

CHANGES IN BEGINNING COUNSELING STUDENTS RECEIVING
PERSONAL ASSESSMENT FEEDBACK COUNSELING

A Dissertation
Presented to
the Faculty of the College of Education
University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Education

by
Sherry Brown Borgers
May 1972

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AN ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if students in a beginning counseling class who received Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling showed a greater change toward: (a) less discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of ideal self, (b) more acceptance of self, (c) more acceptance of others, (d) more openness of belief systems, and (e) more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement than students in a beginning counseling class who did not receive Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling. The goal of Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling was to help a student become more aware of his feelings and his behavior.

The design for the study was the Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design. Twenty-eight students enrolled in a beginning counseling course at the University of Houston were randomly assigned to an experimental group and a control group. This introductory course was intended to assist the student in developing self-awareness and self-understanding; the course focused on feelings, attitudes, and interpersonal relationships.

During the first week of the semester pretest scores for the Index of Adjustment and Values, the Self-Acceptance Scale,

the Dogmatism Scale, and the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control were obtained. Treatment for the experimental group was Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling. Subjects in the experimental group had three sessions with a counselor and received Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling; control subjects did an individual project where the focus was on the counseling profession rather than on self. Otherwise the subjects participated in the same activities.

After 13 weeks posttest scores were obtained. Pre- and posttest scores were examined to determine changes. The statistical analysis was a series of one-tailed t tests of the differences between means, each of which examined the degree of change in the experimental group as opposed to the degree of change in the control group.

Findings indicated that the experimental group showed a significantly greater change ($p < .05$) toward less discrepancy between the self-concept and the ideal self-concept as measured by the Index of Adjustment and Values. The findings also indicated that the experimental group did not show a significantly greater change toward: (a) more acceptance of self as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale, (b) more acceptance of others as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale, (c) more openness of belief systems as measured by the Dogmatism Scale, and (d) more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement

as measured by the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control.

Findings also indicated that there were no significant differences between the experimental and the control mean pre-test scores for each of the instruments. Additional analysis indicated that there was a significant difference ($p < .05$) between the Index of Adjustment and Values mean pre- and post-test scores for the experimental group and that the control group differed significantly ($p < .05$) on the Self-Acceptance Scale acceptance of others mean pre- and posttest scores. Other differences between mean pre- and posttest scores were found to be nonsignificant.

One conclusion was that there was a significant relationship between Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling and change toward increased self-ideal congruency as measured by the Index of Adjustment and Values. Other conclusions were that there was no significant relationship between Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling and change toward: (a) more acceptance of self as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale, (b) more acceptance of others as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale, (c) more openness of belief systems as measured by the Dogmatism Scale, and (d) more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement as measured by the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

"Only the fully functioning whole person has the right to be a counselor or therapist . . . (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967, p. 201)." This statement suggests the importance of a counselor in counseling. It is also important that a counselor know himself. According to Carkhuff and Berenson (1967), "The beginning of all effective intra and interpersonal processes, is the person himself. He must experience himself fully in order to be creative in all spheres of endeavor, including the interpersonal sphere (pp. 225-225)."

This need for a counselor to know himself is further emphasized by the policy statement of the American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA). This statement (APGA, 1964) indicates that the effective counselor is characterized by these basic qualities: belief in each individual, commitment to individual human values, alertness to the world, openmindedness, understanding of self, and professional commitment.

In educating counselors, various feedback techniques have been used to help increase self-awareness. Video tapes have been utilized (Kagan, Krathwohl, & Miller, 1963; Walz & Johnston, 1963) so that counselors may view themselves in the counseling interview. Audio tapes have been employed to help prospective counselors become more realistic about their

performance (Camp, 1953). Supervisory sessions have become a part of the practicum experience in order for student counselors to receive positive criticism and support (Arbuckle, 1965). Group process has been included so that students may learn more about their feelings and their impact on others (Luft, 1970). Role playing has also been used to increase awareness (Wiener, 1954).

The idea of feedback is an important one; it underlies the traditional learning theories of Thorndike, Guthrie, Hull, and Skinner (Baker, 1970). Feedback may serve to steer and give direction to subsequent behavior, and it may also serve to stimulate changes in behavior, feelings, attitudes, perceptions, and knowledge (Benne, Bradford, & Lippitt, 1964).

In the field of education, feedback has been used extensively (Annett, 1969). Currently at some centers of teacher education a procedure known as Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling (PAFC) is being used to help fit programs to the idiosyncratic or private personal needs of prospective teachers (Fuller, 1970). According to Fuller and Newlove (1970) the goal of PAFC is to increase the teacher's awareness of his own feelings and behavior and to allow him to take an in depth look at himself. They further suggest that PAFC contributes to the student's growth as a person. PAFC is based upon feedback to the student about his own responses to a battery of psychological instruments; these instruments are described in

Appendix A. Concerning the rationale for the assessment procedures, Veldman (1970) says that teaching is a process of interaction between people, and the potential teacher must have a thorough understanding of himself if he is to interact effectively with others.

Since counseling is also a process of interaction between people in which self-awareness is desirable, this study will use PAFC to allow the student in a beginning counseling course to take an in depth look at himself. The idea that counselor education should provide experiences which contribute to growth in self-understanding is supported by the APGA policy statement (1964), Arbuckle (1970), Carkhuff and Berenson (1967), Kell and Burow (1970), Patterson (1959), and Rogers (1961). In reference to the preparation of a counselor, Kell and Mueller (1966) state that good preparation is that which leads a counselor to be more human and that which helps him to know that his own life and his own person with his personal strengths, knowledge, weaknesses, conflicts, and needs can be potentially useful or harmful to his clients.

Theoretical Bases

There are six assumptions pertinent to this study. The first assumption is that the counselor as a person is important. Assumption two is related to the need for a counselor to know himself, and assumption three suggests that the education

of a counselor should help him to know himself. Assumption four states that feedback is an important factor in learning; it not only helps an individual to know himself but also is important in change. Assumptions five and six are related to change; under proper conditions proactive forces emerge in individuals which permit experimentation with new behavior and a striving toward ideals, and changes in behavior are most likely to be present if the process of changing is seen by the individual to be under his own control.

Assumption One

The first assumption is that the counselor as a person is important. Truax and Mitchell (1971) support this assumption, and they add that research efforts must involve the person of the counselor, the therapist, the doctor, the social worker, the priest, the educator, or any other helping person.

This emphasis on the person is not a new concept. Philosophers have long been concerned with the nature of man. Many of the present controversies in counseling can be traced to divergent streams of philosophical thinking known as the "Locke-Leibniz Split" in philosophy (Allport, 1955; Beck, 1963). Locke proposed a neutral type of nature for mankind in his tabula rasa concept; according to Locke the relation of time and place determines identity (Dewey, 1961). Leibniz, however,

has stated that in addition to the difference of time and place, there is always necessary an internal principle of distinction and that there are no two things exactly alike. According to Leibniz's principle of the "identity of discernibles," there is no individual unless there is some internal differentiating principle which specifies existence in a definite way (Dewey, 1961). Tiryakian (1968) suggests that the existential-phenomenological view of man accepted by May, Rogers, Maslow, Frankl, and Allport is related to the theory of Leibniz. This existential and phenomenological perspective is seen in current counseling philosophy.

Arbuckle (1970) holds that the ". . . forward looking, humanistic, existential concept of man as a free self-evolving, self-actualizing Being would seem to be a good base on which to develop the practice of counseling and psychotherapy (p. 50)." He adds that this view is phenomenological in the sense that the phenomenological world of the individual is the world of reality for the individual; however, it is not phenomenological in a deterministic sense.

In reference to counseling and the counselor, Arbuckle (1970) says:

Counseling is not helping the client either to adjust to society or to fight it. It is helping him come to see who he really is, and what he does not have; what he can do easily, what he can do with difficulty, and what he probably cannot do at all. This might, I suppose, be called self-actualization, and the person comes to see that the struggle for being is really the struggle to

have people take him as he is, rather than accepting the culture's version of him. This obviously is a process of living and experiencing; it is a far cry from the rather simple telling and directing, and since it involves a good deal of personal sharing, we can assume that the counselor himself must be one who sees himself as a free human being, one who has personally achieved a high level of self-actualization. Thus the counselor, as a human being, is more important than the counseling, just as every child and adult is more important as a human being than the title that purports to describe him (pp. 50-51).

The existential view is also expressed by May (1962).

"The patient moves toward freedom and responsibility in his living as he becomes more conscious of the deterministic experiences of life . . . (Arbuckle, 1970, p. 45)."

Freedom is basic to existential thought. Rogers (1961) states that both the counselor and client must be free to be what they are in a counseling relationship. The client-centered concept of counseling and of man is an existential point of view (Arbuckle, 1970). This similarity is evident in Rogers' (unpublished paper) description of the counseling relationship:

I launch myself into the therapeutic relationship, having a hypothesis, or a faith, that my liking, my confidence, my understanding of the other person's inner world will lead to a significant process of becoming . . . I enter the relationship . . . as a person . . . I risk myself . . . I let myself go . . . my reaction being based (but not consciously) on my total organismic sensitivity to this other person (Arbuckle, 1970, p. 48).

The concept of the existential self is congruent with the concept of the phenomenal self; ". . . one could hardly hold to an existential concept without being acceptant of the basic phenomenological approach to reality and to the self (Arbuckle,

1970, p. 41)." This congruence is expressed by Rogers (1951) who sees a goal of human development as achieving a basic congruence between the phenomenal field of experience and the conceptual structure of the self.

A phenomenologist attempts to understand the behavior of an individual from the individual's point of view (Combs & Snygg, 1959). Phenomenological psychology is not new; Arbuckle (1970) says, "Descartes, in the early seventeenth century, was probably the first phenomenological psychologist, and his approach was simply to study the mind through the immediate experience as it appears at the conscious level (p. 39)."

Assumption Two

A second assumption is that a counselor must come to know himself and develop his own approach if he is to be effective. Berenson and Carkhuff (1967) believe the beginning point of any effective helping process is the counselor. "The counselor must trust his own experience, for in the end all that he has to offer the client is 100 percent of his own experience (p. 5)." Arbuckle (1970), Kell and Mueller (1966), Rogers (1961), and Shertzer and Stone (1968) support this view.

Allport's psychology of personality is an important basis for this assumption. Allport (1967), says, "The outlines of the needed psychology of becoming can be discovered by looking within ourselves; for it is knowledge of our own uniqueness

that supplies the first, and probably the best, hints for acquiring orderly knowledge of others (p. 164)."

Assumption Three

A third assumption is that the education of a counselor can help him to know himself. Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) believe education should be experientially based; as in all learning processes the individual's experience of the process is critical. Education should help the individual to experience himself fully since the ultimate goal of both counseling and the counseling program is the development of a whole person.

Concerning counselor preparation Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) believe that both the program and the people must be considered "in process." This implies functioning in the context of the best available knowledge but being open to the future and its potentially significant contributions. Fullmer and Bernard (1964) emphasize that counseling programs can become more effective by focusing on process as well as content.

Emphasis on experience is not a new idea. Dewey emphasized that "education is actual living and not just getting ready for living; he also believed it to be a process of growing (Meyer, 1957).

Assumption Four

A fourth assumption is that feedback is an important factor in learning. Annett (1969) and Wiener (1954) support

this assumption. Theories of Thorndike, Hull, Guthrie, and Skinner emphasize the importance of feedback (Baker, 1970). Feedback may help an individual to validate behavior, to give direction to behavior, to stimulate changes in behavior, and it may also help an individual to better understand his own behavior (Benne et al., 1964; Kolb, Winter, & Berlew, 1968; Matarazzo, 1971).

Assumption Five

A fifth assumption is that under proper conditions proactive forces emerge in individuals which permit experimentation with new behavior and a striving toward ideals. Harlow (1953), Rogers (1951), and White (1959) have documented the case for the existence of proactive motivation in human beings. The assumption is that individuals will be able to make realistic appraisals of their goals and inadequacies and become motivated to change themselves. Kolb, Winter, and Berlew (1968) offer support for the effectiveness of self-directed change.

Assumption Six

A sixth assumption is that changes in behavior are most likely to be present if the process of changing is seen by the individual to be under his own control. The most effective change method is one in which the individual feels that he, not an external agent, is responsible for the changes that occur. Experiments have shown that attitude change is greatest and most

enduring when the person feels that he has freely chosen to alter his point of view (Kolb, Winter, & Berlew, 1968; Secord & Backman, 1964).

Background of the Problem

Meltzoff and Kornreich (1970) point out that investigations have been made to study the qualifications, characteristics, and attitudes of counselors or therapists. One set of investigations has asked whether or not counselor variables such as professional qualifications, formal training, and experience affect the outcome of counseling. Much of the research in this area has investigated whether or not teachable skills enhance effectiveness. Also there has been concern with how professional identity and preparation affect attitudes and performance. Another set of investigations has examined how counselor characteristics such as sex, interests, and personality affect the relationship with the client. Counselor-offered conditions such as empathy, regard for the client, and genuineness have also been researched; much of this research has been concerned with whether or not these qualities are inherent and whether or not they can be enhanced or modified. Meltzoff and Kornreich (1970) concluded that more systematic investigation is needed.

Although there is an awareness of the need for relevant studies, counselor education programs continue to be planned

and implemented with little or no evidence to support what they do (Litwack, Getson, & Saltzman, 1968). One area that needs additional research is what content and experiences best prepare a person for counseling. Since there is a need in this area, information concerning the effect of feedback given to students in beginning counseling courses should be meaningful to those concerned with the preparation of counselors.

Statement of the Problem

Do students in a beginning counseling class who receive PAFC show a greater change toward: (a) less discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of ideal self, (b) more acceptance of self, (c) more acceptance of others, (d) more openness of belief systems, and (e) more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement than students in a beginning counseling class who do not receive PAFC?

Definitions of Terms

Feedback

In this study the feedback is Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling. PAFC is counseling based upon feedback to an individual about his own responses to a battery of psychological assessment instruments. PAFC is a personalization procedure. The goal of PAFC is to increase an individual's awareness of his feelings and behavior and allow him to take

an in depth look at himself in a safe atmosphere (Fuller & Newlove, 1970).

Concept of Self

The concept of self is an individual's information relative to his present self-organization as measured by the Index of Adjustment and Values (Bills, Vance, & McLean, 1951). See Appendix B for a copy of the Index of Adjustment and Values (IAV).

Concept of Ideal Self

The concept of ideal self is an individual's view of himself as he wishes to be as measured by the IAV.

Acceptance of Self

The person who is accepting of self is characterized by behavior guided by internalized values, faith in his ability to cope with life, responsibility, acceptance of criticism, sense of self-worth, and absence of shyness or self-consciousness (Sheerer, 1949). Acceptance of self is measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale (Berger, 1952). See Appendix C for a copy of the Self-Acceptance Scale (SAS).

Acceptance of Others

The person who is accepting of others does not reject, hate, dislike, or pass judgment against others when their behavior or values seem to contradict his own values and standards (Sheerer, 1949). Acceptance of others is measured by the SAS.

Openness of Belief Systems

The extent to which a person's belief system is open is the extent to which he can receive, evaluate, and act on relevant information from the outside on its intrinsic merits, unencumbered by irrelevant factors in the situation. In this study openness is measured by the Dogmatism Scale (Rokeach, 1956). See Appendix D for a copy of the Dogmatism Scale (DS).

Generalized Expectancies for Internal Control of Reinforcement

When a person perceives that an event is contingent upon his own behavior or his own relative permanent characteristics, this is considered a belief in internal control. Belief in internal control is measured by the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control (Rotter, 1966). See Appendix E for a copy of the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control (I-E Scale).

Need for the Study

The areas of counselor preparation and counselor selection have generated questions and criticisms for counseling programs (Shertzer & Stone, 1968; Whiteley, 1967). According to Truax and Mitchell (1971) there is no evidence that the traditional program has any value; they say, "In short, current procedures for selection and training are indefensible (p. 337)."

A criticism of counselor preparation programs is that they lack substantial content and are superficial (Shertzer & Stone, 1968). According to Arbuckle (1965), the counselor is a learned person, not a technician, and thus techniques and skills are of minimal importance in his preparation. Being a learned person, his professional preparation does not consist primarily of the memorization of information. Patterson (1959) suggests that it is the personality of the therapist which appears to be basic in counseling and psychotherapy and that academic information has little influence on this personality.

More than didactic information is needed because the counselor brings himself to the relationship. Learning about tests, reading widely, practicing interviewing techniques, and attempting to copy the behavior of experts is not enough because, ultimately, what a counselor brings to his encounters with his clients is himself (Kell & Mueller, 1966).

In reference to the personal qualities of the effective counselor, the APGA statement (1964) states that the effective counselor is characterized by six basic qualities. These are:

1. Belief in Each Individual. The counselor believes in the worth inherent in each individual, in his capacity for growth and change, and in his ability to cope with life situations. He has confidence in the individual's capacity to establish appropriate values and goals. He believes that under favorable conditions each individual can develop in directions beneficial to himself and to society.
2. Commitment to Individual Human Values. The counselor has a primary concern for the individual as a person whose feelings, values, goals, and success are

important. The counselor respects and appreciates individuality including the right and need of those whom he counsels to find their own best values, to determine their own goals, and to find ways to achieve these goals. He is concerned with facilitating this process in a manner that is helpful to the individual and to society.

3. Alertness to the World. The counselor is interested in the world. He is interested in understanding man, the forces which affect his goals, and his progress in achieving these goals. He is a person for whom the strivings, the achievements, and the creations of mankind have meaning and add richness to life.

4. Openmindedness. The counselor has respect for a wide range of interests, attitudes, and beliefs. He is willing to question the old and investigate the new. He is receptive to new ideas, achievements, and research findings.

5. Understanding of Self. The counselor has an understanding of himself and the ways in which his personal values, feelings, and needs can affect his work. He has a recognition of his own limitations and is able to make judgments as to when his limitations require referral to others better able to assist the counselee.

6. Professional Commitment. The counselor feels a commitment to counseling as a profession and as a means of assisting individuals in the development of their potentialities. He has an appreciation of his responsibility to his counselees and to society, and insists on sound practices to fulfill this responsibility. He has sufficient personal integrity and professional competence to enable him to cope with pressures inconsistent with a respect for the individual in a democratic society (pp. 537-538).

Not only does the APGA policy statement (1964) refer to the preparation of an effective counselor, but also it states that the preparation of counselors should provide experiences which contribute to a counselor's growth. The opportunity to achieve self-awareness is needed for growth (Shertzer & Stone, 1968). Therefore, consideration needs to be given to

ways in which counselor education may help students to become more aware of themselves as persons.

Feedback may be useful in helping to develop self-awareness (Patterson, 1959). There are few who would deny that feedback is important to an individual and will affect his future behavior (Annett, 1969). Truax and Mitchell (1971) refer to feedback as the basis of the phenomena of learning itself and indicate that feedback is basic to effective counselor preparation programs. One way of providing feedback about self is PAFC.

Research Questions

This study was designed to determine if more change occurred in a group of students who received PAFC than in a group of students who did not receive PAFC. There is a relationship between feedback and behavior change (Benne et al., 1964; Kolb, Winter, & Berlew, 1968). The research questions were:

1. Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward less discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of ideal self as measured by the Index of Adjustment and Values?
2. Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more self-

acceptance as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale?

3. Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more acceptance of others as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale?
4. Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more openness of belief systems as measured by the Dogmatism Scale?
5. Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement as measured by the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control?

Summary

This chapter has presented an introduction to the study. Theoretical bases for the study were examined; the background of the problem was given; the problem was stated; relevant terms were defined; the need for the study was established; and research questions were presented.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling

Information fed back to a subject about his performance is generally conceded to influence his subsequent performance (Fuller, Peck, Bown, Menaker, White, & Veldman, 1969). One type of feedback is PAFC which is designed to feed back information about students to themselves.

PAFC was a variable in a five-year study at The University of Texas; this study was known as the Personality, Teacher Education, and Behavior Project (PEB Project). The PEB Project was concerned with the effects of differing experimental treatments on teacher trainees. The changes in a group of 79 female elementary school teacher trainees over a two year training period have been described by Fuller et al. (1969) and Menaker and Fuller (1967). Similar results for 47 secondary school teacher trainees were also reported by Fuller et al. (1969).

In this five-year study the subjects were divided into four groups; all groups were given a battery of tests and were filmed while teaching at the beginning and at the end of the study. Group A, the control group, received no additional treatment. Group B, the test interpretation--counseling group, received PAFC. Group C, the film feedback--test interpretation

group, received PAFC and also had a film feedback session in which they saw their own teaching films with a counselor and a supervisor. Group D, the psychological placement--test interpretation--film feedback group, received PAFC, had film feedback, and were placed for their student teaching semester in a situation judged by the counselor, principal, and supervisor to be maximally facilitating.

For the purpose of analysis the control group, Group A, was compared with the pooled experimental group (Group B + Group C + Group D). The two groups were compared on a total of 70 variables derived from the film data, the test data, and exit interviews. Each of the measures taken from personality instruments, films, and Self-Evaluation Forms was used in turn as the dependent variable in a complex analysis of variance design using treatment groups as the first factor in the design. The pre- and post-level measures of each subject constituted the second factor in the design. Analyses of personality and film data were run separately for elementary and secondary subjects.

In the test analysis the test of Directed Imagination proved most sensitive to differential changes over time between experimental and control groups. Five variables showed significant differential changes or strong tendencies toward such change over time for elementary teachers. Experimental subjects became more specific in focus and began dealing with a group of

pupils as a collection of individuals. Also they became more organized, told stories which were more interesting and story-like, and indicated relatively more crisis and emotion. In later stories experimental subjects described teachers as possessing increased coping ability whereas the control subjects described teachers as having less coping ability. Menaker and Fuller (1967) concluded that these were reasonable findings given the desired expected effects of experimental treatment.

Four of the Directed Imagination variables showed significant differential changes or strong tendencies toward such changes over time for secondary teachers. Experimental subjects became more organized and more imaginative. They also reported more crises and became more specific in focus.

In the analysis of Sentence Completion Data, few variables showed differential changes. The control group of elementary teachers indicated more pervasive optimism in later testing while the experimental group showed less optimism. More differential changes were found for secondary teachers. Control subjects became less positive in their perception of others whereas experimental subjects tended to remain the same. Experimental subjects indicated an increase in ability to withstand stress and an increase in ability to deal with children. The experimental group also became more positive toward authority figures.

Nine attitudinal variables derived from the Self-Report Inventory were analyzed. Only one variable showed differential change for elementary teachers; the control group became more positive on self-reported attitude to parents whereas the experimental group expressed a more negative attitude. It was suggested that experimental subjects might be more self-confident and more open and therefore felt freer to express negative attitudes. None of the variables showed differential changes for secondary teachers; however, some of the Self-Report Inventory variables showed changes over time for both secondary and elementary teachers.

In the film analysis it was found that the two-year training period produced a number of significant changes in both the experimental and control group of elementary teachers. Teachers accepted pupils' ideas more, addressed more questions to the pupils, spent less time lecturing, corrected pupils more, and devoted increased time to behaviors classified as indirect. One differential change between the groups was also found; the experimental group spent less time lecturing. In reference to these changes, Menaker and Fuller (1967) stated that the changes were compatible with the interpretation that the experimental group changed in the direction of the superior teacher whereas the control group remained more similar to the average teacher.

Only the data from the post films was analyzed for secondary teachers. One significant difference was found between

experimental and control subjects' filmed behavior. Experimental subjects spent less time correcting and criticizing pupils than did control subjects.

Because the three experimental groups were pooled, it was not possible to delineate specifically what was attributable to PAFC and what was attributable to the other kinds of feedback. Baker (1970) referred to this as a flaw in the research.

In another study from the PEB Project, Fuller, Menaker, Peck, and Bown (1967) hypothesized that teachers who received PAFC and film feedback would become more open in their teaching and would invite feedback from others more than controls would. The Amidon-Flanders Interaction Analysis was adapted for use with sound films to include categories related to hypotheses under investigation. It was concluded that the psychological feedback enhanced changes toward behavior characteristics of more highly rated teachers. According to Fuller et al. (1969), "Counseled teachers, having, in the absence of any suggestion to this effect, decreased their lecturing and increased their questioning significantly more than controls, became in these behaviors more open to feedback than non-counseled teachers (p. 8)."

In a study related to this research, Albrecht (1968) indicated that there was more congruence between self-concept and ideal self for the teachers who received all three treatments as opposed to those who received only the PAFC or the

PAFC and film feedback. She indicated that PAFC and film feedback were more successful in reducing discrepancies between self and ideal when teachers were placed in situations conducive to personal growth.

In a report concerning the effects of personalized feedback during teacher preparation, Fuller et al. (1969) considered some questions relevant to PAFC. One question was concerned with whether or not teachers who received feedback changed in ways which were different from changes demonstrated by teachers who received no feedback. In reference to this change, it was stated that the changes observed in experimental subjects differed from those observed in control subjects not so much in kind as in degree; the experimental group was helped to move further along. Since all subjects knew they were receiving extra attention that students in other teacher education courses did not receive, the "Hawthorne" effect may have been minimized and control-experimental differences may have been somewhat equalized.

Self-report data were used to answer the question concerning attitude toward feedback. Three-quarters of the elementary teachers who received assessment feedback reported it to be helpful; however, only one-fifth of the secondary teachers reported assessment feedback to be helpful. It was also reported that those who received PAFC, film feedback, and psychological placement reported the most positive attitudes toward testing and feedback.

Feedback

Although there was a paucity of studies in which PAFC had been used, there were many studies where feedback was a variable. Feedback of information relevant to one's change in behavior was found to be an important variable in the producing of that change (Watson, 1969). This was supported by the feedback model of learning developed by Miller, Galanter, and Pribram (1960). In reference to the relationship between feedback and behavior change, Kolb, Winter, and Berlew (1968) stated, "The more an individual can effectively utilize the feedback of information appropriate to his change project, the more successful he will be in attaining his change goal (p. 469)."

Focusing and Confrontation

Staines (1969) and Stoller (1968) suggested that feedback needs to be accompanied by some focusing if it is to be effective. Baker (1970) suggested that studies relative to therapeutic conditions for client change have shown confrontation to be a critical variable. He added that confrontation should be done in a situation where the subject feels secure, is not too threatened, and trusts the counselor.

Feedback as a Variable

Kolb, Winter, and Berlew (1968) conducted two studies with Master's degree candidates in Industrial Management. Two hypotheses were tested. Hypothesis 1 stated that there would

be a positive relationship between the amount of initial commitment to a change goal and the degree of subsequent change in behavior, and Hypothesis 2 stated that the more an individual could effectively utilize the feedback information appropriate to his change project, the more successful he would be in attaining his change goal. Change was assessed both by the student and a T-group trainer; the correlation between those ratings was significant at the .05 level. The differences between the feedback and no-feedback conditions of Experiment 1 were significant at the .05 level. The differences between feedback and no-feedback were not given for Experiment 1. The results were interpreted as confirming the hypotheses about the role of commitment and of feedback in the change process. They further stressed that quantity of feedback was not the only important element in the feedback process; readiness for feedback and appropriateness of feedback should also be considered. Although these results were not conclusive, they suggested that self-direction was not a fixed personality trait but that the ability to change oneself can be learned and modified by environmental conditions.

Winter, Griffith, and Kolb (1968) conducted a similar study with 24 students and then cross-validated the findings with a sample of 31 students. Results suggested that successful self-directed change is motivated by an individual's desire to reduce the dissonance created when he commits himself to a

goal that he sees as different from his present behavior. It is also suggested that an individual needs to feel within himself the competency to reach his goals if he is to be successful in self-directed change.

In a pilot research project Ringness and Larson (1965) evaluated certain aspects of the personalities of elementary school teachers and experimentally manipulated feedback concerning findings to the subjects and their supervisors to determine whether such feedback induced differential changes in student teacher relationships, in personality reassessment, and in ways supervisors worked with student teachers. Evidence suggested that the provision of personality information and recommendations to student teachers and supervisors was useful. The conclusion was that there seems to be a need for providing the teacher with personality information well in advance of student teaching to provide opportunity for self-evaluation and change under conditions of less pressure than afforded in student teaching. Lantz (1964) supported the idea that positive changes in self-concept and concepts of others occur slowly in a nonthreatening atmosphere.

The literature contains many studies where feedback has made significant differences. The following studies are relevant to this review only because they suggest the diversity of studies in which feedback has been used as a variable and has made a difference. Boyd and Sisney (1967) found that self-

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image confrontation via video tape produced changes in self-concept and concepts of interpersonal behavior of inpatients on a psychiatric ward. Gibb and Platts (1950) concluded that self-insight could be increased by feedback. Gibb, Smith, and Roberts (1955) and Lott, Schopler, and Gibb (1955) conducted studies and found that positive feedback and feeling-oriented feedback produced less defensive feeling in groups.

Ivey, Normington, Miller, Morrill, and Haase (1968) used microcounseling, which emphasized feedback, to train counselors in basic skills; results supported the hypotheses that counselors would improve in attending behavior, reflection of feeling, and summarization of feelings. Truax and Carkhuff (1967) successfully used feedback in order to modify responses and teach therapeutic skills. Reddy (1968) demonstrated that immediate feedback helped undergraduate students to learn empathy. Feedback was used to help both naive and professional counselors improve their number of correct clinical predictions (Imig, Krauskopf, & Williams, 1967).

Research by Bryan (1963) suggested that teachers altered behavior as an outcome of receiving feedback from students. The effects of interaction analysis feedback on the verbal behavior of student teachers was investigated by Bondi (1969); he found that the differences for the group that received feedback was significant at the .05 level in 15 of 24 analyses. Feedback also made a difference in retention according to Berglund

(1969) and Cameron (1966). In the area of programmed learning, the use of feedback was found to be effective by Fleming (1963) and by Hirsch (1952).

Feedback was also found to be valuable in the maintenance of skills. Mager and Pipe (1970) reported that the quality of work in an electronics assembly plant was decreasing although workers were constantly using their skills. Investigation revealed that there was no way for production line workers to receive feedback about the quality of their work. After a performance maintenance program was introduced, the skill level was maintained by providing the workers with periodic feedback concerning the quality of their work.

Feedback may have a negative effect as well as a positive effect. In a study with 286 teachers, Tuckman and Oliver (1968) found that feedback from supervisors had a negative effect whereas feedback from students had a positive effect. Janis and Terwilliger (1962) found that threatening communication may arouse a high level of fear and produce resistance to attitude change. In a study with 43 graduate students, Siegel (1969) concluded that feedback not only failed to lead to self-learning but was distorted if it was inconsistent with the respondent's self-image. According to Canter (1969) alcoholics who were to confront themselves through a test interpretation experienced threat and uncertainty, especially as they anticipated the experience. Nielsen (1964) suggested that viewing

oneself may be stressful and anxiety-producing. According to Staines (1969) feedback could be an aversive stimulus.

There are also studies in which feedback as a variable has made no difference. Keim (1967) investigated the effects of written feedback on the teaching behavior, attitudes, and opinions of 64 tenth-grade teachers. He found no significant differences among the groups although there were some changes, both positive and negative, in verbal teaching behavior. The experimental manipulation of evaluative feedback made no significant difference upon the self-reports of male undergraduate students in a study by West (1968). Working with a group of 36 hospital patients, Robinson (1968) hypothesized that there would be greater decreases in maladaptive social responses and increases in adaptive social responses for the experimental group. The experimental group received feedback, and the control group did not. Self-rating data did not support this hypothesis although rater data did support it. Freid (1970) worked with 94 participants in a human relations training laboratory and found that the presence or absence of feedback made no significant difference.

Implications of Feedback for Counselors

The literature which suggests that the person is important in counseling and that feedback may be useful in helping the counselor to develop self-awareness was reviewed

in Chapter I. Therefore, this portion of Chapter II intends only to reiterate that an issue in counselor education has been whether or not preparation programs have made an effort to develop an individual's awareness to the dynamics of his own behavior which might allow for insight into human nature. It is also reiterated that feedback is effective in increasing an individual's awareness of himself and in motivating him to change. .

Summary

The literature reviewed in this chapter has given support to the idea that change in humans does occur. It has also been stated that counselor education programs should help students to become more aware of themselves as persons. In some cases feedback has been suggested to be useful in the development of this awareness and in the motivation of change.

The literature has indicated that feedback of information is an important variable in the producing of change in behavior; feedback may serve to stimulate changes in behavior, feeling, attitude, perception, and knowledge. Studies have shown that feedback may have either positive or negative effects, and some studies have indicated that feedback makes no significant difference. Focusing and confrontation have often been found to be important elements of the feedback process.

One type of feedback, PAFC, is designed to feed back information about students to themselves. PAFC has been used as a variable in few studies, and the studies in which it has been used have not specifically delineated what changes were attributable to PAFC and what changes were attributable to other types of feedback.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of this study was to determine if students in a beginning counseling class who received Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling showed a greater change toward: (a) less discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of ideal self, (b) more acceptance of self, (c) more acceptance of others, (d) more openness of belief systems, and (e) more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement than students in a beginning counseling class who did not receive Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling.

Design

The design used in this study was the Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design, a design which Campbell and Stanley (1963) strongly recommend. Campbell and Stanley (1963) suggest that this design has good internal validity; however, they do indicate that external validity may be affected if the treatment interacts with the pretest.

Hypotheses

The research questions of this study were answered by tests of the following null hypotheses:

- H₁ There is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in self-ideal congruency as measured by the Index of Adjustment and Values.
- H₂ There is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in acceptance of self as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale.
- H₃ There is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in acceptance of others as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale.
- H₄ There is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in openness of belief systems as measured by the Dogmatism Scale.
- H₅ There is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement as measured by the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control.

The .05 level of significance was accepted as the criterion for rejection of the above hypotheses.

Sample

The subjects for this study were 28 students enrolled in a beginning counseling course at the University of Houston, Houston, Texas, during the fall semester of 1971. Of the participating students 27 were master's level and 1 was an undergraduate. Subjects were randomly assigned to either the experimental or the control group. The experimental group consisted of 2 males and 12 females; the control group consisted of 4 males and 10 females. The mean age for the experimental group was 28.8 and the mean age for the control group was 28.1.

Instrumentation

The instruments used in this study were self-report instruments. Kolb, Winter, and Berlew (1968) give a rationale for this type of assessment. They say:

There are two reasons for emphasizing subjective criteria of change. First, we think that subjective feelings are important in and of themselves as a criterion for successful change. Rogers and Dymond (1954), for example, have used self-concept ratings as their central criterion measure in assessing the effects of psychotherapy and have demonstrated lasting changes in these subjective self-evaluations. If a person can improve his evaluation of himself and maintain this feeling over time, then it seems difficult to argue that this does not represent a significant change in his life. Furthermore, it seems that for some problems a "subjective" criterion is the only one that is conceivably appropriate. For example, in many of the self-directed change projects the person is trying to effect change in his thoughts or feelings. In these cases, success is achieved only when the person perceives that he feels different. An observer's evaluation of change in these projects is thus likely to be more inferential and inaccurate than the person's own evaluations (pp. 461-462).

Index of Adjustment and Values

This instrument was developed by Bills, Vance, and McLean (1951). The IAV is based on a conceptual scheme termed "phenomenological psychology." According to this conception maladjustment refers to the discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of the ideal self. The concept of self is defined as an individual's information relative to his present self-organization, and the concept of the ideal self is an individual's view of himself as he wishes to be. The concept of self may be further defined as the traits and values which the individual has accepted as definitions of himself; a trait is an adjective which may be used to describe a person, and a value is a trait which the individual considers desirable. This self-evaluation instrument consists of 49 words and yields information concerning self-concept, ideal self-concept, and self-acceptance.

The IAV discrepancy score is the total of the differences between the self-concept and the ideal self ratings. Since maladjustment refers to the discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of the ideal self, a small discrepancy score indicates a high degree of adjustment.

The reliability and validity of the IAV are discussed by Robinson and Shaver (1969):

Reliability/Homogeneity. The 49-item IAV as administered to 237 students at the University of Kentucky. The odd-even split-half reliability of the self-acceptance scale

(Column II) was .91 ($p < .001$). For the discrepancy scores (difference between Columns I and III ignoring sign) this figure was .88 ($p < .001$). After six weeks 175 students were retested, yielding a test-retest reliability coefficient of .83 for self-acceptance and .87 for discrepancy scores (in both cases, $p < .001$). For these 175 students, self-acceptance and discrepancy scores from the first test were correlated and a coefficient of $-.77$ was obtained ($p < .001$). This indicates that the expected relationship exists between self-ideal incongruence and self-acceptance as measured within the IAV.

Validity. In the 1951 report, several investigations relevant to validity were reported. Here these can only be briefly mentioned. 1) Twenty female college students were given the IAV and then a Rorschach examination. Several comparisons between Rorschach indexes of adjustment and self-acceptance scores were made and a remarkable correspondence was obtained in each case. 2) Three classes in mental hygiene received the IAV at the beginning and end of the semester course (total $N=38$). By chance alone, two students were expected to show changes in self-acceptance greater than 1.97 times the standard error of measurement. In fact, 14 students showed such a change (toward greater acceptance). 3) In a study involving 142 college students the IAV was administered one week before a questionnaire about sources of personal unhappiness--these sources being scored as either threats from self or threats from others. "Acceptance of self scores below the population mean were significantly related to threat from self and acceptance of self scores above the population mean were significantly related to threat from others (p. 93)."

Since 1951 other studies have contributed evidence for the validity of the IAV. Roberts (1952) investigated the validity of the IAV; with a group of 50 subjects he compared measures of emotionality as indicated by this index with measures of emotionality as obtained from a free-association test. Reaction time was significantly longer for trait words on which the subjects indicated discrepancy between concept of self and concept of the ideal self.

Bills (1953) designed a study to verify Roberts' conclusions and to investigate changes in emotionality when changes in ratings occur from test to retest. Fifty volunteer students were tested with the IAV and a free association test which used the traits of the Index as stimulus words. Fourteen weeks later the subjects were retested with both measures. Data from this study confirmed Roberts' conclusion. The data also permitted the conclusion that changes in trait ratings on the IAV from test to retest are accompanied by changes in the emotionality of the traits for the subjects.

A study with 13 subjects was conducted by Bills (1954) to establish that acceptance of self as measured by the IAV and by interviews are essentially the same. It was found that what a subject says about himself in an interview corresponds highly with the ratings he gives himself on the IAV.

In reference to the IAV, Robinson and Shaver (1969) say:

This is one of the better self-evaluation instruments. It is easy to understand and has been successfully administered to thousands of high school and college students, as well as to various non-student groups. Much information about correlates, reliability, and validity has been carefully collected and organized by Bills (p. 94).

Wylie (1961) has suggested that the use of discrepancy scores is subject to caution. In reference to this caution, Robinson and Shaver (1969) state that the addition of a self-acceptance measure makes it possible to explore further the meaning of discrepancy scores on the IAV.

Only 9 of the 49 traits on the IAV are negative; therefore, Wylie (1961) suggests that the control for acquiescence response set may be inadequate. Wylie (1961) indicates that more information is available on the norms, reliability, and validity of the IAV than on any other measure of the self-concept included in her survey. Although many indices have been used only once or twice, the IAV and Berger's SAS are exceptions and have been explored more extensively.

Self-Acceptance Scale

This 64-item scale was developed by Berger (1952) to measure self-acceptance and acceptance of others. Self-acceptance and acceptance of others are defined in accordance with Sheerer's study (1949). The self-accepting person is characterized by behavior guided by internalized values, faith in his ability to cope with life, responsibility, acceptance of criticism, sense of self-worth, and absence of shyness or self-consciousness. The person who is accepting of others does not reject, hate, dislike, or pass judgment against others when their behavior or values seem to contradict his own standards and values. Instead he grants others the right to their own beliefs, values, and standards and shows a desire to create mutually satisfactory relations.

The score is computed by obtaining a total for the 36 items which measure self-acceptance and by obtaining a total

for the 28 items which measure acceptance of others. The high acceptance end of the answer scale is 1; therefore, a low score indicates a high degree of acceptance.

The reliability and validity of the SAS are discussed by Shaw and Wright (1967):

Reliability. Split-half reliabilities were obtained for five groups ranging in size from 18 to 183. These were reported to be .894 or better for the self-acceptance scale for all but one group, which was .746. Similar reliabilities for the acceptance-of-others scale ranged from .776 to .884. All estimates were corrected by the Spearman-Brown formula.

Validity. Several estimates of validity were obtained for these scales, in marked contrast to most of the scales described in this volume. First, one group (N=20) was asked to write freely about their attitudes toward themselves, and another group (N=20) was asked to write about their attitudes toward others. These "essays" were then rated by four judges and the mean ratings correlated with the corresponding scale scores. The correlation was .897 for self-acceptance and .727 for acceptance of others.

Second, a group of stutterers (N=38) were compared with a group of nonstutterers, matched for age and sex. The stutterers had lower mean scores than nonstutterers ($p < .06$) on the self-acceptance scale. For the acceptance-of-others scale, a group of prisoners was compared with a group of college students, matched for age, sex, and race. As expected, prisoners scored lower on the acceptance-of-others scale than the students (p about .02). The prisoners also scored lower on the self-acceptance scale ($p < .01$).

Finally, members of a speech rehabilitation group (N=7) were rated for self-acceptance by clinical assistance. This score correlated .59 with the self-acceptance score, which was not significantly higher than chance. This is not consistent with other results, but the small number of cases and the probable unreliability of the ratings by the clinical assistants raise some question about this estimate of validity.

In general, these scales appear to have been carefully developed, and the author has provided more than the usual amount of evidence of validity.

Comments. This is the most carefully developed scale to measure attitude toward self that we found in the literature. Evidence of validity is more extensive than for most scales in this book (pp. 432-433).

Wylie (1961) indicates that the self items in the SAS are all phrased negatively; therefore, she suggests that the questionnaire may not control sufficiently for acquiescence response set. However, as mentioned earlier, she states that this scale has been explored more extensively than most other scales.

Dogmatism Scale

This 40 item instrument was developed by Rokeach (1956). It measures individual differences in openness or closedness of belief systems. Rokeach (1960) states that the extent to which a person's belief system is open is the extent to which the person can receive, evaluate, and act on relevant information from the outside on its intrinsic merits, unencumbered by irrelevant factors in the situation arising from within or from outside.

The score is computed by obtaining a total for the 40 items. A high score indicates a high degree of dogmatism; therefore, a low score indicates more openness of belief systems.

The split-half corrected reliability obtained for the DS when administered to 80 English college students was .81.

When administered to 60 English workers, the reliability was .78 (Robinson & Shaver, 1969).

In reference to validity results of an item analysis are given in Robinson and Shaver (1969). Correlations and comparisons among different groups on the DS and other variables are also presented. According to Robinson and Shaver (1969), results indicate that Rokeach's scale accomplishes the purpose for which it was constructed.

Scale to Measure Internal
Versus External Control

This 23-item scale was developed by Rotter (1966). The I-E Scale is concerned with the effects of perceived internal versus external control of reinforcement. When a person perceives that an event is contingent upon his own behavior or his own relative permanent characteristics, this is considered a belief in internal control. When an event is perceived by a person as the result of chance, as under the control of others, or as unpredictable because of the many surrounding forces, this is considered a belief in external control. Acquisition and performance differ in situations perceived as determined by skill versus chance; persons may also differ in generalized expectancies for internal versus external control of reinforcement (Rotter, 1966).

The score is computed by obtaining a total for the number of external beliefs endorsed. A low score indicates more

generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement.

Robinson and Shaver (1969) report reliability and validity for the I-E Scale:

Reliability/Homogeneity. For the student group . . . an internal consistency analysis (Kuder-Richardson) yielded $r = .70$ for males, and the same for females. For two subgroups of this population test-retest reliability coefficients were computed. After one month: males, $r = .60$ ($N = 30$); females, $r = .83$ ($N = 30$); combined, $r = .72$ ($N = 60$). After two months: males, $r = .49$ ($N = 63$); females, $r = .61$ ($N = 54$); combined $r = .55$ ($N = 117$). Rotter suggests that part of the decrease after the two-month period is due to differences in administration (group vs. individual).

Validity. Correlations with the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (1964) range from $-.07$ to $-.35$. Several factor analyses reported by Rotter support the assumption of unidimensionality of the I-E Scale, and numerous laboratory and survey studies give evidence for its construct validity . . . (p. 143).

Hersch and Scheibe (1967) also report on the test-retest reliabilities and personality scale correlates of the I-E Scale. They say:

I-E is found to relate consistently to measures of maladjustment, with internal scorers less maladjusted. I-E is consistently related to a variety of personality scales, with internal scorers describing themselves as more active, striving, achieving, powerful, independent, and effective. For 2 of 3 samples, internal scorers were also significantly more effective as mental hospital volunteers than external scorers. These results are consistent with those reported in previous reviews, but adjectival descriptions of extreme scorers, as well as other data, suggest that internal scorers are a more homogeneous group than external scorers (p. 609).

Finally these comments are made by Robinson and Shaver (1969):

This scale has been used in a number of interesting and important studies. It is relatively short and easy to comprehend. It would be helpful to have more evidence regarding its relation to other self-concept measures reported in this chapter, but little comparative work has been done so far. The conceptual similarities between "internal control," self-esteem, and personal efficacy appear to be great, but whether there is a corresponding similarity of measures remains to be seen (p. 144).

Procedures

Students from two sections of CED 633, a beginning counseling course, were randomly assigned to either the experimental or control group. The two sections followed the same course outline, and weekly meetings were held so that the instructors could synchronize activities. During the first week of the semester pretest scores for the IAV, SAS, DS, and I-E Scale were obtained.

Students were also given a battery of psychological assessment instruments (Adjective Self-Description, Biographical Information Form, Directed Imagination, One-Word Sentence Completion, and Self-Report Inventory); PAFC was based upon feedback to the student about his responses to these instruments. The treatment was PAFC; students in the experimental group saw a counselor to receive PAFC. Each student was scheduled to have three 50-minute interviews with the counselor. Thirteen members of the experimental group had three 50-minute interviews, and one member of the experimental group had only two 50-minute interviews. Data for all members of the experimental group were

included in the analysis. The counselor was an advanced graduate student from the Guidance and Counseling Department who had been trained to work with the assessment instruments and to provide PAFC. The investigator was not the counselor.

After the students completed the battery of assessment instruments, the counselor assessed the test data for each student. A report which gave an in depth picture of the student was derived from these data. The primary purpose of this report was to help the counselor understand the student as a person. The assessment data also helped the counselor to understand the student's concerns. The data were useful in helping the counselor to estimate the student's interest in and readiness for a discussion of his own feelings.

The profile derived from the assessment data was only hypothetical, and during the interviews the counselor checked his inferences and hypotheses. Information from the assessment instruments did not replace personal observation and experience with the individual; instead it provided a concise summary of the individual's characteristics within a consistent conceptual framework (Personalized Education, 1970). The assessment data was never knowingly valued more than the behavior of the student.

Although PAFC gave feedback to students about their responses to the tests, it was more than direct test interpretation. The counselor made interpretations when they became

appropriate during the course of the interview. Appropriateness of giving feedback depended upon what information the client could use, what transpired during the interview, and the counselor's style as recommended by Fuller and Newlove (1970).

In the initial interview an introduction to the purpose of feedback counseling was made. The counselor explained that he would not evaluate but would give some impressions about what the student seemed to think or feel about himself. The counselor also explained that these interviews were confidential.

The objective of the early moments of PAFC was to establish a relationship with the client in a safe atmosphere. The counselor did not quote verbatim from the assessment report; instead the feedback was presented within the context of discussion. Fuller and Newlove (1970) say, "Most feedback is very much like therapy--good-natured, open conversation (p. 27)."

The counselor indicated that the student was the authority on himself. The student was encouraged to focus on himself and his feelings; PAFC had the potential of helping him to become aware of behavior and feelings which he had never before considered. Focus of the feedback was information about self and situations personally relevant to the student. Reactions and observations by the counselor were presented as tentative impressions. The counselor did not make judgments about the student but provided him an opportunity to be honest with himself in a safe atmosphere. Lantz (1964) suggests that positive changes in self-concept occur in a nonthreatening atmosphere.

In these interviews the student and counselor discussed the student's personal characteristics and how these related to a counseling career and what the student might do to enhance his existing strengths or how he might deal with problems. Personal concerns related to counseling were also discussed. The orientation of PAFC was developmental rather than remedial or clinical.

Fuller and Newlove (1970) suggest that PAFC should be combined with other kinds of personalization procedures. CED 633, Introduction to Guidance and Counseling, contributed to the personalization procedure since this course focused on feelings, attitudes, and interpersonal relationships. This course was designed to assist the student in developing self-understanding. The student was also asked to consider the counseling profession and himself in relation to it. The Johari Window (Luft, 1970) was used as a model to illustrate relationships in terms of awareness:

	Known to self	Not known to self
Known to others	Open	Blind
Not known to others	Hidden	Unknown

Students participated in exercises and discussions designed to

develop awareness of self and of feelings. The sharing of self was also emphasized; throughout the semester communication and feedback were encouraged.

Each student in the control group was assigned one three-hour individual project. These assignments focused on the counseling profession. Since these students were planning to become counselors, there was a need for them to obtain information about the counseling profession. Vocational theorists suggest that an individual should obtain information about an occupation in which he is interested and consider both the occupation and himself in relation to it (Hoppock, 1967). Each student in the control group discussed his project with an advanced graduate student from the Guidance and Counseling Department; this was the same student who gave the PAFC to the experimental group.

Students in both groups were enrolled in CED 633 and participated in the same activities except experimental subjects received PAFC where the focus was on themselves and control subjects did a traditional assignment where the focus was on the counseling profession. Students were told that they were participating in different projects and were asked not to discuss these projects with one another.

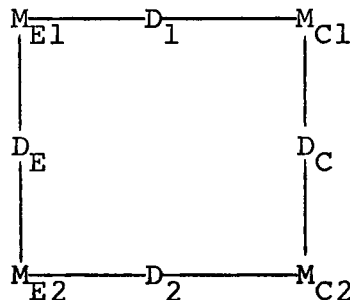
After 13 weeks posttest scores for the IAV, SAS, DS, and I-E Scale were obtained. Pretest and posttest scores were examined to determine changes.

Analysis

The hypotheses were statements of change; therefore, the statistical analysis was a series of one-tailed t tests of the difference between correlated means which examined the degree of change in the experimental group as opposed to the degree of change in the control group. In reference to a statistical test of the difference between changes, Guilford (1965) notes:

The simplest approach is to treat the changes as the quantities to be compared, whether they are means of changes or sets of individual changes. There are several ways of estimating the standard error of the mean change depending upon how the two groups were formed. With D_E standing for the mean change of the experimental group ($D_E = M_{E2} - M_{E1}$) and D_C standing for the mean change of the control group ($D_C = M_{C2} - M_{C1}$), we are testing the significance of the difference $D_E - D_C$ (pp. 195-196).

The following diagram from Guilford (1965, p. 194) illustrates differences between pairs of means in an experiment having an experimental and a control group and pre- and post-tests.



Since there were five scores, a series of t tests were used to examine differences. This series of t tests examined the mean change differences between the experimental group and the control group in: (a) the discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of ideal self, (b) the acceptance of self, (c) the acceptance of others, (d) the openness of belief systems, and (e) the generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement.

Summary

A description and discussion of the methods and procedures used in this study have been presented in this chapter. Twenty-eight students were randomly divided into an experimental group and a control group. Five hypotheses were tested to determine if a group of beginning counseling students who received Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling changed more than a group of beginning counseling students who did not receive Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling.

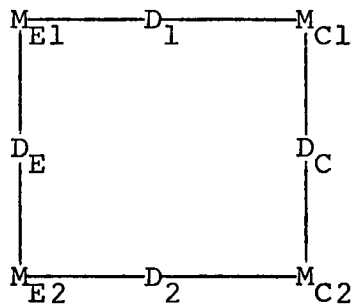
Data were gathered by means of the Index of Adjustment and Values, the Self-Acceptance Scale, the Dogmatism Scale, and the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control. One-tailed t tests were used to examine the degree of change in the two groups.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Results of Hypotheses Tests

In the reporting of the results, reference is made to the following diagram (Guilford, 1965, p. 194) which illustrates differences between pairs of means in an experiment having an experimental and a control group and pre- and posttests. This diagram is described in detail in Chapter III.



Hypothesis One

The null form of hypothesis one follows:

H_1 There is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in self-ideal congruency as measured by the Index of Adjustment and Values.

A t ratio of 2.4654 was obtained for the difference between changes in self-ideal congruency between the experimental group and the control group ($D_E - D_C$) indicating a significant difference. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Findings Related to Hypothesis One

The significance of the differences $M_{E1} - M_{E2}$ and $M_{C1} - M_{C2}$ or D_E and D_C was also tested. The t ratio for D_E was 3.3981 indicating a significant difference in the IAV mean pre- and posttest scores for the experimental group. The t ratio for D_C was .3899 indicating no significant difference in the IAV mean pre- and posttest scores for the control group.

A t ratio of .0262 was obtained for the difference between the experimental pretest mean and the control pretest mean ($M_{E1} - M_{C1}$). This ratio indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean pretest scores for the two groups.

Means and standard deviations for the IAV are shown in Table 1. Table 2 gives the t ratios for the IAV. A score distribution for the IAV is given in Appendix F.

TABLE 1
Means and Standard Deviations for the IAV

	Group E		Group C	
	M	SD	M	SD
Pretest	32.5000	39.4652	32.3571	62.0581
Posttest	25.2857	21.1389	33.3571	60.7224
Difference	7.2143	28.6418	-1.0000	34.6122

Table 1 gives the means and standard deviations for the IAV.

TABLE 2
t Ratios for the IAV

	<u>t</u>
$M_{E1} - M_{C1}$.0262
D_E	3.3981*
D_C	.3899
$D_E - D_C$	2.4654*

*p < .05

Table 2 indicates that the E and C Groups were not significantly different at the beginning of the study. Group E showed a significant change toward more self-ideal congruency; Group C did not show a significant change toward more self-ideal congruency. The difference between the groups was significant.

Hypothesis Two

The null form of hypothesis two follows:

H₂ There is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in self-acceptance as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale.

A t ratio of 1.3981 was obtained for the difference between changes in self-acceptance between the experimental

group and the control group ($D_E - D_C$). This ratio indicated no significant difference. Since there was no significant difference, the hypothesis was not rejected.

Findings Related to Hypothesis Two

The significance of the differences D_E and D_C was also tested. The t ratio for D_E was 1.7432, and the t ratio for D_C was .2124. These ratios indicated that there was no significant difference between SAS self-acceptance mean pre- and post-test scores for either the experimental group or the control group.

A t ratio was obtained for the difference between the pretest mean scores ($M_{E1} - M_{C1}$). This ratio, .1987, indicated that there was no significant difference between the experimental pretest mean and the control pretest mean.

Means and standard deviations for the SAS self-acceptance are shown in Table 3, and Table 4 gives the t ratios for the SAS self-acceptance. The SAS self-acceptance score distribution is given in Appendix G.

TABLE 3
Means and Standard Deviations for the
SAS Self-Acceptance

	Group E		Group C	
	M	SD	M	SD
Pretest	73.4286	61.6395	75.0000	87.0976
Posttest	68.0000	55.1905	75.6429	91.5708
Difference	5.4286	42.0170	-.6429	40.8315

Table 3 gives the means and standard deviations for the SAS self-acceptance.

TABLE 4
t ratios for the SAS Self-Acceptance

	<u>t</u>
$M_{E1} - M_{C1}$.1987
D_E	1.7432
D_C	.2124
$D_E - D_C$	1.3981

Table 4 indicates that the E and C Groups were not significantly different at the beginning of the study. Neither Group E nor Group C showed a significant change toward more self-acceptance. The difference between the groups was not significant.

Hypothesis Three

The null form of hypothesis three follows:

H_3 There is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in acceptance of others as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale.

A t ratio of 1.3702 was obtained for the difference between changes in acceptance of others between the experimental

group and the control group ($D_E - D_C$). This t ratio was non-significant; therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Findings Related to Hypothesis Three

The t ratio for D_E was .3879 indicating no significant difference in the SAS acceptance of others mean pre- and post-test scores for the experimental group. The t ratio for D_C was 2.1701 indicating a significant difference in the SAS acceptance of others mean pre- and posttest scores for the control group.

A test of statistical significance of a difference between the pretest mean scores ($M_{E1} - M_{C1}$) indicated that there was no significant difference between the two groups. The obtained t ratio for the difference between pretest mean scores was 1.9796.

Means and standard deviations for the SAS acceptance of others are shown in Table 5. Table 6 gives the t ratios for the SAS acceptance of others. A score distribution for the SAS acceptance of others is given in Appendix H.

TABLE 5
Means and Standard Deviations for the
SAS Acceptance of Others

	Group E		Group C	
	M	SD	M	SD
Pretest	51.4286	34.7480	59.0000	38.1575
Posttest	50.7143	30.8359	55.8571	40.4810
Difference	.7143	24.8366	3.1428	19.5375

Table 5 gives the means and standard deviations for the SAS acceptance of others.

TABLE 6
t Ratios for the SAS Acceptance of Others

	<u>t</u>
$M_{E1} - M_{C1}$	1.9796
D_E	.3879
D_C	2.1701*
$D_E - D_C$	1.3702

*p < .05

Table 6 indicates that the E and C Groups were not significantly different at the beginning of the study. Group E did not show a significant change toward more acceptance of others; Group C showed a significant change toward more acceptance of others. The difference between the groups was not significant.

Hypothesis Four

The null form of hypothesis four follows:

H_4 There is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in openness of belief systems as measured by the Dogmatism Scale.

A t ratio of .6247 was obtained for the difference between changes in openness of belief systems between the experimental group and the control group ($D_E - D_C$). This indicated no significant difference, and the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Findings Related to Hypothesis Four

The significance of the differences D_E and D_C was tested. The t ratio for D_E was .9865, and the t ratio for D_C was 1.7087. These ratios indicated no significant difference in the DS mean pre- and posttest scores for either of the groups.

A t ratio of .5995 was obtained for the difference between the experimental pretest mean and the control pretest mean ($M_{E1} - M_{C1}$). This ratio indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean pretest scores for the groups.

Means and standard deviations for the DS are shown in Table 7, and Table 8 gives the t ratios for the DS. The DS score distribution is given in Appendix I.

TABLE 7
Means and Standard Deviations for the DS

	Group E		Group C	
	M	SD	M	SD
Pretest	134.7857	116.0877	141.5000	96.7651
Posttest	128.5000	107.1050	129.2142	70.4723
Difference	6.2857	85.9584	12.2857	96.9992

Table 7 gives the means and standard deviations for the DS.

TABLE 8
t Ratios for the DS

	<u>t</u>
$M_{E1} - M_{C1}$.5995
D_E	.9865
D_C	1.7087
$D_E - D_C$.6247

Table 8 indicates that the E and C groups were not significantly different at the beginning of the study. Neither Group E nor Group C showed a significant change toward more openness of belief systems. The difference between the groups was not significant.

Hypothesis Five

The null form of hypothesis five follows:

H_5 There is no significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement as measured by the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control.

A t ratio of 1.2341 was obtained for the difference between changes in generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement between the experimental group and the control group ($D_E - D_C$). This was nonsignificant, and the null hypothesis was not rejected.

Findings Related to Hypothesis Five

The t ratio for D_E was 1.2639; the t ratio for D_C was .5773. These ratios indicated that there was no significant difference in I-E Scale mean pre- and posttest scores for the groups.

A t ratio of .5890 was obtained for the difference between the pretest means ($M_{E1} - M_{C1}$). This ratio indicated that there was no significant difference between the mean pretest scores for the experimental and the control group.

Means and standard deviations for the I-E Scale are shown in Table 9, and Table 10 gives the t ratios for the I-E Scale. The score distribution for this scale is given in Appendix J.

TABLE 9

Means and Standard Deviations for the I-E Scale

	Group E		Group C	
	M	SD	M	SD
Pretest	8.2143	13.7969	7.0714	12.7643
Posttest	7.3571	11.7138	7.5714	10.4608
Difference	.8571	9.1495	-.5000	11.6833

Table 9 gives the means and standard deviations for the I-E Scale.

TABLE 10

t Ratios for the I-E Scale

	<u>t</u>
$M_{E1} - M_{C1}$.5890
D_E	1.2639
D_C	.5773
$D_E - D_C$	1.2341

Table 10 indicates that the E and C groups were not significantly different at the beginning of the study. Neither Group E nor Group C showed a significant change toward more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement. The difference between the groups was not significant.

Summary

A series of one-tailed t tests were used to test the five hypotheses in this study. The null form of hypothesis one was rejected at the .05 level of significance. This result indicated that there was a significant difference between the experimental group and the control group in change in self-ideal congruency as measured by the IAV; the experimental group became more congruent.

The null forms of hypothesis two, hypothesis three, hypothesis four, and hypothesis five were not rejected. These results indicated that there were no significant differences between the two groups in change in acceptance of self as measured by the SAS, in change in acceptance of others as measured by the SAS, in change in openness of belief systems as measured by the DS, and in change in generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement as measured by the I-E Scale.

Additional t ratios were obtained to determine whether or not there was a significant difference in mean pre- and posttest scores for either the experimental group or the control group. There was a significant difference between the IAV mean pre- and posttest scores for the experimental group. There was also a significant difference between the SAS acceptance of others mean pre- and posttest scores for the control group. All other differences between mean pre- and posttest scores for the groups were nonsignificant.

A t ratio for the difference between the experimental pretest mean and the control pretest mean for each instrument was obtained. These ratios indicated no significant differences between mean pretest scores for the groups.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

Summary

This study was conducted to determine if students in a beginning counseling class who received Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling showed a greater change toward: (a) less discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of ideal self, (b) more acceptance of self, (c) more acceptance of others, (d) more openness of belief systems, and (e) more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement than students in a beginning counseling class who did not receive Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling.

Twenty-eight students enrolled in a beginning counseling course at the University of Houston were randomly assigned to either the experimental or the control group. During the semester students participated in activities designed to assist in the development of self-awareness and self-understanding. Students participated in the same activities except experimental subjects had three 50-minute interviews with a counselor and received PAFC where the focus was on themselves and control subjects did a three-hour individual project which focused on the counseling profession.

The following questions were considered:

1. Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward less discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of ideal self as measured by the Index of Adjustment and Values?
2. Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more self-acceptance as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale?
3. Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more acceptance of others as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale?
4. Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more openness of belief systems as measured by the Dogmatism Scale?
5. Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement as measured by the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control?

During the first week of the semester pretest scores for the IAV, SAS, DS, and I-E Scale were obtained; posttest scores for these instruments were obtained 13 weeks later. A series of one-tailed t tests were used with the data obtained to examine the degree of change in the two groups.

Findings

The first null hypothesis predicting no significant difference between the groups in change in self-ideal congruency as measured by the IAV was rejected. The experimental group's mean tendency to become more congruent in perception of self and ideal self was significantly stronger ($p < .05$) than was that of the control group.

The second null hypothesis predicting no significant difference between the groups in change in self-acceptance as measured by the SAS was not rejected.

The third null hypothesis predicting no significant difference between the groups in change in acceptance of others as measured by the SAS was not rejected.

The fourth null hypothesis predicting no significant difference between the groups in change in openness of belief systems as measured by the DS was not rejected.

The fifth null hypothesis predicting no significant difference between the groups in change in generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement as measured by the I-E Scale was not rejected.

It was also found that there were no significant differences between the experimental and control mean pretest scores for each of the instruments. Additional analysis indicated that there was a significant difference ($p < .05$) in the

IAV mean pre- and posttest scores for the experimental group and that the control group differed significantly ($p < .05$) on the SAS acceptance of others mean pre- and posttest scores. Other differences between mean pre- and posttest scores were nonsignificant.

Conclusions

The first question was "Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward less discrepancy between the concept of self and the concept of ideal self as measured by the Index of Adjustment and Values?" The answer to that question, as a logical conclusion from the test of null hypothesis one, is yes. Since the design of this study incorporated PAFC as an intervening experience for the experimental group and a different experience for the control group, a causal relationship between the change for the experimental group and the PAFC experience is inferred.

The second question was "Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more self-acceptance as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale?" The answer to that question, as a logical conclusion from the test of null hypothesis two, is no.

The third question was "Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more acceptance of others as measured by the Self-Acceptance Scale?"

The answer to that question, as a logical conclusion from the test of null hypothesis three, is no.

The fourth question was "Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more openness of belief systems as measured by the Dogmatism Scale?" The answer to that question, as a logical conclusion from the test of null hypothesis four, is no.

The fifth question was "Is there a greater change in the experimental group than in the control group toward more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement as measured by the Scale to Measure Internal Versus External Control?" The answer to that question, as a logical conclusion from the test of null hypothesis five, is no.

Discussion and Implications

The results of this study suggest some areas of consideration concerning the various conclusions. The experimental group's tendency to become more congruent in perception of self and ideal self was significantly stronger than was that of the control group. Therefore, it is suggested that Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling is a viable means of increasing the congruency between the self-concept and the ideal self-concept. It is also suggested that PAFC in conjunction with similar experiences be included in counselor education programs

so that the prospective counselor has an opportunity to increase self-awareness and self-understanding.

Findings also indicated that the experimental group did not show a significantly greater change toward: (a) increased acceptance of self, (b) increased acceptance of others, (c) increased openness of belief systems, and (d) increased generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement. There was, however, a trend for persons in the experimental group to show greater change toward more self-acceptance and toward more generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement.

Since the change in self-acceptance, in acceptance of others, in openness of belief systems, and in generalized expectancies for internal control of reinforcement was nonsignificant, there are areas which merit consideration. It is possible that there was not enough time for change to occur. Subjects may have needed more time to assimilate and to integrate the information that was provided for them. According to Stoller (1968) a person may for a while become less effective in his behavior after video tape feedback. If feedback is effective, the person has to unlearn one kind of behavior; accompanying this is the gradual change of self-concept, and, finally, there is the integration of new behavior. The idea that after effective feedback there may be a period of immediate retardation followed by an increase is supported by Nielsen (1963); the idea that

change occurs slowly is supported by Lantz (1964) and Ringness and Larson (1965).

Differences in the two groups may have been minimized since all students were enrolled in CED 633. This course focused on feelings, attitudes, and interpersonal relationships; therefore, the control subjects had an opportunity to develop insight and understanding although they did not receive PAFC. Also all students were given the battery of psychological assessment instruments; these instruments may have stimulated an awareness of and an interest in self.

If feedback is to be most effective, attention should be given to readiness (Kolb, Winter, & Berlew, 1968). In this study all members of the experimental group received PAFC; possibly more attention should have been given to readiness. Also feedback should be accompanied by focusing (Staines, 1969; Stoller, 1968). Although the goals of PAFC are agreed upon, perhaps the objectives of PAFC should have been more clearly delineated so that there would have been greater specificity and more focusing.

Measurement is a difficult problem in the field of counseling (Ford & Urban 1967). It is possible that the instruments used in this study were unable to sense the differences which existed. There is a need to develop new instruments and to improve existing instruments.

Recommendations for Future Research

The following recommendations for future research are presented:

1. A study comparing differing numbers of PAFC sessions should be conducted to investigate how many experiences are needed before change occurs.
2. Further research should be conducted which investigates the effects of extending PAFC over a longer period of time since subjects may need time to assimilate and to integrate information.
3. Future research should involve a careful search for more appropriate instruments to measure variables important in counseling and should focus on improving existing measures and developing new ones.
4. Future research should be conducted which clearly delineates the goal of PAFC so that there may be greater specificity. A suggested area of concentration is the congruency between the concept of self and the concept of ideal self.
5. Future research should be conducted to investigate the effect of the readiness of the subject to benefit from PAFC.
6. This study should be replicated with the PAFC experience being held at differing times throughout

the program to investigate whether or not there is an optimal time for the PAFC experience.

7. Since this study focused on beginning counseling students, future research should investigate the effects of PAFC on experienced counselors.
8. Future research should be conducted with a larger sample and with more than one counselor so that the effect of the counselor may be investigated.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A: Description of Personal Assessment
Feedback Counseling

DESCRIPTION OF PERSONAL ASSESSMENT FEEDBACK COUNSELING

Personal Assessment Feedback Counseling is based upon feedback to an individual about his responses to a battery of psychological instruments. The following descriptions are based on descriptions given by Veldman (1970).

Adjective Self Description (ASD)

This instrument was developed by Veldman and Parker on the basis of a factor analysis of Gough's Adjective Check List. The ASD consists of 56 adjective self-rating items that are scored for seven major personality traits.

Autobiographical Information (BIO)

This form was designed to provide background information. Although it was not designed for scoring, quantitative indices can be derived from many of the open-ended item responses.

Directed Imagination (DI)

This instrument was developed by Veldman and Meraker. Respondents are asked to write four fictional stories about teachers and their experiences and are allowed four minutes to write each story. These data can yield information relevant to teacher behavior. The stories may also be used as a basis for screening for minimum adequacy of handwriting and English usage, as a basis for scanning by personnel trained to detect

gross mental disturbance (severe anxiety, hostility, depression), and for idiographic study.

One Word Sentence Completion (OWSC)

This instrument was designed by Veldman, Menaker, and Peck. It consists of 62 items to be completed with single-word responses. It samples attitudes and feelings relevant to teacher education and may be used for general personality description. Data from the OWSC may be used as a basis for idiographic study and as a basis for scanning by personnel trained to detect gross symptoms of mental disturbance (severe anxiety, hostility, depression).

Self-Report Inventory (SRI)

This instrument was developed by Bown as an adjunct to counseling and as a method for obtaining a standardized report of the respondent's view of his phenomenological world. It consists of 48 self-description items that are scored for eight topics.

APPENDIX B: Index of Adjustment and Values

INDEX OF ADJUSTMENT AND VALUES

Bills, Vance, and McLean¹

¹A complete description of this instrument is given by J. P. Robinson and P. R. Shaver in Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes.

SELF INSTRUCTIONS FOR IAV

There is a need for each of us to know more about ourselves, but we seldom do have an opportunity to look at ourselves as we are or as we would like to be. On the following page is a list of terms that to a certain degree describe people. Take each term separately and apply it to yourself by completing the following sentence:

I AM A (AN) _____ PERSON.

The first word in the list is academic. So you would substitute this term in the above sentence. It would read--I am an academic person.

Then decide HOW MUCH OF THE TIME this statement is like you, i.e., is typical or characteristic of you as an individual, and rate yourself on a scale from one to five according to the following key:

1. Seldom, is this like me.
2. Occasionally, this is like me.
3. About half the time, this is like me.
4. A good deal of the time, this is like me.
5. Most of the time, this is like me.

Select the number beside the phrase that tells how much of the time the statement is like you and insert in Column I on the next page.

EXAMPLE: Beside the term ACADEMIC, number two is inserted to indicate that--occasionally, I am an academic person.

Now go to Column II. Use one of the statements given below to tell HOW YOU FEEL about yourself as described in Column I.

1. I very much dislike being as I am in this respect.
2. I dislike being as I am in this respect.
3. I neither dislike being as I am nor like being as I am in this respect.
4. I like being as I am in this respect.
5. I like very much being as I am in this respect.

You will select the number beside the statement that tells how you feel about the way you are and insert the number in Column II.

EXAMPLE: In Column II beside the term ACADEMIC, number one is inserted to indicate that I dislike very much being as I am in respect to the term, academic. Note that being as I am refers to the way you describe yourself in Column I.

Finally, go to Column III; using the same term, complete the following sentence:

I WOULD LIKE TO BE A (AN) _____ PERSON.

Then decide HOW MUCH OF THE TIME you would like this trait to be a characteristic of you and rate yourself on the following five point scale.

1. Seldom, would I like this to be me.
2. Occasionally, I would like this to be me.
3. About half the time, I would like this to be me.
4. A good deal of the time, I would like this to be me.
5. Most of the time, I would like this to be me.

You will select the number beside the term ACADEMIC, number five is inserted to indicate that most of the time, I would like to be this kind of person.

Start with the word ACCEPTABLE and fill in Column I, II, and III before going on to the next word. There is no time limit. Be honest with yourself so that your description will be a true measure of how you look at yourself.

NAME _____

SEX _____

		I	II	III			I	II	III
a.	academic	<u>2</u>	<u>1</u>	<u>5</u>	25.	meddlesome	_____	_____	_____
1.	acceptable	_____	_____	_____	26.	merry	_____	_____	_____
2.	accurate	_____	_____	_____	27.	mature	_____	_____	_____
3.	alert	_____	_____	_____	28.	nervous	_____	_____	_____
4.	ambitious	_____	_____	_____	29.	normal	_____	_____	_____
5.	annoying	_____	_____	_____	30.	optimistic	_____	_____	_____
6.	busy	_____	_____	_____	31.	poised	_____	_____	_____
7.	calm	_____	_____	_____	32.	purposeful	_____	_____	_____
8.	charming	_____	_____	_____	33.	reasonable	_____	_____	_____
9.	clever	_____	_____	_____	34.	reckless	_____	_____	_____
10.	competent	_____	_____	_____	35.	responsible	_____	_____	_____
11.	confident	_____	_____	_____	36.	sarcastic	_____	_____	_____
12.	considerate	_____	_____	_____	37.	sincere	_____	_____	_____
13.	cruel	_____	_____	_____	38.	stable	_____	_____	_____
14.	democratic	_____	_____	_____	39.	studious	_____	_____	_____
15.	dependable	_____	_____	_____	40.	successful	_____	_____	_____
16.	economical	_____	_____	_____	41.	stubborn	_____	_____	_____
17.	efficient	_____	_____	_____	42.	tactful	_____	_____	_____
18.	fearful	_____	_____	_____	43.	teachable	_____	_____	_____
19.	friendly	_____	_____	_____	44.	useful	_____	_____	_____
20.	fashionable	_____	_____	_____	45.	worthy	_____	_____	_____
21.	helpful	_____	_____	_____	46.	broad-minded	_____	_____	_____
22.	intellectual	_____	_____	_____	47.	businesslike	_____	_____	_____
23.	kind	_____	_____	_____	48.	competitive	_____	_____	_____
24.	logical	_____	_____	_____	49.	fault-finding	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX C: Self-Acceptance Scale

SELF-ACCEPTANCE SCALE

Berger¹

¹A complete description of this instrument is given by J. P. Robinson and P. R. Shaver in Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes.

SAS SCALE

This is a study of some of your attitudes. Of course, there is no right answer for any statement. The best answer is what you feel is true of yourself.

You are to respond to each question on the answer sheet according to the following scheme:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all true of my- self	Slightly true of myself	About half- way true of myself	Mostly true of myself	True of myself

Remember, the best answer is the one which applies to you.

1. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.
2. I don't question my worth as a person, even if I think others do.
3. I can be comfortable with all varieties of people--from the highest to the lowest.
4. I can become so absorbed in the work I'm doing that it doesn't bother me not to have any intimate friends.
5. I don't approve of spending time and energy in doing things for other people. I believe in looking to my family and myself more and letting others shift for themselves.
6. When people say nice things about me, I find it difficult to believe they really mean it. I think maybe they're kidding me or just aren't being sincere.
7. If there is any criticism or anyone says anything about me, I just can't take it.
8. I don't say much at social affairs because I'm afraid that people will criticize me or laugh if I say the wrong thing.
9. I realize that I'm not living very effectively but I just don't believe I've got it in me to use my energies in better ways.

10. I don't approve of doing favors for people. If you're too agreeable they'll take advantage of you.
11. I look on most of the feelings and impulses I have toward people as being quite natural and acceptable.
12. Something inside me just won't let me be satisfied with any job I've done--if it turns out well, I get a very smug feeling that this is beneath me, I shouldn't be satisfied with this, this isn't a fair test.
13. I feel different from other people. I'd like to have the feeling of security that comes from knowing I'm not too different from others.
14. I'm afraid for people that I like to find out what I'm really like, for fear they'd be disappointed in me.
15. I am frequently bothered by feelings of inferiority.
16. Because of other people, I haven't been able to achieve as much as I should have.
17. I am quite shy and self-conscious in social situations.
18. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.
19. I usually ignore the feelings of others when I'm accomplishing some important end.
20. I seem to have a real inner strength in handling things. I'm on a pretty solid foundation and it makes me pretty sure of myself.
21. There's no sense in compromising. When people have values I don't like, I just don't care to have much to do with them.
22. The person you marry may not be perfect, but I believe in trying to get him (or her) to change along desirable lines.
23. I see no objection to stepping on other people's toes a little if it'll help get me what I want in life.
24. I feel self-conscious when I'm with people who have a superior position to mine in business or at school.
25. I try to get people to do what I want them to do, in one way or another.

26. I often tell people what they should do when they're having trouble in making a decision.
27. I enjoy myself most when I'm alone, away from other people.
28. I think I'm neurotic or something.
29. I feel neither above nor below the people I meet.
30. Sometimes people misunderstand me when I try to keep them from making mistakes that could have an important effect on their lives.
31. Very often I don't try to be friendly with people because I think they won't like me.
32. There are very few times when I compliment people for their talents or jobs they've done.
33. I enjoy doing little favors for people even if I don't know them very well.
34. I feel that I'm a person of worth, on an equal plane with others.
35. I can't avoid feeling guilty about the way I feel toward certain people in my life.
36. I prefer to be alone rather than have close friendships with any of the people around me.
37. I'm not afraid of meeting new people. I feel that I'm a worthwhile person and there's no reason why they should dislike me.
38. I sort of only half-believe in myself.
39. I seldom worry about other people. I'm really pretty self-centered.
40. I'm very sensitive. People say things and I have a tendency to think they're criticizing me or insulting me in some way and later when I think of it, they may not have meant anything like that at all.
41. I think I have certain abilities and other people say so too, but I wonder if I'm not giving them an importance way beyond what they deserve.

42. I feel confident that I can do something about the problems that may arise in the future.
43. I believe that people should get credit for their accomplishments, but I very seldom come across work that deserves praise.
44. When someone asks for advice about some personal problem, I'm most likely to say, "It's up to you to decide," rather than tell him what he should do.
45. I guess I put on a show to impress people. I know I'm not the person I pretend to be.
46. I feel that for the most part one has to fight his way through life. That means that people who stand in the way will be hurt.
47. I can't help feeling superior (or inferior) to most of the people I know.
48. I do not worry or condemn myself if other people pass judgment against me.
49. I don't hesitate to urge people to live by the same high set of values which I have for myself.
50. I can be friendly with people who do things which I consider wrong.
51. I don't feel very normal, but I want to feel normal.
52. When I'm in a group I usually don't say much for fear of saying the wrong thing.
53. I have a tendency to sidestep my problems.
54. If people are weak and inefficient I'm inclined to take advantage of them. I believe you must be strong to achieve your goals.
55. I'm easily irritated by people who argue with me.
56. When I'm dealing with younger persons, I expect them to do what I tell them.
57. I don't see much point to doing things for others unless they can do you some good later on.

58. Even when people do think well of me, I feel sort of guilty because I know I must be fooling them--that if I were really to be myself, they wouldn't think well of me.
59. I feel that I'm on the same level as other people and that helps to establish good relations with them.
60. If someone I know is having difficulty in working things out for himself, I like to tell him what to do.
61. I feel that people are apt to react different to me than they would normally react to other people.
62. I live too much by other peoples' standards.
63. When I have to address a group, I get self-conscious and have difficulty saying things well.
64. If I didn't always have such hard luck, I'd accomplish much more than I have.

Name _____

Sex _____

SAS ANSWER SHEET

CIRCLE THE CORRECT ANSWER

- | | | |
|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| 1. 1 2 3 4 5 | 22. 1 2 3 4 5 | 43. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. 1 2 3 4 5 | 23. 1 2 3 4 5 | 44. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. 1 2 3 4 5 | 24. 1 2 3 4 5 | 45. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. 1 2 3 4 5 | 25. 1 2 3 4 5 | 46. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. 1 2 3 4 5 | 26. 1 2 3 4 5 | 47. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. 1 2 3 4 5 | 27. 1 2 3 4 5 | 48. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. 1 2 3 4 5 | 28. 1 2 3 4 5 | 49. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. 1 2 3 4 5 | 29. 1 2 3 4 5 | 50. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 9. 1 2 3 4 5 | 30. 1 2 3 4 5 | 51. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 10. 1 2 3 4 5 | 31. 1 2 3 4 5 | 52. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 11. 1 2 3 4 5 | 32. 1 2 3 4 5 | 53. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 12. 1 2 3 4 5 | 33. 1 2 3 4 5 | 54. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 13. 1 2 3 4 5 | 34. 1 2 3 4 5 | 55. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 14. 1 2 3 4 5 | 35. 1 2 3 4 5 | 56. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 15. 1 2 3 4 5 | 36. 1 2 3 4 5 | 57. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 16. 1 2 3 4 5 | 37. 1 2 3 4 5 | 58. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 17. 1 2 3 4 5 | 38. 1 2 3 4 5 | 59. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 18. 1 2 3 4 5 | 39. 1 2 3 4 5 | 60. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 19. 1 2 3 4 5 | 40. 1 2 3 4 5 | 61. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 20. 1 2 3 4 5 | 41. 1 2 3 4 5 | 62. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 21. 1 2 3 4 5 | 42. 1 2 3 4 5 | 63. 1 2 3 4 5 |
| | | 64. 1 2 3 4 5 |

APPENDIX D: Dogmatism Scale

DOGMATISM SCALE

Rokeach¹

¹A complete description of this instrument is given by J. P. Robinson and P. R. Shaver in Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes.

DS

Name _____

Sex _____

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.

Circle one of the six numbers in the column at the left according to how much you agree or disagree with the statement following the numbers. Please mark every statement. The 6 numbers mean:

1 = I disagree very much

2 = I disagree on the whole

3 = I disagree a little

4 = I agree a little

5 = I agree on the whole

6 = I agree very much

1. 1 2 3 4 5 6 The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common.
2. 1 2 3 4 5 6 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. 1 2 3 4 5 6 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. 1 2 3 4 5 6 It is only natural that a person would have a much better acquaintance with ideas he believes in than with ideas he opposes.

5. 1 2 3 4 5 6 Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.
6. 1 2 3 4 5 6 Fundamentally, the world we live in is a pretty lonesome place.
7. 1 2 3 4 5 6 Most people just don't give a "damn" for others.
8. 1 2 3 4 5 6 I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.
9. 1 2 3 4 5 6 It is only natural for a person to be rather fearful of the future.
10. 1 2 3 4 5 6 There is so much to be done and so little time to do it in.
11. 1 2 3 4 5 6 Once I get wound up in a heated discussion I just can't stop.
12. 1 2 3 4 5 6 In a discussion, I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times to make sure I am being understood.
13. 1 2 3 4 5 6 It is better to be a dead hero than a live coward.
14. 1 2 3 4 5 6 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.
15. 1 2 3 4 5 6 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. 1 2 3 4 5 6 The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.
17. 1 2 3 4 5 6 If given a chance, I would do something of great benefit to the world.
18. 1 2 3 4 5 6 In the history of mankind there has probably been just a handful of great thinkers.
19. 1 2 3 4 5 6 There are a number of people I have come to hate because of the things they stand for.
20. 1 2 3 4 5 6 A man who does not believe in some great cause has not really lived.

21. 1 2 3 4 5 6 It is only when a person devotes himself to an ideal or cause that life becomes meaningful.
22. 1 2 3 4 5 6 Of all the different philosophies which exist in the world there is probably only one which is correct.
23. 1 2 3 4 5 6 A person who gets enthusiastic about too many causes is likely to be a pretty "wishy washy" sort of person.
24. 1 2 3 4 5 6 To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to the betrayal of our own side.
25. 1 2 3 4 5 6 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. 1 2 3 4 5 6 In times like these, a person must be pretty selfish if he considers primarily his own happiness.
27. 1 2 3 4 5 6 The worst crime a person could commit is to attack publicly the people who believe in the same thing he does.
28. 1 2 3 4 5 6 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. 1 2 3 4 5 6 A group which tolerates too much difference of opinion among its own members cannot exist for long.
30. 1 2 3 4 5 6 There are two kinds of people in this world: those who are for the truth and those who are against the truth.
31. 1 2 3 4 5 6 My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he's wrong.
32. 1 2 3 4 5 6 A person who thinks primarily of his own happiness is beneath contempt.

33. 1 2 3 4 5 6 Most of the ideas which get printed nowadays aren't worth the paper they are printed on.
34. 1 2 3 4 5 6 In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders and experts who can be trusted.
35. 1 2 3 4 5 6 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. 1 2 3 4 5 6 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. 1 2 3 4 5 6 The present is all too often full of unhappiness. It is only the future that counts.
38. 1 2 3 4 5 6 If a man is to accomplish his mission in life, it is sometimes necessary to gamble "all or nothing at all."
39. 1 2 3 4 5 6 Unfortunately, a good many people with whom I have discussed important social and moral problems don't really understand what's going on.
40. 1 2 3 4 5 6 Most people just don't know what's good for them.

APPENDIX E: Scale to Measure Internal Versus
External Control

SCALE TO MEASURE INTERNAL VERSUS

EXTERNAL CONTROL

Rotter¹

¹A complete description of this instrument is given by J. P. Robinson and P. R. Shaver in Measures of Social Psychological Attitudes.

I-E SCALE

Name _____

Circle the answer with which you most agree. There is no correct answer.

1. a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much.
b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them.
2. a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
3. a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics.
b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them.
4. a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
b. Unfortunately an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
5. a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
6. a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
7. a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you.
b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
8. a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality.
b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like.
9. a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.

10. a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test.
b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless.
11. a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
12. a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions.
b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it.
13. a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
14. a. There are certain people who are just no good.
b. There is some good in everybody.
15. a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
16. a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability, luck has little or nothing to do with it.
17. a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control.
b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events.
18. a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
b. There really is no such thing as "luck."
19. a. One should always be willing to admit mistakes.
b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes.
20. a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
b. How many friends you have depends on how nice a person you are.

21.
 - a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
 - b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
22.
 - a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption.
 - b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office.
23.
 - a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give.
 - b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get.
24.
 - a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do.
 - b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are.
25.
 - a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
 - b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
26.
 - a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
 - b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you.
27.
 - a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school.
 - b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character.
28.
 - a. What happens to me is my own doing.
 - b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.
29.
 - a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do.
 - b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level.

APPENDIX F: Score Distribution for the Index
of Adjustment and Values

SCORE DISTRIBUTION FOR THE IAV

Experimental			Control		
Pre	Post	Difference	Pre	Post	Difference
22	22	0	10	5	5
39	29	10	24	39	-15
29	26	3	53	53	0
37	22	15	18	27	-9
31	23	8	22	24	-2
21	25	-4	36	42	-6
21	27	-6	39	27	12
56	36	22	67	49	18
41	32	9	14	11	3
34	26	8	34	37	-3
32	17	15	41	32	9
26	16	10	36	47	-11
19	20	-1	9	12	-3
45	33	12	50	62	-12
455	354	101	453	467	-14

APPENDIX G: Score Distribution for the Self-Acceptance
Scale Acceptance of Self

SCORE DISTRIBUTION FOR THE SAS
ACCEPTANCE OF SELF

Experimental			Control		
Pre	Post	Difference	Pre	Post	Difference
53	52	1	56	46	10
105	95	10	98	100	-2
51	49	2	60	66	-6
81	58	23	63	68	-5
99	68	31	70	84	-14
78	70	8	81	76	5
56	55	1	55	55	0
76	78	-2	129	122	7
52	62	-10	47	57	-10
74	65	9	92	66	26
65	49	16	63	58	5
73	75	-2	76	90	-14
74	82	-8	51	47	4
91	94	-3	109	124	-15
1028	952	76	1050	1059	-9

APPENDIX H: Score Distribution for the Self-Acceptance
Scale Acceptance of Others

SCORE DISTRIBUTION FOR THE SAS
ACCEPTANCE OF OTHERS

Experimental			Control		
Pre	Post	Difference	Pre	Post	Difference
35	39	-4	42	35	7
57	55	2	69	65	4
47	55	-8	61	52	9
52	46	6	62	58	4
65	51	14	60	51	9
70	63	7	53	49	4
44	43	1	45	46	-1
53	46	7	73	67	6
63	68	-5	46	52	-6
44	49	-5	63	59	4
53	50	3	61	58	3
44	39	5	59	68	-9
48	59	-11	53	44	9
45	47	-2	79	78	1
720	710	10	826	782	44

APPENDIX I: Score Distribution for the
Dogmatism Scale

SCORE DISTRIBUTION FOR THE DS

Experimental			Control		
Pre	Post	Difference	Pre	Post	Difference
64	65	-1	128	98	30
132	112	20	137	172	-35
150	172	-22	112	113	-1
119	119	0	112	120	-8
167	149	18	128	127	1
128	143	-15	166	130	36
109	149	-40	152	123	29
141	127	14	152	129	23
156	127	29	104	107	-3
197	173	24	167	156	11
128	95	33	149	130	19
132	99	33	138	152	-14
162	141	21	130	123	7
102	128	-26	206	129	77
1887	1799	88	1981	1809	172

APPENDIX J: Score Distribution for the Scale to
Measure Internal Versus External Control

SCORE DISTRIBUTION FOR THE
I-E SCALE

Experimental			Control		
Pre	Post	Difference	Pre	Post	Difference
4	4	0	3	5	-2
6	6	0	14	15	-1
8	11	-3	4	4	0
7	6	1	8	11	-3
8	7	1	3	7	-4
14	10	4	13	8	5
8	9	-1	7	4	3
9	9	0	7	7	0
1	1	0	7	7	0
14	14	0	7	7	0
12	5	7	10	7	3
4	5	-1	8	8	0
8	8	0	6	6	0
12	8	4	2	10	-8
115	103	12	99	106	7