that she might benefit from stress counselling or some other form of psychological assistance. Mrs Feltmann tended to become tearful during visits to her GP and although he was sympathetic and attentive, he could not give her the time and the quality of support she obviously needed. When the subject of counselling was raised, Mrs Feltmann was enthusiastic about it, and an appointment was made with one of the counsellors who worked at the practice. During her first session with the counsellor, Mrs Feltmann talked at length about her health worries and about the sequence of events which had led to her state of anxiety. She also cried a great deal, and seemed relieved to express the pent-up emotions she had tried to ignore in the past.

CLIENT: I never really wanted to move here. It was my husband’s idea. He always wanted to come here. I just went along with it and never said how I really feel.

COUNSELLOR: You didn’t state your true feelings …

CLIENT: He never gave me a chance … him and the kids. Every time I went to say something they just took the line … ‘Oh you’ll love it. It’s a lovely place, and it will help your chest.’

COUNSELLOR: So you felt you were never properly consulted … that nobody really listened.

CLIENT: That’s right. Now I’m here and I don’t know a soul. I feel trapped.

COUNSELLOR: Not able to talk to the family … nor to anyone else either.
Another reason for describing Mrs Feltmann’s problems is that it illustrates the close link between physical and emotional conditions. In her case the link was quite marked, and she seemed aware of this herself, since she readily agreed to counselling when it was suggested to her. This last point is an important one, because clients who feel under pressure to accept counselling seldom achieve a great deal as a result of it. In other words, counselling should be an option which clients are free to accept or decline according to their individual needs and wishes. In Chapter 2 we shall look at other case studies which illustrate the use of various counselling skills. However, an important point to make here is that the counsellor who helped Mrs Feltmann was able to give her time, something which the doctor could not offer because of his other commitments. Lack of time may also be an inhibiting factor in many of the other professional roles mentioned earlier. Nevertheless, there are some professional roles in which the time factor is a built-in consideration, and Health Visiting is an example of this. Health Visitors who work closely with young mothers are very aware of the potential emotional problems which can affect their clients, so they ensure that sufficient time is devoted to the exploration of these problems. The following exchange between a young mother named Louise, and her health visitor named Lesley, illustrates this point:

**LOUISE:** I get a bit uptight about housework . . . I really worry about it.

**LESLEY:** All the new commitments you have now, especially the baby . . . that’s a very new experience and responsibility.

**LOUISE:** [starting to cry] It seems endless . . . and I’m so tired. Sometimes I can hardly get out of bed.

**COMMENTARY** One reason for including this case study is that it highlights the difficulties which exist for many professionals in relation to their patients/clients. Mrs Feltmann’s GP, for example, understood that she needed more time than he could possibly give her. He had other patients to see, though he was aware of her emotional needs and suggested counselling to address these. Under the current UK-wide programme for Improving Access to Psychological Therapies (IAPT), it is likely that increasing numbers of patients will be offered counselling in this way.

**CASE STUDY**
LESLEY: Sit down for a moment and let’s talk about this. Just tell me exactly the way you feel.

Lesley, the Health Visitor, was concerned to help Louise express her feelings and gave her sufficient time to do so. As part of her work Lesley used a range of counselling skills, including listening, paraphrasing, reflecting back feelings and the skill of asking relevant questions. However, Lesley’s job also included giving advice, which was entirely appropriate and necessary in this instance, since Louise needed it in order to identify and seek help for the post-natal depression she suffered. Advice giving would not be appropriate in therapeutic counselling though, because the focus there is on helping clients to identify what it is they want and need.

### Problems of advice

In discussing the limits of advice giving Rollo May (1993: 117) makes the point that it is not ‘an adequate counselling function because it violates the autonomy of the personality’. Even before Rollo May expressed his reservations in this way, Freud (1920) had cautioned against giving direct advice. It was his view that people should be helped to attain their own ‘independent decisions’ without pressure from the counsellor or (in his case) psychoanalyst. However, many clients seek counselling in the hope that they will be told what to do. Others hope for advice about the best ways to tackle their personal problems. Nevertheless, advice is not given in therapeutic counselling and there are many reasons (including those highlighted by Freud and May) for withholding it. Perhaps one of the most important reasons is one which Amada (1995) identifies. He refers to the experiences of young children who are given frequent and copious advice, and who harbour deep feelings of resentment on account of it. These feelings do not disappear, but are carried into adult life and operate at an unconscious level thereafter. Advice, therefore, is not always valued in the way that advisers would like to believe. Nevertheless, there are some people who might be quite willing to follow any advice in a slavish and uncritical way. These people tend to view all helpers as experts, but in the context of therapeutic counselling they can be helped to look more closely at this aspect of their thinking and identify the reasons such expectations exist. If a client in therapy is willing to believe and follow everything a counsellor says, it is likely that he responds in a similar way to other significant people in his life. These ways of responding should be discussed between counsellor and client: if they are not, the client will have gained little as a result of therapy.

Clients who habitually invite or expect the control of others, or those who acquiesce to the views of other people, are in danger of losing sight of their own capabilities and resources. Counsellors can help their clients...
to locate and identify these resources, but in order to do this they need to be honest in relation to the subject of advice and its distorting influence. Clients are helped much more when they gain some understanding of the insecurities which impel them to seek advice in the first place. When clients develop greater understanding of their emotional problems, they tend to become more self-directed as a consequence, and the opinions and views of others are considered in a more detached way. This represents a real shift towards personal development and empowerment.

Advice or information?

We have seen that advice is a necessary component of some helping relationships. Patients expect and need advice from their doctors, for example, and practical help is often given too. Psychological and emotional conflicts cannot be approached in this utilitarian way, however, since it is only clients themselves who are aware of the complex dimensions of their own problems. The ways in which counsellors can help clients to identify and clarify their problems will be discussed in subsequent chapters. Meanwhile, an important caveat should be added in this section dealing with advice: this concerns certain emergency situations in which clients seem incapable of acting in autonomous ways to protect themselves against harm or danger. In these situations the counsellor may find it necessary to intervene by suggesting alternative courses of action. A client who is deeply depressed or suicidal, for example, may lack the psychological strength to make a constructive or informed decision about effective and available treatments which might be of benefit. Giving information to clients is, of course, not quite the same thing as giving advice, although a distinction between the two is sometimes hard to detect. The skill of information giving will be discussed in Chapter 2.

Issues which bring people to counselling

People seek counselling for a wide variety of reasons. Sometimes they have specific problems which have become unmanageable, while at other times they may feel dissatisfied or unhappy with life in general. People frequently find themselves locked in repeated self-destructive relationships, and just as often fail to anticipate the consequences of the actions they take. Clients in counselling will often say that they don't really know why they behave in certain ways. This means that in spite of a genuine desire to change and to engage in more satisfying relationships, it is difficult for them to do so. There are many reasons for this inability to change and perhaps the most significant is lack of self-awareness and personal insight. Other people seek counselling when they are troubled by physical symptoms which fail to respond to medical investigation or
remedy. Psychosomatic problems may include skin problems, tension headaches, sleep disorders, tiredness, stomach problems and many other equally debilitating symptoms. Sometimes people are propelled towards counselling when they lack motivation or direction. Academic under-achievement, difficulties at work, lack of assertiveness and low self-esteem are also reasons which prompt people to ask for help through counselling. Addictions and phobias are problematic for many people, while others are troubled with anxiety, feelings of worthlessness and often the conviction that they will fall apart or break down if help is not obtained. The following figure is an outline of some of the reasons which may prompt clients to seek counselling.

![Diagram of problems prompting counselling]

**Figure 1.2 Some problems which prompt people to seek help**

**Repetition of destructive relationships**

Relationship problems are high on the list of factors which prompt clients to seek counselling. As I have already indicated, people are often perplexed by their own behaviour and their inability to establish and maintain enjoyable and healthy relationships. This does not imply that counsellors are relationship experts, since clearly this is not the case. Counsellors, like everyone else, experience difficulties in their private lives, although with a background of proper training they should be aware at least of the importance of getting help. Clients who attempt to solve their own relationships problems often find themselves unable to do so. This is because of the unconscious element which frequently
operates to sabotage all conscious efforts. The chapters dealing with psychodynamic counselling in this book provide more information about unconscious motivation and the ways in which it is manifest. With the aid of a trained person (in this case the counsellor) clients can be helped to identify the factors which disturb their relationships.

Crisis situations

The word ‘crisis’ can be used to describe a variety of situations which seem overwhelming at the time they are experienced. What is perceived as a crisis by one person may not be viewed as such by someone else. On the other hand, there are certain situations including sudden bereavement, assault, the discovery of serious illness, suicidal feelings, loss of employment and divorce which are likely to constitute a crisis for the majority of people. A sudden crisis may serve to re-activate long-forgotten traumas or emotional problems from the past. These may be factors which bring people into counselling for the first time. Telephone counselling is another context in which crisis situations are addressed. Both Childline and The Samaritans offer listening services for people in crisis, although these two services differ in the sense that Childline also offers practical, sometimes interventionist advice. Volunteers who work for The Samaritans do not describe themselves as counsellors, but nevertheless use counselling skills in their work. Like Cruse, both Childline and The Samaritans provide their own training for volunteers, though some do complete other general training programmes too.

Bereavement

Bereavement is an experience which often brings people into counselling, and is also one which everyone is likely to have at some stage in life. Although many bereaved people would, in the past, have received help in the community, from either family, friends or both, this is not automatically the case today. However, even when bereaved people are supported by family and friends, there remain certain situations in which counselling has added benefits, and this is especially true when several members of a family have suffered the same loss. Counselling is also applicable in crisis bereavement, or in circumstances which are complicated in other ways. Children who have lost a parent or parents are especially vulnerable and often need the added support which counselling can give. Contrary to what many people believe, children experience loss as adults do, though their responses are different in significant ways. For example, small children often don’t know how to acknowledge or express strong feelings like anger or sadness. It follows, therefore, that counselling support for children is a specialised area and one which requires its own specific training.

Parents and relatives of children who experience bereavement often complain of poor resources and support in this area. In their
report published by the Joseph Rowntree Foundation, McCarthy and McCarthy (2005) express concern about the lack of research in the UK on the subject of bereavement. This lack of research is especially significant when we consider the numbers of young people who lose a parent or sibling (between 4 and 7 per cent) before they are sixteen years old. In addition, early bereavement is often a factor when young people commit offences, develop mental health problems or encounter difficulties at school. These findings highlight the need for information and counselling provision for bereaved children. The Rowntree report recommends that more specialist services be developed for young people. It also suggests that teachers and schools should address the issues relating to childhood bereavement. This last suggestion is made in recognition of the fact that many young people never talk to anyone about their experiences of bereavement. A range of complex problems is often a direct result of social isolation after bereavement, so it is certainly imperative that more professional adults are available to help young people who need it. Teachers, however, may not feel confident that they possess the skills to support young people who need help after bereavement. Like many other professional groups, teachers are now under pressure to undertake a range of additional duties, many of which require extra time and training. To their great credit, many teachers are increasingly developing counselling skills through training.

Cruse, which offers its own training programme for counsellors, is a national organisation which can direct family members to access help for bereavement. The Child Bereavement Trust also provides links to other organisations as well as to literature. More recently, the Childhood Bereavement Network, which is attached to the National Children’s Bureau, provides information on available resources. Not all young bereaved people need counselling, however, and those whose relatives can support them usually manage to cope well. It should be remembered though that parents and other relatives are likely to be grieving too, and this makes it especially difficult for them to support and nurture grieving children. Circumstances in which bereaved children may benefit from counselling include the following:

- when both parents have died
- when a child feels responsible for the rest of the family
- when a child is unable to talk about the loss, or to express feelings
- when the child does not acknowledge the loss
- when the child’s parents are divorced when one of them dies
- when there is another bereavement within the family
- when the child develops behavioural problems at home or at school.

*Issues from the past*

There are some clients who seek counselling because of problems they experienced in childhood. These include sexual, emotional or physical
abuse, or may be related to experiences of loss or abandonment. The difficulties stemming from childhood abuse in particular are now better understood and much more openly discussed. We know, for example, that repeated trauma in early life can often lead to emotional numbness, depression or patterns of destructive relationships. At a deeper level, they can lead to feelings of despair, which in turn may prompt patterns of self-mutilation or even suicide. Herman (2001: 108) refers to these ‘attacks on the body’ and describes them as attempts ‘to regulate internal emotional states’. It is easy to see, therefore, why specialist training is often undertaken by counsellors who decide to work with survivors of childhood abuse and trauma. This is not to imply that this is an especially difficult area of counselling. It is, however, recognition that ongoing training is essential for all counsellors, including those who have completed courses at certificate and diploma level. If we are to understand the many problems, including trauma and abuse, which people are increasingly disclosing, we need to commit to education and training as a routine part of the work that we do. In Chapter 10 (Ethical considerations) we shall look again at issues relating to education and training for counsellors.

### Depression and anxiety

Depression and anxiety are common problems for many people who seek counselling. It is estimated that one in twenty people suffer from depression, with three times as many women suffering as men (Holford, 2003). But there are many more people who experience minor levels of depression, and these people may never actually be diagnosed with the condition. Both anxiety and depression are sufficiently debilitating to disturb those clients who experience them. Depressive conditions often need medical as well as psychological support, and some of the clients who are seen in counselling may be referred by their GPs. Although some anxiety is unavoidable in everyday living, it can become problematic in certain situations and at certain stages of a person’s life. Anxiety attacks, or anxiety which cannot be controlled, often prompt clients to ask for help. In the same way, free-floating anxiety or vague anxiety may impel some people to seek help in identifying the underlying cause. Cognitive Behaviour Therapy, which we shall look at in Chapter 8, is now recognised as an effective approach for helping clients with problems of depression or anxiety. This is the form of therapy most likely to be offered in conjunction with medical support and sometimes medication.

### Addictions and substance abuse

Occasionally clients are prompted to seek counselling because they find themselves unable to deal effectively with their own addictive behaviour. Addictions and substance abuse include the most obvious examples of
alcohol, drugs, and gambling, although we now know there are other addictive problems which are sometimes highlighted in the press. Excessive shopping and addiction to exercise are two examples, and clients are now more likely to identify difficulties in relation to these, and to ask for help in understanding their underlying causes. It is important for clients to address the underlying causes of addictions and substance abuse and counselling gives them the opportunity to do this. Different institutions offer specialist courses for people who want to work in the area of addiction. In their information about training, the British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy notes that specialist alcohol, drugs, AIDS, bereavement, cancer and child abuse counselling courses are offered by various institutions. These courses are provided for counsellors working in the relevant fields, or for counsellors who wish to specialise after general training. The BACP goes on to add that ‘it is more usual to complete a substantial counselling training followed by a specialisation.’ (BACP, 2009b)

**Phobias and obsessions**

There is an almost infinite variety of phobias which people can suffer from. Perhaps the most common, or at least the best known, are phobias about animals, insects, meeting people, enclosed spaces, germs and flying. It is probably true to say that people can become obsessive about almost anything, and obsessive compulsive disorder is a condition which affects many people, especially when they are under stress. Different theoretical approaches to counselling offer varying explanations for the causes and development of obsessions and phobias, and some of these will be discussed in later chapters of the book.

However, it should be added here that there is currently a focus on cognitive behaviour therapy as the most effective form of counselling for clients with irrational fears, phobias and obsessions. Many relatively short cognitive behaviour programmes are now being offered for clients with these difficulties, though not everyone is convinced that such programmes are effective in the long term. In a reference to cognitive behaviour therapy, Irvin Yalom places it in the category of empirically validated therapy, or EVT. He adds that although it is certainly an empirically validated approach, he is concerned that ‘many false assumptions’ are made in cognitive behaviour research (Yalom, 2004: 223). Later in the book, we shall look in some detail at behavioural and cognitive approaches to counselling, and we shall discuss some of the concerns relating to these.

**Work problems**

Many relationship problems are experienced in the context of work and employment stress or burn-out are often symptoms of the underlying difficulties which clients bring to counselling. Some companies now
offer stress counselling to employees who need it, and even those who do not are increasingly aware of the importance of counselling support. People need to understand how they themselves contribute to the stress which they experience, and a focus of counselling is this identification of individual factors in stress maintenance. Clients are often surprised to discover that they sometimes collude in punishing themselves when they agree to every single request, no matter how unreasonable it seems.

Stress counselling is effective in helping people to examine their own behaviour in the workplace and to adjust it when necessary. The subject of bullying in the workplace is now routinely reported in the media, and increasingly clients are seeking counselling for its effects. Bullying is probably a phenomenon which was always present among groups of people working together. However, our approach to bullying is now different, and we are less tolerant of its insidious and destructive effects. This means that people exposed to bullying behaviour at work are becoming more likely to ask for help through counselling.

**Personal growth**

Sometimes people decide to seek counselling in order to assist the process of personal growth and development. These people could be described as ‘worried, though well’ and they are often prompted to ask for help when they reach a certain age (for example mid-life). In the past people in this category might have talked to a minister of religion, for example. Because of changing patterns of church attendance and the secularisation of society generally, such help is less often sought and counselling is sometime used instead. In addition, members of the public are now influenced in a desire for personal growth because it is a much more acceptable quest than in the past. The current emphasis on self-expression, along with the confessional style which is a feature of many radio and television programmes has been important here. These trends mean that a personal quest for self-improvement is increasingly seen as a legitimate, even necessary, one.

**Eating disorders**

Counselling for eating disorders, like other specialist areas of counselling, is often undertaken by practitioners who pursue this further training once they have completed their general training. Health professionals working in hospitals may specialise in supporting clients with eating disorders, and often the therapy takes place in groups. Anorexia, bulimia and compulsive eating are all problems which sometimes impel clients to seek counselling. Often clients are referred by their GPs, but occasionally they come into counselling for other reasons such as depression, which are linked to eating disorders. Anorexia and other eating disorders are on the increase, a phenomenon which Orbach (1994) has highlighted in her research and writing. Although eating
disorders may be difficult to overcome, experts in the field acknowledge
the importance of psychological support (often long term) for those
people who suffer from them. A focus of counselling is to help clients
identify the underlying cause (or causes) of conflict in relation to food.
Many clients benefit from a feminist perspective in counselling. This is
because of the sociological factors which are often implicated in eating
conditions.

HIV and AIDS

HIV and AIDS is another specialist field of counselling and one which
tends to attract people who are especially interested in it. Practitioners
may have had the experience of HIV or AIDS themselves, and this may
prompt them to undertake counselling training in order to help others.
When counsellors are motivated through personal experience like this,
they tend to be deeply empathic towards their clients. However, there
are other practitioners who work effectively with clients even when they
have no personal experience of HIV or AIDS. In either case, specialist
training is important and increasingly accessed by practitioners who wish
to work in this field.

People who are concerned about their health in relation to HIV and
AIDS include the relatives or partners of clients who have been tested
HIV positive, as well as clients who have actually developed AIDS. This
means that people who come for counselling do so with a range of
different problems and concerns. In later chapters we shall look at some
of the approaches which might be appropriate in helping people with
diverse needs such as these.

Counselling for trauma and disaster

In recent years we have seen a marked increase in the availability of
counselling provision for survivors of large-scale trauma or disaster.
This provision of counselling support is now so marked that people
are routinely given advice about how to access it in the aftermath of a
trauma. Not everyone is convinced that such intervention is effective,
however. Writing in One Nation Under Therapy, Satel and Sommers
(2005) argue that ‘therapism’ undermines each person’s innate ability to
cope with stress, even stress on a large scale. After September 11th, New
Yorkers were, it seems, encouraged to seek counselling through Project
Liberty, a government initiative created in response to the attacks. In the
event, less than a tenth of New Yorkers came forward for help. Those
who didn’t seek help appear to have coped with the trauma in their
own individual ways. Satel and Sommers (who have conducted other
studies in the field of grief and trauma counselling) conclude that grief
is, in fact, self-limiting. This implies that people have the capacity to
heal themselves over time, even in very extreme circumstances. While
this may be true for some, it certainly cannot be true for everyone. It is,
however, worth mentioning Satel and Sommers’ assessment of what is, after all, an ongoing focus in counselling research.

However, there are always some people who seek and need help following a major incident or trauma, and it is for these people that counselling support is made available. This highlights a point already made in this chapter, which is that counselling, if it is to be effective, needs to be undertaken voluntarily by clients. It is not something that people should be pressurised to undertake if they don’t feel they need it. Following the London tube and bus bombings of July 2005, the NHS set up a trauma response helpline for people involved in the crisis (The Times, 30 August 2005). This initiative, which was the first of its kind, offered counselling to victims of the bombings, along with support for bereaved relatives or witnesses to the traumatic events. A current website (www.7July assistance.org.uk) continues the work of the original helpline, and is dedicated to giving information and providing links to other helping agencies like Cruse and The Samaritans. The helpline project was clearly the beginning of many similar initiatives for helping people deal with trauma and crisis. Provision of this kind of support is important and means that people have the option to seek further counselling if they choose.

Other reasons for seeking counselling

Today, people seek counselling for a wide variety of problems. The BACP website, which shows its six specialist ‘divisions’, also indicates a large number of counselling agencies as ‘Useful Links’. A glance at this list illustrates the point that counselling is available now for numerous psychological, physical, social and behavioural issues. A general summary of reasons, other than those already described, includes the following:

- chronic illness
- developmental crises
- issues associated with sexual orientation or sexual identity
- social problems
- job loss, redundancy and problems related to retirement
- problems relating to poverty and financial distress
- violence, rape and assault
- issues relating to childlessness and step-parenting
- gambling
- bullying.

Different settings

In addition to the reasons for counselling, there is, as we have seen, a wide range of specific contexts in which counselling and therapy are actually used. Discussing the diversity of settings in which counselling is delivered, the British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy
(BACP, 2009a) includes counsellors working in private practice, those working in voluntary agencies, and counsellors working in schools, youth work and general practice. These are just a few of the many contexts in which counselling provision is now located. Group counselling, another specific setting for counselling practitioners, will be discussed in more detail in Chapter 9.

The following is a list of diverse modes and settings in which counselling and psychotherapy are currently provided:

- couples counselling
- family therapy
- group counselling
- telephone counselling
- online counselling
- schools, colleges and university
- voluntary work
- health centre or general practice
- hospitals/hospices
- private practice
- the workplace.

Most of these areas require their own specific training and are usually undertaken by counsellors who have a special interest in them. A hospital nurse might, for example, have a special interest in caring for patients or clients who have had breast surgery. In this instance, the nurse is likely to undertake training in this particular area of counselling, often within the hospital itself. Increasingly, health practitioners provide counselling support for clients with body image changes as a result of illness or surgery.

**EXERCISE**

**Common problems**
Working in small groups, identify the most common problems which clients (in your area of work) tend to have. Afterwards, discuss your findings with members of the training group generally. What were the outstanding problems identified overall?

**Debate about counselling**
In pairs, look at the following statement and discuss it. Spend about 15 minutes on this exercise and afterwards discuss it with other members of your group.

There are certain situations in which some people do not benefit from or even need counselling support. Whether or not people benefit from counselling depends on their prior life experience, and on their support systems of family and friends.

Don’t worry about getting right or wrong answers in discussing these statements. Their purpose is to stimulate debate as to whether counselling is appropriate for everyone involved in traumatic or stressful events.
Self-development and self-awareness in counsellor training

One of the things you will become aware of quite early on in your training is that learning about counselling is not an entirely theoretical exercise. On the contrary, there is a substantial element of personal development which is integral to all training programmes. What this means in practice is that a great deal of what you learn throughout the course will be ‘experiential’ in nature. From the very beginning you will probably think much more about yourself, the experiences you have had, the opinions you hold, the prejudices of which you were previously unaware, your relationships of the past and present, and indeed any other significant factors of your personal and professional life. This experience is both rewarding and challenging and no doubt your trainer/teacher will discuss it with the group. Your teacher or trainer may also establish a contract or working agreement with group members, and when this is the case a number of important ‘ground rules’ may form part of it. These ground rules obviously vary from one training establishment to another, but there are certain areas which are common to most of them. Once these rules have been discussed and agreed upon, group members tend to acquire a much clearer view of course structure and objectives. Areas which are usually discussed at the beginning of each course include the following:

- administrative details, course structure and dates of course breaks
- details about placements and supervision
- methods of teaching, learning and assessment criteria
- the role of the trainer/teacher
- guidelines relating to confidentiality
- guidelines about the use of personal experience for skills practice and discussion
- attendance and time keeping
- keeping a diary or journal
- the importance of listening to what others say
- the need to respect views expressed by other group members.

Time keeping

In my experience, attendance and time keeping are central issues in counsellor training, especially at the level of introductory and foundation courses. It is sometimes difficult for trainees to understand the link between their behaviour on the course and their behaviour and expectations in relation to the clients they work with (or hope to work with). It is useful to consider the word ‘boundaries’ in this context, since it refers to the parameters or guidelines which govern the working relationship between counsellor and client. Clients need to know that counsellors are reliable, and reliability encompasses such areas as punctuality and
good time keeping. If students are unable to come to training sessions on time, or if they frequently feel obliged to leave before sessions end, it is unlikely that a miraculous transformation of behaviour will occur later on. Another relevant point to make is that other students in a training group tend to resent the disruptive effect created when people arrive or depart at different times. Last, but not least, poor time keeping means that whole areas of both theoretical and practical experience are missed, and are never properly regained throughout training.

Counselling practice and supervision

Other important issues central to counsellor training include experience of working with clients and supervision. In its guidelines for counsellor training The British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy states that full training courses should include ‘a substantial amount of supervised counselling practice with real clients’ (BACP, 2009b). In-depth training courses, which are usually one-year full-time or two-to three-years part-time, would certainly include supervised placements for students. For shorter skills training courses experience in placement is not usually required, though some agencies, including Cruse and The Samaritans, have their own placement and supervision arrangements.

The subject of supervised placement should be discussed with you prior to enrolling for the course, and the requirements for the course generally should have been clarified for you. There is an increasing emphasis on providing top-quality training courses, with more uniformity in content and design, so colleges and other course providers are motivated to seek out the best supervised practice for their students. Finding good-quality placements is not easy, however, and training staff are there to help you negotiate with agencies willing to provide suitable placements for learners. In order to facilitate this process, agencies are likely to receive general information about the course from your training establishment, including details about course structure and design. Agencies may also be asked to complete an ‘expression of interest’ form asking whether they are willing to help place students. Agencies willing to provide training opportunities for students also need clear guidelines about placement aims and objectives. This is because close liaison between the training establishment and the placement agency is central to a good experience for students.

Well-organised and supervised placements constitute a core component in full counsellor training. They ensure that the client/student counsellor relationship is conducted as safely as possible, and that theory and practice are integrated in a paradigm suitable for client needs and welfare. Student members of BACP can access a database of trainee placements. This information is located in the Members area of the website.

Enlisting supervisors willing to work with students is another challenge facing many training establishments. A student in placement will need a
mentor within the practice agency itself, as well as an external counselling supervisor working in conjunction with college staff. In addition, clear (and often substantial) documentation is needed to support and record the various elements integral to practice-based counsellor training. This documentation may include an agency/trainee counsellor contract, a supervision contract, a log book to record student/client hours, a record of mentor assessment of the student and written trainee/counsellor/individual client contracts. Obviously this documentation will vary somewhat from one training establishment to another, but the basic elements of contractual arrangements are similar on all generalist courses.

Keeping a journal

Some educational institutions require students to keep an ongoing journal throughout the training course. This record may be either written or verbal (recorded on tape), and its purpose is to enable trainees to reflect on the experiences they have and the personal development they have achieved, as a result of both professional practice and training. Keeping a journal is a valuable aid to self-exploration and you should make a point of keeping entries up to date. One way of doing this is to ensure you make an entry as soon as possible after each training session. In this way, you are less likely to forget the relevant areas of theory and practice which have been covered each time. Some course trainers require their students to submit these diaries at the end of the course, while others regard them as confidential and for the student’s use only. It is a good idea to record the number and dates of sessions at the beginning of each entry, and it is also useful to present the journal in loose-leaf format. A file with individual loose leaf pockets works well, and when journals are used for assessment purposes, relevant sections can be extracted as required. The structure of the journal should be clear, with sufficient space allowed for tutor comments if applicable. You need to show some evidence of reflection and thought, and this can, of course, prove difficult, especially at the beginning of a course when you are learning about a new subject. The following is a guide to recording sessions:

- record the content of the session
- what skills were practised?
- what topics were discussed?
- how were practice sessions organised?
- how did you respond to the work being done?
- how did other people in the group respond?
- record any feedback you received from other trainees
- record any significant group discussion which followed each session
- write an entry even when you were absent for a session. Say why you were absent, and how you felt about this. What areas of work were covered when you were away?
record any connections you have made between work covered in sessions, and the experience of the client/counsellor relationship. Has anything happened, or has anything been discussed, which sheds some light on how clients might feel in certain situations, for example?

• say something about your reactions to particular theories discussed
• record any connections which you might have made between theory and practice
• record any significant insights you have gained
• refer to any relevant newspaper articles or books which you have read
• refer to lecture handouts and say how useful or otherwise these have been.

This may seem like a fairly extensive list, but it is meant as a guide only. Most trainers discuss the content of journals with their students and requirements are often clearly set out. The most important point to remember about journals is that they should indicate evidence of developing self-awareness. They should also show that you are increasingly aware of the way other people think and feel. Both these areas of awareness (self-awareness and awareness of others) need then to be linked to the counselling context. Writing a journal throughout training is a valuable aid to self-understanding and has some similarity with the therapeutic effects which are gained through talking in counselling. As Storr (1997) points out, both these activities are similar in the sense that they help increase insight, although it should be added that keeping a diary or journal does not provide the feeling of acceptance which is so important for clients in counselling. A well-kept journal also demonstrates your ability to record information, to collate material and to present this material in a logical and clear form. It further demonstrates your ability to use skills gained on the course in your personal and professional life. You may be required to submit your journal for assessment purposes, and when this is the case, it will be regarded as confidential between you, your course tutor and the moderator.

In a later chapter we shall look at the importance of research in counselling, and we shall consider why it is relevant, even at this early stage, to all students in training.

Skills training

Throughout your training you will probably be asked to work with other trainees in groups. Some courses incorporate Personal Development Groups (PDG) into their training programmes. These groups give students the opportunity to work closely together and to explore personal issues and relationships in a safe and supportive environment. Counselling skills practice is another integral part of most training
courses and this is designed to give students the chance to demonstrate the use of a range of basic skills in an ongoing way throughout training. Skills practice may take the form of role play, or it may take the form of peer counselling. In fact, both these methods of training may be used within the same course. Skills practice, whether role played or authentic, has many advantages for students in training. An outstanding advantage is that you can develop counselling skills without harming clients, and when these skills are developed, you can then integrate them into your personal and professional life. One disadvantage is that some trainees may be so lacking in confidence and basic skills to start with that they are unable to conduct these exercises without causing distress to others. However, teachers and trainers are aware of the difficulties which can arise in these practice sessions and are usually vigilant in the way they monitor and observe students work. The following descriptions highlight the advantages and disadvantages of both role play and experiential counselling in skills training.

Role play

Role play, as a method of practice in counselling, is used on some courses and has the advantage of being a relatively safe way for students to learn basic skills. This is an approach which requires participants to simulate a counselling situation and to assume the roles of client and counsellor. Working through role play means that you are unlikely to ‘hurt’ a colleague who is playing the part of client, and it has the added advantage of allowing you to explore emotions and feelings in a non-threatening context. Trainers often provide their students with specific scenarios or problems, which are then used in the role play situation. The following is an example of a role play brief.

There is, of course, a very wide variety of possible problem situations which can be used for role play purposes. Besides the advantages already mentioned, role play also allows you to stop at any stage throughout the session in order to discuss your progress and the skills being used. On the other hand, role play makes it difficult for participants to become involved on a personal level, and it is also surprisingly difficult to be ‘real’ when problems discussed are hypothetical. The core condition of empathy (described in Chapter 5) is almost impossible to develop when two people are engaged in a simulated exchange. In contrast, there are substantial advantages to being a real client during skills training.

EXERCISE

Roleplay

A middle-aged woman has been referred by her doctor for counselling. Her two grown-up children have left home, and she feels lonely and isolated since their departure. She would like to be more socially involved, but lacks the confidence to initiate any real contacts.
Using your own problems

When you use your own problems in skills sessions, you will experience exactly what it is like to be a client in counselling. You will also gain valuable insights into your own attitudes, feelings and areas of personal vulnerability. The learning which takes place at this level is probably more important than anything you can read in books and highlights the experiential aspect of counsellor training which we noted earlier in this chapter.

In addition to gaining insight and identifying areas of vulnerability, being a real client during skills training also allows you to develop trust and sharing among your colleagues, and this is certainly important in any training group. However, time is usually limited in practice sessions and this can cause problems for trainees who are inexperienced as counsellors. Some trainee counsellors may not possess, or have had time to develop, sufficient competence to conduct the sessions within safe limits. There is sometimes a tendency to push the ‘client’ too far so that what looked like a simple problem on the surface leads to deeper issues which neither student is able to deal with. Students who are working as clients may also be tempted to use training sessions as a means of dealing with outstanding or unresolved personal problems. This is, of course, unfair to colleagues who are, after all, in a learning situation too. Once again, your trainer will be aware of potential problems and will endeavour to ensure that training programmes are conducted in the safest possible way.

Personal therapy

Many professional bodies now ask students on counselling courses to undertake personal therapy if they wish to work towards accreditation. A one-year full-time or two-year part-time course may involve fifty hours or more of personal therapy for students. Short-term courses tend not to have this requirement; an introduction to interpersonal or counselling skills, for example, will not normally include personal therapy as a mandatory component. However, you are probably aware of all the relevant details in relation to your own course.

The inclusion of personal therapy in counsellor training is important for several reasons. Perhaps the most important is that it encourages you to explore your emotional life. This exploration will focus on personal prejudices, relationships past and present and reasons (often unacknowledged) for choosing to undertake counsellor training. Personal therapy also forms a link between the theory which is learned on the course and the actual practice of counselling. The experience of being a client leads to a deeper understanding of the many and varied feelings which clients experience in therapy. These feelings may include apprehension, shame, vulnerability, dependency, trust and hope, to name just a few.

Being a client in therapy also provides an opportunity to see and observe the counsellor at work. It provides, too, some valuable insights into the nature of the counselling relationship itself. It sometimes comes
as a surprise to students to learn that feelings towards a helper can be negative as well as positive, for example. In Chapter 3 we shall look in more detail at these aspects of the relationship between counsellor and client. Other benefits of personal therapy include a deepening awareness of the stages of counselling, right through from the beginning to the end. Another important aspect of personal therapy, and one which is linked to the exploration mentioned above, is that it should help you to identify clearly your own problems and conflicts. This identifying process is essential because it means that you become more self-aware generally. It also means that you can take ownership of your emotional experiences and thus are less likely to confuse them with the experiences of potential clients.

Having pointed out the benefits of personal therapy in training, however, it would be unfair to leave it there without mentioning some of the disadvantages too. Chief among these is the fact that a compulsory training component does not allow for personal choice. Since client personal choice is a central principle of counselling and psychotherapy, it is difficult to see how a mandatory requirement for personal therapy in training can be reconciled with this. Additionally, personal therapy is likely to be expensive for students, although the potential benefits of it far outweigh financial outlay. From my own experience of teaching students I am convinced that the importance of personal therapy lies in the fact that it fosters a greater awareness of self, and a deeper understanding of the experience which clients have in counselling.

Summary

In this chapter we looked at some of the basic questions which are often asked in relation to counselling. These include questions concerning the nature and function of counselling, and the ways in which this form of helping differs from several others, including, for example, nursing and social work. Some definitions of counselling were suggested and the British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy definition (2009) was also quoted. We looked at a range of occupations which often describe themselves as ‘counselling’, even though they have little in common with ‘therapeutic’ counselling. A distinction was made between skills and theory, and we discussed the ways in which counselling skills are used by people who work as health professionals.

The subject of advice and information giving was addressed in the context of the ways in which health professionals and others help their patients and clients. We saw that advice is not normally given in therapeutic counselling, though we considered some emergency situations in which advice and information may become almost synonymous. Aspects of counsellor training were outlined in this chapter: these included
time keeping, the use of journals, establishing a training contract, skills training, practice and supervision, personal therapy and role play. The problems which bring people to counselling were highlighted, as were the specific contexts in which counselling is used. One of these, group counselling, will be dealt with in more detail in Chapter 9. In Chapter 2 we shall also consider the individual skills which are used in counselling. An overview of the main historical and theoretical approaches to therapy and counselling will also be outlined.

References

British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy (2009a) *Careers in Counselling*. London: BACP.
British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy (2009b) *Counsellor Training Courses*. London: BACP.
British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy (2009c) *What is Counselling?* London: BACP.
Key elements of counsellor training:

- skills practice
- theory
- continuing personal development and self-awareness
- supervised practice with clients
- personal therapy
- written work, including assignments
- group discussion
- ongoing self-assessment
- assessment by tutors and peers
- research and reading
Further reading


Resources

Websites

www.bacp.co.uk
email: bacp@bacp.co.uk
The British Association for Counselling and Psychotherapy

www.iapt.nhs.uk
The Improving Access to Psychological Therapies Programme
The Relationship between Counselling and IAPT

www.nice.org.uk
National Institute for Health and Clinical Excellence

www.therapytoday.net
The online magazine for counsellors and psychotherapists

www.eacnet.org
European Association for Counselling

www.psychology-directory.com
Information about psychology

www.crusebereavementcare.org.uk
Cruse Bereavement Care
Helpline: 0844 477 9400
Email: helpline@cruse.org.uk