RELATIONSHIPS AMONG INDIVIDUAL SHORT-TERM COUNSELING,
ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, PERSONALITY FACTORS, AND
COLLEGE PERSISTENCE OF CERTAIN JUNIOR
COLLEGE STUDENTS

APPROVED:
Graduate Committee:

Edward C. Boek
Committee Chairman

John W. Casey
Committee Member

Dean of the School of Education

Dean of the Graduate School
RELATIONSHIPS AMONG INDIVIDUAL SHORT-TERM COUNSELING, ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT, PERSONALITY FACTORS, AND COLLEGE PERSISTENCE OF CERTAIN JUNIOR COLLEGE STUDENTS

DISSERTATION

Presented to the Graduate Council of the North Texas State University in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements

For the Degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

By

Ted E. Brewer, B.A., M.A.
Denton, Texas
August, 1969
# TABLE OF CONTENTS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>LIST OF TABLES</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>v</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chapter

I. INTRODUCTION ........................................... 1
   Statement of the Problem
   Hypothesis
   Background and Significance of the Study
   Limitation of the Study
   Definition of Terms
   Basic Assumptions
   Procedure for Collecting Data
   Procedure for Treating Data
   Summary

II. A REVIEW OF LITERATURE .................................... 26
   Counseling as Related to Junior College
   Counseling as Related to Academic Achievement
   Personality as Related to Academic Achievement
   Personality as Related to College Persistence
   Summary

III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES .................................. 53
   Subjects
   Instruments Used
   Procedure for Collection of Data
   Procedure for Treating Data
   Summary

IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA ........................................ 62
   Hypothesis I
   Hypothesis II
   Hypothesis III
   Hypothesis IV
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS 77

Summary
Findings
Conclusions
Recommendations

BIBLIOGRAPHY 86
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table</th>
<th>Page</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>64</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI.</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII.</td>
<td>74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I. Analysis of Variance of the Residualized Grade-Point Averages for Groups I, II, and III.

II. Summary Table of Persisters and Non-persisters in Groups I, II, and III.

III. List of Variables with Assigned Symbols.

IV. Coefficients of Correlation Between GZTS Trait Scores and Academic Achievement.

V. Summary Table of Means, Standard Deviations, and Point Biserial Product-Moment Coefficients of Correlation for Male Persisters and Non-persisters.

VI. Summary Table of Means, Standard Deviations, and Point Biserial Product-moment Coefficients of Correlation for FemalePersisters and Non-persisters.

VII. Summary Table of Means, Standard Deviations, and Point Biserial Product-moment Coefficients of Correlation for both Male and Female Persisters and Non-persisters.
CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The growth in the number and size of America's junior colleges has confronted educators, psychologists, and counselors with vital questions to be answered: (1) how to distribute a limited amount of counseling time most effectively among the different segments of the college population; (2) how to attenuate academic failures of those students having the intelligence considered sufficient for academic success, but who have failed to achieve or have achieved at a level below that commensurate with their abilities; and (3) how to ameliorate the problem of student mortality, i.e., college persistence.

While numerous studies have attempted to establish the causes of over- and under-achieving and student mortality, the literature seems devoid of specific procedural suggestions for dealing with "marginally" achieving junior college students. This study attempts to support the tenet that short-term counseling will effect improved academic achievement and college persistence by "marginally" achieving students on the junior college level.
Statement of the Problem

The problem of this study was to investigate the relationships that exist among individual short-term counseling, academic achievement, personality factors, and college persistence of students on the junior college level.

Hypotheses

The general hypothesis of this study was that there are significant relationships among individual short-term counseling, academic achievement, personality factors, and college persistence.

More specifically, the hypotheses of this study were

I. There are significant relationships between academic achievement and those students receiving counseling three times during each semester, those students receiving counseling one time each semester, and those students receiving no counseling during each semester.

II. There are significant relationships between college persistence and those students receiving counseling three times during each semester, those students receiving counseling one time during each semester, and those students receiving no counseling during each semester.

III. There are significant relationships between scores earned on the separate traits of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (hereafter called GZTS) and academic achievement for the students in the study, as predicted in the following sub-hypotheses:
A. The relationship between academic achievement and the "General Activity" scores is positive for both male and female students.

B. The relationship between academic achievement and the "Restraint" scores is positive for both male and female students.

C. The relationship between academic achievement and the "Ascendence" scores is negative for both male and female students.

D. The relationship between academic achievement and the "Sociability" scores is negative for both male and female students.

E. The relationship between academic achievement and the "Emotional Stability" scores is positive for both male and female students.

F. The relationship between academic achievement and the "Objectivity" scores is positive for both male and female students.

G. The relationship between academic achievement and the "Friendliness" scores is positive for both male and female students.

H. The relationship between academic achievement and the "Thoughtfulness" scores is positive for both male and female students.

I. The relationship between academic achievement and the "Personal Relations" scores is positive for both male and female students.
J. The relationship between academic achievement and the "Masculinity" scores is negative for both male and female students.

IV. There are significant relationships between scores earned on the separate traits of the GZTS and college persistence for the students in this study as predicted in the following sub-hypotheses:

A. The relationship between college persistence and the "General Activity" scores is positive for both male and female students.

B. The relationship between college persistence and the "Restraint" scores is positive for both male and female students.

C. The relationship between college persistence and the "Ascendancy" scores is negative for both male and female students.

D. The relationship between college persistence and the "Sociability" scores is negative for both male and female students.

E. The relationship between college persistence and the "Emotional Stability" scores is positive for both male and female students.

F. The relationship between college persistence and the "Objectivity" scores is positive for both male and female students.
G. The relationship between college persistence and the "Friendliness" scores is positive for both male and female students.

H. The relationship between college persistence and the "Thoughtfulness" scores is positive for both male and female students.

I. The relationship between college persistence and the "Personal Relations" scores is positive for both male and female students.

J. The relationship between college persistence and the "Masculinity" scores is negative for both male and female students.

Background and Significance of the Study

Psychologists, educators, and counselors have long been interested in identifying the factors which operate to determine the level of academic performance of students. Their interests have focused on a large number of factors, ranging from the relationship between ability measures of students and academic success to the investigation of personality and temperament measures as predictors of academic performance. More recently, their interest has centered on the changing ideas in educational counseling; now the concern is the total person, not merely one aspect of his behavior. Several investigations (3, 6, 9, 10, 11, 12, 18, 30) have contributed to the current store of research concerning the factors related to effective counseling.
A review of the literature reveals that the preponderance of research in counseling has been directed toward the elementary, junior, and senior high school students and the four-year senior college students, but little toward the junior college students (13). It would appear that more research at the junior college level is needed, especially when one considers the rapid growth of junior colleges in the past several years. A conservative projection of junior college enrollments in 1970 would be approximately 2,150,000 students in 1,000 institutions (8). The number of students presently enrolled in these institutions ranges from 12,688 in the Seattle Community College to 38 in the privately supported Tomlinson College in Tennessee.

The junior college is a key to universal education beyond the high school, and its emerging importance was signaled by the 1965 enrollment figure: 1,292,753 students—approximately 30 per cent of the eligible age group (16). This rapid growth in the number of junior college students presents educators with vital questions to be answered: How can a limited amount of counseling time be distributed most effectively among the different segments of the college population, and who should be favored when some must be slighted? Should priority go to the weak student in danger of disqualification, to the social misfit, to the deeply disturbed student in need of prolonged therapy, to the "marginally adjusted" students, to the aggressive student.
who demands the counselor's time? On the other hand, should an effort be made to distribute the time of the personnel counseling staff to reach all students so that the reasonably successful student may become more productive and be helped to make a contribution more nearly in keeping with his capacities?

Perhaps the most important reason for research at the junior college level, in addition to the rapid rate of growth, the paucity of research, and effective distribution of a limited amount of counseling time among the different segments of the college population, is that junior college counseling is unique (3, 4, 14, 27, 28). Counselors in a comprehensive community college have students ranging in age from sixteen to sixty years, with about half in the typical college age range and about 6 per cent over age thirty. Many rank in the bottom third of their high school graduating classes and score in the bottom third on conventional scholastic aptitude tests (17). Their interests are often more practical than academic; yet when given an opportunity to continue their education in such fields as medical technology or retail merchandising, they have performed with distinction (21). The stated goals of junior college students include most categories of occupations, as well as the long-delayed satisfaction of intellectual ambitions. Most junior college students live at home and vast numbers come from the low and very low income strata (23).
The junior college has a highly significant role to play in the total higher educational pattern of the country. Is it failing, at least in part, to meet this responsibility on account of excessive student mortality among those who enroll? It would seem that this is an important field for research, analysis, and report.

The general atmosphere of most senior institutions is a research-oriented one. Research, although it may be no anodyne to quality instruction, should hardly be construed as the anathema that some junior college administrators consider it (1). To the contrary, the many positive features of research, when properly guided by an enlightened administrator, can be of significant use to him as he struggles to attain the educational goal of his institution.

Klitzke states:

Junior college research needs are not easily defined due to the variance in purposes of individual institutions and to differences in interests, needs, and experiences of researchers themselves. However, research is vital to the effectiveness of the two-year college of the future just as it is essential to all levels of education today (13, p. 458).

With the elimination of many criteria of suitability for college which once were applied to the question, "Who should go to college?", higher educational institutions increasingly enroll students who represent the divergences and convergences of the larger American culture. According to Eells (5), for every 100 freshmen enrolled in accredited
junior colleges in the United States in 1954-55, only 45 sophomores were enrolled. Less than half of these sophomores graduated. Eells compared this striking academic mortality in junior colleges with that of four-year colleges and universities. His study shows that 28 per cent of the students in all types of four-year institutions remain in college only one year, whereas his figure for junior colleges is 40 per cent. In addition, more than half of the sophomores fail to complete satisfactorily the work of the second year—or at least to fulfill the requirements for graduation. The results of Eells’ study seem to indicate the possibility that the student who withdraws lacks a sense of belonging or identification with the college environment.

Tyler (30) believes that one of the counselor’s ground rules, so basic that we seldom even state it explicitly, is that a person is worth whatever amount of time and trouble it takes to help him. The experience of having someone really care about him is such an indispensable part of what counseling means for a client that we must be especially careful never to jeopardize this feeling. However, the fact remains that to prolong counseling contacts unnecessarily does not benefit a client and may even hamper his further development.

Tyler says, “Therapy generally has as its goal personality change; counseling attempts to bring about the best possible utilization of what the person already has” (30,
She questions the assumption that therapy should attempt to bring about as much personality change as possible:

"Is it really true that the therapy that produces the most changes is the best therapy? Would it not be possible to make the opposite assumption and deliberately set as our goal 'minimum-change' therapy?" (30, p. 476). She pictures this type of counseling in terms of a change in direction rather than in terms of amounts.

Tyler believes that "minimum-change" therapy involves no great change in the procedures used, but that some aspects of the complex counseling situation need to be emphasized or even modified to some extent. She feels that the emphasis should be placed on student strengths rather than student weaknesses; on counseling structures which take into account the student's expectations and goals as well as our own; on support necessary to reduce the client's anxiety enough to allow him freedom to consider new possibilities; and on bringing the intensive phase of counseling to a close as soon as a clear direction has been established in the client's life.

Nachmann (18) defines duration as either the number of times we see the client or the span of time over which these contacts are spread. In a discussion of controlling the duration of counseling, Nachmann says that control can be taken to mean "restrain" and "shorten," since the desire to accomplish the most in the least possible time is a pressure under which most of us constantly labor.
Control, however, equally well lends itself to the Rankian meaning of "set a specified limit upon" with the aim not primarily of economy of time, but of utilizing the special therapeutic effects which working within such a framework may have (18, p. 486).

In discussing the duration of contact, Nachmann states that "the more normal or mature, the more intelligent, the stronger the ego, the less rigid the defenses, the better is one able to profit from either short or long contacts" (18, p. 486). She feels that the acute, transitory problem in the relatively healthy, well-motivated person is no doubt the prototype of the successful short-term counseling contact and, in fact, of "counseling" as it is differentiated from other types of therapy.

Nachmann is of the opinion that the length of contact is determined not only by the type of person we are dealing with, but also by the nature of the problem about which he requests help. The length and the course of counseling is determined by the point at which the counselor steps into the picture, how much of the therapeutic work the client has already accomplished before he arrives at one's office, and at what point one leaves him to proceed on his own.

Nachmann concludes her discussion of duration of contact by saying:

At the extreme of brevity, there are the single hours and even the fifteen-minute intake interviews where genuine, even decisive, therapeutic interaction takes place. This most frequently occurs when the client comes to counseling at some point of decision in his life (18, p. 488).
Golburgh (9), in his discussion on counseling underachieving college students, found that in recent years a not inconsiderable body of empirical data and informed speculation has accumulated that seems to show a relationship between a personality factor, hostility, and underachievement. The assumption that therapy (or counseling) should attempt to bring about as much change as possible appears to underline most counseling systems. Yet there is, at least insofar as counseling as an approach to underachievement is concerned, very little if any direct evidence that major therapy is necessarily called for (9).

Golburgh contends that a much narrower goal than total personality reorganization is needed and that a specific limiting technique, called "sector counseling," can appropriately be applied by the college counselor in many cases in which underachievement is the chief symptom. He differentiates "sector counseling" from other clinical and counseling systems in the following ways:

1. The material considered in therapy is deliberately limited to a particular symptom and its causes insofar as these can be identified.

2. Reorganization of the total personality is not the goal.

3. The primary focus is on speedy rehabilitation rather than long-term therapy.

4. Deliberate establishment of a transference relationship as a therapeutic technique is avoided as far as possible.

5. When the causative conflicts point to areas other than the sector under examination, they are dealt with only as necessary to resolve the problem of the sector (9, p. 134).
Searles (24) investigated the effectiveness of limited counseling in improving the academic achievement of college freshmen. He used students who ranked in the second quarter (on the basis of their ACT Summary Analysis Probability Score of attaining a certain grade) of their college peers in terms of both ability and achievement. The students were divided into three groups: one group received three counseling sessions; another group received one counseling session; and the third group received no counseling.

Searles found no evidence to refute the null hypothesis that under the counseling conditions set forth in his study there is no significant difference in academic achievement between the counseled and the non-counseled students. Three-session and one-session counseling do not appear to have any significant effect on the academic achievement of those students in a community junior college who were matched on recorded achievement. Searles concluded that short-duration counseling may be too brief an exposure to expect significant behavioral change.

Klingelhofer (12) feels that many colleges spend a disproportionate amount of time working with the academically weaker student, based on the assumption that counseling is helpful in assisting him to achieve the minimum standards of the given institution. According to him, the usual administrative procedures provide that the student visit a counselor and work out a plan designed to ameliorate the student's
academic difficulties. Such counseling generally takes the form of relatively directive suggestions to the counselee as to what adjustments he should make in his school program or his study procedures. This type of counseling assumes that individuals are able to profit from direct suggestions without having to go through a process of self-understanding along nondirective lines.

Klingelhofer (12) utilized seventy-six students on probation who re-registered at the University of Iowa in the College of Liberal Arts in September, 1952. The mean ability level of this group was relatively low. They were divided into two groups, one group undergoing four one-hour counseling sessions during the semester, the other group having one counseling session one hour in length during the early part of the semester. Students who had participated in two earlier probationary group studies constituted the control group. The study suggests that improved academic performance of scholastic probationers is associated with an organized program, although quantitative differences in amount of counseling failed to produce different levels of achievement.

Goodstein (10) conducted a study to evaluate the effects of individual vocational-educational counseling on the academic achievement of a group of probationary, low-ability college freshmen who were in the lower half of their high school graduating class and who scored in the lower 30 per cent of all students taking the state-wide Iowa College
Scholarship Placement Test (a forerunner of the current American College Testing Program). He found no evidence that vocational-educational counseling, as it is usually conducted, leads to greater academic achievement by low-ability college students.

While the present study was designed to include measures similar to those used in previous studies, two additional variables—personality factors and college persistence—were added. The personality factors were added in an effort to improve the predictive quality of academic achievement in terms of application to practical experiences. College persistence was added to examine the effects of counseling over a two-year period. With the increasing national concern for the maximum growth in number of students attending college and the limited time available for counseling, there appears to be ample justification for research on the junior college level as to whether limited counseling will effect improved academic achievement by "marginally" achieving students.

Limitations of the Study

The study had the following limitations:

1. The students were not emotionally disturbed (in need of the services of a psychologist or psychiatrist), as determined by the counselor.

2. The students were not deficient in an educational skill such as reading or arithmetic, as determined by the counselor and by ACT scores. No effort was made to control
such variables as level of motivation, intelligence, or type of personality.

3. The majority of the students matriculated from the South Texas area served by Del Mar College. No attempt was made to stratify rural or racial percentages proportionate to their occurrence in the general population.

4. No attempt was made to control such demographic variables as family socio-economic status, number of siblings, and sex or age of the students.

5. The findings of the study can be said to apply only to that population used in the study; and until further studies of a similar nature are made, it would not be appropriate to generalize too broadly on the basis of these findings.

Definition of Terms

1. ACT--American College Test.

2. ACT's Pspr--Prospective student profile report. The report identifies the student, reports his recent grades and ACT scores, describes his special interests and campus needs, and predicts his academic average in college.

3. ACT Summary Analysis Probability Score (ASAP)--a single score on the ACT's Pspr which is based on four ACT test scores and four high school grades. This score reports the probability that the student would earn an over-all grade-point average of "C" or higher in the educational curriculum at this institution.
4. **Grade-Point Average (GPA)**—a numerical measure of the student's success in college. This measure is calculated in the usual way by multiplying the credit value of each course by a weighted score assigned to the letter grade earned, then dividing the combined products by the total number of credits. A four-point scale is used for all grades; that is, "A" is weighted as 4, "B" as 3, "C" as 2, "D" as 1, and "F" as 0.

5. **Residualized Grade-Point Average (RGPA)**—the difference between predicted GPA and the earned GPA. The predicted GPA is determined by the product-moment correlation method and regression analysis.

6. **Group I**—those students in the experimental group having three counseling sessions during each semester.

7. **Group II**—those students in the experimental group having one counseling session during each semester.

8. **Group III**—those students in the control group not receiving counseling.

9. **Trait**—a distinctive pattern of behavior which is more or less permanent; or the tendency due to habit, attitude or other proponent factor toward certain type of behavior.

10. **Personality traits**—a term used in conjunction with the traits contained in the **Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey**.
11. **College persistence**—completing the two years of junior college with the designated number of counseling sessions.

12. **Academic achievement**—a numerical measure of the student's scholastic improvement in college, as measured by residualized scores, during the fall and spring semesters of the academic years 1966-67 and 1967-68 at Del Mar College.

13. **Persister**—male or female students enrolled during the fall and spring semesters of the academic years 1966-67 and 1967-68 at Del Mar College. These students completed two years of junior college with the designated number of counseling sessions.

14. **Non-persister**—male and female students who completed the fall and spring semester of the academic year 1966-67 at Del Mar College, but who did not complete the academic year 1967-68 because of withdrawals, scholastic suspensions, or transfers.

15. **Short-term counseling**—individual open-ended, face-to-face, problem-solving situation within which a student can focus on and begin to solve his problems. The duration of each counseling session was approximately thirty minutes. These counseling sessions were conducted during the spring and fall semester of 1967 and the spring semester of 1968.

16. **"Marginally" achieving student**—those male and female students having a reasonable expectation of college
success, as shown by an ASAP score of twenty-five or more. These students failed to make an over-all average of "C" during their first semester in college.

Basic Assumptions

The following assumptions are basic to the development of the problem in this study:

1. The instrument used to measure the subject's personality traits is valid for the purposes of this investigation.

2. The subjects were sufficiently motivated so that responses to the survey questions will reflect the respondent's real self and ideal self-concept.

3. There exists no systematic bias in the counselors that will affect the outcome.

Procedures for Collecting Data

The subjects for this study were male and female students enrolled during the fall and spring semesters of the academic years 1966-67 and 1967-68 at Del Mar College. These students failed to attain an over-all grade-point average of "C" (2.0) during their first semester in college. They fall within the middle 68 per cent when ranked according to their ACT Summary Analysis Probability Score. Each subject had a reasonable expectation of achievement, based on an ACT Summary Analysis Probability Score (hereafter called ASAP Score) of twenty-five or more.
The subjects were divided into three groups: the experimental groups, designated Group I and Group II; and the control group, designated Group III. Group I had three counseling sessions during each semester. Group II had one counseling session during each semester. Group III received no counseling. The groups were matched on the basis of ASAP scores.

A total of 207 students were administered the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey during the 1967 spring semester in the testing room at the Counseling and Testing Office by the counselors. Individual appointments were made for interpreting the test results.

The counseling interviews were conducted by four counselors employed by the college. Each counselor had an equal number of randomly assigned subjects. The subjects were told that they had been selected to assist the college in understanding its students better, evaluating the degree to which student needs are met, and helping them better their academic achievement.

Procedures for Treating Data

Data required for testing the hypotheses were submitted to the Computer Center at North Texas State University, where they were programed and processed through the appropriate formulas designed for use with the Model 1620 IBM Computer. The product-moment correlation method and regression analysis
were used to compute the residualized scores of the students in this study. Simple one-way analysis of variance was used to determine the relationships among the different counseling conditions and the residualized scores. It was proposed that chi-square would be used to test for independence between college persistence and the three different counseling conditions. Product-moment coefficient of correlation was used to determine the relationship between the residualized scores and each of the trait scores of the GZTS separately for male and female students and then for all students combined. Point biserial product-moment coefficient of correlation was used to determine the relationship between college persistence and each of the trait scores of the GZTS separately for male and female students and then for all students combined.

Summary

One of the important tasks of colleges and universities is to prevent unnecessary student failures. Studies have shown that an adequate counseling service can be of real assistance to the college in discharging this function. Over the past years, educators and administrators have come to realize that the pattern of Topsy-like growth in counseling services needs to be changed into mature conceptual designs or constructs for educators to utilize. The problem of this study was to investigate the effect of short-term
counseling and personality factors on academic achievement and college persistence of students on the junior college level.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER II

A REVIEW OF LITERATURE

For purposes of this investigation the related literature is limited to four areas of major concern. These are (1) characteristics of the junior college student, (2) counseling as related to academic achievement, (3) personality as related to academic achievement, and (4) personality as related to college persistence.

Characteristics of the Junior College Student

The junior college is a unique American contribution to the history of higher education. No other country has a similar educational system. Prior to the emergence of the junior college movement at the beginning of the Twentieth Century, a college education was a goal to be sought only by the academically or socially elite. Today, however, our complex society demands a college education from a much larger proportion of our students. This demand has been met, in part, by the junior college or community college.

MacKay (25) found that counselors in a comprehensive community college receive their clients from a population which ranges in age from sixteen to sixty years, with about half in the typical college age range and about 6 per cent
over thirty. The range of ability in the junior college population is nearly as wide as that in the high school population. The fact that most junior college students live at home should not be interpreted as indicating the same dependency pattern found in high school populations. Junior college students may occupy any position in the family from youngest child to breadwinner to grandmother. MacKay says:

Prominent among the factors to which have been attributed the drawing power of public junior colleges are residential proximity to the institution, limited measured aptitude for college-level studies, family social training, and the quest for higher social status (25, p. 183).

Data gathered by Seibel (38) on a specially selected sample of 10,000 seniors in 147 high schools revealed that about 36 per cent enrolled in recognized colleges. Of these, 19 per cent enrolled in junior colleges, while 81 per cent enrolled in four-year colleges. An intensive analysis of the very able high school seniors--those in the upper 5 per cent of ability--revealed that only one out of twenty of those academically talented students chose to enroll in a junior college. In addition, the proportion of students completing the freshman year in good standing is smaller among junior college students (61 per cent) than among students enrolled in four-year institutions (78 per cent). This would be expected in view of the "open door" admission policy of most junior colleges.
Mellinger (29), using Hollingshead's revision of the Warner Index of Status Characteristics, found that social class distribution conformed generally to most other studies of public junior college student bodies. Mellinger states that

(1) students in the lower and lower-middle classes accounted for 96 per cent of the freshman population; (2) 58 per cent of the families had an income of $6,000 or over, and 25 per cent had an income of $8,000 or over; and (3) 60 per cent of the students received some income from part time employment (29, p. 168).

Thurston (47) found that if the student attends a college in his home community, and especially if it is thought of as a "community college, he may remain closer to the orbit of his parents' views, not only because he is living at home but also because the college seems similar to high school. Thurston found that slightly over half of the students see themselves as not fully prepared for college work. They differ from senior college students in their concern for the future and in their lack of concern with the curriculum and teaching practices. They seem less "socially mature," less "rebelliously independent," less able to resist pressures effectively, yet more placid and compulsive. Surprisingly, perhaps, they are more dominant and confident.

Kysar (23) hypothesizes that a college education is related to "going away" to college, which, in turn, means separation from home and family authority and the opportunity to establish autonomy. In essence, this leaving home for
college assumes the nature of a normal developmental task for the older adolescent who is capable of going on to college. The "commuter" college student, therefore, becomes one who fails in this particular developmental task.

Kysar, along with many other professionals, considers the college years to be crucial for personality development:

College undergraduates, usually age seventeen to twenty-one, are in the stage of personality formation which is still incomplete, fluid, and malleable (23, p. 476).

Morton (31) believes that the student who lives with parents or relatives and commutes to classes may be so home- or community-oriented that his studies suffer. He may find it difficult to divest himself of some aspects of his role as community worker and family member in order to do justice to his college work. In almost all cases there is need for special counseling and group work with these students. In many cases, home orientation is often complicated by job orientation. The student may find it desirable or necessary to earn money while attending college, in which case the chances are that he may not have sufficient time after his job for necessary rest, study, and home life.

Cooley (4) used the data obtained by Project Talent, a nationwide study of high school youth, to describe the junior college student. The junior college, non-college, and college students were compared along six measures of information and eight measures of general aptitude and ability.
Through the use of a six-group discriminant analysis, it was found that junior college students have a tendency to be more like non-college students in terms of ability and more like college students in terms of socio-economic factors.

Collins (3) makes reference to the shallow commitment of most junior college students to any system of values. He feels that counselors working with the junior college student from the lower socio-economic strata suspect that he only half accepts--at a cognitive rather than emotional level--the prevailing societal myth that education will provide him the good job by which he can hope to "marry Doris Day and live happily ever after in a two-bathroom home in suburbia" (3, p. 35). He charges that junior colleges allow the students "... to drift on as shoppers or passive customers, half in and half out, half at college and half at home, dropping in and dropping out" (3, p. 36).

So it can be seen that counseling as related to the junior college is different from counseling in the senior college. These studies show that junior college students range in age from sixteen to sixty, with about half in the typical college age range. They have a tendency to be more like non-college students than like senior college students in terms of academic ability. Their stated goals include most categories of occupations. The proportion of junior college students completing the freshman year in good standing is smaller than that of senior college students. They seem
less concerned with the future, the curriculum, and the teaching practices. They appear to be more home-oriented and community-oriented. Over one half of the students will need or want to work while attending college.

Counseling as Related to Academic Achievement

The rapid growth in the number and size of America's junior colleges presents educators with another vital question to be answered: What is the relationship between counseling and academic achievement of students who attend the junior college? This question has been partially answered by numerous studies that have examined relationships between counseling and academic achievement.

The preponderance of research in this area has been directed toward the over- and under-achieving students, and the student on academic probation. A smaller number of studies have investigated the gifted student and the endowed student. There has been little reported research dealing directly with the relationship between counseling and academic achievement of students having the intelligence considered sufficient for academic success but who either have failed to achieve or have achieved at a level below that commensurate with their abilities.

There is evidence of both success and failure in counseling with failing, potentially failing, and under-achieving
students. Researchers such as Fahey (9), Eurich (8), and Patterson (34) found no significant relationship between counseling and improvement in the academic achievement of potentially failing students. Goldstein (11) found no evidence that vocational-educational counseling as it is usually conducted leads to greater academic achievement by low-ability college students. Other researchers found significant positive relationships between counseling and improvement in GPA. Among these are Cowley (5), Klingelhofer (21), Richardson (35), Roth (37), Sheldon (40), Strabel (44), Thompson (46), and Walters (49).

Drasgow (7) and Motto (32) reported studies concerned with the effectiveness of individual counseling. The results of these studies varied. In general, the findings suggested that students receiving counseling may improve their scholastic performance.

Hendrix (13) conducted a study to determine whether the achievement of entering freshman students with predicted university grade averages of 1.50 and lower might be improved by special advising. A group of twenty students, representative of a normal freshman class, and three matched control groups were selected. The results revealed that the experimental group achieved significantly (.01 level) better than the control groups. Comparisons were made between subject-matter fields of comparable level of difficulty. In every
instance, the grade average of the experimental group was better than that of the control group.

Hill and Grieneeks (14) found no significant relationship between academic counseling and improved performance when the criterion measure is grade-point average. The investigators felt that part of the reason for the failure to find higher grades may be the insensitivity of the criterion measure, but it also may be due in part to the heterogeneity of the counseled groups and of their matched controls.

Jones (18) conducted a study that supports the general principle that it pays to counsel probationary students since the chances of their survival are tripled, compared to non-counseled students, and since the majority can be led to improve significantly. Nearly all students who reported regularly showed considerable improvement. However, Jones was not certain whether this improvement was the result of a gradual adoption of a course schedule of which they were capable, or because they were better motivated, or because they had acquired a number of study techniques.

Richardson (35) conducted a study to determine how the grade pattern of counseled college students may differ from the grade pattern of non-counseled students. His findings revealed no significant difference between the counseled and non-counseled students. He described those students whose grades improved during the semester in which counseling began as needing someone to be interested in them and to understand
their difficulties. They were seldom resourceful, were under-active socially, yet craved to "belong." They were bland, dependent, and constricted. Finding a psychologist who would help them to establish a meaningful relationship and to become more independent and resourceful reduced their anxiety so that college work could be carried on more comfortably.

Richardson (36) designed a study to test the hypothesis that, of the students having scholastic difficulties, the percentages of those recovering academically would be greater among those counseled than among those not counseled. His findings among 108 technology students confirmed the hypothesis that counseled students would improve academically more than the non-counseled students.

Roth and Meyersburg (37), working from clinical experience, developed constructs in counseling students with achievement difficulties:

. . . (1) the patterns of choice for poor achievement are enduring and do not undergo spontaneous change; (2) achievement patterns can be considered to be related to "personality organization"; and (3) the counseling relationship can serve as the impetus to change the achievement patterns (37, p. 536).

In addition to the above constructs, Roth and Meyersburg recognized the dynamic processes involved in poor academic achievement, which they labeled the non-achievement syndrome.

A rather prevalent group of symptoms which, when taken together, can make a consistent syndrome are
1. Poor academic achievement
2. General self-deprecation; non-recognition of pleasure at "being"
3. No clear system of personal goals or values
4. Vulnerability to disparagement by others
5. Immature relations with parents
6. Frequent depressions
7. Lack of insight about self and others

Smith (41) used a single brief expression of concern as a means of improving academic performance among 487 male freshman students at Ohio State University. In general, his results suggested that a single brief expression of concern about scholastic performance may have a positive effect on academic performance.

According to Watson (51), counseling services are now a generally accepted part of educational programs. The values of counseling are still only hazily ascertained; however, "... effective counseling can and does reduce anxiety and brings in its wake successfully adaptive behaviors" (51, p. 99). Watson used 178 students who had been referred for intensive counseling in the College of Liberal Arts and Sciences of Brooklyn College to assess some academic advantages gained from counseling. Counseling consisted of weekly sessions of an hour's duration held over a period of five to twenty weeks with a median number of ten interviews. Two years later, student folders were examined to see whether evidence of change was apparent. The findings indicated that counseling had helped students to improve their academic standing and to remain in college. In addition, the
counseled student showed a higher degree of responsibility and was more likely to have elicited favorable comments relative to behavior other than academic achievement.

Ivey (17) designed a study to examine the results of counseling on the academic performance of counseled and non-counseled students. The counselees were 161 freshmen, sophomores, and juniors, who were provided general counseling on a short-term basis. His findings show that the counseled students who remained at the university significantly (.01 level) improved their grade-point average. However, it is also interesting to note that, for the first semester, the non-counseled students earned a higher mean grade-point average.

Ivey's findings also indicated that counseled students who withdrew were significantly lower in academic ability (as measured by high school and total College Board scores) than counseled students who continued in attendance at the university. An interesting trend appeared throughout the data of this study. Students who came for counseling were more likely to withdraw from school, but those who remained in school improved their marks more than did the non-counseled students.

Motto (32) says that to assume that under-achievers can be dealt with in any short-term procedure is bound to result in ineffectual counseling. Under-achievement is a complex phenomenon which is a manifestation of personality disunity
of the total individual; and its resolution will call for all the depth, skill, and psychological understanding the counselor can bring to bear on the situation.

In the studies cited above, patterns of academic performance of counseled and non-counseled students were investigated. While the findings in these studies of patterns of academic performance of counseled and non-counseled students are contradictory, generally the studies support the principle that counseling does effect improvement in academic performance.

Personality as Related to Academic Achievement

In recent years there has been an emergent recognition on the part of educators, psychologists, and counselors that the academic performance of the student is another aspect of his total behavior and, as such, is determined and influenced by the dynamic processes of personality. Many investigations [Critchfield and Hutson (6), Horrall (15), McKenzie (26), Middleton and Guthrie (30), Stagner (42), Taylor (45), Watley (50), Witherspoon and Melberg (52)] have indicated a relationship between non-intellectual factors and academic success.

Krumboltz (22) found significant differences between the superior achievers, par achievers, and under-achievers on the GZTS scales, Restraint and Thoughtfulness. The general image of the superior student is that he is independent, purposive, and efficiently organized. He is well adjusted,
at least in terms of such scales on the GETS as Emotional Stability and Masculinity; and he is able to relate to other persons, as might be indicated on such scales as those of Sociability and Friendliness. The under-achiever, obversely, is more planless and less thoughtful in his orientation to life; he is inclined to be fatalistic in his expectations concerning outcomes of personal efforts. He is likely to put a premium on the immediate and practical effects to be gained from academic work. He is less likely to relate his conduct to long-range consequences.

Witherspoon and Melberg (52) used the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey to determine possible relationships between aspects of temperament and earned grade-point averages of 229 first semester freshmen. Their findings revealed that (1) no significant relationship exists between the investigated first semester college freshmen's grade-point averages and the scores on G, A, E, S, O, F, and T; (2) a low but statistically significant relationship between the "R"—purposive—scale score and grade-point average does exist; (3) a low but statistically significant relationship between the "P"—personal relations—score and grade-point average does exist; and (4) a low but statistically significant relationship between the "M"—masculinity-femininity—score and grade-point average does exist for the 112 male students. A low relationship between an "M" score and grade-point average for women exists but is not statistically significant.
Watley (50) investigated the relationship between personal adjustment and academic achievement. He used 188 freshman male business students who were classified into "positive," "average," and "negative" adjustment groups on the basis of means of the ten Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey trait raw scores. The results indicated a positive relationship between adjustment and level of achievement.

Goff (10) conducted a study which considered the feasibility of using personality features as a basis for judgment in predicting academic goal attainment. Using the California Personality Inventory, she found that personality features alone may not adequately forecast academic goal attainment and that behavioral traits should be considered within the context of the total mental configuration of the individual.

The data from Goff's study indicate that trait trends should not be ignored. Self-doubt, self-abasement, and impulsiveness may lead to abandonment of the student role. She believes that the employment of positive counseling would minimize or offset this abandonment. Students would profit from help in the development of strong, personal convictions; sound, realistic personal credos; and confidence in decisions bolstered by freedom to act or make adaptive responses in accordance with positively oriented thinking. Guidance of this nature would direct attention to values of merit, would increase feelings of worth and acceptance of self, and would augment the probability of consummation of intent in relation to academic goals.
Jourard (19) used the Ainsworth Test of Security in Personal Adjustment to investigate non-intellectual factors involved in academic under-achievement. His subjects consisted of eighty sophomore students matched on achievement level and sex. He found that under-achieving males and females differed from adequately achieving controls in that (1) achievers have a closer relationship to friends of the same or opposite sex; (2) males and females conform to sex role expectations more adequately; and (3) under-achievers show a significant correlation between measures of personal security and measures of the closeness of their parental relationships.

Taylor (45) reviewed the literature from the period of 1933 to 1963 relating personality to discrepant achievement. These personality traits were free-floating anxiety, negative self-value, hostility toward authority, negative interpersonal relations, high independence-dependence conflict, social disorientation, and unrealistic goal orientation. He cites a number of investigators who comment upon the under-achiever's hostility toward authority figures and who conclude that the under-achieving student dislikes his instructors and is resistant to externally imposed tasks.

Lum's study (24) offers additional support for the belief that personality factors are significantly related to academic achievement. In general, Lum's findings indicate that academic success of the relatively bright and dull males
is more determined by intellectual factors than is the case with the average ability males. A similar study by Centi (2) shows a positive relationship between level of achievement and selected personality factors. Horrall's findings (15) reveal that a student's achievement is related to the degree of his emotionality and instability. Other investigations [Jourard and Powell (19), Roth and Meyersburg (37), Shaw and Alves (39), and Taylor (45)] indicate that achievement is related to self-confidence and the tendency to withdraw. Kimball (20) concluded that a positive relationship exists between achievement and the direct expression of aggressive and hostile feelings. Lum (24) found a relationship between hostility and achievement, concluding that the student's hostility is apparent and, as a result, the student is less acceptable to the instructor. Other investigators [Goff (10), Middleton and Guthrie (3), Stone and Ganung (43), Witherspoon and Melberg (52)] found a positive relationship between criticalness of others and failure to succeed. To the failing student the world seems to be a hostile, competitive place; warmth and acceptance of other people often seem to be lacking. Failing students are characterized by an attitude of criticalness or hostility to people and by lower ratings on cooperation, dependability, and judgment. In addition, failing students have been found to be less dominant and more deferring than achieving students.
Goodstein (11) found that personality factors are important in determining the academic achievement of the average ability college student; and, since academic achievement is one of the requisites for remaining in college, it should be of importance to all college personnel. Most studies agree that approximately one half of those who start to college do not reach graduation; some 40 per cent of college students graduate on schedule; and approximately 20 per cent graduate from some college someday (Marsh, 28).

The above cited studies suggest that traits of personality and character are important determinants of academic achievement and that a better understanding of this relationship between different personality traits of college students should provide a more effective basis upon which to assist the individual. If relationships can be found to exist among personality variables, counseling, and academic achievement, then it is possible that a guidance technique based on these relationships can be developed that will be beneficial to the individual, the college, and the community.

Personality as Related to College Persistence

College and university officials have never anticipated that all students who entered college would graduate; however, the factors which cause some students to remain in school while others withdraw or are suspended before graduation have never been clearly determined. Many generally believe, however, that students with high test scores and high
academic grades ordinarily will complete the degree requirements, in contrast to those with low test scores and grades, who ordinarily do not complete degree requirements. Such a conclusion is clouded in that a relatively high proportion of those students with high test scores and high academic grades do not remain in college.

Although intellectual measures have not proved to be perfect predictors of persistence, little attention has been paid to the nonintellectual factors involved in college persistence of "marginally" achieving students; and research in this area is virtually nonexistent. To identify the personality factors that either help or hinder the fruition of satisfactory academic achievement and to measure the degree to which these factors are influential seem to be among the major educational problems today. Since education is an important factor in a person's development and in his cultural, social, and economic life, an examination of the nonintellectual factors which affect the student's persistence in his undergraduate college education is of importance.

Heilbrun (12) feels that, to this point, intellectual measures have been by far the most successful predictors of college achievement as given by classroom grades. And, since continuation in college is typically contingent upon maintaining at least a minimal grade-point average, there is a necessary relationship between achievement and intelligence. However, it seems reasonable to expect that personality
factors may make a significant independent contribution to student attrition.

Further, he points out that college often provides unique demands for academic study and classroom behavior as well as for a peer adjustment outside the family environment. He believes that the established behavioral patterns of the adolescent should partially determine the ease or difficulty in adjusting to these facets of college life and in motivating continuation or dropout.

Munger (33) examined the relationship between college persistence, psychological test scores, and grades received in the first semester of college. His subjects were students who ranked in the lower third of their high school graduating class. His findings showed no significant relationship between persistence and the psychological test scores, although there was a significant relationship between persistence and GPA for the first semester. He concluded that with such significant relationship between persistence and GPA it is possible to use early grades as predictors; in fact, to make a realistic prediction of the success in college of students who have graduated in the lower third of their high school graduating classes.

Ikenberry (16) used a multivariate statistical approach to examined difference in affective and cognitive characteristics between students who withdraw from college and students who remain enrolled through the end of the first year. The
population under study consisted of the 1958 entering freshmen at Michigan State University. The experimental group was comprised of 303 students who had withdrawn from the University. The control group consisted of a random sample of 250 students from the enrolled freshmen.

Both the withdrawal sample and the enrollee were classified into sub-groups on the basis of first term achievement. A grade-point average of 2.0 ("C") was selected as an appropriate criterion for the classification of students into above- and below-average achievement groups. The results showed a consistent tendency for the withdrawal group to be below the enrolled group on achievement and persistence.

Ikenberry's study also substantiated the current social-psychological theory. Such theory would assert that the family and peer group associations, previous environments, and other similarly constituted social forces are the final determining factor in both collegiate persistence and attendance. A student with less than average ability who comes from a home in the upper middle-class strata may persist in college despite a below-average achievement record. The student persists because social pressures from parents and peers, plus internalized goals and values related to college attendance, motivate him.

Smith (41) states "with our ever-progressing world, it is the obligation of higher education and society in general to prevent students from leaving college" (41, p. 339). He
describes college dropouts as more aloof, self-centered, impulsive, assertive, irresponsible, and independent than students who remain in college. Dropouts tend to have lower academic aptitudes and poorer high school academic records. Male dropouts have doubts about the appropriate course of study, worry over poor academic performance, and are dissatisfied as students. Parents of dropouts add greatly to the students' tension.

Vaughan (48) investigated the cognitive and non-cognitive factors operating in two categories of dropouts; namely, those dismissed on the basis of academic failure and those who withdrew voluntarily. His findings were that those who were dismissed for academic reasons scored significantly lower on the cognitive measures than persisting students, and those who withdrew for reasons other than academic scored approximately the same as the persisting students.

Vaughan found that the same patterning was evident in the measures of personality. In comparison with the persisting students, the dismissed students are more likely to be impulsive, lacking in any deep emotional commitment to education, and unable to profit from past experience. In addition, they have a tendency to be unstable, overly active, restless, more hostile, less task-oriented, and lacking interest and social skills. It is evident that all these characteristics can militate against effectiveness in academic achievement.
The studies cited above indicate that not all failures are a result of academic ability or aptitude, nor is mental or intellectual ability the exclusive determinant of academic achievement. Many failures result from the inability of the student to relate his unique self to the realities of college. This is both a problem to the individual, who may suffer from the sense of failure, and to society, which loses the full potential contributions of its members. Therefore, it follows that anything which can be done to reduce the incidence of failure will contribute to individual and social accomplishment and well-being.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


6. Critchfield, Jack B. and Percival W. Hutson, "Validity of the Personality Record," College and University, XL (Fall, 1964), 41.

7. Drasgow, James, "Underachievers," Journal of Counseling Psychology, IV (Fall, 1957), 210-211.

8. Eurich, A. C., "Improvement in Scholarship During the Probationary Period," School and Society, XXXV (1932), 129-134.


44. Strabel, E., "What About Warned Students?" School and Society, XLII (October, 1935), 581-584.


CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

There is a national interest in the use and development of the existing manpower of college students. From this emphasis arises a direct concern for those who are functioning below the level of their academic potential. Those students who fail to perform up to their ability level represent a loss to the academic community and to society in general. Attempts to ameliorate this problem have included individual and group counseling, and psychotherapy based on the belief that psychological factors are important determinants. Existing data support this belief.

As junior college enrollment grows and urbanization continues, public junior colleges must face the reality of increasing enrollments of low ability students unless their admissions policies are drastically revised. Emerging throughout the nation is an awareness by junior college administrators of the problem of meeting the needs of students with low ability.

Subjects

The subjects for this study were 124 male and 83 female students enrolled in the fall and spring semesters of the academic years 1966-67 and 1967-68 at Del Mar College. These
students failed to attain an over-all grade-point average of "C" (2.0) during their first semester in college. They fell within the middle 68 per cent when ranked according to their ACT Summary Analysis Probability Score. Each subject had a reasonable expectation of achievement by having an ASAP score of 25 or more. The ages of the subjects ranged from 17 to 43 years. The mean age was 19.1. Of the total number of subjects, 93 per cent lived at home with their parents, 4 per cent were apartment residents, 2 per cent were dormitory students, and 1 per cent were home-owners. Fifty-four per cent of the subjects worked full or part time.

Instruments Used

The standardized measure of personality variables used in this study was the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (4). As a result of a series of factor-analytic studies of personality items, Guilford published a set of three inventories designed to measure thirteen independent traits of personality. The STDCR inventory included five scales: social introversion (S), thinking introversion (I), depression (D), cycloid tendencies (C), and rhathymia (R). The GAMIN inventory added five additional traits: general activity (G), ascendance (A), masculinity (M), inferiority feelings (I), and nervousness (N). Finally, the Guilford Martin Personnel Inventory contributed three new scales: objectivity (O), agreeableness (Ag), and cooperativeness (Co).
Each scale included varying numbers of items, each of which could contribute to as many as four different factor scores.

The later Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey (4) was developed to insure an equal number of items for each of the trait scales, to eliminate the multiple scoring of items which reduced the experimental validity of the studies by Lovell, Thurstone, and Baehr, and to combine or eliminate scales whose scores showed high intercorrelations. The old general activity (G), ascendance (A), masculinity (M), and objectivity (O) scales retained their names in the new GZTS.

Bendig's study (2) also provides support for the clinical use of the GZTS in obtaining a profile of factorially valid measures of ten separate traits of personality. However, the clinician or counselor cannot expect the scores to be independent since the basic factors are themselves correlated. The results, plus those from studies of the GZTS (5), suggest that scores from pairs of GZTS scales may be combined to obtain measures of four second-order personality factors: combining scales R and T for Factor EI; E and O for EM; and A and S for SA; and F and P for Fr. Such a quartet of summed scores may provide for counseling purposes as much valid information as all ten scores.

The standardized measure of scholastic aptitude used in this study was the American College Testing Program (1). Brown (3) conducted a study of the American College Testing Program (ACT) over a three-year period. Subjects were 4,597
freshmen divided into five groups by college and sex. His research revealed that the ACT is a good measure of general scholastic aptitude, has definite administrative advantages to the college by providing scores prior to a student's admission, and aids prediction for certain sub-groups of students. In regard to test validity, his data show that the ACT battery is as good a predictor of college success as other measures of scholastic aptitude. The magnitude of its correlation with GPA was similar to those found for other scholastic aptitude measures. Thus, as a measure of general scholastic aptitude, ACT was satisfactory.

Procedures for Collection of Data

After the subjects had been divided into three groups, the groups were matched on the basis of ASAP scores. The subject's ASAP score is based on, and gives about equal weight to, his American College Test (ACT) scores and his high school grades. Studies done by the American College Testing Program show that the ASAP score derived in this way predicts within six-tenths of a grade-point, plus or minus, for 68 per cent of the students (1). Since the ASAP score is based in part on high school grades, the students—in contrast with those in many other studies—are not necessarily long-term "marginal" achievers.

A total of 207 students were administered the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey during the 1967 spring semester.
in the testing room at the Counseling and Testing Office by the counselors. Of these 207 students, 124 were male and 83 were female. Individual appointments were made for interpreting the test results.

The counseling interviews were conducted by four counselors employed by the college. No attempt was made to standardize the interviews; differences were expected to exist because of the difference in personality and orientation of the counselors. Each counselor had an equal number of randomly assigned subjects. Each counselor adapted counseling methods to each subject according to his own judgment. The use of four counselors avoids what other studies have noted to be a design weakness: the possible biasing effects resulting from the use of one counselor. In addition, the use of four counselors, rather than one, may be considered an important factor in making possible more direct application of the findings to other colleges.

In preparation for the initial counseling session, the counselor reviewed the student's permanent record folder and personal data sheet for such things as part-time jobs, extracurricular activities, ACT's Psp data, grades and grade-point average, courses taken during the past semester, and courses in progress during the current semester. Counselors provided a warm, permissive, accepting climate within which the student had the opportunity to obtain help in thinking through a problem and in freely determining his own actions
while accepting the responsibility for the consequences of his decisions.

Counselors' methodologies varied according to the expressed needs of the students but included, at least in part, the following characteristics: interpretation, explanation, comparison of alternatives and logical problem-solving techniques, reflection of feeling and acceptance relationship, tryout of new behavior, and reinforcement of desired responses. Counselors' methodologies were aimed toward accomplishing the following goals: insight and self-acceptance, self-understanding, adoption of alternative social strategies or interpersonal behaviors, and sound decisions concerning interests and abilities.

Procedure for Treating Data

Data required for testing the hypotheses were submitted to the Computer Center at North Texas State University, where they were programmed and processed through the appropriate formulas designed for use with the Model 1620 IBM computer.

Hypothesis I stated that there are significant relationships between academic achievement and those students receiving counseling three times during each semester, those students receiving counseling one time each semester, and those students not receiving counseling during each semester. Simple one-way analysis of variance was used to determine the relationships among the different counseling conditions.
and the residualized grade-point average. The $F$ test of significance was used to determine the levels of significance of the derived values.

Hypothesis II stated that there are significant relationships between college persistence and those students receiving counseling three times during each semester, those students receiving counseling one time during each semester, and those students not receiving counseling during each semester. It was proposed that chi-square would be used to test for independence between college persistence and the three different counseling conditions.

Hypothesis III predicted that significant relationships would be found between scores earned on the separate traits of the GZTS and the residualized grade-point average for the students in this study. Testing the null hypothesis relating to Hypothesis III required computing the product-moment coefficient of correlation between the residualized grade-point average and each of the trait scores of the GZTS separately for male and female students and then for all students combined. Fisher's and Yates' Table of Critical Values and $t$ Ratios was used to determine whether the obtained coefficients differed significantly from zero.

Hypothesis IV predicted that significant relationships would be found between scores earned on the separate traits of the GZTS and college persistence for the students in this study. Testing the null hypothesis relating to Hypothesis IV
required computing the point biserial product-moment coefficient of correlation between college persistence and each of the trait scores of the GZTS separately for male and female students and then for all students combined. Fisher's and Yates' Table of Critical Values and t Ratios was used to determine whether the obtained coefficients differed significantly from zero.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The problem of this study was to investigate the relationships that exist among individual short-term counseling, academic achievement, personality factors, and college persistence. Several statistical methods were used to accomplish a thorough analysis of the data.

The first step equalized the subjects' GPA's earned during their first semester in college and obtained the residualized grade-point average. The use of the residualized grade-point average rather than differences between the GPA's was deemed important; these scores reduced the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when in fact it is true.

The second step determined the relationship between the number of counseling sessions each semester and academic achievement. This step was to serve two purposes: (1) to establish a link between counseling and academic achievement, and (2) to establish a further link between achievement and the number of counseling sessions. Simple one-way analysis of variance was used to test the significance of the differences between the means of the three groups.

The F test of significance was used to determine the levels of significance of the derived values. Level of
significance was determined by use of Fisher's and Yates' Table of Variance Ratios (1, p. 50). The .05 level of significance was accepted.

The next step tested for independence between college persistence and the number of counseling sessions each semester. The use of chi-square was proposed but examination of the data showed that an equal number of subjects persisted in each group; on this basis, the null hypothesis that no difference exists between the observed and expected values was accepted.

In the fourth step the relationships between scores earned on the trait scales of the GZTS and the residualized grade-point average were calculated by Pearson's product-moment method of correlation. Fisher's and Yates' Table of Critical Values for Correlation and t Ratios was used to determine the significance of the correlation coefficients (1, p. 59). The .05 level of significance was accepted.

The fifth step required computing the point biserial product-moment coefficient of correlation to determine the relationship between college persistence and each of the trait scores of the GZTS separately for male and female students and then for all students combined. Fisher's and Yates' Table of Critical Values for Correlation and t Ratios was used to determine the significance of the correlation coefficients (1, p. 59). The .05 level of significance was accepted.
Hypothesis I

Hypothesis I stated that there are significant relationships between academic achievement and those students receiving counseling three times during each semester, those students receiving counseling one time each semester, and those students not receiving counseling. The $F$ test of significance was used to determine whether the obtained proportions differed significantly.

Simple one-way analysis of variance was used to determine whether differences existed among the three groups. The analyses data, presented in Table I, show no significant difference among the groups. The null hypothesis was accepted.

TABLE I

ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE OF THE RESIDUALIZED GRADE-POINT AVERAGES FOR GROUPS I, II, AND III

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>Sum of Square</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Variance Estimate</th>
<th>$F$</th>
<th>$P$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between</td>
<td>.19</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>.23</td>
<td>NS</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within</td>
<td>80.52</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>.40</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>80.71</td>
<td>201</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Since the three groups did not respond to the number of counseling sessions in significantly different proportion, these data were interpreted as indicating that the number of counseling sessions does not significantly influence the academic achievement of those students in this study, as measured by residualized scores.
The failure to find significant differences in proportions was in line with the findings of Searles (3), who used three groups of college freshmen matched in terms of both ability and achievement. One group received three counseling sessions, one group received one counseling session, and the third group received no counseling. He found no significant difference between counseled and non-counseled students.

Hypothesis II

Hypothesis II predicted that there are significant relationships between college persistence and those students receiving counseling three times during each semester, those students receiving counseling one time each semester, and those students not receiving counseling.

Chi-square was proposed as a test for independence between college persistence and the three groups receiving a different number of counseling sessions during each semester. It can be seen in Table II that thirty-two students persisted

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Group I</th>
<th>Group II</th>
<th>Group III</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>M</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>M</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Persisters</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Persisters</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
in each group. On the basis of the data presented in Table II, the null hypothesis that no difference exists between the expected and the observed values was accepted.

An interpretation of these data based on the findings of other studies is not feasible, since no published studies were found that deal directly with counseling as related to college persistence. However, for the male students, it is highly probable that the situation was affected by social conditions that did not exist for the college population prior to 1966; i.e., immediate conscription into the armed services upon withdrawal from school. The influence of this real or imagined threat upon the male student's decision to leave school could only be hypothesized, but to all appearances it formed a very strong counter-pressure in opposition to the pressure upon him to drop out of school. For the female students the situation may have been affected by the fact that most of these students live at home and have pressure from their parents and friends to remain in college.

A second factor affecting the number of subjects persisting in each group was the number of transfers to other colleges. Sixteen per cent of Group I transferred to other colleges, compared with 9 per cent of Group II and 6 per cent of Group III. Follow-up of these transfer students revealed that all had completed the second year of college. Although it cannot be inferred from this data that these transfer students would have been classified as persisters had they
remained at Del Mar College, it does suggest a positive rela-
tionship between the number of counseling sessions and
continuation in college.

It can be seen in Table II that, although thirty-two
students persisted in each group, there are variations within
the male population and the female population of the three
groups. Fifty-seven per cent of the male students persisted
in Group I, 47 per cent persisted in Group II, and 44 per
cent persisted in Group III. Thirty-eight per cent of the
female students persisted in Group I, 46 per cent persisted
in Group II, and 50 per cent persisted in Group III. This
shows a steady increase in the percentage of female students
who persisted as the number of counseling sessions decreased
to zero, in contrast to a steady decrease in the percentage
of male students who persisted as the number of counseling
sessions decreased to zero.

Hypothesis III

Hypothesis III stated that significant relationships
would be found to exist between scores earned on the separate
traits of the GZTS and academic achievement of the students
in this study. The variables involved in testing the
corollaries related to Hypothesis III and subsequent hypoth-
eses are listed in Table III, along with their assigned
symbols.
TABLE III
LIST OF VARIABLES WITH ASSIGNED SYMBOLS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Symbol</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Activity</td>
<td>$X_1$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Restraint</td>
<td>$X_2$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ascendance</td>
<td>$X_3$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sociability</td>
<td>$X_4$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Emotional Stability</td>
<td>$X_5$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Objectivity</td>
<td>$X_6$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friendliness</td>
<td>$X_7$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Thoughtfulness</td>
<td>$X_8$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal Relations</td>
<td>$X_9$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masculinity</td>
<td>$X_{10}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Academic Achievement</td>
<td>$X_{11}$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Persistence</td>
<td>$X_{12}$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Corollary G of Hypothesis III stated that the relationship between variables $X_{11}$ scores and "Friendliness" ($X_7$) scores would be positive for both male and female students. Table IV reveals that male students did obtain a positive $r$ of .18 for these two variables, which was significant at the .05 level. The research hypothesis of a positive relationship between variables $X_{11}$ and $X_7$ was accepted. The null hypothesis relating to level of significance for the male students was rejected.

The $r$ for the female students on the trait "Friendliness" ($X_7$) was positive but slightly lower (.14) as revealed in Table IV. Since the $r$ did not meet an acceptable level of
### TABLE IV

COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION BETWEEN GZTS TRAIT SCORES AND ACADEMIC ACHIEVEMENT

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GZTS Trait</th>
<th>Male (124)</th>
<th>Female (78)</th>
<th>Both</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>r</td>
<td>Level of Significance</td>
<td>r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. General Activity</td>
<td>-.02</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>-.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Restraint</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Ascendance</td>
<td>.07</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>-.12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Sociability</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>-.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. Emotional Stability</td>
<td>.12</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>-.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. Objectivity</td>
<td>.03</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>-.13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Friendliness</td>
<td>.18</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. Thoughtfulness</td>
<td>.09</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>-.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. Personal Relations</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. Masculinity</td>
<td>-.12</td>
<td>N.S.</td>
<td>-.08</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Significance, the null hypothesis was accepted. Combining the scores of the male and female students on the variables $X_{11}$ and $X_7$ resulted in an $r$ of .23. This increased the level of significance to .01.

On the basis of these data, the interpretation was made that the students who attained a higher level of academic achievement were more likely to respect the rights and feelings of others and to be more tolerant of hostile action. This is consistent with Krumboltz's findings (2) and his
suggestion, in terms of the GZTS trait "Friendliness," that the achieving student is able to relate to other persons.

Corollary J of Hypothesis III stated that the relationships between $X_{11}$ scores and scores on "Masculinity" ($X_{10}$) would be negative for both male and female students. An examination of Table IV reveals a negative $r$ of -.12 for the male students and a negative $r$ of -.08 for the female students. The $r$'s for these male and female students were in the anticipated direction but were not significant. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Combining the scores of the male and female students on variables $X_{11}$ and $X_{10}$ resulted in a negative $r$ of -.24 which was in the predicted direction and significant at the .01 level. This suggests that male and female students who tend to be sympathetic, warmhearted, and emotionally expressive were more likely to attain a higher level of academic achievement than male and female students who tend to be detached, independent, venturesome, tough-minded, and assertive. This is in agreement with Witherspoon and Melberg (4), who found a negative relationship between "Masculinity" scores and grade-point averages for male and female students.

In summary, the general hypothesis stating that significant relationships would be found to exist between scores earned on the separate traits of the GZTS and academic achievement, as measured by the residualized grade-point average, for the students in this study was partially
supported by the findings. For the male students the trait "Friendliness" was significantly related (.05) to academic achievement. For the female students, none of the relationships between the separate traits and academic achievement were significant.

Grouping the scores of the students without regard for sex showed that two of the traits, "Friendliness" and "Masculinity," were significantly related (.01) to academic achievement. The remainder of the traits had r's too low to be significant.

The general interpretation of these data was that academic achievement and the separate trait scores of the GZTS were not significantly related. Insofar as these groups are concerned, the separate traits of the GZTS do not offer an effective means of predicting academic achievement for "marginally" achieving students on the junior college level.

Hypothesis IV

Hypothesis IV predicted that there are significant relationships between scores earned on the separate traits of the GZTS and college persistence of the students in this study. The means, standard deviations, and point biserial product-moment coefficients of correlation are shown in Tables V, VI, and VII.

Only two correlations in Hypothesis IV were found to be significant, and these were related in a direction opposite to that predicted. For the male students, the trait
"Masculinity" was found to be significantly related to college persistence at the .05 level. Table V reveals an \( r_{pb} \) of .20. For the female students in the study, the trait "Emotional Stability" was found to be significant negatively, but related to college persistence at the .05 level. Table VI reveals and \( r_{pb} \) of -.23. The null hypothesis was accepted.

An interpretation was made from these data that male students who are interested in masculine activities and vocations and who behave in ways characteristic of men are more likely to persist in college. Female students who are
TABLE VI
SUMMARY TABLE OF MEANS, STANDARD DEVIATIONS, AND POINT BISERIAL PRODUCT-MOMENT COEFFICIENTS OF CORRELATION FOR FEMALE PERSISTERS AND NON-PERSISTERS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Persister (31)</th>
<th>Non-Persister (47)</th>
<th>Both (78)</th>
<th>( r_{pb} )</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>18.35</td>
<td>3.79</td>
<td>17.72</td>
<td>5.23</td>
<td>17.97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>16.10</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>14.89</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>15.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>14.55</td>
<td>4.78</td>
<td>13.96</td>
<td>6.11</td>
<td>14.19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>21.10</td>
<td>5.25</td>
<td>20.98</td>
<td>6.42</td>
<td>21.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.87</td>
<td>4.16</td>
<td>14.34</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>15.35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.97</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>15.28</td>
<td>4.81</td>
<td>15.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>18.26</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>16.64</td>
<td>4.44</td>
<td>17.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>18.16</td>
<td>3.97</td>
<td>18.77</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>18.53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>18.06</td>
<td>4.58</td>
<td>16.23</td>
<td>3.74</td>
<td>16.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>10.68</td>
<td>4.62</td>
<td>9.53</td>
<td>4.47</td>
<td>9.99</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

assertive, competitive, and who exhibit fluctuation of moods, interests, and energy are more likely to persist in college.

The general interpretation of these data was that college persistence and traits of the GZTS are not significantly related. On the basis of these findings, and for the population included in this study, it was concluded that the GZTS does not offer an effective means of predicting college persistence for the "marginally" achieving students on the junior college level.
### Table VII

**Summary Table of Means, Standard Deviations, and Point Biserial Product-Moment Coefficients of Correlation for Both Male and FemalePersisters and Non-Persisters**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Persister (91)</th>
<th>Non-Persister (111)</th>
<th>Both (202)</th>
<th>( r_{pb} )</th>
<th>Level of Significance</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>Mean</td>
<td>S.D.</td>
<td>Mean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>18.49</td>
<td>4.61</td>
<td>17.91</td>
<td>5.60</td>
<td>18.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>15.71</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>14.92</td>
<td>4.91</td>
<td>15.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>15.45</td>
<td>5.46</td>
<td>15.41</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>15.43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>20.05</td>
<td>6.08</td>
<td>20.23</td>
<td>6.01</td>
<td>20.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>16.14</td>
<td>5.07</td>
<td>15.46</td>
<td>5.42</td>
<td>15.77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>16.15</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>16.17</td>
<td>5.63</td>
<td>16.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>15.24</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>14.62</td>
<td>5.44</td>
<td>14.90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>17.92</td>
<td>4.68</td>
<td>18.18</td>
<td>4.67</td>
<td>18.06</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>16.30</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>15.79</td>
<td>4.83</td>
<td>16.02</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>16.47</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>16.21</td>
<td>7.05</td>
<td>16.33</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Summary

In this study of relationships among individual short-term counseling, scholastic achievement, personality factors, and college persistence, four hypotheses and several corollaries were tested. Analysis of variance and product-moment correlations were the statistical techniques used.

No significant relationships were found between academic achievement and the number of counseling sessions during each semester. A test for independence between college persistence and the three groups receiving a different number
of counseling sessions during each semester showed that thirty-two students persisted in each group. The null hypothesis that no difference exists between the expected and the observed values was accepted.

A few significant relationships were found among the separate traits of the GZTS, academic achievement, and college persistence. For the male students the trait "Friendliness" was significantly related to college persistence, but not in the direction predicted. For the female students none of the relationships between the separate traits and academic achievement were significant. The trait "Emotional Stability" was significantly related to college persistence, but not in the direction predicted.

On the basis of the data, it was interpreted that male persisters tend to be more interested in masculine activities and vocations and are more resistant to fear than male non-persisters. Male students who show more respect for others, who are more tolerant of hostile action, tend to achieve at a higher academic level. Female persisters tend to be more assertive, more competitive and more practical than female non-persisters.
CHAPTER BIBLIOGRAPHY


CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The unprecedented rate of growth in the number and size of America's junior colleges is producing circumstances in which certain dangers are imminent. The very momentum of junior college growth may discourage fundamental inquiry, may stifle awareness of the need to face an increased responsibility for providing effective and adequate counseling, and may perpetuate current practices for lack of critical research.

Counseling is now generally accepted and as one of the fastest growing fields in education. The number of people directly and tangentially involved in it is increasing enormously. However, the values of counseling are still only hazily ascertained. Counseling has been studied from several points of view and many theories have been postulated, but there remains much to be learned about counseling techniques.

Summary

The principal objective of this study was to add to the existing knowledge of counseling "marginally" achieving students on the junior college level. Possible relationships among individual short-term counseling, academic achievement, personality factors, and college persistence were investigated.
to determine the effect of short-term counseling on grade-point average and college mortality.

The personality variables included were the ten traits measured by the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey. Academic achievement was measured by residualized scores; i.e., the difference between the predicted GPA and the earned GPA. College persistence was measured by the completion of two years on the junior college level with the designated number of counseling sessions.

The 207 subjects used in this study were male and female students enrolled during the fall and spring semesters of the academic years 1966-67 and 1967-68 at Del Mar College. These students failed to attain an over-all grade-point average of "C" (2.0) during their first semester in college. They fell within the middle 68 per cent when ranked according to their ACT Summary Analysis Probability score. The subjects were divided into three groups on the basis of ASAP scores. Their ages ranged from 17 to 43 years, with a mean of 19.1. Of the total number of subjects, 93 per cent lived at home with their parents, 4 per cent were apartment residents, 2 per cent were dormitory students, and 1 per cent were home owners. Fifty-four per cent of the subjects worked full or part time.

After the conclusion of the 1968 spring semester the students' GPA's, GZTS scores, and scholastic status
(persisters and non-persisters) were entered on data worksheets. The worksheets were submitted to the Computer Center at North Texas State University for statistical computation.

The general hypothesis of this study was that there are significant relationships among individual short-term counseling, academic achievement, personality factors, and college persistence of students on the junior college level. Four hypotheses were investigated in an effort to gain information relative to the general hypothesis. Two of these hypotheses were divided into several corollaries. In addition to the general information sought, the data were tested for differences that might be accounted for by the sex factor.

Hypothesis I stated that there are significant relationships between academic achievement and those students receiving counseling three times during each semester, those students receiving counseling one time during each semester, and those students not receiving counseling. The F test of significance was used to determine whether the obtained proportions differed significantly. No significant differences were found among the groups. It was concluded that the number of counseling sessions during each semester did not significantly influence academic achievement of those students in this study, as measured by the residualized grade-point average. The null hypothesis was accepted.
Hypothesis II stated that there are significant relationships between college persistence and those students receiving counseling three times each semester, those students receiving counseling one time each semester, and those students not receiving counseling. It was proposed that chi-square would be used to test for independence between college persistence and the number of counseling sessions, but examination of the data showed that thirty-two subjects persisted in each group. On the basis of these data the null hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis III stated that significant relationships would be found to exist between scores earned on the separate traits of the GZTS and academic achievement for the students in this study. The product-moment coefficient of correlation (r) was computed for the male and female students separately and for the total group. Academic achievement was not found to be significantly related to the separate traits of the GZTS for the female students. For the male students only the trait "Friendliness" was found to be significantly related to academic achievement. For the total group, the traits "Friendliness" and "Masculinity" were significantly related (.01 level). The null hypothesis was accepted for Hypothesis III.

Hypothesis IV stated that there are significant relationships between scores earned on the separate traits of
the GZTS and college persistence of the students in this study. In general, very little support was found for Hypothesis IV by testing the ten corollaries. The null hypothesis relating to the general hypothesis was accepted as a result of finding that nine out of ten traits on the GZTS of the female students and nine out of ten traits on the GZTS of the male students were not significantly related to college persistence. For the female students the trait "Emotional Stability" was significantly related to college persistence, but not in the predicted direction. For the male students the trait "Masculinity" was significantly related to college persistence, but not in the predicted direction. Based on these data, an interpretation was made that those female students exhibiting fluctuation of moods, interests, and energy tend to persist in college more than those female students who exhibit restraint, sensitiveness and evenness of moods, interests and energy. Those male students exhibiting more assertiveness, social boldness, independence, detachment, venturesomeness, toughmindedness, and interest in masculine activities tend to persist more than those male students who exhibit more restraint, humility, dependency, and trust. Those male students who show more respect for others, and who are more tolerant of hostile action achieve at a higher academic level, than those male students who are aggressive, competitive, suspicious, practical, and who prefer things to people.
As a whole, the results of the study were interpreted as giving very little support to the general hypothesis. Apparently, insofar as the male and female students in this study are concerned, very few significant relationships exist among individual short-term counseling, academic achievement, certain personality variables, and college persistence. Therefore, it was concluded that a single personality trait or the number of counseling sessions, as used in this study, does not significantly affect college persistence or academic achievement. However, the findings do show that for the male students the trait "Friendliness" is significantly related to academic achievement.

This study has increased the fund of knowledge concerning college persistence, counseling, certain personality variables, academic achievement, and many of the relationships among these variables. The failure to find higher relationships may have been caused by the insensitivity of the criterion measure, i.e., residualized grade-point average.

Findings

The findings of the present study are as follows:

1. Individual short-term counseling is not significantly related to academic achievement, as measured by residualized grade-point average;
2. Individual short-term counseling is not significantly related to college persistence;

3. For the female students the separate traits of the GZTS are not significantly related to academic achievement;

4. For the male students the trait "Friendliness" is significantly related to academic achievement;

5. When the male and female students are combined, the traits "Masculinity" and "Friendliness" are significantly related to academic achievement;

6. For the male students the trait "Masculinity" is significantly related to college persistence;

7. For the female students the trait "Emotional Stability" is significantly related to college persistence.

Conclusions

The major conclusions justified by the findings of the present study are as follows:

1. Individual short-term counseling, as used in this study, is not effective in improving the academic achievement of "marginally" achieving junior college students.

2. Individual short-term counseling, as used in this study, is not effective in improving the college persistence of "marginally" achieving junior college students.

3. Personality traits, as measured by the GZTS, are not effective in predicting the academic achievement of "marginally" achieving junior college students.
4. Personality traits, as measured by the GZTS, are not effective in predicting the college persistence of "marginally" achieving junior college students.

Recommendations

Based on the foregoing conclusions, these recommendations are submitted:

1. The present study used only those students who failed to make an over-all "C" average during their first semester in college, and who made ASAP scores between twenty-five and fifty. Further research should be undertaken to determine if short-term counseling is effective with students having other levels of academic ability.

2. The present study found that some of the personality traits of the GZTS were significantly related to academic achievement and college persistence. Further research, using other personality instruments, should be undertaken to determine the feasibility of using personality variables to predict college persistence and academic achievement on the junior college level.

3. In working with the "marginally" achieving student to improve college persistence and academic achievement, counseling should not be limited to short-term counseling, as defined in this study.
4. Further research, using male and female students separately, should be undertaken to determine if short-term counseling is effective in improving academic achievement and college persistence.
BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books


Rogers, Carl R., Client-Centered Therapy, Boston, Houghton Mifflin, 1951.


Articles


Critchfield, Jack B. and Percival W. Hutson, "Validity of the Personality Record," College and University, XL (Fall, 1964), 41.

Drasgow, James, "Underachievers," Journal of Counseling Psychology, IV (Fall, 1957), 210-211.


Eurich, A. C., "Improvement in Scholarship During the Probationary Period," School and Society, XXXV (1932), 129-134.


Hendrix, Oscar R., "The Effect of Special Advising on Achievement of Freshmen With Low Predicted Grades," *Personnel and Guidance Journal*, XLIV (October, 1965), 185-188.


Strabel, E., "What About Warned Students?" School and Society, XLII (October, 1935), 581-584.


Reports
