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DESCRIPTION AND ANALYSIS OF CHANGE IN SELECTED  
PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS OF  
GUIDANCE ASSOCIATE TRAINEES

DISSERTATION

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By

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This study is a description and analysis of change in selected personality characteristics of junior-level undergraduates in the first phase of the curriculum for the Guidance Associate degree at North Texas State University.

The first chapter includes the introduction, statement of the problem, purposes of the study, statement of the hypotheses, background and significance, definition of terms, limitations, basic assumptions, and procedures for collecting data.

The second chapter is a review of studies pertaining to personality characteristics of counselors, implications for future training, and use of support personnel in work settings related to guidance.

The third chapter describes the population being studied, the instruments used to measure the personality characteristics of the trainees, and procedures for treatment of the data.

The fourth chapter presents an analysis of the data gathered for the study and a discussion of the findings.

The fifth and final chapter presents a summary of the study, findings, conclusions, and recommendations pertaining to future research in the guidance associate program.

The subjects in this study were thirty-three guidance associate trainees who comprised the experimental group and thirty-six secondary education students who comprised the comparison group. The California Psychological Inventory, the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, and the Personal Concept Scale were administered to both groups in pretest and posttest settings at the beginning and conclusion of the 1972-73 academic year. A rating scale was employed to determine how effectively the trainees demonstrated the characteristics measured by the selected test instruments. The analysis-of-covariance technique was used to analyze the data statistically.

Significant change was found to take place in two personality characteristic groupings during the nine-month period. The trainees became significantly more persuasive, self-confident, and self-assuring. Congruence between actual and ideal self-concepts also increased significantly during this period.

On the basis of the posttest scores in the experimental group, the trainees were found to be aggressive, confident, and persistent. They were ambitious, forceful, insightful,

versatile, permissive, accepting, tolerant, and resourceful. They were also mature, strong, independent, and self-reliant.

Although the personality characteristic ratings did not correlate to any appreciable degree with the test scores, there was a correlation of .65 between the ratings and the final grades of the trainees in the affective segment of the curriculum. Thus it can be assumed that such a rating scale can be used by competent raters to predict with some degree of accuracy the ability of trainees to demonstrate related behavioral competencies in an academic setting.

The results of the study indicate need for the following recommendations:

(1) A test instrument should be utilized that is more sensitive in reflecting the changes in personality characteristics that occur during the acquisition and demonstration of behavioral competencies.

(2) The trainees should continue to be involved in activities that increase self-awareness and the awareness of others. These activities should include growth-group experiences on a regular basis and a more consistent use of triads for personalized instruction.

(3) Follow-up studies on trainee personality characteristics should be conducted within the guidance associate program. Such studies should be longitudinal in nature if at all possible.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Many efforts have been made in recent years to create and examine more viable approaches for the preparation of guidance workers. Much research has been devoted to the discovery and measurement of personality characteristics of effective counselors. A more recent innovation has been an integrated undergraduate program for the preparation of support personnel in a guidance setting. The Guidance and Counseling Staff of the Division of Counselor Education at North Texas State University has published A Monograph For The Preparation Of Guidance Associates And Professional Counselors Within The Framework Of A Competency-Based Program (5). This publication introduced the concept of a career ladder as a suitable structure on which a fully functioning guidance training program can be built.

A pilot project was initiated at North Texas embracing the principles stated in the monograph. The project became an undergraduate curriculum for a Guidance Associate Degree. Thirty-three junior-level students were enrolled in the first phase of this curriculum. They were being trained to work in a guidance-related setting as support personnel to guidance specialists and supervisors. These students had completed a

community college program or at least two years of a college or university curriculum. They were recruited for this junior-senior-level training program because of their interest in the field of guidance and their desire to have a foundation in behavioral sciences and guidance education.

### Statement of the Problem

The problem under investigation was a description and analysis of change in selected personality characteristics deemed necessary for the effective performance of the guidance associate. The students that comprised the experimental group in this study were enrolled in the first phase of the undergraduate curriculum designed for the Guidance Associate degree. The personality characteristics evaluated were among those included in a comprehensive list of personality characteristics described in A Monograph For The Preparation Of Guidance Associates And Professional Counselors Within The Framework Of A Competency-Based Program (5).

### Purposes of the Study

The purposes of this study were (1) to measure and describe the personality characteristics of students involved in the initial phase of the curriculum designed for the guidance associate in pretest and posttest settings at the beginning and at the conclusion of the 1972-73 academic year and (2) to treat in an identical manner the same personality characteristics of a group of secondary education

students at the junior level that comprised a comparison group for this study.

Eight personality characteristic groupings were selected for analysis in this study: (1) aggressive, confident, persistent attitudes, (2) ambitious, forceful, insightful, and versatile attitudes, (3) persuasive, self-confident, and self-assuring attitudes, (4) planful, responsible, conscientious, and dependable attitudes which are alert to ethical and moral issues, (5) permissive, accepting, tolerant, and self-reliant attitudes, (7) open, accepting, non-judgmental, and non-prejudicial attitudes, and (8) a high degree of congruence between the actual and ideal self-concept.

The first phase of the undergraduate curriculum presented the following areas of study: (1) an awareness of self and other individuals, (2) the role of the guidance worker, (3) controversial issues, (4) career education, and (5) test and non-test appraisal methods of assessment. The teaching techniques utilized in this phase differed somewhat from traditional methods.

Sensory awareness exercises were utilized to enhance the unit of awareness of self and others. Regularly scheduled growth groups were utilized to enhance an understanding of the dynamics of the group process and to facilitate constructive communication among individuals on a more personal level under the leadership of graduate interns. Triads and quadrads were utilized to create

opportunities for more personalized instruction. Modeling and role playing in triads and quadrads under the supervision of interns allowed the students to demonstrate their understanding of basic guidance concepts introduced in more formal classroom settings.

### Hypotheses

To carry out the purposes of this study, eight hypotheses were formulated. At the conclusion of this research project, the following conditions will exist:

1. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Dominance Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.
2. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Capacity for Status Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.
3. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Self-Acceptance Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.
4. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Responsibility Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

5. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Tolerance Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

6. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Achievement via Independence Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

7. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

8. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Personal Concept Scale will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

### Background and Significance

The personality characteristics of counselors is a subject that has been given much research in the literature but it has proved to be a most illusive concept to be grasped. The search for a characteristic personality pattern deemed to be advisable in counselors seemed to follow an earlier search for a desirable personality pattern for teachers. The search began enthusiastically, but ended in skepticism, for the evaluation of the effectiveness of a counselor proved to be very difficult. There continues to

be much written about what the counselor should be like, but unlike earlier writings devoted to an extensive listing of traits, the current emphasis is focused on the total personality of the counselor.

During recent years there has been much research comparing personality differences between counselors and other professional groups including studies by Stefflre and Leafgren (12), Kemp (9), Whetstone (15), and Foley and Proff (4). Personality changes occurring during counselor training institutes have also been studied by such men as Jones (8), Demos and Zuwaylif (3), Munger, Myers, and Brown (10), Webb and Harris (14), and Wrightsman, Richard, and Noble (17).

Research on the use of support personnel in a guidance setting is increasing in volume and reflects the popularity of this concept among guidance personnel. The American Personnel and Guidance Association in 1967 published a statement of policy on the role and preparation of support personnel for counselors (1). Issues pertinent to the training and use of support personnel have been discussed by Hansen (7), Patterson (11), Wrenn (16), Gust (6), and Strowig (13). The use of counselor aides and their function in community colleges has also been explored by Beal (2).

While there have been many studies concerning personality characteristics of counselors and some experimental studies concerning support personnel in guidance settings, the present study has combined some elements of both in an

attempt to describe and analyze the change in selected personality characteristics deemed necessary for effective guidance associates. It was assumed that this change would be brought about by a competency-based undergraduate curriculum designed for training guidance associates.

#### Definition of Terms

This study pertained strictly to the guidance associate as defined below:

The guidance associate has completed the community college two year academic transfer program or at least two years of a college or university curriculum. This person is presently involved in the first year of a junior-senior-level training program designed specifically to prepare guidance associates (5, p. 3).

#### Limitations of the Study

This study was limited by the fact that the students involved in the Guidance Associate program, which comprised the experimental group, were only thirty-three in number. While they came from varying backgrounds, this group did not necessarily constitute a random sample of students pursuing these educational goals.

Another limitation was the fact that the secondary education students which comprised a comparison group for this research design were not a random sample of secondary education students at the junior level at North Texas State University. This had significant bearing on the statistical

treatment used in the analysis of the research data generated by this study.

### Basic Assumptions

It was assumed that the subjects responded honestly to the test instruments utilized in this study. It was further assumed that their responses were made from their own knowledge and perception and not to some hypothetical construct involving ideal responses to the instruments.

### Procedures for Collecting Data

The California Psychological Inventory, the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, and the Personal Concept Scale were administered to the students involved in the Guidance Associate program (the experimental group) and to a group of junior-level secondary education students (the comparison group) at the beginning of the fall semester. These test scores were designated as the pretest data for both groups. These same instruments were administered to both groups at the conclusion of the spring semester and these test scores comprised the posttest data.

A scale was designed to rate how effectively the trainees demonstrated the characteristics measured by the test instruments. Professors and interns at both the doctoral and masters level involved in the guidance associate program rated the trainees at the conclusion of the academic year.

In preparing the data for statistical analysis, a numbering system was devised as the only form of personal identification in order to insure confidentiality.

### Organization of the Study

The second chapter, "Review of the Literature," includes studies pertaining to (1) personality characteristics of counselors, (2) implications for future training, and (3) training and use of support personnel.

The third chapter, "Procedures of the Study," includes a description of the instruments and research studies in which they have been used. Also included is a description of methods of obtaining the data and statistical treatment of the data.

The fourth chapter, "Presentation of the Data," reports the findings involved in this research.

The fifth and final chapter deals with a summary of the study, findings, and recommendations pertaining to the training of guidance support personnel.

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## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

A comprehensive review of the literature related to this study revealed research broad in scope. It was therefore necessary to organize and classify the research into three categories: (1) personality characteristics of counselors, (2) implications of research for future training, and (3) training and use of support personnel.

#### Personality Characteristics of Counselors

Authors from various theoretical positions have recognized that some persons are more helpful to their fellow humans in moments of personal stress than are others with equally good intentions. Something about these special persons seems to resonate to the feelings of confusion and distress that persons in trouble feel. Allen and Whiteley have observed that this belief has a corollary lodged deep in the prevailing views concerning counseling. The personality of the counselor, the kind of human being he is, is a prepotent factor in determining his professional competence (3, p. 3).

Much research has been devoted to discovering personality traits that are instrumental in the development of a

good counselor. In 1964, the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision published a report which stated that counselors should have six basic qualities: (1) belief in each individual, (2) commitment to individual human values, (3) alertness to the world, (4) open-mindedness, (5) understanding of self, and (6) professional commitment (4, pp. 537-538). Hamrin and Paulson reported a study in which ninety-one counselors listed traits which facilitated counseling. In order of frequency these traits were (1) understanding, (2) sympathetic attitude, (3) friendliness, (4) sense of humor, (5) stability, (6) patience, (7) objectivity, (8) sincerity, (9) tact, (10) fairness, (11) tolerance, (12) neatness, (13) calmness, (14) broadmindedness, (15) kindness, (16) pleasantness, (17) social intelligence, and (18) poise (23, p. 323).

In a study of counselor traits, Hill and Green reported that Hitchcock (26), Wrenn (61), Tooker (55), and Hobbs (27) all emphasized the general personality pattern of the counselor. It was also noted that as yet there are no effective devices for estimating the potential of any prospective counselor.

Two generalizations are warranted from these varied studies of characteristics of counselors: (a) the complexity of both the counseling process and other activities of guidance and personnel workers is too great to expect clear cut or standardized personality definitions for effective workers; (b) evaluations of effectiveness in counseling under carefully controlled conditions, though they probably cannot provide conclusive evidence regarding traits of counselors in general, will continue to provide suggestive leads to

fundamental research that is needed in the field of the selection of counselors (25, pp. 118-119).

Johnson, Shertzer, Linden, and Stone made an extensive study of counselor candidate characteristics, but found that male and female candidates were described differently. Effective male counselors were characterized as confident, friendly, affable, accepting, and likeable. Other adjectives such as honest, conscientious, cooperative, outgoing, sociable, warm, efficient, capable, verbally fluent, resourceful, and concerned with being liked and accepted, also applied. Effective female counselor candidates were seen as outgoing, efficient, assertive, and person- rather than object-oriented. They were also described as responsibility seeking, highly verbal and able to work well with others. They appeared to like people, but tended to relate to them from a persuasive rather than a helping orientation (32, pp. 301-302).

The listing of descriptive adjectives was only one method of research used. In many studies counselors were compared with other professional groups in an attempt to isolate unique traits. However, such efforts produced no significant results. Holt (30) and Cody and Knock (14) produced examples of this type of research. Hobart Mowrer, in an article dealing with the training of psychotherapists, stated that personal maturity was the most important characteristic for counselors, but he also stated that there was no valid method by which this construct could be assessed (41).

Another method of research was the technique of developing personality constructs applicable to effective counselors. Wicas and Mahan, in a study of high-rated versus low-rated counselors stated that superior counselors are anxious, sensitive to the expectations of others and society, patient and non-aggressive in interpersonal relationships, concerned about social progress but always with appropriate self-control. It was pointed out that counselors reject contemplation and receptivity to inner experience and that there is also a danger that they will not persist in the face of opposition. They have a highly conservative nature with regard to their orientation toward social problems (59, pp. 54-55). Grater, Kell, and Morse reported that counselors develop patterns of relationships that tend to produce a certain amount of isolation, emotional distance, and loneliness. Thus both nurturance and emotional distance are referred to as counselor qualities (17, p. 11). This corroborates Fielder's assertion (15) that one of the factors differentiating the expert from the non-expert therapist is the expert's ability to maintain appropriate emotional distance in the therapeutic relationship.

Polymantier identified certain personality variables that have been given considerable emphasis. They are tolerance for ambiguity, reduction of dogmatism, ability to perceive self and others realistically, empathy, emotional stability, and expression of self (44, p. 96).

In an analysis of counselors' sub-roles by means of 165 interviews, Hoffman (29) determined that a standardized personality pattern for the effective counselor was a figment of the imagination because of the amazing variety of behaviors used by counselors.

Shertzer and Stone have observed that as the number of personality traits reached unwieldy proportions with no effective results, researchers began to think more in terms of personality patterns in order to develop any unique concept of a counselor. The literature relating to counselor characteristics now appears to fall into two categories: (1) identification of counselor characteristics and (2) measurement of characteristics that might distinguish effective counselors from ineffective counselors (51, p. 143). Webb and Rochester have pointed out that it is much easier to enumerate the desirable characteristics of counselors than it is to choose individuals who now have those characteristics or who would be expected to have them when their education is complete (58, p. 313).

The research has suggested that counselors can be differentiated from non-counselors in terms of variables other than intellectual by means of some standardized instruments that are available, but these instruments frequently lack efficiency in discriminating between effective and ineffective counselors. Brams supported this contention when he stated that many objective test instruments are not

suitable for personality measurement of test sophisticated students in the area of counseling psychology (8, p. 30).

Shertzer and Stone observed that an overriding conclusion to be drawn from a review of the literature pertaining to personality characteristics and counseling effectiveness is that findings thus far have been inconclusive, often conflicting, and that additional research is needed (51, p. 158).

### Summary

The search for personality characteristics that describe effective counselors has not been fruitless, but researchers have discovered that the listing of traits which supposedly define the counselor's personality is not a complete solution to the problem. It appears that identification of personality patterns conducive to counselor effectiveness could be a rewarding area of research. Although research results thus far in this area have been limited, further research is needed so that counselor educators can better operationally define the behaviors that are conducive to counselor effectiveness.

### Implications for Future Training

The thrust of much current research concerning counselor characteristics has been directed toward training procedures that will enhance certain traits deemed necessary for the effective counselor. It was hypothesized by McClain that increased accuracy in self-understanding should

enable counselors to function more effectively in both their professional and their personal roles (40, p. 299). Kaul and Schmidt recommended that the training of counselors should include specific attention to the manner of communication in counseling as well as to the content of the counselor's communications (35, p. 548).

Brown, in a study comparing personality characteristics with performance in supervised counseling interviews, reported that performance in counseling is related to the verbal ability of the counselor trainees. Also, outgoing behavior in social activities and settings helps persons to perform effectively in counseling interviews in the initial counselor training programs (9, p. 810). Abeles, in a similar study, concluded that flexibility and permissiveness were desirable in training programs (1, p. 2205). Jackson and Thompson hypothesized that counselor trainees who wish to become effective need to work on personal attitude change and self-analysis at least as much as they do on counseling techniques (31, p. 253).

Patterson dealt with the issue of moral attitudes and values of the effective counselor. He maintained that the values of the counselor do enter the counseling relationship. Freed from the feeling that it is necessary or desirable for the counselor to be neutral, the counselor can better accept his own values and express them when it is appropriate in the counseling relationship. This approach contributes to the openness of the counseling relationship, without

violating its client-centeredness (43, p. 222). Halberg, in 1971, emphasized the process that must be conveyed in counselor education.

This medium is exceedingly important to us, for in preparing a counselor we are involved primarily in transmitting a process, not content. Unlike some other disciplines, such as chemistry or mathematics, where human interaction is generally the means of transmitting content, in counseling it is the process that is the message. That message is supported, modified, and reinforced by content (22, p. 198).

Thomas Gunnings recently stated that there should be an entirely new emphasis in counselor education. The counselor should be trained to bring about changes in the system since most of the problems brought to counselors are those perpetuated by the existing system. The counselor must learn to deal with persons in our society who have disregard for others and who attempt to deny them their human existence. Counselor trainees must not become protectors of the system, but innovators who are striving to make this a better world for all (19, p. 100). It was also pointed out by Siegel that the counselor has an additional responsibility to understand the background and training of the people with whom he works. His impact upon students will be greater when he is conversant with what the student is currently studying. "All his non-directive techniques will lead to positive results when the aims of both the student and the teacher are understood" (52, pp. 309-310).

There has been a noticeable shift in research from personality traits to concepts that can be operationally

defined and conveyed to trainees. These concepts can also be tested out by setting up behavioral competencies to be achieved by the counselor trainees. Sprinthall researched the concept of cognitive flexibility.

Cognitive flexibility appears as a critical concept in regard to counselor competence. We hold that effective counselor behavior results from the ability to remain cognitively flexible, to promote an open and searching examination of many perceptual and action possibilities. The central idea is that the counselor's repertoire of behavior is varied according to the counselor's preconceived structuring of the case. The concept of flexibility-rigidity is seen as the determining influence on the counselor's ability to respond to the varied modes through which the client presents himself (53, p. 195).

The implication of the flexibility-rigidity concept, pointed out by Allen and Whiteley, is that the flexible counselor responds to both the content and feeling which the client communicates. The rigid counselor, unable to respond to the demands of the interaction with the client, construes the situation in his own frame of reference. This might lead the counselor to seek premature closure in that he would tune out additional responses by the client. By maintaining this concept of flexibility, the counselor can avoid either excessive structuring or the complete ambiguity of non-direction. This approach implies a less arbitrary position with regard to the many enumerations of prescribed counseling methods and techniques (3, pp. 43-43).

Research supporting this concept has been reported by Cahoon (12), Kemp (36), and Russo, Kelz, and Hudson (49). Allen, writing in 1967, reported that highly dogmatic or

less open counselors are more prone to distort data being gathered in the counseling relationship because of difficulties in self-communication (2). Studies by Rokeach (48) and Tosi, Fagan, and Frumkin (56), have indicated that highly dogmatic persons are characterized by more defensive behavior, insecurity, and threat under variable conditions than are less dogmatic persons.

The quality of the counseling relationship has been emphasized as a necessary condition for achieving successful counseling outcomes. Rogers (47), Brammer and Shostrom (7), and Hobbs (28) have contributed research in this area. Research has also demonstrated that in effective counseling relationships, certain conditions such as empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard exist in the counselors. The work of Lesser (37), Barrett-Lennard (5), Kamin, and Caughlin (34), and Gross and DeRidder (18) support this contention. Carkhuff (13) has shown that these conditions are especially significant during the initial stages of counseling.

### Summary

The results of many research studies have pointed toward new innovations in the training of effective counselors. Two concepts which seem to be potentially productive are those of cognitive flexibility and psychological openness. These concepts cut across all lines of counseling theory and can thus become tools of training regardless of

the supervisor's theoretical orientation. Much research has been generated in this area, reflecting its current popularity. The quality of the counseling relationship is another area that has achieved attention from researchers, but this lends itself more readily to the practicum experience than to pre-practicum training which occurs in the classroom.

#### Training and Use of Support Personnel

As early as 1962, in his book, The Counselor in the Changing World, Wrenn observed that the school counselor will continue to exist at several levels of development and competency. But not all will become masters. Journeyman and apprentices, he contended, would continue to outnumber the fully qualified counselors in terms of their qualifications and education. He went on to point out that unless the highest standards are established for the profession, there can be no clearly defined program for either the qualified master counselor or the journeyman (60, pp. 163-164).

The movement toward the use of support personnel had begun to take shape. William Brown's recent research (10) pointed out the potentialities inherent in assigning counseling responsibilities to support personnel receiving only limited training. Paul Munger, president of the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision in 1968 favored the use of support personnel.

There now appears to be a need for overworked counselors to examine ways in which they can utilize support personnel. Some counselors have claimed that they have been so busy with scheduling, placement, and testing that they have not been able to find time to do individual or group counseling. Perhaps support personnel can be trained to help with the routine related tasks (42, p. 81).

Patterson has stated that the professional counselor should be freed of non-counseling duties so that he can function as a counselor (20, p. 153).

Gust has been skeptical of the use of support personnel. He stated that there is uncertainty in present preparation emphases for support personnel which, if implemented, would represent an encroachment upon the function of counseling by the counselor. This uncertainty, he contends, can ultimately damage the role of the professional counselor (20, p. 153).

Jones and Cox recently pointed out that proper use, supervision, and training of support personnel, if they are to be used in substantial numbers, should become an integral part of counselor education programs (33, pp. 54-55). This contention is also supported by Brown (10, p. 82). This step is deemed necessary in order to avoid the problem of role confusion that could develop between the counselor and support personnel. The problem of role confusion with regard to support personnel has been considered serious by Hansen (24) and Salim and Vogan (50). Although Patterson added his blessing to the training of support personnel in the guidance field in an article written in 1965, he expressed fear

that if potential counselors were selected for such positions, they would soon leave for other positions or would not be satisfied in the work to which they would be limited (44, p. 146).

In an extensive project involving the development and implementation of a paraprofessional role of counselor assistant in a secondary school setting, Salim and Vogan noted some interesting results. The project met the stated goals at a high level of clinical significance. It was discovered that many activities which contemporary counselors perform can be assumed by support personnel. The whole project was viewed as a more efficient division of labor in the school setting (50, pp. 227-236). Truax also reported significant work carried out by support personnel.

Research on the effective use of support personnel at the Hot Springs Rehabilitation Center suggested that even untrained non-professionals, selected on no special basis other than the judgment of counseling personnel on the staff, could be as effective or more effective in the role of counselor than master's degree-level professional counselors. That same study also provided evidence that the non-professional counselors proved of greatest benefit to clients (in terms of a number of measures of vocational rehabilitation progress) when they were supervised informally on a one-to-one basis with professional counselors yet handled their own case-loads alone (57, p. 12).

It is significant that in an article on innovation in pre-practicum training, Prusok and Felker discussed some of the techniques being presently utilized in the pilot project at North Texas State University. They stated that the development of individual counseling styles and self

exploration should transcend the understanding and comprehension of counseling theory for beginning counselors. This development and exploration could be initiated by the use of counseling dyads. Dyads were composed of counselor and counselee. No reversal of roles was allowed, but the formation of new dyads allowed each student to experience the roles of both counselor and counselee. It was observed that dyadic counseling presents students with the opportunity to relate real concerns, to develop insight into individual difficulties, and to begin testing their individual styles (46, p. 226).

An article written by Boyle in 1971 supports the sensory awareness approach toward training used in the North Texas project. Boyle contended that certain humanistic, interpersonal qualities embodied in the counselor and communicated to the client are significant antecedents to constructive personality change. There are a number of methods which might be used as a means for helping beginning counselors to learn these experiential-feeling qualities. Boyle also pointed out that since most of these methods have evolved from the field of human relations training, the counselor educator should give careful consideration to the applicability of new methods being developed and to the development of a basic competency in this realm of the applied behavioral sciences (6, p. 33).

The use of group counseling techniques in the classroom, another innovation in the North Texas project, was studied

by Stephenson in a 1972 doctoral dissertation. He reported that group counseling experiences proved effective in facilitating the growth of education students in inner-directedness, existentiality, spontaneity, capacity for intimate contact, self-disclosure, and the discrimination of facilitative communication (54, p. 6771A). In a study designed to determine the differential effects for differing types of group training on undergraduate students, the regular classroom experience appeared to either inhibit or at best made little difference in interpersonal skills acquisition and the growth toward greater self-actualization in the majority of subjects in this condition when compared to subjects in group training using trained leaders (11, p. 733A).

Martin and Carkhuff in 1968 reported that a systematically implemented program integrating both the didactic and experiential aspects of training can over a short period of time lead to significant improvement in interpersonal functioning and to constructive personality change in general. Those receiving training changed in a constructive direction significantly more than those in a teaching-control group (39, p. 110). This study gives further support to the thrust and focus of the North Texas pilot project.

Malcolm recently designed a two year program of counselor education. He stated that in the fall semester of the first year, the thrust should be toward experiences that make the semester intensely personal, even painful if

necessary. The emphasis should be on understanding the dynamics of human behavior, including that of the trainees. All courses should emphasize the personal implications for the trainees. Small groups as an instructional method should be used extensively and each person should be required to participate in group sessions that meet at regularly scheduled times during the semester (38, p. 177).

In a similar vein, Hackney developed a pre-practicum counseling skills model in 1971. In this study, it was the author's contention that prior to the practicum experience a laboratory experience should be provided for trainees with the following objectives: reducing social behavior inappropriate to professional counseling, learning to tolerate and use silence as a tool, learning to listen, learning to identify feelings through verbal and nonverbal communication, developing a repertoire of counselor responses and strategies, and developing a professional self-image. If these goals are achieved prior to the practicum experience, a professional model for practicum can be designed that focuses upon the accumulation of experience rather than skills (21, p. 102). The problem of evaluation in competency-based education has been recently studied by Getz and others. It was stated that paper-and-pencil tests are inappropriate for the evaluation of competencies which can only be inferred from objective measures. Assessment should be based entirely upon overt performances by the students. But these procedures

should enable the students to engage in relatively high levels of cognitive activity. Teachers should be able to demonstrate skill in analyzing, interpreting, and evaluating these competencies (16, p. 301).

### Summary

Although some professionals are reluctant to completely endorse the use of support personnel in a guidance setting, most research generated in the area thus far has produced positive results. There is a definite role to be filled by the paraprofessional. The basic concern is how shall this person be trained. Enthusiasm is growing for the use of methods which assist the beginning counselor in learning experiential-feeling qualities necessary in effective counseling. There is also agreement that a combination of both the experiential and didactic aspects of training can be used effectively in a fairly short-term training module. It is gratifying that the teaching methods being used in the North Texas State University project can be substantially supported by current research in this field.

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## CHAPTER III

### PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

#### Description of the Population

The population utilized in this study consisted of two groups of students at North Texas State University. Thirty-three junior-level students enrolled in the first phase of an undergraduate curriculum for the training of guidance associates comprised the experimental group. These students had completed a community college program or at least two years of a college or university curriculum. They were recruited for this training program because of their interest in the field of guidance and their desire to have a foundation in behavioral sciences and guidance education. The comparison group consisted of thirty-six junior-level students enrolled in a secondary education curriculum. Both groups were classified as intact groups. There was no randomization involved in their selection.

#### Description of Instruments

The following instruments were utilized in this study: (1) the California Psychological Inventory (CPI), (2) the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale (RDS), and (3) the Personal Concept Scale (PCS).

### California Psychological Inventory

The CPI was designed to measure the characteristics of personality which have a wide, pervasive applicability to human behavior, and which in addition are related to the favorable and positive aspects of personality rather than to the morbid and pathological. Its scales have been addressed principally to personality characteristics important for social interaction and social living. It has found most general use in schools, colleges, clinics, and counseling agencies whose clientele consist mainly of socially functioning individuals (7, p. 5). There are eighteen scales that constitute the CPI. Six of these scales were chosen for use in this study: (1) Dominance, (2) Capacity for Status, (3) Self-Acceptance, (4) Responsibility, (5) Tolerance, and (6) Achievement via Independence. The reliability of these six scales range from .32 to .48 as reported in the CPI manual. These specific scales were chosen because they have been found valid and reliable in previous research studies and because they measure several of the personality characteristics described as objectives for guidance associates to attain and demonstrate.

The Dominance Scale assesses aggressive, confident, persistent attitudes. The Capacity for Status Scale indicates ambitious, forceful, insightful, and versatile attitudes. The Self-Acceptance Scale assesses persuasive, self-confident, and self-assuring attitudes. The Responsibility Scale

measures planful, responsible, conscientious, and dependable attitudes that are alert to ethical and moral issues. The Tolerance Scale assesses permissive, accepting, tolerant, and resourceful attitudes. The Achievement via Independence Scale measures mature, strong, independent, and self-reliant attitudes (7, pp. 10-11).

In a study correlating CPI traits with academic achievement, Griffin and Flaherty determined that five of the six scales mentioned above (Dominance, Capacity for Status, Self-Acceptance, Responsibility, and Achievement via Independence) were found to correlate significantly with quality point ratios, CEEB and SAT scores (8, p. 371). In another study by Flaherty, a group of leaders determined upon the basis of sociometric ratings, scored significantly higher than did the non-leaders on several CPI scales. Dominance and Self-Acceptance were significant at the .001 level and Capacity for Status showed significance at the .05 level (10, p. 377). In another study involving high and low achievers, Flaherty and Reutzel determined that all six of the traits (Dominance, Capacity for Status, Self-Acceptance, Responsibility, Tolerance, and Achievement via Independence) were found to be significantly higher for the high achievers. The results of this study indicated that these scales may be used as possible non-academic prediction of achievement (5, p. 411).

The CPI was used by Dlabal and Hansen to determine if teachers who worked with culturally deprived children have personality characteristics that distinguish them from teachers who work with children who live in better areas. The results showed that teachers who liked working with culturally deprived children scored significantly higher at the five per cent level of confidence on the Dominance, Capacity for Status, Self-Acceptance, Tolerance, and Achievement via Independence scales of the CPI (2, p. 223).

It would be unrealistic to present only studies with positive results. Jackson set out to test the CPI by appraising the role of consistent response determinants or sets attributable to style rather than to specific item content. Acquiescence and the tendency to respond in a socially desirable direction, two quite prominent response styles, were selected for study. The hypothesis that acquiescence is a major source of variance in the CPI was supported (12, p. 345). In a study of residence hall counselors, the CPI failed to discriminate between the better and poorer graduate assistant serving as counselors (26, p. 151).

Mordock and Patterson utilized six of the CPI scales (Sociability, Social Presence, Self-Acceptance, Tolerance, Intellectual Efficiency, and Flexibility to detect personality differences of counseling students at various levels of training. It was hypothesized that there would be favorable

progression of scores on these scales with increased training and that scores on the second administration would be more favorable than those on the first. There was a general increase in scoring means from one level to the next, but all of the differences between levels were not significant. The posttest means showed no consistent or large increases from the pretest means, and none of the differences were significant. The hypothesis that scores would increase following a period of training was not confirmed (19, pp. 266-268).

In a 1966 study on the Dominance Scale of the CPI, subjects high and low in dominance were selected by use of the CPI and were confronted with a simulated industrial task best solved by one person using a leadership role and others following instructions. When leadership was emphasized, the high scorers on the Dominance Scale assumed the leader role in ninety per cent of the pairs. It was concluded that the Dominance Scale of the CPI has predictive validity when leadership is made salient (17, p. 91). Vincent contended that the various dimensions of self-concept are inferred variables which can be studied indirectly by means of self-report personality instruments. It was hypothesized that there would be a significant positive relationship among tests utilizing similar or identical labels. The only CPI scale that correlated significantly with any of the other scales in the study was the Self-Acceptance Scale (30, pp. 915-917).

The CPI was administered at the beginning and at the end of the freshman year to 156 female college students in a study by Wessell and Flaherty. Scores on the Capacity for Status Scale, the Social Presence Scale, the Self-Acceptance Scale and the Achievement via Independence Scale were found to be significantly higher after one year of college. Scores for the Sense of Well-Being Scale, the Socialization Scale, the Communality of Response Scale and the Femininity Scale showed a significant drop after one year exposure to college (31, p. 238).

#### Rokeach Dogmatism Scale

The Rokeach Dogmatism Scale (RDS) was designed to measure a variable in personality which was designated in terms of open-mindedness/closed-mindedness. Rokeach posited a basic personality variable that is a relatively consistent and measurable dimension of a person's cognitive functioning in normal life situations. He suggested that a person may be placed along a continuum of open-mindedness/closed-mindedness according to the structure of his belief systems (27, p. 328). The final form was found to have a suitable reliability, ranging from .68 to .93. Rokeach also proved that the scale measures authoritarianism and general intolerance independent of ideological content. This helped to establish construct validity for the RDS (22, pp. 117-118). In this study the RDS indicated tolerant, open, accepting, non-judgmental, and non-prejudicial attitudes.

Hanson's 1970 analysis of dogmatism scores among authoritarians of both the left and right supported Rokeach's contention that his scale taps general authoritarianism (11, p. 585). In a recent doctoral dissertation, Milgroom compared the dogmatism scores of graduate education students with graduate students in counselor education. Counselor trainees were less dogmatic than teacher trainees after a year of graduate training. The results were significant at the .01 level (18, p. 611A). Kemp has shown that counselors with a high dogmatism scale score respond in a counseling situation with significantly more evaluative, probing, and diagnostic responses than do open-minded counselors. Understanding and supportive responses are significantly less frequent for the close-minded counselor and he possesses considerably more anxiety (13, p. 157).

Foulds correlated scores on the RDS with ratings of levels of facilitative conditions offered during counseling for thirty graduate students in a beginning practicum. Trained judges rated the levels of empathic understanding, respect, and facilitative genuineness the students gave to their clients. The results showed no significant relationships among the variables under investigation (6, p. 110). In a doctoral dissertation concerning the relationship of tolerance-intolerance of ambiguity to dogmatism, Bates reported that evidence did not confirm the assumption that the more dogmatic individuals were intolerant of ambiguity (1, p. 2311A).

In a study of tolerance of ambiguity among counselors Gruberg stated that counselors having high tolerance of ambiguity are rated by counselor educators as being more effective in their skills of responding to client statements than are counselors having low tolerance of ambiguity (9, p. 123). Several studies have indicated that less open or highly dogmatic persons are characterized by more defensive behavior, insecurity, and threat under a variety of conditions than low-dogmatic persons. Two of the studies were produced by Kemp (13) and Tosi, Fagan, and Frumkin (28). The factorial structure of the RDS was investigated by Parrott in 1971. Using orthogonal varimax rotation, a clearer separation of dogmatism and rigidity was shown in support of Rokeach's theory (21, p. 135).

In another study of authoritarianism by Larsen and Schwendiman, it was suggested that the motivation underlying the authoritarian syndrome of traits is an attempt to maintain security in an environment which is perceived as threatening. It was also confirmed that low self-esteem is an integral part of the authoritarian syndrome. Low self-esteem was hypothesized as a fundamental motivation for the set of behavior patterns characteristic of a highly authoritarian person (15, pp. 229-230).

### Personal Concept Scale

The Personal Concept Scale (PCS) was created by Schieffer and Koeppen in an unpublished manuscript in 1970 (25). The PCS was designed to measure the discrepancy between a person's perception of self and his ideal perception of self. It utilizes the semantic differential technique originated by Osgood (20). Endler has reported that the semantic differential technique is a reliable and valid method for measuring the connotative meaning of concepts (4). Utilizing this semantic differential technique, Schieffer reported change in the discrepancy scores between self-concept and ideal self-concept as measured by the PCS to be significant at the .001 level in a doctoral dissertation completed in 1971 (24). The test-retest reliability coefficient for the original scale was .79 over a two week period, involving ninety-four undergraduate psychology students at North Texas State University as test subjects. The test-retest reliability coefficient for the final revision of the test was .70, involving thirty-six rehabilitation subjects (24). The PCS was also used by Koeppen in a recent doctoral dissertation at North Texas State University (14). The PCS was used in this study to assess the degree of congruence between the ideal and actual self-concept.

In a study by Turner and Vanderlippe, it was determined that persons with high self-concept and ideal self-concept congruence participated in extracurricular activities,

attained higher scholastic averages, and received higher sociometric ratings from other students than persons with low congruence (29, p. 205). In another study comparing self-concept/ideal self-concept congruence and related effectiveness of counselor trainees, Eberlein and Park found that counselors who are highly congruent may be rigid personalities who see little need for self change. In contrast to this inflexibility, counselors with high discrepancies have poor self-concepts and lofty ideals, both of which are unrealistic. It was suggested that a balance is necessary for trainees who desire higher supervisor ratings (3, p. 132). It has also been observed that this congruence has a direct bearing upon the counselee.

A counselor cannot effectively accept others or be of help to them, through maintaining a permissive structure, until he can accept and understand himself within this structure. If he feels the need to maintain himself through controlling others, he is left in a poor position to be able to accept and understand them (32, p. 154).

In a previously mentioned study by Larsen and Schwendiman, it was hypothesized that a person's demonstration of high authoritarianism was a reflection of low self-esteem and that such a person reacted to his environment in that characteristic manner because of a more fundamental personal insecurity. Authoritarianism was assessed by the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale. One of the assessments of self-esteem was a self/ideal self semantic differential of sixty bipolar adjectives, similar to the PCS. The difference

between the two estimates (self/ideal self) provided a discrepancy score which was then used as an assessment of self-esteem. The Pearson product moment correlation was calculated. The Rokeach Dogmatism Scale and semantic differential correlation was  $-.24$  and it was significant at the  $.01$  level of confidence. The hypothesis was thus supported (15, p. 229). These findings strengthen the assumption that the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale and the PCS are compatible test instruments for use in this research design.

### Rating Scale

A rating scale was designed to rate how effectively the experimental group demonstrated the characteristics being measured by the test instruments. A five point scale was devised similar to that designed by Carkhuff to rate the effectiveness of counselor responses to clients. A rating of 1.0 indicates that none of the characteristics are demonstrated to any noticeable degree in the person being rated. A rating of 2.0 indicates that some of the characteristics are present and some are not. A rating of 3.0 means that all of the characteristics are demonstrated at a minimally facilitative level. A rating of 4.0 means that all of the characteristics are demonstrated and some are demonstrated fully. A rating of 5.0 indicates that all of the characteristics are fully demonstrated simultaneously and continually. The raters were instructed to rate the trainees on each of the characteristics being measured in this study.

by the test instruments (See Appendix A). It was also suggested that the ratings should be correlated with the final grades of the trainees in the affective segment of the guidance associate curriculum.

#### Procedures for Collecting Data

The California Psychological Inventory, the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, and the Personal Concept Scale were administered to the students involved in the Guidance Associate program (the experimental group) and to a group of junior-level secondary education students (the comparison group) at the beginning of the fall semester. The tests were scored and were designated as the pretest data. These same instruments were administered to both groups nine months later at the conclusion of the spring semester. The tests were scored and were designated as the posttest data.

The rating scale was distributed to professors, doctoral, and masters level interns involved in the team teaching of the guidance associate program. They were requested to turn in their ratings of the trainees at the conclusion of the spring semester.

#### Procedures for Treatment of Data

The data obtained from the test administrations were compiled and placed into experimental and comparison groups. Although only six of the eighteen California Psychological

Inventory scales were included in the statement of hypotheses, the other twelve scales were also treated statistically.

All hypotheses were tested by means of the analysis of covariance. As Roscoe has pointed out, analysis of covariance is a blending of regression and the analysis of variance which permits statistical rather than experimental control of the variables involved (23, p. 254). A significance level of .05 was required for acceptance of the hypotheses.

Agreement among raters was checked by computing a coefficient of agreement, a new statistical treatment introduced by Lawlis and Lu (16, pp. 17-20). This technique was devised to meet the problem of defining and measuring agreement of judges and raters as used in psychological research. The technique is basically a nonparametric method of computing agreement and disagreement according to a criterion predetermined by the investigator. The ratings were correlated with the posttest scores of the experimental group and with the final grades of the trainees in the affective segment of the guidance associate curriculum by means of the Pearson product moment correlation technique in order to determine what degree of relationship existed between these variables.

### Summary

Three standardized instruments, the California Psychological Inventory, the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, and the Personal Concept Scale were administered to a group of guidance associate trainees (experimental group) and to a group of secondary education students (comparison group) in both pretest and posttest settings at the beginning and conclusion of the academic year.

Procedures for collecting and treating the data were described. Analysis of covariance was used to test all hypotheses. Pearson product moment correlation coefficients were computed to describe the relationship existing between ratings and test scores and between ratings and final grades.

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## CHAPTER IV

### PRESENTATION OF THE DATA

The purpose of this chapter is to present and analyze the statistical findings of this study. The data were analyzed by the analysis-of-covariance technique. A significance level of .05 was required for acceptance of the hypotheses.

#### Analysis of Data

In Hypothesis I, it was predicted that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Dominance Scale of the CPI would be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group. The pretest, posttest, and adjusted mean scores used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table I.

TABLE I  
PRETEST, POSTTEST, AND ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES  
ON THE DOMINANCE SCALE OF THE CPI

Group	N	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	Adjusted Mean
Experimental	33	55.0000	56.2424	56.8684
Comparison	36	56.6111	55.9167	55.3428

Inspection of Table I indicates a difference of 1.6111 between groups on the pretest scores. The experimental group made a gain of 1.8684 and the comparison group dropped 1.2683 on the adjusted mean scores following the posttest.

The data for the sum of squares, mean square, degrees of freedom, F ratio, and level of significance used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table II.

TABLE II  
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCE IN  
SCORES ON THE DOMINANCE SCALE OF THE CPI

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	DF	<u>F</u> Ratio	P
Between	39.8386	39.8386	1	0.7121	0.4018
Within	3692.5371	55.9475	66		
Total	3732.3757		67		

The F ratio did not reach the required level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Dominance Scale of the CPI was not significantly greater in the experimental group than it was in the control group.

In Hypothesis II, it was predicted that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Capacity for Status Scale of the CPI would be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group. The

pretest, posttest, and adjusted mean scores used to test this hypothesis are shown in Table III.

TABLE III  
PRETEST, POSTTEST, AND ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES ON  
THE CAPACITY FOR STATUS SCALE OF THE CPI

Group	N	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	Adjusted Mean
Experimental	33	49.6970	52.1515	52.8825
Comparison	36	51.7500	51.0833	50.4132

There was a difference of 2.0530 between the pretest scores of the two groups. The experimental group made a gain of 3.1855 in the adjusted mean score following the posttest, while the comparison group showed a loss of 1.3368.

Data for the sum of squares, mean square, degrees of freedom, F ratio, and level of significance used to test this hypothesis appear in Table IV.

TABLE IV  
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCE IN  
SCORES ON THE CAPACITY FOR STATUS SCALE  
OF THE CPI

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	DF	<u>F</u> Ratio	P
Between	103.9514	103.9514	1	1.8187	0.1821
Within	3772.4644	57.1585	66		
Total	3876.4158		67		

The F ratio did not reach the required level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Capacity for Status Scale of the CPI was not significantly greater in the experimental group than it was in the comparison group.

In Hypothesis III, it was predicted that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Self-Acceptance Scale of the CPI would be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group. The pretest, posttest, and adjusted mean scores used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table V.

TABLE V  
PRETEST, POSTTEST, AND ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES  
ON THE SELF-ACCEPTANCE SCALE OF THE CPI

Group	N	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	Adjusted Mean
Experimental	33	56.7879	61.7879	62.6590
Comparison	36	59.6111	58.6667	57.8681

Inspection of Table V indicates that there was a difference of 2.8232 between the pretest scores of the two groups. However, the adjusted mean scores indicate that the experimental group gained 5.8711 between pretest and posttest scores, while the comparison group lost 1.7430.

The data for the sum of squares, mean square, degrees of freedom, F ratio, and level of significance used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table VI.

TABLE VI  
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCE IN  
SCORES ON THE SELF-ACCEPTANCE SCALE  
OF THE CPI

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	DF	F Ratio	P
Between	387.1580	387.1580	1	7.2687*	0.0089
Within	3515.3950	53.2635	66		
Total	3902.5530		67		

\*Significant at the .01 level.

Inspection of Table VI indicates that the F ratio was beyond the required level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. This indicates that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Self-Acceptance Scale of the CPI was significantly greater in the experimental group than it was in the comparison group.

In Hypothesis IV, it was predicted that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Responsibility Scale of the CPI would be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group. The pretest, posttest, and adjusted mean scores used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table VII.

TABLE VII  
PRETEST, POSTTEST, AND ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES  
ON THE RESPONSIBILITY SCALE OF THE CPI

Group	N	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	Adjusted Mean
Experimental	33	44.3030	44.5454	46.5355
Comparison	36	49.1667	47.6111	45.7868

The comparison group was 4.8637 larger than the experimental group on the pretest scores. The adjusted mean scores indicate that the experimental group gained 2.2325 between pretest and posttest scores while there was a loss of 3.3799 in the comparison group.

The data for the sum of squares, mean square, degrees of freedom, F ratio, and level of significance used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table VIII.

TABLE VIII  
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCE  
SCORES ON THE RESPONSIBILITY SCALE  
OF THE CPI

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	DF	<u>F</u> Ratio	P
Between	8.8760	8.8760	1	0.2977	0.5872
Within	1967.6748	29.8132	66		
Total	1976.5508		67		

Inspection of Table VIII indicates that the F ratio did not reach the required level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Responsibility Scale of the CPI was not significantly greater in the experimental group than it was in the comparison group.

In Hypothesis V, it was predicted that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Tolerance Scale of the CPI would be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group. The pretest, posttest, and adjusted mean scores used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table IX.

TABLE IX  
PRETEST, POSTTEST, AND ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES  
ON THE TOLERANCE SCALE OF THE CPI

Group	N	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	Adjusted Mean
Experimental	33	46.2424	50.0606	50.9294
Comparison	36	48.7778	49.8611	49.0647

Inspection of Table IX indicates that the comparison group pretest mean score was 2.5354 larger than that of the experimental group. The adjusted mean scores indicate that the experimental group gained 4.6870 between pretest and posttest, while the comparison group gained 0.2869.

The data for the sum of squares, mean square, degrees of freedom, F ratio, and level of significance used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table X.

TABLE X  
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCE IN  
SCORES ON THE TOLERANCE SCALE OF THE CPI

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	DF	<u>F</u> Ratio	P
Between	59.2124	59.2124	1	1.3665	0.2446
Within	2859.8992	43.3318	66		
Total	2919.1116		67		

Inspection of Table X indicates that the F ratio did not reach the required level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Tolerance Scale of the CPI was not significantly greater in the experimental group than it was in the comparison group.

In Hypothesis VI, it was predicted that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Achievement via Independence Scale of the CPI would be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group. The pretest, posttest, and adjusted mean scores used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table XI.

TABLE XI  
PRETEST, POSTTEST, AND ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES  
ON THE ACHIEVEMENT VIA INDEPENDENCE SCALE  
OF THE CPI

Group	N	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	Adjusted Mean
Experimental	33	53.4848	56.3636	56.6478
Comparison	36	54.1667	54.6111	54.3506

The comparison group was 0.6819 larger than the experimental group on the pretest scores. The adjusted mean scores indicate that the experimental group gained 3.1630 between pretest and posttest scores, while the comparison group showed a gain of 0.1839.

The data for the sum of squares, mean square, degrees of freedom, F ratio, and level of significance used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table XII.

TABLE XII  
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCE IN  
SCORES ON THE ACHIEVEMENT VIA INDEPENDENCE  
SCALE OF THE CPI

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	DF	<u>F</u> Ratio	P
Between	90.7515	90.7515	1	2.4710	0.1207
Within	2423.9966	36.7272	66		
Total	2514.7480		67		

Inspection of Table XII indicates that the F ratio did not reach the required level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Achievement via Independence Scale of the CPI was not significantly greater in the experimental group than it was in the comparison group.

In Hypothesis VII, it was predicted that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group. The pretest, posttest, and adjusted mean scores used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table XIII.

TABLE XIII  
PRETEST, POSTTEST, AND ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES  
ON THE ROKEACH DOGMATISM SCALE

Group	N	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	Adjusted Mean
Experimental	33	143.6364	135.5454	134.9990
Comparison	36	141.9444	136.0833	136.5842

The pretest mean score of the experimental group was larger than that of the comparison group by 1.6920. The adjusted mean scores show that the experimental group dropped between pretest and posttest scores in the amount of 8.6374, but the comparison group also dropped 5.3602.

The data for the sum of squares, mean square, degrees of freedom, F ratio, and level of significance used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table XIV.

TABLE XIV  
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCE IN  
SCORES ON THE ROKEACH DOGMATISM SCALE

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	DF	<u>F</u> Ratio	P
Between	43.2188	43.2188	1	0.1281	0.7215
Within	22250.4805	337.2646	66		
Total	22302.6992		67		

Inspection of Table XIV indicates that the F ratio did not reach the required level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale was not significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

In Hypothesis VIII, it was predicted that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Personal Concept Scale would be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group. The pretest, posttest, and adjusted mean scores used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table XV.

TABLE XV  
PRETEST, POSTTEST, AND ADJUSTED MEAN SCORES  
ON THE PERSONAL CONCEPT SCALE

Group	N	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	Adjusted Mean
Experimental	33	24.1212	17.0909	16.8675
Comparison	36	23.1944	19.3889	19.5936

The experimental group was 0.9268 larger than the comparison group on the pretest scores. The adjusted mean scores show that the experimental group dropped 7.2537 between pretest and posttest scores, while the comparison group dropped 3.6008.

The data for the sum of squares, mean square, degrees of freedom, F ratio, and level of significance used to test this hypothesis are presented in Table XVI.

TABLE XVI  
ANALYSIS OF COVARIANCE OF MEAN DIFFERENCE  
IN SCORES ON THE PERSONAL CONCEPT SCALE

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	DF	<u>F</u> Ratio	P
Between	127.6636	127.6636	1	4.0173*	0.0491
Within	2097.3582	31.7782	66		
Total	2225.0217		67		

\*Significant at the .05 level.

Inspection of Table XVI indicates that the F ratio did reach the required level of significance. Therefore, the hypothesis is accepted. This indicates that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Personal Concept Scale is significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

While hypotheses were formed for only six of the CPI scales, data were gathered on all scales and the analysis of covariance statistic was computed for all scales. Analysis of the additional data revealed that the F ratio on the Social Presence Scale of the CPI was significant at the .01 level. The F ratio on the Intellectual Efficiency Scale of the CPI was significant at the .05 level. The F ratios on the remaining ten scales did not reach the required level of significance (Sociability Scale, Sense of Well-Being Scale, Socialization Scale, Self-Control Scale, Good Impression Scale, Communality Scale, Achievement via Conformance Scale, Psychological-Mindedness Scale, Flexibility Scale, and the Femininity Scale).

Twelve raters were requested to rate each of the experimental group members on the eight characteristics being measured by the test instruments, utilizing a five point rating scale designed for use in this study. The twelve raters were divided into three groups for the purpose of determining inter-rater reliability: (1) professors serving as instructors for the program, (2) doctoral level interns,

and (3) masters level interns. The coefficient of agreement, a new statistical treatment introduced by Lawlis and Lu in the July, 1972, issue of Psychological Bulletin, was computed for all three groups. It was determined that in all three groups, the raters had discriminating power and the observed agreement is not due to chance. Each of the three chi-square statistics computed was significant beyond the .01 level.

The product moment correlation coefficients computed in correlating the ratings with the posttest scores of the experimental group are given in Table XVII.

TABLE XVII  
CORRELATIONS OF RATINGS WITH EXPERIMENTAL  
GROUP POSTTEST SCORES

Posttest Scale Scores	Ratings	Correlation Coefficients
<u>Dominance</u> ( <u>CPI</u> )	1	-.0972
<u>Capacity for Status</u> ( <u>CPI</u> )	2	.0336
<u>Self-Acceptance</u> ( <u>CPI</u> )	3	-.1098
<u>Responsibility</u> ( <u>CPI</u> )	4	.1909
<u>Tolerance</u> ( <u>CPI</u> )	5	-.2568
<u>Achievement via Independence</u> ( <u>CPI</u> )	6	.0233
<u>Rokeach Dogmatism</u>	7	.0927
<u>Personal Concept</u>	8	.0347

The results show virtually no relationship between the ratings and the posttest scores of the experimental group. A product moment correlation coefficient was also computed to determine the degree of relationship between the ratings and the final grades of the trainees for the affective segment of the undergraduate curriculum. A correlation coefficient of .65 was computed. Thus it is indicated that forty-two per cent of the variance of the final grades can be accounted for by the ratings on the personality characteristics of the trainees.

#### Discussion of Data

The first six hypotheses involved scales on the California Psychological Inventory. Only Hypothesis III was accepted. It is interesting to note, however, that in comparing pretest and adjusted posttest mean scores of the experimental group on all six scales, there was a gain in the mean scores from pretest to posttest on each of the scales. This indicates that there was some change in the experimental group on all six personality characteristics being analyzed that did not take place in the comparison group.

It should also be pointed out that a comparison of pretest mean scores between the experimental and comparison groups shows score differences ranging between 0.6819 and 4.8637. This indicates that both groups were scoring at similar levels in the pretest settings.

Hypothesis VII involved the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale.

It was assumed that the magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores in the experimental group would be significantly greater than in the comparison group. This did not prove to be the case. This could in part be attributed to the fact that the unit on controversial issues made the trainees aware of their unacknowledged prejudicial attitudes. This would cause the posttest scores of the experimental group to be higher than expected.

The fact that only two of the eight hypotheses were supported can be attributable to several factors. It is possible that changes in personality characteristics can not adequately be measured over a nine month period. A period of two years or more might be necessary to produce a good longitudinal study of personality characteristics among guidance associate trainees.

The California Psychological Inventory may not be a sensitive enough instrument to reflect changes that actually did take place in personality characteristics of the trainees. Another factor for consideration is the level of scores on the CPI. In every case the pretest mean scores in the experimental group ranged between 44.3030 and 56.7879. When scores are high in the pretest settings, it may be unrealistic to expect the magnitude of change to be significant in posttest settings.

Another factor for consideration is the nature of the research design. The magnitude of change required in this study may be so great that no significant differences could be detected in the analysis of the data.

The nature of the comparison group is an important factor to be considered. The similarity of scores between groups may indicate that some overlap occurred. Students in secondary education may have many of the same personality characteristics possessed by guidance associate trainees. While the curricula to which these groups were exposed may in theory be quite different, it is possible that some areas of course content are quite similar and even possibly overlap. If the guidance associate trainees were compared with a group of students majoring in the physical sciences, the differences in personality characteristics over time might be statistically significant.

Another factor to be considered is the posttest environment for the experimental group. All of the testing was done in a two day period and a total of seven tests were administered in a four and one-half hour period. It was noted that the trainees were motivated to finish as quickly as possible and some responses to test items were made almost randomly. This attitude was in sharp contrast to the pretest environment in which all of the trainees were very careful to give their best efforts in responding to the test items.

In order to determine the significance of the posttest environment as a detrimental effect on the test scores, pretest and posttest scores in the experimental group were correlated on the six scales that were not significantly different from those in the comparison group. Pearson product moment correlations were calculated.

The Dominance Scale of the CPI showed a pretest-posttest correlation of .6727. The Capacity for Status Scale of the CPI pretest-posttest correlation was .5757. The correlation for the pretest-posttest scores on the Responsibility Scale of the CPI was .7752. The Tolerance Scale of the CPI showed a pretest-posttest correlation of .7215. The Achievement via Independence Scale of the CPI pretest-posttest correlation was .8196. And the pretest-posttest correlation for the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale was .7644.

Since the correlation coefficients ranged between .5757 and .8196 on the six scales, it can be assumed that the posttest environment did not adversely affect the test scores.

### Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to present, analyze, and discuss the data obtained for this study. The hypotheses were presented and the data were analyzed to determine acceptance or rejection of the hypotheses. The F ratios involved in Hypotheses I, II, IV, V, VI, and VII did not reach the required level of significance. The F

ratio for the data involved in Hypothesis III was significant at the .01 level. The F ratio for the data involved in Hypothesis VIII was significant at the .05 level. Inter-rater reliability was established for three groups of raters. The ratings were correlated with the posttest scores of the experimental group. The resulting correlations were quite low. The ratings were also correlated with the final grades of the trainees for the affective segment of the curriculum. A correlation coefficient of .65 was computed, indicating some degree of relationship between these variables.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, FINDINGS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

The purposes of this study were to measure and describe selected personality characteristics of guidance associate trainees in pretest and posttest settings at the beginning and at the conclusion of the 1972-73 academic year and to treat in an identical manner a group of secondary education students that comprised a comparison group for this study. The hypotheses were stated as follows:

I. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Dominance Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

II. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Capacity for Status Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

III. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Self-Acceptance Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

IV. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Responsibility Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

V. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Tolerance Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

VI. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Achievement via Independence Scale of the California Psychological Inventory will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

VII. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

VIII. The magnitude of change between pretest and post-test scores on the Personal Concept Scale will be significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

The students who comprised the experimental group were being trained to work in a guidance-related setting as support personnel to guidance specialists and supervisors. They were enrolled at the junior level in an undergraduate curriculum for the Guidance Associate degree at North Texas State University. Each student had completed a community

college program or at least two years of a college or university curriculum. The students who comprised the comparison group were junior-level secondary education students at North Texas State University.

The instruments used to measure and describe selected personality characteristics were the California Psychological Inventory, the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, and the Personal Concept Scale. All of these instruments were administered to both experimental and comparison groups at the beginning and at the conclusion of the 1972-73 academic year.

After the data were gathered and tabulated, the results were statistically analyzed using the analysis of covariance technique. A significance level of .05 was required for acceptance of the hypotheses. The statistical analysis of the data gave the following results.

Hypothesis I was not supported. The magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Dominance Scale of the California Psychological Inventory was not greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

Hypothesis II was not supported. The magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Capacity for Status Scale of the California Psychological Inventory was not significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

Hypothesis III was supported. The magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Self-Acceptance

Scale of the California Psychological Inventory was significantly greater in the experimental group.

Hypothesis IV was not supported. The magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Responsibility Scale of the California Psychological Inventory was not significantly greater in the experimental group than it was in the comparison group.

Hypothesis V was not supported. The magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Tolerance Scale of the California Psychological Inventory was not significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

Hypothesis VI was not supported. The magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Achievement via Independence Scale of the California Psychological Inventory was not significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

Hypothesis VII was not supported. The magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale was not significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

Hypothesis VIII was supported. The magnitude of change between pretest and posttest scores on the Personal Concept Scale was significantly greater in the experimental group than in the comparison group.

There was virtually no relationship between ratings of selected personality characteristics and the posttest scores

in the experimental group. The degree of relationship between the ratings of selected personality characteristics and the final grades of the trainees for the affective segment of the undergraduate curriculum was computed using the Pearson product moment correlation formula. The correlation coefficient was computed to be .65. Thus it is indicated that forty-two per cent of the variance of the final grades can be accounted for by the ratings on the personality characteristics of the trainees.

### Findings

Only Hypotheses III and VIII were supported. Yet in the case of Hypotheses I, II, IV, V, and VI, the CPI adjusted mean scores in the experimental group showed a gain over the pretest mean scores of that group. It is also noted that all of these CPI pretest mean scores in the experimental group ranged between 44.3030 and 56.7879. This indicates that with the exception of the traits measured by the Responsibility Scale of the CPI, the personality characteristics measured by these scale scores which were hypothesized to be present in the trainees were in fact present although the gains made during the nine month testing period were not statistically significant.

Further analysis of the data revealed that three scales of the California Psychological Inventory not being utilized in the formulation of the hypotheses provided significant data for this study. The F ratio calculated from data

provided by the Social Presence Scale of the California Psychological Inventory was significant at the .01 level. The F ratio computed from data provided by the Intellectual Efficiency Scale of the California Psychological Inventory was significant at the .05 level.

The ratings of the personality characteristics of the guidance associate trainees did not correlate to any appreciable degree with the posttest scores of that group. However, the ratings were correlated with the final grades of the trainees in the affective segment of the curriculum and a correlation coefficient of .65 was calculated. Thus it can be assumed that a scale devised to rate how effectively certain personality characteristics are demonstrated by trainees can be used by competent raters to predict with some degree of accuracy the ability of trainees to demonstrate related behavioral competencies in an academic setting.

On the basis of the acceptance of Hypotheses III and VIII, it may be concluded that during the nine month research period, the guidance associate trainees became more persuasive, self-confident and self-assuring. At the conclusion of this period, they also demonstrated a higher degree of congruence between actual and ideal self-concepts than was shown at the beginning of the academic year.

On the basis of the adjusted mean scores following the posttest, it may be concluded that the guidance associate

trainees are aggressive, confident and persistent. They are ambitious, forceful, insightful, and versatile. They are permissive, accepting, tolerant, and resourceful. They are also mature, strong, independent, and self-reliant.

It is concluded that the California Psychological Inventory is not a sensitive enough instrument to reflect the kinds of changes in personality characteristics that are taking place in the trainees. Only three of the eighteen scales produced data that met the required level of significance.

Although no significant results were produced in the utilization of the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale in this study, it is concluded that this instrument remains a consistent indicator of prejudicial attitudes. Two factors may have prevented the data from reaching the required level of significance in this segment of the study: (1) the unit on controversial issues presented to the experimental group and (2) the unusual drop in posttest scores in the comparison group which may indicate some exposure to the problems of prejudice during the nine month period.

It is concluded that the Personal Concept Scale continues to be a very effective instrument in measuring the discrepancy between actual self-concept and ideal self-concept.

It is concluded that the ratings of the personality characteristics of the trainees can be a predictor of their

ability to demonstrate behavioral competencies in a classroom setting.

While the test data revealed significant changes taking place only in the areas of self-acceptance and congruence between ideal and actual self-concepts of the trainees, personal observations did indicate other positive changes and responses to the training program. As Getz indicated in his 1973 study of the problem of evaluation in competency-based education (see p. 27) and as the results of this study have shown, paper-and-pencil tests are inappropriate for the evaluation of competencies which can only be inferred from objective measures. The program outcomes of the guidance associate curriculum were couched in the following assumptions:

The trainees could achieve at least an eighty per cent proficiency in demonstrating the role of a guidance associate in dyadic and group role play situations as a result of exposure to the training program.

The trainees could demonstrate an ability to interact effectively with one another in regularly scheduled growth group meetings and also demonstrate an understanding of group dynamics that can enhance interpersonal relationships.

The trainees could grasp a basic understanding of the role of the guidance worker in historical perspective and how the role of the guidance associate will need to be integrated into the total guidance system in a particular location.

At the conclusion of the first year of the program, it was felt that these assumptions had been met. Professors and graduate interns had observed marked changes in the personality characteristics of individual trainees as a result of exposure to the guidance associate curriculum. Although some changes were noted in individual test scores, these differences were not always reflected in the group mean scores which were the basis for statistical significance. As an example, three individual posttest scores on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale were thirty-six, thirty-seven, and thirty-eight points lower respectively than the pretest scores. Yet as a group, the posttest scores of the trainees were not significantly different from those in the comparison group.

Changes in personality characteristics were observed in individual trainees. Comprehension of new ideas and concepts was demonstrated. Some trainees recognized a need for personal counseling to further facilitate their adjustment to and acceptance of the ideas imparted by the guidance associate curriculum. But these observed changes have not been appropriately reflected by the objective measures utilized in this study to detect such changes. The fault may lie in the sensitivity of the instruments employed. It is also possible that changes other than those noted are indeed taking place, but appropriate methods to record such changes are not being utilized.

### Recommendations

It is recommended that a test instrument be developed or an existing test be utilized that is capable of reflecting the changes in personality characteristics that occur during the acquisition and demonstration of behavioral competencies. Such a test might incorporate the semantic differential format used so successfully in the development of the Personal Concept Scale.

It is recommended that the use of trained, competent raters in assessing the achievement of behavioral competencies will be a valuable asset to additional research in the guidance associate program. Student peer ratings in the form of sociometric studies could add valuable data and increase the predictive validity of such research.

It is recommended that if further testing is done with the guidance associate trainees, several precautions should be taken. The total number of tests given in one semester should be limited. Only one or two tests should be administered per class session. These precautions should be taken in order to avoid test taking fatigue and the resulting lack of motivation to respond honestly and accurately to the test items.

It is recommended that the trainees continue to be involved in activities that increase self-awareness and the awareness of others. Growth group experiences on a regular basis and a more consistent use of triads for personalized instruction are recommended to be continued. Through these

activities, modeling and role playing can be utilized to intensify the awareness of a need for openness and cognitive flexibility on the part of the trainees.

It is recommended that follow up studies on trainee personality characteristics be conducted within the guidance associate program. Such studies should be longitudinal in nature if at all possible. The creation of this undergraduate curriculum has provided further opportunities to increase understanding of the nature and behavior of students who desire to pursue a helping profession in the counseling and guidance field.

## APPENDIX A

### RATING SCALE

- |     | 1.0   | 1.5 | 2.0 | 2.5 | 3.0 | 3.5 | 4.0 | 4.5 | 5.0 |
|-----|---|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|
|     |   |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 1.0 | - None of these characteristics are demonstrated to any noticeable degree in this person. |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 2.0 | - Some of these characteristics are demonstrated and some are not.                        |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 3.0 | - All of the characteristics are demonstrated at a minimally facilitative level.          |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 4.0 | - All of the characteristics are demonstrated and some are demonstrated fully.            |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |
| 5.0 | - All of the characteristics are fully demonstrated simultaneously and continually.       |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |     |

INSTRUCTIONS: Please rate the trainees on each of the eight characteristics listed below. Rate each characteristic 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 3.5, 4.0, 4.5, 5.0.

1. Aggressive, confident, persistent attitudes.  
Rating\_\_\_\_\_
2. Ambitious, forceful, insightful, versatile attitudes.  
Rating\_\_\_\_\_
3. Persuasive, self-confident, self-assuring attitudes.  
Rating\_\_\_\_\_
4. Planful, responsible, conscientious, dependable attitudes which are alert to ethical and moral issues.  
Rating\_\_\_\_\_
5. Permissive, accepting, tolerant, resourceful attitudes.  
Rating\_\_\_\_\_
6. Mature, strong, independent, and self-reliant attitudes.  
Rating\_\_\_\_\_

7. Tolerant, open, accepting, non-judgmental, non-prejudicial attitudes.  
Rating\_\_\_\_\_
8. High degree of congruence between the actual and ideal self.  
Rating\_\_\_\_\_

Name of Trainee\_\_\_\_\_

Name of Rater\_\_\_\_\_

## APPENDIX B

### CALIFORNIA PSYCHOLOGICAL INVENTORY

1. Dominance: High scorers tend to be seen as aggressive, confident, persistent, and planful; as being persuasive and verbally fluent; as self-reliant and independent; and as having leadership potential and initiative.
2. Capacity for Status: High scorers tend to be seen as ambitious, active, forceful, insightful, resourceful, and versatile; as being ascendant and self-seeking; effective in communication; and as having personal scope and breadth of interests.
3. Sociability: High scorers tend to be seen as outgoing, enterprising, and ingenious; as being competitive and forward; and as original and fluent in thought.
4. Social Presence: High scorers tend to be seen as clever, enthusiastic, imaginative, quick, informal, spontaneous, and talkative; as being active and vigorous; and as having an expressive, ebullient nature.
5. Self-acceptance: High scorers tend to be seen as intelligent, outspoken, sharp-witted, demanding, aggressive, and self-centered; as being persuasive and verbally fluent; and as possessing self-confidence and self-assurance.

6. Sense of Well-being: High scorers tend to be seen as energetic, enterprising, alert, ambitious, and versatile; as being productive and active; and as valuing work and effort for its own sake.
7. Responsibility: High scorers tend to be seen as planful, responsible, thorough, progressive, capable, dignified, and independent; as being conscientious and dependable; resourceful and efficient; and as being alert to ethical and moral issues.
8. Socialization: High scorers tend to be seen as serious, honest, industrious, modest, obliging, sincere and steady; as being conscientious and responsible; and as being self-denying and conforming.
9. Self-control: High scorers tend to be seen as calm, patient, practical, slow, self-denying, inhibited, thoughtful, and deliberate; as being strict and thorough in their own work and in their expectations for others; and as being honest and conscientious.
10. Tolerance: High scorers tend to be seen as enterprising, informal, quick, tolerant, clear-thinking, and resourceful; as being intellectually able and verbally fluent; and as having broad and varied interests.
11. Good Impression: High scorers tend to be seen as cooperative, enterprising, outgoing, sociable, warm, and helpful; as being concerned with making a good impression; and as being diligent and persistent.

12. **Communality:** High scorers tend to be seen as dependable, moderate, tactful, reliable, sincere, patient, steady, and realistic; as being honest and conscientious; and as having common sense and good judgment.
13. **Achievement via Conformance:** High scorers tend to be seen as capable, cooperative, efficient, organized, responsible, stable, and sincere; as being persistent and industrious; and as valuing intellectual activity and intellectual achievement.
14. **Achievement via Independence:** High scorers tend to be seen as mature, forceful, strong, dominant, demanding, and foresighted; as being independent and self-reliant; and as having superior intellectual ability and judgment.
15. **Intellectual Efficiency:** High scorers tend to be seen as efficient, clear-thinking, capable, intelligent, progressive, planful, thorough, and resourceful; as being alert and well-informed; and as placing a high value on cognitive and intellectual matters.
16. **Psychological-mindedness:** High scorers tend to be seen as observant, spontaneous, quick, perceptive, talkative, resourceful, and changeable; as being verbally fluent and socially ascendant; and as being rebellious toward rules, restrictions, and constraints.

17. Flexibility: High scorers tend to be seen as insightful, informal, adventurous, confident, humorous, rebellious, idealistic, assertive, and egoistic; as being sarcastic and cynical; and as highly concerned with personal pleasure and diversion.
18. Femininity: High scorers tend to be seen as appreciative, patient, helpful, gentle, moderate, persevering, and sincere; as being respectful and accepting of others; and as behaving in a conscientious and sympathetic way.

## APPENDIX C

### ROKEACH DOGMATISM SCALE

The following is a study of what the general public thinks and feels about a number of important social and personal questions. The best answer to each statement below is your personal opinion. We have tried to cover many different and opposing points of view; you may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others; whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same as you do.

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one.

Write +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

- |                          |                             |
|--------------------------|-----------------------------|
| +1: I AGREE A LITTLE     | -1: I DISAGREE A LITTLE     |
| +2: I AGREE ON THE WHOLE | -2: I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE |
| +3: I AGREE VERY MUCH    | -3: I DISAGREE VERY MUCH    |

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. The highest form of government is a democracy and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are most intelligent.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. Even though freedom of speech for all groups is a worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary to restrict the freedom of certain political groups.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. It is only natural that a person would have a much better acquaintance with ideas he believes in than with ideas he opposes.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. Fundamentally, the world we live in is a pretty lonesome place.

- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. Most people just don't give a "damn" for others.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. It is only natural for a person to be rather fearful of the future.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. There is so much to be done and so little time to do it in.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion, I just can't stop.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. In a discussion I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times to make sure I am being understood.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. In a heated discussion I generally become so absorbed in what I am going to say that I forget to listen to what the others are saying.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. It is better to be a dead hero than to be a live coward.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. While I don't like to admit this even to myself, my secret ambition is to become a great man, like Einstein or Beethoven or Shakespeare.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. If given the chance I would do something of great benefit to the world.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. In the history of mankind there have probably been just a handful of really great thinkers.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. There are a number of people I have come to hate because of the things they stand for.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. A man who does not believe in some great cause has not really lived.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. It is only when a person devotes himself to an ideal or cause that life becomes meaningful.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. Of all the different philosophies which exist in this world, there is probably only one which is correct.

- \_\_\_\_\_23. A person who gets enthusiastic about too many causes is likely to be a pretty "wishy-washy" sort of a person.
- \_\_\_\_\_24. To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to the betrayal of our own side.
- \_\_\_\_\_25. When it comes to differences of opinion in religion, we must be careful not to compromise with those who believe differently from the way we do.
- \_\_\_\_\_26. In times like these, a person must be pretty selfish if he considers primarily his own happiness.
- \_\_\_\_\_27. The worst crime a person could commit is to attack publicly the people who believe in the same thing he does.
- \_\_\_\_\_28. In times like these, it is often necessary to be more on guard against ideas put out by people or groups in one's own camp than by those in the opposing camp.
- \_\_\_\_\_29. A group which tolerates too much differences of opinion among its own members cannot exist for long.
- \_\_\_\_\_30. There are two kinds of people in this world: those who are for truth and those who are against the truth.
- \_\_\_\_\_31. My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he is wrong.
- \_\_\_\_\_32. A person who thinks primarily of his own happiness is beneath contempt.
- \_\_\_\_\_33. Most of the ideas which get printed nowadays aren't worth the paper they are printed on.
- \_\_\_\_\_34. In this complicated world of ours, the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders or experts who can be trusted.
- \_\_\_\_\_35. It is often desirable to reserve judgment about what's going on until one has had a chance to hear the opinions of those one respects.
- \_\_\_\_\_36. In the long run, the best way to live is to pick friends and associates whose tastes and beliefs are the same as one's own.

- \_\_\_\_\_37. The present is all too often full of unhappiness.  
It is only the future that counts.
- \_\_\_\_\_38. If a man is to accomplish his mission in life, it  
is sometimes necessary to gamble "all or nothing  
at all."
- \_\_\_\_\_39. Unfortunately, a good many people with whom I have  
discussed important social and moral problems  
don't really understand what's going on.
- \_\_\_\_\_40. Most people just don't know what's good for them.

## APPENDIX D

### PERSONAL CONCEPT SCALE

#### INSTRUCTIONS

The purpose of this scale is to identify the meaning that various concepts have for you by having you rate them against a series of descriptive scales. Place an "x" on each line according to what the concept means to you. For example:

If you consider yourself very talkative, you would place your "x" as follows:

talkative x:\_\_:\_\_:\_\_:\_\_:\_\_ quiet

If you feel you are mostly quiet, you would mark as follows:

talkative \_\_:\_\_:\_\_:\_\_:\_\_ x:\_\_ quiet

If you see yourself as slightly talkative, mark this way:

talkative \_\_:\_\_: x:\_\_:\_\_:\_\_ quiet

If you think you are equally talkative and quiet, mark this way:

talkative \_\_:\_\_:\_\_: x:\_\_:\_\_:\_\_ quiet

Be sure to mark every scale. Do not skip any. Never put more than one "x" on a single line. Make each item a separate and independent judgment. Place your marks in the middle of the space.

	THIS	NOT THIS
talkative	__: <u>x</u> :__	__: <u>x</u> :__
	:__	:__
	quiet	quiet

Your first impressions are generally the most accurate, so work quickly, but do not be careless.

## I AM

plain	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	sexy
feminine	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	masculine
warm	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	cool
unaware	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	aware
tense	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	relaxed
deep	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	shallow
certain	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	uncertain
accepted	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	rejected
cautious	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	adventuresome
talkative	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	quiet
close	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	distant
disturbed	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	contented
active	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	passive
down	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	up
powerful	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	weak
following	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	leading
loose	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	tight
early	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	late
conservative	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	liberal
clear	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	hazy

## I WOULD LIKE TO BE

plain	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	sexy
feminine	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	masculine
warm	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	cool
unaware	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	aware
tense	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	relaxed
deep	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	shallow
certain	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	uncertain
accepted	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	rejected
cautious	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	adventuresome
talkative	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	quiet
close	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	distant
disturbed	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	contented
active	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	passive
down	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	up
powerful	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	weak
following	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	leading
loose	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	tight
early	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	late
conservative	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	liberal
clear	___:___:___:___:___:___:___	hazy

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