

EFFECTS OF METAPHORICAL COMMUNICATION  
ON THE ACQUISITION, RETENTION, AND  
TRANSFER OF COUNSELOR  
GOAL-SETTING SKILLS

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Since earliest writings of civilized man, metaphor has been an essential ingredient in communication and used as an educational tool (Ortony, 1975). At least since the time of Aristotle, who considered the command of metaphor as a mark of genius, this form of communication has aroused the curiosity of philosophers and poets. More recently, however, linguists and psychologists are recognizing metaphor as sufficiently important to warrant their attention. Consequently, much of this attention has focused on theoretical understanding and less on empirical validation of hypothesized functioning. And yet this form of communication with its potential pedagogical value has largely been ignored by many educators (Fuller, 1980).

Although ignored by educators, metaphor has always played an important role, more or less implicitly or unconsciously in therapy (Gordon, 1978). The potential ability of metaphor to change ideas and affect behavior is illustrated by Bandler who states:

As long as recorded history has been around, and in myths that date back into the farthest and dimmest memories of human existence, metaphor has been used as a mechanism of teaching and of changing ideas. Shaman, philosophers, and prophets alike have intuitively known and used the power of the metaphor. From Plato's allegory of the cave right through to Voltaire's *Zagdig*, from the teachings of Jesus and Buddha to the teachings of Don Juan, metaphor is ever present as a tool for changing ideas and affecting behavior (Gordon, 1978, p. xi).

In keeping with current educational theory that it is easier to learn new things by starting with what the student already knows (Dewey, 1969), Petrie (1979, p. 439) argues that one function of metaphor is that it "enables one to transfer learning and understanding from what is well-known to what is less well-known in a vivid more memorable way, thus enhancing learning." In this capacity to relate new knowledge to old, Green (1971) and Ortony (1975) suggest that metaphors have great pedagogical value. As an educational tool, metaphor, then, mediates between what is already known and what is to be learned by providing an organizing structure for the new material. This organizing structure performs somewhat similar to Ausubel's (1970, p. 206) concept of the "advance organizer." These organizers are "introduced in advance of the learning material itself, [and] are formulated in terms that are already familiar to the learner" (Ausubel, 1970, p. 206). In addition, Warfel (1962) believes that metaphor organizes experience.

However, despite the books, publications, workshops, conferences, and papers devoted to the use of metaphor for modifying complex human behaviors, little attention has been given to the systematic application of metaphorical communication to counselor education. In a review of research on educating counselors and clinicians, Ford (1979) examined traditional training programs (lectures, seminars, films, readings, graduate experience in interviewing clients with delayed supervision sessions), brief training interventions for teaching one or two interview skills, and the more comprehensive programs (Individual Process Recall, Microcounseling, and Integrated Didactic-Experiential Training) used to teach complex counseling skills. No mention was made of any research attempting to investigate the systematic application of

metaphor on the acquisition and retention of knowledge or for transferring this knowledge to the counseling interview. This present study, then, is an effort to empirically examine the effectiveness of metaphorical communication, systematically applied, to teaching counselor candidates how to develop individualized behavioral goals in the counseling relationship.

#### Significance of the Study

The present investigation is significant in that, heretofore, systematic investigation utilizing metaphorical communication, the teaching and learning of discrete counseling skills, has been left largely unaddressed by counselor educators. Fine, Pollio, and Simpkinson (1973, p. 91) remarked that "despite the potential significance of metaphor, there has been as yet, no systematic attention given to determine whether or not metaphors facilitate change in an individual." Likewise, Billow (1977, p. 81) asserts that metaphor has been relatively neglected as a focus of systematic psychological inquiry despite metaphors being "firstly and centrally a psychological phenomena."

Consequently, this study could lead to the development of an instructional methodology which is less expensive and more time-efficient in educating counselor candidates. Such a contribution would result in a positive effect on counselor candidates' ability to acquire academic knowledge as well as provide a device enabling students to generalize and transfer information and skills to the actual counseling interview. Hence, this study is an initial effort to systematically employ complex metaphor as a vehicle for bridging the gap between theory and practice and between acquisition and transfer of knowledge to skill.

Accordingly, the significance of this study lies in four major areas. The first area is to identify the effects of metaphor on counselor candidates' acquisition of knowledge of the goal-setting process. The second area of significance is the identification of the effects of metaphorical role-play on the counselor candidates' ability to transfer goal-setting skills to the counseling interview. Third, this study may contribute to the development of a theoretical foundation on the power of metaphor as an educational tool. The fourth area is to contribute to the development of an instructional intervention strategy for counselor education that can positively affect counselor performance.

#### Assumptions of the Study

The following assumptions are basic to this study: \*

1. An individual never directly experiences the world as it is, but rather develops a perceptual model of the world based upon a combination of experience and genetic factors (Gordon, 1978).
2. There are two kinds of learning, assimilation and accommodation. Learning by changing experience to fit ones concepts, rules, structures, and modes of understanding is called assimilation. Accommodation is learning by changing ones concepts, rules, structures, and modes of understanding to fit the experience (Wadsworth, 1971).

#### Statement of the Problem

A growing body of theoretical literature (Bandler and Grinder, 1979; Barnat, 1977; Fuller, 1980; Gordon, 1971; Green, 1971; Ortony, 1975; Zemke, 1980) suggests that metaphor has the potential for being a

powerful teaching tool. If this assumption has validity, then the possibility exists of designing an experiment that will empirically support this assertion. This study is designed to answer the following question: When metaphorical communication is utilized as an advance organizer and role-play technique, will counselor candidates demonstrate increased knowledge and skill in the goal-setting process?

#### Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definition of terms is presented:

1. Counselor candidates are masters level graduate students majoring in Student Personnel and Guidance or Counseling Psychology and enrolled in an introductory course in counseling techniques.
2. Metaphor is defined as any linguistic device or behavior which stands for something else and when interpreted literally it fails to fit the context. According to Richards (1936) every metaphor contains a tenor or topic (the underlying idea or principle subject), a vehicle (the term or terms being used metaphorically), and the ground or frame (that which the tenor and vehicle have in common or their relationship to each other).
3. Role-play is defined as a method of learning which requires the counselor candidate to demonstrate a set of specific counselor skills, such as mutual goal-setting skills through simulation (Miller, 1972).
  - a. Traditional role-play is defined as a form of practice

in which the counselor candidates are asked to perform in the roles of counselor and client. The content or focus of the interview is generally considered to be a counseling concern (e.g., depression) (see Appendix G).

- b. Metaphorical role-play is defined as a form of practice in which the counselor candidates are asked to assume roles different from, yet isomorphic to counselor-client roles (e.g., travel agent and consumer). The content or focus of the interview is not directly related to a counseling concern (see Appendix G).

#### Limitations

1. The results of this study cannot be generalizable beyond those students from which the population sample was drawn. The geographic location of the universities from which this population was drawn is rural and the subjects may differ from those in urban areas.

2. Treatment occurred over a period of one two-hour session. Other divisions of time could have been selected which might produce different results.

3. The metaphor utilized in this study, as well as the length, content, and mode of presentation may be considered limitations of this study. Varying these factors may produce different results.

#### Hypotheses

The .05 level of confidence was established as necessary to reject

the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis I. There are no significant differences among the effects of treatment conditions on counselor candidates' acquisition of information of the goal-setting process.

Hypothesis II. There are no significant differences among the effects of treatment conditions on counselor candidates' retention over time of information of the goal-setting process.

Hypothesis III. There is no significant interaction of treatment condition with test-retest.

Hypothesis IV. There are no significant differences among the effects of treatment conditions on counselor candidates' interview ratings.

#### Organization of the Study

The present chapter included an introduction to the problem, the need for the study, the significance of the study, assumptions of the study, a statement of the problem, definition of terms, limitations, and hypotheses. Chapter II contains a review of theoretical and research literature relevant to this study. Chapter III describes the selection of subjects, treatment procedures, instrumentation, and the method of collection and assessment of the data. Chapter IV contains the findings and a discussion of the results of the study. Chapter V includes the summary, conclusions, and recommendations for further research.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter focuses on the review of theoretical and research literature most pertinent to the present investigation. The theoretical literature and empirical studies in this review fall under three main sections. The first section includes a brief review of the principles and theories which form the foundation of metaphor as a tool for communication and thought. The second section highlights the relevant theoretical and empirical literature pertaining to the use of metaphor as an education and counseling/therapeutic tool. The last section reviews the literature concerning the importance of practice in counselor education and goal-setting in the counseling process.

#### Metaphor: Tool for Communication and Thought

In surveying the literature regarding metaphor, it appears that the usage of non-literal language plays a special role in exchanging information from writer to reader and speaker to listener. Sticht (1979, p. 474) posits that metaphor serves as a linguistic tool for overcoming certain cognitive limitations--"limitations that we all have by virtue of the way we are built." He believes that metaphor may serve as a linguistic device in expanding our capabilities for thought and communication, especially when the medium is speech. Sticht (1979) proffers:

The fact that speech is a fleeting, temporarily linear means of communicating, coupled with the fact, as human beings we

are limited in how much information we can maintain and process at any one time in active memory, encoding it for communication, and recording it, as listeners, in some memorable fashion. Metaphors appear to serve one of a variety of special linguistic devices facilitating these activities (p. 475).

The role of metaphorical communication in overcoming active memory limitations in spoken language has been further elaborated by Ortony (1975). In his article explaining why metaphors are necessary, he puts forth three theses attempting to describe how metaphors may facilitate learning: the compactness thesis, the inexpressibility thesis, and the vividness thesis.

The compactness thesis asserts that metaphors may work by transferring large chunks of experience from well-known to less well-known contexts (Sticht, 1979) through "particularization" which is "the process of filling in the details between the linguistic signposts present in the message" (Ortony, 1975, p. 47). "Particularization" serves two functions: 1) it enables language comprehension to occur without the need for all the details in the message to be explicitly spelled out; and, 2) it is the language comprehender's "digital-to-analog converter" (p. 47). In the compactness view, metaphor is presented as an efficient means of transmitting large chunks of information in a quick, concise, and effective manner enabling active memory processing to be made more efficient (Sticht, 1979). This process of chunking information has been well described in the literature by Miller (1956). More recently, this concept of metaphor as transferring chunks of information and experience has been supported by Petrie (1979).

The inexpressibility thesis argues that there are certain aspects of natural experience which are "inexpressible" and never encoded in language. Metaphors carry or transfer with them "the extra meanings

never encoded in language" (Sticht, 1979, p. 475). Ortony (1975, p. 49) says that there are cases in which ". . . it would seem that there is no possible way of literally saying what has to be said so that if it is to be said at all metaphor is essential as a vehicle for its expression."

By combining the compactness thesis with the inexpressibility thesis one begins to get a picture of how metaphor serves as a tool for "cognitive economy" (Sticht, 1979, p. 475) by helping to transfer large chunks of information and experiences which are not capable of being represented by discrete, literal language.

This inexpressibility thesis receives support from other researchers who acknowledge that metaphor allows for a more elegant expression of that which cannot be expressed in ordinary language (Lucas, 1955; Richards, 1938) and also "suggests experience beyond the ordinary literal sense of everyday life" (MacCormac, 1976, p. 83). Furthermore, this thesis may be extended to the scientist, who in desiring to formulate new theories will almost inevitably have to resort to using metaphor (MacCormac, 1976).

In his vividness thesis, Ortony (1975) describes one of the functions of metaphor as a tool for making information more memorable through the mnemonic powers of vivid images. Utilizing metaphor in this manner makes it valuable as a method for producing durable learning from unending speech (Sticht, 1979). According to Ortony (1975, p. 50) the vividness thesis is concerned with what seems to be a consequence of the compactness thesis and inexpressibility thesis which are largely concerned with "the mechanisms employed by metaphor." In his discussion of the vividness thesis, Sticht (1979, p. 475) maintains that "metaphors permit and impress a more memorable learning due to greater imagery or

concreteness or vividness of the 'full-blooded experience' conjured up by the metaphorical vehicle." Further support for the vividness thesis can be gleaned from the literature dating back to 1897, and perhaps before. Addison (1897) is one of many claiming that the value of metaphor is in its ability to produce visual pictures or imagery (Aldrich, 1943; Baker, 1971; Nietzsche, 1978; Warfel, 1962). Although Khatchadourian (1968) dissents, believing that metaphor need not create images, he does believe that metaphor stirs thoughts and feelings.

This notion of metaphor involving an aroused state of thoughts and feelings has been supported by Aleksandrowicz (1962). That metaphor produces insight has also been documented in the theoretical literature (Ramsey, 1964; Royce, 1967), although there is a dearth of empirical research supporting this hypothesis. In addition, Sticht (1979, p. 484) observes that "often considerable surprise may be experienced as the implications of metaphor are understood." The role of metaphor in illustrating and producing humor has been described by Baker (1971) and Lucas (1955). Ortony (1975) does not restrict the vividness thesis of metaphor to visual aspects alone, but extends it to all sensory modalities, as well as, to emotive power:

The strong emotive force of metaphor can also be accounted for by the vividness thesis. Because of metaphor's greater proximity to perceived experience and consequently its greater vividness, the emotive as well as the sensory and cognitive aspects are more readily available, for they have been left intact in the transferred chunk. Metaphors are closer to emotional reality for the same reasons that they are closer to perceptual experience. To say of an unexpected event that it was a miracle is to say far more than that it was inexplicable; it is to express joy, admiration, wonder, awe, and a host of other things without mentioning any of them (pp. 50-51).

In examining metaphor as a tool for communication and thought,

Ortony's (1975) theses present a concise and descriptive explanation. However, this review would be incomplete without including the two traditional theories of metaphor. Chronologically, they are: the comparison theory and the interaction theory.

### The Comparison Theory

The comparison theory of metaphor has been the most widespread view of the nature of metaphor held from antiquity, originating in the works of Aristotle, to the present (Ortony, Arter, & Reynolds, 1978). This theory posits that metaphor is essentially a comparison between (Cooper, 1964; Green, 1971; Warfel, 1962) or juxtaposition of objects that are literally disparate (Frye, 1957; Perrine, 1971; Richards, 1936). Therefore, according to this theory, metaphors transfer meaning and understanding by comparison, saying implicitly, that two things of unlike nature and apparently dissimilar, have something in common after all (Corbett, 1965).

### The Interaction Theory

Rather than approaching metaphor grammatically, and thereby limiting its explanatory power, the interaction theory of metaphor approaches metaphor functionally. The major characteristic of the interaction theory is a tensive force (Herschberger, 1943; Wheelwright, 1962) in which the blending of the elements is recognized as a new whole, or gestalten, thereby producing a "eureka" effect (Ortony et al., 1978). The resulting meaning of this interaction or blending is not only new, but transcends the meaning of the original elements. In other words, according to Ortony et al. (1978, p. 923) "phrases and sentences that may

or may not be metaphorical in their own right can create a metaphorical image when placed together in a communication." The interaction theory appears to add a new dimension to the power and usefulness of metaphor. In their discussion of this view, Ortony et al. (1978, p. 294) believe that metaphor is "essential to creative thought." Ortega y Gasset (1971) also believes that the metaphor is probably the most fertile power man has for it allows one to grasp that which is not only beyond reality, but ones own conceptual potential, as well.

### Metaphor: Tool for Education and Counseling/Therapy

#### Education

In addition to the functions discussed in the last section, metaphors appear to serve two major pedagogical functions. First, metaphor enhances learning and understanding by providing a bridge from what is well-known to what is less well-known in a "vivid and more memorable way" (Petrie, 1979, p. 439) which is necessary and perhaps indispensable in the process of acquiring knowledge of a subject. In addition, metaphor provides a transition from the concrete, more familiar, to the abstract, less familiar, therefore, potentially useful in discussing abstract concepts and ideas (Liebesny, 1957; Richards, 1936; Williams, 1978). As Thouless (1974) explains:

In the course of explaining rather abstract matter, it is an advantage to use a concrete illustration in order to make its meaning clear . . . such illustrations are a common and useful device in explanation (p. 169).

Metaphors may serve this function thereby making it easier to understand new things in relation to what is already known. Not only is this

common sense but a sound educational practice (Dewey, 1969).

Closely related to the first function is the ability of metaphor to provide a rational bridge from a given context of understanding to a changed context of understanding (Petrie, 1979). This appears to be a more global function in which metaphor plays an important role in "bridging disciplinary gaps" (Ortony et al., 1978), a central role in the creative process. Metaphor as a conceptual tool plays a key role in this process by providing new contexts for viewing or "reframing" (Watzlawick, Weakland, & Fisch, 1974) the old and familiar (Gordon, 1971). These functions of metaphor perform as important educational tools by starting with what students know and guiding or challenging their old cognitive structures bringing about a change or expansion of their cognitive schemes (Petrie, 1979).

#### Education: Empirical Research

Although metaphors serve many functions in education, systematic investigation of the hypotheses and assumptions forwarded by theoreticians is scarce. Kintsch and Kozminsky (1977) compared the summaries of 48 college students who were randomly assigned to one of two treatment groups designed to compare the effects of listening to or reading three stories: The results were

. . . surprisingly small, especially when one considers that subjects who read the story had free access to it while writing their summaries, while the subject who listened to the story had to work entirely from memory (p. 497).

In a study of recognition memory for syntactic and semantic aspects of connected discourse, Sacks (1967) had 96 undergraduate college students listen to 24 taped passages followed by a recognition test sentence either identical to the sentence which occurred earlier, or was

changed in some slight way. Commenting on how language is comprehended, Sacks (1967) states that:

When language is comprehended, it seems that the meaning of what was heard or read is remembered to some extent, but unless special attention is given to the style or other characteristics of the words, the exact wording is forgotten (p. 437).

The subjects of this investigation demonstrated very high memory ability of items at both "deep structure" (p. 437) and "surface structure" (p. 442) levels of processing. How this relates to metaphorical communication will be more evident when the principles of isomorphism and the trans-derivational search are discussed.

In two experimental studies, the first using 120 college freshmen, the second, 96 high school freshmen, Jordan, Flanagan, and Wineinger (1975) found that a significant "novelty effect" was demonstrated in three out of four cases when metaphorical language was used in discourse. Addressing the theoretical possibility of metaphor affecting attitude change, Jordan et al. (1975, p. 29) state: "Experimental research lends some support to the theoretical concept of metaphor as a rhetorically effective technique."

Empirical research on the effectiveness of metaphor as an educational tool is scarce. Of the experimental research found in the literature, most has concentrated on the production and comprehension of metaphor. However, the theoretical hypotheses of the functions of metaphor have largely been untested, remaining empirically uncertain.

### Counseling/Therapy

The production and comprehension of metaphorical communication is potentially valuable in counseling and therapy, as in education, for two



major reasons. First, there appears to be an intimate relationship between language, communication, cognition, emotion, and behavior; what affects one will, to some degree, affect the others. Second, language is considerably more flexible than any other form of behavior. This flexibility gives an individual the capacity for following instructions and giving himself or herself instructions. In this manner, language can be utilized in promoting behavior change and therein lies the value of metaphor, as a form of language, in functioning as a counseling/therapeutic tool.

Lenrow (1966), in addition to the functions of metaphor presented in the preceding sections, postulates seven more functions specific to the counseling/therapy context. As summarized by Fine, Pollio, and Simpkinson (1973), they are:

1. Metaphors provide a model of willingness to try out novel ways of looking at behavior.
2. Metaphors simplify events in terms of schema, or concept, that emphasizes some properties more than others.
3. Metaphors give communications an intimate or personal quality because of the concrete referents of metaphorical imagery.
4. Metaphors have a half-playful, half-serious quality that permits the therapist to communicate about intimate characteristics of the patient without appearing as intrusive as a more conventional mode of describing the patient might appear. The dissimilarities between person and metaphoric referents may help the patient to consider the possible similarities without generalized avoidance or defense against new concepts.
5. Metaphors assert the affective equivalence of apparently dissimilar concepts or events. An apt metaphor may permit the patient to observe his own ways of equating situations and thus open possibilities of dealing with the situations as different in important respects.
6. Metaphors highlight subtle social roles that characterize the patient's mode of relating to others when they refer to interactions between an object and its environment.

7. Metaphors transfer readily to new situations that the person enters, or old ones he re-enters. This is because they refer to rational properties rather than to discrete elements, and can thus be applied in a great variety of settings (pp. 90-91).

One or more of each of these seven functions has been discussed in the literature by numerous authors (Aleksandrowicz, 1962; Bauer & Modarressi, 1977; Bettelheim, 1976; Fuller, 1980; Gordon, 1978; Gordon, 1971, 1961; Koestler, 1964; McKim, 1980; Postman, 1976; Thouless, 1974; Watzlawick et al., 1974; Zemke, 1980).

#### Counseling/Therapy: Empirical Research

The increasing use of metaphorical communication as a counseling/therapy tool is reflected in the growing number of articles, books, and workshops espousing the benefits of and need for educating counselors how to utilize metaphor with their clientele (Bandler-Grinder, 1979, Cameron-Bandler, 1978, Gordon, 1978; Haley, 1973; Lankton, 1980; Nickelle, 1971). However, despite the widespread use of metaphor in counseling and therapy, the empirical validation of its efficacy in facilitating change in an individual is scarce. Furthermore, in spite of its increasing popularity and potential significance, no systematic attention has been directed at clarifying whether or how metaphors effect change in the individual (Lenrow, 1966). Concern over the paucity of research in this area continues to be expressed in the literature (Billow, 1977; Fine et al., 1973; Ortony et al., 1978; Vetter, 1969).

Gardner (1971) has developed a form of therapeutic communication called "mutual storytelling" which has been used primarily with children. Much of the reported research on this form of therapy has been

through clinical examples, anecdotal records, or case studies. Mutual storytelling has been reported useful in treatment of a wide variety of psychiatric disorders of childhood; for example, children with Oedipal problems (Gardner, 1975), anger inhibition problems (Gardner, 1975), psychogenic problems secondary to minimal brain dysfunction (Gardner, 1974), and with the psychological problems of children hospitalized with physical illness who are able to "examine their crisis" and give rise to "hope" (Schooley, 1974).

Allan (1978) collected 16 serial stories, written by a young male, and interpreted according to a Jungian framework. The results of this technique indicated growth in positive self-image or identity.

In citing a clinical example of treatment of post-traumatic neurosis, Gardner (1970) compared in a pre-/post-test manner, a seven months treatment of a 10 year old child using mutual storytelling. For assessing outcome, the criterion measures were projective drawings; intelligence test scores as measured by the Weschler Intelligence Scales for Children; and pre-/post-interview and psychological reports, including a Rorschach, administered by the referring psychologists. The outcome in this case was described as being successful in significantly reducing the child's psychological problems (Gardner, 1970).

Gardner (1975) suggests that the same processes underlying the effectiveness of mutual storytelling in producing therapeutic change have been used effectively since time immemorial. Gardner (1971, p. 101) explains that change occurs because the therapist speaks the child's own language and thereby has a good chance of "being heard." And when the therapist is heard it appears that the messages "do 'sink in' and contribute to therapeutic change" (Gardner, 1975, p. 273). It

is as if the therapist's comments "bypass the conscious, appeal to and are received by the unconscious" (Gardner, 1974, p. 136); "making the unconscious conscious" (Gardner, 1970, p. 419).

Recently there has appeared in the literature a theoretical explanation of the fundamental characteristics underlying the processes which account for the special advantage of metaphor as a tool in counseling and therapy. Gordon (1978) states that in addition to being used as a method of teaching and changing ideas, metaphor has been used as a means of effecting behavior. He further postulates two concepts that are most important for metaphorical communication to be effective; they are: "the transderivational search," and "isomorphism" (Gordon, 1978).

#### The Transderivational Search

The transderivational search is the conscious or unconscious process of correlating sensory input with all the stored experiences and generalizations about those experiences which comprise an individual's model of the world, in order to make sense out of what is being said or done. These models exert tremendous power on our behavior (Kelly, 1955). Therefore, the purpose of metaphors is to initiate either conscious or unconscious transderivational searches which assists a person in gaining personal resources and an enhanced model of the world (Gordon, 1978).

#### Isomorphism

A metaphor will be more effective if it is received by the unconscious mind as being "isomorphic" (Cameron-Bandler, 1978).

"Isomorphism" refers to the one-to-one relation in structure, or equivalence in the sense of maintaining the same relationships among the parameters, characters, and events in the metaphor as those found in the actual situation (Gordon, 1978, p. 40). Concerning the utilization of metaphor, Gordon (1978), remarks that:

It is not at all necessary when utilizing a metaphor to try to 'play down' the fact that it is intended to be 'therapeutic.' In fact, it is not even necessary that a client be unaware of the correlations and identities between his situation and the plot and cast within the metaphor . . . . On the other hand, there is no need for a client to explicitly and/or consciously know the significance of the metaphor, since, if the metaphor is truly isomorphic, all the necessary connections and changes will be occurring at the unconscious level (p. 157).

Therefore, it appears that the transderivational search instigates the person in searching on one or more levels for relevancy, while the isomorphic character of metaphor activates internal unconscious associations, mental mechanisms, and learned patterns of behaviors (Lankton, 1980).

### Counselor Education

In reviewing the literature no studies were found which investigated the systematic use of metaphor as a counselor educational procedure. Although one article (Barnart, 1977) described the potential efficacy of using spontaneous metaphor.

Barnart (1977) suggests that metaphors are "rich in teaching potential" and relates how his own anxiety in training was diminished by his supervisor's use of spontaneous metaphors. These metaphors were "challenging to others without being challenged within the self" (p. 315). Some of their important attributes seemed to be their "timing, humor, breathy force, and conceptual efficiency" (p. 315). However, most

However, most important, according to Barnart (1977) was:

. . . his [supervisor] humor made the adoption and endorsement of some of his deeper values nearly instantaneous. The metaphor was fundamentally credible. At some level of my personality, what and how he said it already made sense (p. 314).

Given the scarcity of systematic empirical investigation of metaphor in general, it is not surprising that systematic investigation of the use of metaphor in counselor education is likewise scarce. Therefore, this study will attempt to investigate the effects of utilizing systematic metaphors in the acquisition, retention, and transfer of goal-setting skills by counselor candidates.

### Essential Components for Learning and Counseling

#### Practice

Practice is an essential component in learning any new skill. In this investigation, practice will consist of role-play which has been a standard method in counselor education (Schwebel, 1953). Role-playing is a method of learning which requires the counselor candidate to demonstrate a set of specific counselor skills through interaction with a role-playing client. The role-playing clients may have a role that is described or left to their imaginations (Miller, 1972). This form of practice allows counselor candidates to try out newly acquired knowledge in an atmosphere in which they may learn from any mistakes before they attempt them in in vivo situations. The efficacy of role-playing in counselor education has been statistically supported both practically and empirically by several researchers (Delaney, 1969; Jakubowski-Spector, Dustin, & George, 1971; Panther, 1971).

In a review of research on practice (i.e., simulation) in learning

counseling skills, Delaney (1969) remarks that research indicates that such methods affect actual performance and provide for a more economic use of time. The following is a summary of the conclusions presented by Delaney (1969) which are most pertinent to this study:

1. simulation is affective [sic] as an instructional technique;
2. realism is not a primary requirement for transfer of learning;
3. simulation positively affects [sic] actual performance;
4. simulation provides economy of time and reduces long-term expense; and
5. the application of simulation techniques to counselor education has shown to be feasible and effective (p. 185).

The present study will compare two types of role-play. The first type is considered traditional in the sense that participants will be asked to play the traditional roles of counselor and client; the focus of the interview is one which is frequently considered a counseling concern. In the second type of role-play the participants will be asked to assume roles different from, yet metaphorical and isomorphic to, counselor-client roles (i.e., travel agent); the focus will be metaphorical and one not generally considered a counseling concern.

### Goal-Setting

The importance of setting goals early in the counseling relationship, although not a new idea, is well supported in the literature (Delaney & Eisenberg, 1972; Dyer & Vriend, 1977; Egan, 1975; Hackney & Cormier, 1979; Haley, 1976; Kanfer & Goldstein, 1975; Krumboltz & Thorensen, 1969; Rabkin, 1977). According to Kanfer and Goldstein (1975, p. 109), "learning to specify goals and issues is a critical first step in the treatment program and in some instances may be

sufficient to make the client immediately aware of possible solutions." However, the goals set are often so long range and vague that they are not attainable, realistic, or measurable.

Vriend and Dyer (1974) state that effective counselors have the concept of mutual goals ever-present in their minds. However, "too few counselors . . . know how to be effective as goal setters" (Vriend & Dyer, 1974, p. 30). According to Krumboltz and Thorensen (1969), the first job of the counselor is:

. . . to establish precisely what the goal is. Problems are not not always self-evident. They must be constructed in such a way that they become solvable. A counselor must translate the complaint presented by the client into a solvable problem . . . (p. 2).

Establishing counseling goals serves several purposes. First, they give direction and minimize the ambiguity in the counseling process (Cormier & Cormier, 1979). Without establishing mutually acceptable goals counseling may be without direction and possibly result in frustration for both counselor and client.

Secondly, goals provide the basis for selecting and using particular counseling strategies, interventions, and techniques.

Without a specific identification of what the client wants from counseling, it is almost impossible to explain and defend one's choice to move in a certain direction or to use one or more counseling strategies (Cormier & Cormier, 1979, p. 165).

Finally, having goals provides counselor and client with "milestones" (Cormier & Cormier, 1979) which may be indicative of client progress, the effectiveness of certain counseling techniques, or in assessing the success of counseling. In this way the counselor and client know where they are going and when they have arrived. Therefore, "setting a clear goal is instrumental in terminating therapy as well as



getting started " (Rabkin, 1977, p. 44).

Dyer and Vriend (1977) present seven specific criteria for judging effective goal setting.

1. A counseling goal must be mutually determined and, most desirably, elicited from the client.
2. Goal specificity promotes goal achievement.
3. On-target goals are relevant to the self-defeating behavior of the goal-setter.
4. Effectively set goals are achievable and success-oriented.
5. Effectively set goals are quantifiable and measurable.
6. Effectively set goals are behavioral and observable.
7. Goals have been effectively structured when a client understands them and can restate them clearly (pp. 470-471).

Therefore, because of the nature and functions of metaphor and the importance of mutual or reciprocal goal-setting in the counseling relationship, this study will investigate the effectiveness of this form of communication on the acquisition and transfer of these behaviors to the actual counseling situation.

#### Summary

A review of the literature has demonstrated that empirical research on metaphorical communication is sparse and directed mainly toward its use as a literary device. Likewise, literature is available that supports the need for empirically investigating the efficacy of metaphor as an educational and counseling/therapy tool. Studies based on clinical examples and case studies suggest that this form of communication has great potential and value in changing an individual's behavior and attitudes.

The literature has also supported the special role attributed to

the metaphor as a tool for communication and thought, especially in aiding active memory. An examination of the literature in this area has focused on two traditional theories, the comparison and interaction theories, as well as, Ortony's (1975) three theses on postulating how metaphors operate in expanding one's capabilities for thought and communication.

Finally, literature was reviewed which supports the use of role-play in counselor education and the importance of setting goals early in the counseling relationship. Studies were presented which suggested that such practice methods do affect actual performance and are an economic use of time. Also, the formation of mutually acceptable goals between counselor and client provides structure and direction for the counseling process.

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DESIGN

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research methodology utilized in the present investigation. Included is a description of the subjects, treatment procedures, dependent measures, selection and training of treatment administrators and judges, and the statistical procedures used to analyze the data.

#### Subjects

The counselor candidates involved in this study were masters level graduate students enrolled in one of three beginning level counseling classes in two Southwestern state universities. Students who volunteered to participate in this research were asked to complete a demographic data form (see Appendix A). They were also instructed to read and sign a contract (see Appendix B). The total number of students enrolled in the three classes was 72; 92% female, 8% male. Of these 72 counselor candidates, 58 signed the contract which stipulated the conditions of their participation and the requirements of the study. A total of 35 counselor candidates completed the entire treatment which consisted of the following: participation in the videotaped presentations; reading the handout on the goal-setting process; completing both administrations of the General Comprehension Test; and making an audio-tape demonstrating the goal-setting process with a volunteer client.

Using a table of random numbers, one audiotape was selected from treatment conditions II, III, and IV. These audiotapes were used in establishing interrater reliabilities. Of the remaining 32 counselor candidates, 30 were female and two were male. Their ages ranged from 22 to 45 years with a mean age of 31.6 years. Seventy-five percent were caucasian; the same percent were married and listed no previous counseling experiences. The Baccalaureate degree was reported as the highest level of education for 90.6 percent. Most listed themselves as part-time students and employed in educational settings (see Appendix A). The mean grade point average for undergraduate course work was 3.29, while the mean for graduate course work was 3.83. The number of counselor candidates not responding to grade point average was 10 and 13, respectively. A total of 14 counselor candidates listed one or more memberships in professional organizations.

#### Treatment Procedures

The 32 counselor candidates were randomly assigned to one of four treatment conditions with each group having eight persons. Before treatment, each student was given a handout on the goal-setting process (see Appendix C). All four treatment groups met during their regularly scheduled class period with the treatment lasting two hours. The four treatment conditions were: lecture and traditional role-play, lecture and metaphorical role-play, metaphor/lecture and traditional role-play, and metaphor/lecture and metaphorical role-play.

1. Lecture and Traditional Role-play (LTR). Counselor candidates in this treatment group were instructed by a videotaped lecture

on how to develop individualized behavior-change goals; read the handout on the goal-setting process (see Appendix C), followed by the first administration of the General Comprehension Test (GCT) (see Appendix F). After completing the multiple choice test (GCT) the counselor candidates were divided into dyads and instructed on how to practice the traditional role-play scenario (see Appendix G). The GCT was re-administered two class meetings following the treatment.

2. Lecture and Metaphorical Role-play (LMR). This treatment condition was identical to the LTR treatment condition with the exception of using the metaphorical role-play scenario (see Appendix G).
3. Metaphor/Lecture and Traditional Role-play (M/LTR). Counselor candidates in this treatment condition were told a metaphor (see Appendix E) preceding the same videotaped lecture. The traditional role-play scenario (see Appendix G) was practiced after viewing the videotaped lecture.
4. Metaphor/Lecture and Metaphorical Role-Play (M/LMR). This treatment condition was identical to the previous treatment condition with the exception of implementing the metaphorical role-play scenario (see Appendix G) after their viewing of the videotaped lecture.

#### Dependent Measures

Two criterion measures were used to assess treatment outcomes:

1. General Comprehension Test (GCT). The GCT (Scott, Cormier, & Cormier, 1980) was administered at post and follow-up testing.

The GCT (see Appendix F) was designed to assess the acquisition and retention of the goal-setting process knowledge of the counselor candidates. It is a 14-item multiple choice test having four choices per question. Each question had a one point value with a total possible score of 14 points. Using the Pearsons Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient, Scott, Cormier, and Cormier (1980) calculated a split-half reliability coefficient of  $r = .93$ . Computer scoring was utilized.

2. Intervention Rating Blank--Revised. This rating blank (a revision of the rating blank developed by Beers and Foreman, (1976) enables judges to record the frequencies of three types of intervention made by counselor candidates during each four-minute segment of an audiotaped interview (see Appendix I). Each counselor candidate was asked to make a 30 minute audiotape demonstrating goal-setting skills. Choice of client was the responsibility of the counselor candidate. These intervention categories are defined as follows:
  - a. Category I. Information-gathering is defined as statements (questions, leads, or probes) used by counselor candidates to elicit specific information about the client or his/her problem(s).
  - b. Category II. Consensual formulation of the problem is defined as statements (questions, leads, or probes) by counselor candidates that attempt to focus, structure, order, and summarize comprehensively the elements involved in the client's presenting problem(s).

- c. Category III: Other statements are those comments, questions, leads used by counselor candidates that are not classifiable in Categories I or II. Examples of this category would include advice-giving, lecturing, moralizing, offering suggestions, reprimands, and so on.

Beers and Foreman (1976) report the generalizability coefficients measuring interrater reliability for information-gathering and consensual formulation of the problem as  $R = .98$  and  $R = .83$ , respectively.

#### Treatment Administrators

The four treatment administrators were either doctoral level graduate students or university professors in the fields of Counseling Psychology, Applied Behavioral Studies, or Counselor Education. Each treatment administrator was given written instructions (see Appendix D) describing the treatment procedures and instructed to confer with the experimenter if any problems or questions arose during the administration of the treatment.

#### Selection and Training of Raters

Three persons rated the counselor candidates' audiotaped interviews. The three raters, two males and one female, were doctoral students majoring in Counseling Psychology. The training of the raters involved an item-by-item discussion of the Intervention Rating Blank - Revised including sample responses of each category (see Appendix H). For practice in using this rating form all raters listened to a single tape and rated the counselor candidates' responses for practice in using this rating form.

During the training session interjudge reliability was assessed by means of a K-Index (Ebel, 1951), where K is equal to the number of possible pairwise agreements. Interjudge reliability was also assessed at the mid-point and again after all the tapes had been rated (see Table V, p. 39).

### Rating

Each of the 32 counselor candidates' audiotapes were assigned a four-digit number and then randomly assigned to one of the three raters. Each rater recorded the frequency and type of counselor intervention on the IRB - Revised for each four-minute segment (see Appendix I).

### Statistical Procedure

A Linguist Type I Analysis of Variance (Huck, Cormier, & Bounds, 1974) and post hoc tests were performed on the General Comprehension Test. These scores were obtained immediately following the treatment and two class meetings after the treatment session.

The nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis One-way Analysis of Variance of Ranks (Huck et al., 1974) was used to analyze the data collected on the 32 counselor candidates' audiotaped interviews as measured by the Intervention Rating Blank - Revised.



## CHAPTER IV

### RESULTS OF THE STUDY

#### Introduction

In this chapter the results of this study are reported as they relate to each of the null-hypotheses under study. The .05 level of confidence was used to reject or fail to reject the hypotheses.

#### Hypothesis I

There are no significant differences among the effects of treatment conditions on counselor candidates' acquisition of information of the goal-setting process.

To investigate this hypothesis a Lindquist Type I Analysis of Variance was performed to compare the effect of the four treatment conditions (lecture and traditional role-play, lecture and metaphorical role-play, metaphor/lecture and traditional role-play, and metaphor/lecture and metaphorical role-play) on the acquisition of information of the goal-setting process by counselor candidates. This statistical procedure involves comparing the four group means (see Table II, p. 34) to see if there are any significant differences among them. Based on statistical analysis of this data (see Table III, p. 35) the results for Hypothesis I showed that there are no significant differences between the treatment conditions on counselor candidates' acquisition of information of the goal-setting process. An F of 0.299 which at the .05 level of confidence

TABLE I  
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION ON GENERAL COMPREHENSION  
TEST (GCT) FOR COLLAPSED LECTURE AND METAPHOR/  
LECTURE TREATMENT CONDITIONS

Treatment Condition	<u>GCT</u> Mean	TIME 1 Standard Deviation
Lecture (Treatment Conditions I & II)	8.69	2.55
Metaphor/Lecture (Treatment Conditions III & IV)	8.88	1.36

TABLE II  
 MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATION ON GENERAL COMPREHENSION TEST (GCT)  
 FOR EACH TREATMENT CONDITION

Treatment Condition	<u>GCT: Time 1</u>		<u>GCT: Time 2</u>	
	Mean	Standard Deviation	Mean	Standard Deviation
I (Lecture - Traditional Role-Play)	8.62	2.83	9.25	2.11
II (Lecture - Metaphorical Role-Play)	8.75	2.28	9.63	1.73
III (Metaphor/Lecture - Traditional Role-Play)	8.25	1.39	10.75	1.48
IV (Metaphor/Lecture - Metaphorical Role-Play)	9.50	1.32	9.88	1.62

TABLE III  
LINDQUIST TYPE I ANOVA SUMMARY TABLE  
FOR TREATMENT CONDITIONS

Source	df	SS	MS	F
Between Ss	31	170.6094		
Treatment Conditions (A)	3	5.2969	1.7656333	0.299
Error Between	28	165.3125	5.9040179	
Within Ss	32	78.8281		
Time of Exam (B)	1	19.1253	19.1253	11.009494*
A X B	3	11.0622	3.6873333	2.1226162
Error Within	28	48.6406	1.7371643	
Total	63	249.4375		

\*p < .05

is nonsignificant. Thus, the statistical analysis leads to nonrejection of this null-hypothesis.

### Hypothesis II

There are no significant differences among the treatment effects of treatment conditions on counselor candidates' retention of information of the goal-setting process.

To investigate this hypothesis, a Lindquist Type I Analysis of Variance was performed to compare the effect of the four treatment conditions on the counselor candidates' retention of information on the goal-setting process. The scores for this analysis were obtained from the counselor candidates' performance on the second administration of the GCT during the second class meeting following the initial treatment session. This statistical procedure involves computing and comparing the means of each level of the repeated factor. Based on statistical analysis of this data (see Table III, p. 35) the results for Hypothesis II showed that there was a significant difference among these means indicating that performance on the test did not remain constant across the two testing periods. An F of 11.009 at the .05 level of confidence indicates that the effects due to experimental treatment conditions were significant. Thus, the statistical analysis lends to rejection of this null-hypothesis. However, follow-up specific comparisons utilizing the Tukey's (a) Test for Unconfounded Means (see Table IV) resulted in an insignificant difference between treatments when pairwise comparisons of treatment conditions II (lecture and metaphorical role-play), III (metaphor/lecture and traditional role-play), and IV (metaphor and metaphorical role-play) with treatment condition I (lecture and traditional role-play).

TABLE IV  
 TUKEY'S (A) TEST FOR UNCONFOUNDED MEANS  
 ON RETENTION OF INFORMATION

Mean	Treatment Condition			
	I	II	IV	III
9.25 (1)	---	0.38	0.63	1.50
9.63 (2)		---	0.25	1.12
9.88 (4)			---	0.87
10.75 (3)				---

Critical Value (means) = 1.64 for  $df = 28$ ,  $k = 4$ ,  
 $\alpha = .05$ .

### Hypothesis III

There is no significant interaction of treatment condition with test-retest.

To investigate Hypothesis III a Lindquist Type I Analysis of Variance was performed to answer the question of possible interaction between the treatment condition and test-retest. The scores for this analysis were obtained from the counselor candidates' performance on both administrations of the GCT. Based on statistical analysis of this data (see Table III, p. 35) the results for Hypothesis III showed that there was not a significant interaction between treatment condition and time of testing. The analysis indicated that an F of 2.12 which at the .05 level of confidence showed that the effects due to the interaction of treatment condition and test-retest were nonsignificant. Thus, the statistical analysis leads to the non-rejection of this null hypothesis.

### Hypothesis IV

There are no significant differences among the effects of treatment conditions on counselor candidates' interview ratings.

To investigate this hypothesis, a Kruskal-Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance by Ranks was used to compare treatment conditions on counselor candidates' audiotaped interview ratings demonstrating goal-setting skills. These ratings were obtained from the Interview Rating Blank - Revised (see Appendix I). The interrater reliabilities are shown in Table V, p. 39). Based on statistical analysis of this data (see Table VI, p. 40) the results for Hypothesis IV showed no statistically significant effects between treatment conditions on the transfer of goal-setting skills to the counseling interview. The

TABLE V  
 INTERRATER RELIABILITIES ON INTERVENTION  
RATING BLANK - REVISED

	Time 1 (Initial Rating)	Time 2 (Mid Point)	Time 3 (Final Rating)
Category I: Information Gathering	$r = .94$	$r = .86$	$r = .88$
Category II: Consensual Formulation	$r = .73$	$r = .87$	$r = .80$
Categories I and II	$r = .87$	$r = .87$	$r = .86$
Category III: Other Statements	$r = .81$	$r = .83$	$r = .90$



TABLE VI  
 KRUSKAL-WALLIS H-CORRECTED VALUES BETWEEN FOUR  
 TREATMENT CONDITIONS ON THREE CATEGORIES  
 OF COUNSELOR GOAL-SETTING STATEMENTS<sup>a</sup>

	Treatment Condition			
	I	II	III	IV
Category I: Information Gathering				
Mean Rank	19.31	18.25	15.63	12.81
H-Corrected = 2.312				
Category II: Consensual Formulation				
Mean Rank	14.00	16.81	18.38	16.81
H-Corrected = 0.909				
Categories I and II				
Mean Rank	17.69	19.50	17.00	11.81
H-Corrected = 2.977				
Category III: Other Statements				
Mean Rank	11.38	17.75	19.00	17.88
H-Corrected = 3.286				
Total				
Mean Rank	14.63	19.56	17.69	14.13
H-Corrected = 1.818				

<sup>a</sup>Value required for significance at the .05 level,  $df = 3$ , is 7.82.

analysis indicated the following H-corrected values of 2.312 for Category I (information-gathering), 0.909 for Category II (consensual formulation of the problem), 2.977 for Categories I and II combined, 3.286 for Category III (other statements), and 1.818 for total responses. Therefore, the statistical analysis leads to nonrecognition of this null-hypothesis.

#### Summary

This chapter has included statements of the null-hypotheses being investigated in this study. A summary of the statistical findings is as follows: no statistically significant differences were found for the acquisition and transfer variables, or of the interaction between treatment condition and time. Although a statistically significant difference was found for the retention variable, a follow-up comparison using Tukey's (A) Test for Unconfounded Means that the treatment conditions did not differ.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

This study was designed to empirically investigate the effect of metaphorical communication on the acquisition, retention, and transfer of counselor goal-setting skills. The present investigation involved 32 counselor candidates who were enrolled in one of three entry level counseling courses. Each counselor candidate was randomly assigned to one of four treatment conditions. Counselor candidates participating in this investigation consisted of 30 females and 2 males. Their ages ranged from 22 years old to 45 years with the overall mean of 31.6 years; the means for each treatment condition were:  $\bar{X}_1 = 32$  years,  $\bar{X}_2 = 30.4$  years,  $\bar{X}_3 = 31.3$  years, and  $\bar{X}_4 = 33$  years. All but two of the participants were female. Most participants were married, Caucasian, employed in educational settings, had no previous counseling experience, and were attempting to complete a masters degree as part-time students.

The experimental design consisted of four experimental treatment groups: Treatment I (lecture and traditional role-play), Treatment II (lecture and metaphorical role-play), Treatment III (metaphor/lecture and traditional role-play), and Treatment IV (metaphor/lecture and metaphorical role-play). All treatment conditions received a videotaped lecture and were given a handout describing the goal-setting process, with Treatment Condition I serving as the control group. The treatment

groups varied in regard to receiving or not receiving a metaphor prior to the lecture, and in the type of practice instructions they were given, such as traditional or metaphorical role-play scenarios. Each of these treatment groups met for two hours during their regularly scheduled class meeting. The General Comprehension Test (GCT) was administered during treatment and two class meetings following treatment. Audiotapes of the counselor candidates' interviews were collected and rated according to the criteria established on the Intervention Rating Blank - Revised.

This study tested the null hypotheses as stated below:

- Hypothesis I. There are no significant differences among the effects of treatment conditions on counselor candidates' acquisition of information of the goal-setting process.
- Hypothesis II. There are no significant differences among the effects of treatment conditions on counselor candidates' retention over time of information of the goal-setting process.
- Hypothesis III. There is no significant interaction of treatment condition with test-retest.
- Hypothesis IV. There are no significant differences among the effects of treatment conditions on counselor candidates' interview ratings.

A Lindquist Type I Analysis of Variance was conducted on the scores obtained from the repeated administrations of the GCT. The resulting F-tests found no significance between the four treatment conditions when testing Hypotheses I and III. Therefore, Hypotheses I and III were not

rejected. However, a significant difference was found in testing Hypothesis II.

The non-parametric Kruskal-Wallis One-Way Analysis of Variance by Ranks was performed on the data received from rating counselor candidates' audiotaped interviews using the Intervention Rating Blank - Revised. The resulting H-corrected statistics found no significant differences between the medians of the four treatment conditions. Hypothesis IV was not rejected as a result of this analysis.

### Conclusions

While it has been postulated that metaphorical communication has the potential to assist persons in acquiring new information, the results of this study failed to substantiate these findings. However, if the means of each treatment condition are examined, one may find that utilizing metaphorical communication did not detract nor interfere with the acquisition of new information. The highest mean score, while not significantly different from the other three means, was found in the treatment condition utilizing a metaphor prior to the lecture and practice. One might conclude therefore that according to the results in this study, all treatment conditions are statistically equivalent in assisting counselor candidates in acquiring information on the goal-setting process.

It is difficult to draw conclusions concerning the reason for the non-significant effect of the treatments on counselor candidates' ability to transfer goal-setting skills to the counseling interview. One reason for this may be a result of the limitation of the metaphor utilized in this study. Although isomorphic to the goal-setting process, the content or frame of reference of the metaphor may have been unfamiliar to the counselor candidates. Examining the mean ranks one may posit

that the differences may be attributed in part, at least, to the counselor candidates' unfamiliarity with this particular frame of reference. Perhaps a different, more familiar, frame of reference would produce significant results.

Of the many possible reasons for the failure of this study to bring about significantly different scores in the variables, two of the most plausible appear to be the length of treatment and the experience the counselor candidates have had with metaphorical communication being used as an educational tool. As presented in Chapter II, much of the literature received has been supportive of the notion of utilizing metaphorical communication in educational counseling or therapy. However, there appears to be, as yet, an unanswered question concerning the span of time needed for metaphor to have its potential impact or influence. This is especially true when one considers employing a particular metaphor, systematically, with a group of individuals having various backgrounds and frames of reference. In addition, one may postulate that utilizing metaphorical communication, particularly as with metaphorical role-play (or perhaps the role-play technique itself) may have been unconventional or unfamiliar enough from the usual classroom procedure that the counselor candidates' attention became focused on the technique rather than on the process intended in this study.

Although the present study failed to demonstrate the potential of metaphorical communication to assist in the acquisition and transfer of information, a significant difference was found in the counselor candidates' retention of information on the goal-setting process. In examining the analysis of the data the number of correct responses increased on the retest for all treatment conditions; although nonsignificant when

compared to the other treatment conditions, the increase was slightly greater for those in Treatment Condition III (metaphor/lecture and traditional role-play). Although the results of this indicate that metaphorical communication does not significantly aid in the retention of information on the goal-setting process when the means of the other treatment conditions are compared to lecture and traditional role-play, however, when the means of all the treatment conditions were combined the overall mean was statistically significant. One may infer that, although metaphorical communication does not significantly aid in the retention of information on the goal-setting process, this form of communication appears to not interfere with counselor candidates' ability to retain that information.

#### Recommendations for Future Research

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study, the following research recommendations are made:

1. This study should be replicated using a sample drawn from the same population to determine whether the findings remain constant.
2. This study should be conducted using a different population; for example, doctoral level counselor candidates may produce different results.
3. Future researchers could develop an instrument designed to measure goal-setting skills.
4. This study should be conducted utilizing a format which allows for increased treatment time.

5. Additional research is needed to determine what effect variables such as length and content of a metaphor, degree of isomorphism, mode or manner of presentation, and varying the length of time between treatment and follow-up testing may have on the variables focused on in this study.
6. A similar study could be conducted to determine the effects of metaphorical communication on the acquisition, retention, and transfer of counseling skills other than mutual goal-setting.



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## APPENDICES

**APPENDIX A**

**DEMOGRAPHIC DATA**

## Demographic Data of Sample

	Frequency	Percent
<b>Age</b>		
18-24	8	25.00%
25-35	16	50.00%
Over 35	8	25.00%
<b>Sex</b>		
Male	2	6.20%
Female	30	93.80%
<b>Race</b>		
Caucasian	24	75.00%
Black	3	9.40%
Native American Indian	3	9.40%
Other	2	6.30%
<b>Marital Status</b>		
Single	8	25.00%
Married	24	75.00%
<b>Previous Counseling Experiences</b>		
Yes	8	25.00%
No	24	75.00%
<b>Student Status</b>		
Part-time	22	68.80%
Full-time	10	31.20%
<b>Employment</b>		
None listed	4	12.50%
Student	2	6.25%
Educator	18	56.00%
Counselor	2	6.25%
Other	6	19.00%
<b>Highest Level of Education</b>		
Baccalaureate	29	90.60%
Masters	3	9.40%



## DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION SHEET

Name (Please print first-middle-last) \_\_\_\_\_

-----

## DATA SHEET

Please record the last four digits of your social security number below:

\_\_\_\_\_

Check the instructor and day your class meets below:

Dr. Al Carlozzi (Monday) \_\_\_\_\_

Dr. Al Carlozzi (Tuesday) \_\_\_\_\_

Dr. Jerry Herreld (Monday) \_\_\_\_\_

Dr. Amy Carrington (Tuesday) \_\_\_\_\_

Your sex \_\_\_\_\_

Your age \_\_\_\_\_

Marital status \_\_\_\_\_

Racial classification \_\_\_\_\_

Highest level of education \_\_\_\_\_

Undergraduate degree \_\_\_\_\_ Grade point average \_\_\_\_\_

Graduate hours attempted \_\_\_\_\_ Grade point average \_\_\_\_\_

Full-time or part-time student \_\_\_\_\_

Previous counseling experience \_\_\_\_\_

Present employment \_\_\_\_\_

Professional Organizations \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX B

CONTRACT

Contract

Spring, 1982

Dear Counselor Candidate,

Your assistance is requested in a research study which seeks to evaluate some innovative counselor training procedures. In order to add to our knowledge about the overall effectiveness of these procedures, we will have you experience different processes from which data will be collected and analyzed. It is important for you to understand that any data used to evaluate these procedures will be anonymous and will not influence your class evaluation. You are being asked to sign this letter as an indication of your willingness to participate and to keep your part in the research confidential. Your signature also authorizes the audiotape recording of a one-half hour counseling interview which will be used in this research for the purpose of analyzing the frequencies of certain interactions between counseling participants; everything possible will be done to protect your privacy in the use of these materials.

Thank you very much for your help. You may be curious about the study and its results. If you would like to have a summary of the findings, please request them by leaving your name and address with your instructor and they will be mailed to you. You may withdraw yourself or your data from the study at any time.

I give permission to have my anonymous data used in the research and evaluation of processes within this course.

Signature \_\_\_\_\_

Please Print Your Name \_\_\_\_\_

APPENDIX C

THE GOAL-SETTING PROCESS

## The Goal-Setting Process

### Section 1. Selecting Goals: A Reciprocal Decision-Making Process

Scott (1978) has developed materials designed to explain the decision-making procedures involved in selecting counseling goals. What follows is a summary of the purposes that goals serve in counseling and the steps involved in the goal-setting process.

Goals serve three important purposes in counseling:

1. Goals represent some directions for counseling:
  - a) clearly defined goals reflect the specific areas of the client's concern that need most immediate attention;
  - b) the client's initial expectations of counseling may be clarified by establishing goals;
  - c) goals help in establishing what can and cannot be accomplished in counseling.
2. Goals provide some basis for selecting and using particular counseling strategies and interventions.
3. The most important purpose of goals is their role in the overall assessment of counseling; what and how much the client is able to do now, and what and how much the client would like to do in the future.

The first step in this reciprocal decision-making process of selecting goals is to give clients a rationale or purpose for having goals. This includes explaining how they are to participate in the goal-setting process. For example, a counselor might say, "We've been talking about some areas in your life that you'd like to be different.

It might be helpful if we talk about how you'd like things to be different. We'll call these changes our goals.

The second step, after describing the purpose of goals, is for the counselor to ask the client to select specific areas ("client goals") to work on during the counseling sessions. In doing this, the counselor attempts to move the counseling focus from the client's problems to changes the client would like to make. This gives the client some responsibility for deciding what he or she would like to have happen as a result of counseling. The areas selected will reflect a discrepancy between how the client is presently performing, and how he or she would like to be performing in the future. At this step a counselor might ask, "What would you like to happen as a result of counseling?"

The third step consists in the counselor assisting the client in identifying goals that are feasible (i.e., realistic and attainable), and the consequences of change. This will include some assessment of the degree of control that the client has in the situation, as well as, what resources are available to the client for realistically achieving the goal. To help the client in determining the feasibility of the goals being considered the counselor might ask, "What would you have to do in order to reach this goal?" or "How much control do you have over this situation?"

The fourth step requires that the counselor explore with the client potential risk of goals. Often an assumption is made that a change made during counseling has only positive consequences. However, many changes desired by clients may result in some negative or aversive consequences for either the client or for the significant others sharing the client's environment. Therefore, the counselor in helping the

client consider the risks or side effects that could accompany any desired change may use leads similar to, "In what ways might your life be changed if this change happened? What are some of the possible disadvantages or risks of doing so?"

The fifth step involves identifying potential positive consequences or advantages associated with the client making the desired changes. Scott (1978) states that there are, at least, three reasons for exploring the positive consequences of the change, these are: 1) to determine if the client's perceived advantages are really indicative of actual benefits; 2) to point out other possible advantages that may have been overlooked; and, 3) to add to the client's incentive for change. An example of a lead used to explore advantages of client change is, "Who might benefit from this change, and how?"

The sixth step in the process of developing goals is the decision point. The counselor has four (4) choices when this decision point has been reached in the process of selecting goals: 1) to accept the goals selected by the client; 2) to refer the client; 3) to "terminate"; or 4) not to participate in the treatment of the client's selected goals. The counselor has the right to refuse to participate in treatment and/or to terminate counseling if a client wants to pursue a goal that violates ethical or moral standards.

Seventh, the goal is defined in terms of visible, behavioral outcomes. The steps in assisting clients in developing individualized behavior change goals are described in the next section.

## Section 2. Videotaped Lecture: Developing Individualized Behavior-Change Goals

Recent work suggests that clients profit from experiences in which they have generated specific goals. Some clients express goals which are primarily on the dimension of feelings (e.g., I will feel more positively toward other people); others verbalize goals more reflecting behavior change (e.g., I will get along better with people). Such individual goals are still very global and diffuse. Individualized, personally relevant goals are the most potent.

Goals on the behavioral dimension may be of more value for personal change than those on the feeling dimension: it seems to be a more powerful technique to focus on behavioral change (which may lead to feeling changes) than to focus on feeling change (which may lead to behavioral change). This is not to say that feeling changes are not considered to be important, but rather that they are not always the most appropriate point at which to focus.

Even behavioral change goals held by clients, however, are most often so global and diffuse so as not to be too helpful. They are not specific enough to give the participant a definite criterion against which to evaluate himself. The procedure outlined below has been found to be helpful in assisting clients to develop individualized behavioral change goals that are very specific. The assumption is that a client can work on changing a specific behavior, and that his success in this endeavor will generalize to broader aspects of his behavior and feelings.

Behavior change goals, then, have the following characteristics:

1. They represent behaviors that are overt (observable by others).



2. They are individualized for the participant.
3. They are very specific.

In order to assist clients in developing their individualized behavior change goals, the following steps should be followed.

1. Goal: The client is first helped to generate what change(s) he feels would be the most important as the result of his counseling experience. Initially, many clients may mention goals that are on the feeling dimension (e.g., "I would like to feel more at ease around people).

2. Behavioral Goal: He is then assisted in framing these desired change goals in behavioral terms. One good way to get at this is to ask, "How would you behave differently if you reached your goal?" For example, you might ask, "How would you behave differently if you felt more at ease around people?" The client might respond, "I would stop avoiding people."

3. Observable Behavioral Goal: The next step is to assist making the behavioral goal as observable as possible. It is often helpful to ask, "How could I tell that you have changed in this manner?" For example, you might ask, "How could I tell that you had stopped avoiding people?" The client might answer, "You could see me actually hold conversations with people."

4. Specific Observable Behavioral Goal: The client should then be assisted in making his observable goals even more specific (if possible). Two helpful ways in making the goal more specific are:

- A. Limit the scope of the behavior: For example, the client might limit his behavioral goal to talking in conversation initiated by others, leaving out initiating conversations himself (which might be a later goal).

- B. Limit the time, place, person, or context: For example, the client might limit his behavioral goal to talking in conversations initiated by others 1) during the dinner hour, 2) in the cafeteria, 3) to his head resident, or 4) when women are present.

Care must be taken that the specific observable goal is still a very important behavior that the individual desires to change.

5. Base Rate: The base rate for later comparison is established by asking the client to specify where he is now in terms of his specific goal. Asking "How frequently do you do this now?" or "How well do you do this now?" determines either the quantity or quality of his present behavior. He will later be able to evaluate his later behavior against this base.

6. Criteria of Failure: The behavioral goal is then further refined by assisting the client to indicate "How could I tell that you failed in achieving your goal?" Criteria of failure, again, should be observable and specific. The client should also be asked, "How could I tell that you were doing even worse than you are doing now in achieving your behavioral goal?" It is important to elicit this concept so it will be possible to observe negative, as well as positive change.

7. Realistic: The client is then asked to evaluate the behavioral goal he has generated to see whether it is really realistic in terms of 1) his present behavior in that area, and 2) whether external circumstances would make it possible for him to achieve his goal. It is important that the client generate goals that are achievable. The client should also check if the behavioral goal he has chosen is the one that is really most important. If the client changes here, start over from the beginning.

8. Contract: When all these steps have culminated in an acceptable, specific, observable behavioral change goal, the client should be asked to sign a contract indicating that this is the goal toward which he will work. He must recognize that he has contracted with you to work specifically toward this end. Should he be unable to limit himself to one behavioral change goal, he should contract separately for each goal on which he plans to work. More than two behavioral change goals are not usually suggested.

APPENDIX D

TREATMENT ADMINISTRATOR'S INSTRUCTIONS

## Instructions to the Treatment Administrators

### I. Introduction

- A. Read: "You will be given some written materials and viewing a videotaped presentation on developing individualized behavior-change goals in the counseling interview. After viewing the video-taped presentation you will be given twenty (20) minutes to read the written material. Then you are asked to complete a short multiple choice test covering the goal-setting process. You will have twenty (20) minutes to complete the instrument. No one will be available to answer questions concerning the presentation or written materials." (Begin videotape.)
- B. Please distribute written materials; allow twenty (20) minutes to read materials.

### II. Administration of Multiple Choice Test

- A. Distribute the GCT (General Comprehension Test) to each counselor candidate.
- B. Please ask that the counselor candidates read the directions carefully, using the last four (4) digits of their Social Security number as their "Student Number." When they have completed the test or when the twenty (20) minute time-limit has expired, please collect the test forms, checking to see that their "Student Number" has been recorded.

### III. Introduction to Role-Play Scenarios

- A. Distribute the role-play scenario designated for your particular group.

- B. Read the scenario aloud as the counselor candidates read silently with you.
- C. Divide them into dyads and begin practice, observing the time-limits mentioned in the directions.
- D. After each counselor candidate has had an opportunity to practice each role, make the audiotape assignment.

#### IV. Assignment of Audiotapes to Counselor Candidates

- A. Each counselor candidate is asked to make a thirty (30) minute audiotape demonstrating the goal-setting skills they have learned. This audiotape is to be returned to their instructor the following class meeting. Please ask them to use the last four (4) digits of their Social Security number for identifying their tape.
- B. Remind the counselor candidates that they are not permitted to discuss what has happened with anyone until April, 1982.  
Thank and dismiss them.

#### V. Collecting Audiotapes from Counselor Candidates.

As each audiotape is collected, please check to make sure each counselor candidate has identified his or her tape using the last four (4) Social Security number digits.

#### VI. Second Administration of the Multiple Choice Test

- A. Two weeks following the first administration of the GCT, re-administer the multiple-choice tests.
- B. Distribute the GCT (General Comprehension Test) to each counselor candidate.
- C. Ask that the counselor candidates read the directions carefully using the last four (4) digits of their Social Security number as their "Student Number."

- D. As each completes the test, or when the twenty (20) minute time-limit has expired, please collect the test forms, checking to see that their "Student Number" has been recorded. Thank them for their participation in this investigation.

APPENDIX E

METAPHOR



## Metaphor

I once had a friend who was a travel agent and one day while we were visiting, this friend suggested that in some ways, probably in more ways than either of us were aware of, our professions were quite similar. Finding this observation somewhat interesting and yet, vague, I asked for further elaboration of this notion. My friend said that sharing some experiences might clarify the situation, so my friend elaborated. "A few years ago there was a person, who shall remain nameless, who would come into the travel agency and just look around, once in a while gathering brochures; smiling at some, frowning at others. This went on for several weeks with only pleasantries being exchanged. Finally, I thought it was time to ask if there was any way I could be of help. So, I approached and related what I had observed for the past several weeks. This seemed to open up a new door. I began by asking a few questions that were not too personal, yet enabled me to gather some information about what this person might want. Gradually, the admission was made that there was some confusion regarding, not only where to go, but even "if" they really want to go or should go. We spent some time clarifying and exploring some consequences of these decisions. Then, we discussed the important issue of "costs" and this means more than money, you know. Well, we talked about the financial costs, the costs in time, and so on. All this was still pretty general because we were just talking about going on a trip or journey anywhere. But, in my field this is an essential question, you know. Do they want to really take a trip, and can they afford it? Some decide that maybe just a little change or short trip is all they want. Of course, my job is to help them decide for themselves and then help them plan how to get to where

they want to go. Of course there's a lot more to what I do, like giving information about what they might expect when they get there, what to take along, etc. But that usually comes later, after we know where we're headed and how we'll know when they've arrived."

At this point I interrupted and after a moment of reflective pause I commented that my friend seemed different than how I pictured most agents because I thought they would almost decide where a customer should go. Also, if the customer decided to stay where they're at for a while the agent stood a good chance of losing a customer.

My friend smiled and said that many people believe those things about a travel agent. However, experience has taught that in the long-run, customers were more satisfied with their decisions and there seemed to be less confusion and frustration when all parties involved have agreed on where they want to go. As for those who decide to stay, they're satisfied because we often find nice trips close to home and within their means. Sometimes just knowing they have the option is beneficial.

Later that evening while reflecting on this brief visit with my friend the travel agent, I began to realize that indeed there were not only these ways in which our professions are alike but many more. As I thought about the people I've counseled over the years the more I could see how, in many ways, and especially in the early stages of our relationship, I too was a travel agent.

APPENDIX F

GENERAL COMPREHENSION TEST

Student's Number \_\_\_\_\_

## GENERAL COMPREHENSION TEST

DIRECTIONS: Please read the following questions and circle the correct answer. You will have 20 minutes to complete these items.

1. The counselor/client should consider advantages associated with the counseling goal.
  - a. almost never
  - \*b. frequently
  - c. rarely
  - d. only when counseling adults
2. The client/counselor should consider risks associated with the counseling goal.
  - a. almost never
  - \*b. frequently
  - c. rarely
  - d. only when counseling children
3. The goal purpose rationale statement has \_\_\_\_\_ parts.
  - a. 1
  - b. 2
  - \*c. 3 or 4
  - d. more than 4
4. Which choice does not belong in the list below?
  - a. terminate
  - b. participate
  - \*c. list strategies
  - d. refer the client
5. The counselor is justified in referring a client.
  - a. almost never
  - b. rarely
  - \*c. sometimes
  - d. only in an extreme emergency
6. If one has discussed the risk, feasibility, and purpose of goals with a client, what other steps need to be covered?
  - a. client change, decision on future counseling
  - \*b. decision on future counseling, adaptive behavior rating
  - c. adaptive behavior rating, client change
  - d. level of goals, direction of goals
7. What is the purpose of the following counselor lead: "What are some possible side effects of your choosing this goal?"
  - a. identify feasibility of goal
  - b. identify intention of goal
  - \*c. identify risk of goal
  - d. identify advantages of goal
8. The counselor is justified not to participate in the treatment of the client's selected goals.
  - a. almost never

Student's Number \_\_\_\_\_

- b. rarely
  - \*c. sometimes
  - d. only when counseling adults
9. Does this counselor lead belong in a counseling session on selecting client goals: "Today it might be helpful to talk about how you would like things to be different. We'll call these changes our goals--which means where you feel you are right now and what you'd like to work on in counseling."
- \*a. sometimes
  - b. almost never
  - c. only when counseling children
  - d. only when counseling adults
10. What is the purpose of the following counseling-lead: "How would you like counseling to benefit you?"
- a. identify risk of goals
  - \*b. change the counseling focus
  - c. identify feasibility of goals
  - d. change the tone of the counseling session
11. A goal purpose statement should include?
- a. a definition of counseling goals
  - b. a definition of the counseling process
  - \*c. what a goal is in counseling, the client's responsibilities in the goal selecting procedure, the purpose of having goals
  - d. what a goal is in counseling, the purpose of having goals, the number of people involved in the goal
12. At the decision point in the goal selecting procedures there are \_\_\_\_\_ alternatives.
- a. 2
  - \*b. 3 or 4
  - c. 5 or 6
  - d. more than 6
13. What is the purpose of the following counselor lead: "How much control do you have over this situation?"
- \*a. identify feasibility of goal
  - b. identify direction of goal
  - c. identify risk of goal
  - d. identify advantage of goal
14. Identify: "Today it might be helpful to talk about how you would like things to be different. We'll call these changes our goals--which means where you feel you are right now and what you'd . . ."
- a. feasibility of goals
  - \*b. purpose of goals
  - c. client goals
  - d. risk of goals

\*Indicates correct response.

APPENDIX G

ROLE-PLAY SCENARIOS

### Role-Play Scenario

The following activity is designed to help you practice all the steps in selecting and developing individualized behavior-change goals. Working in dyads, one student will act as counselor, the other as client and as observer and deliverer of feedback. Each student is given 20 minutes as a counselor to practice the steps in developing goals. At the end of the role-play, each counselor will receive feedback from the client; 5 minutes is to be allotted for each feedback segment. Students then switch roles giving each an opportunity to act as counselor and client. All students while role-playing the client are to present the following problem to the counselor:

You are a young adult seeking counseling because you are unhappy and dissatisfied in several areas of your life. You feel that you are unable to do anything about changing it. As a result of these feelings you have become depressed and unable to decide what to do.

### Role-Play Scenario

The following activity is designed to help you practice all the steps in selecting and developing individualized behavior-change goals. Working in dyads, one student will act the role of a travel agent, the other as a customer and deliverer of feedback. Each student is given 20 minutes as a counselor to practice the steps in developing goals. At the end of the role-play, each travel agent will receive feedback from the customer; 5 minutes will be allotted for each feedback segment. Students then switch roles giving each an opportunity to act as travel agent and customer. All students while role-playing the customer are to present the following situation to the travel agent:

You are a young adult seeking assistance from a travel agent because you are thinking about taking a trip. However, you haven't decided if you really want to go, much less, where you would like to go. This ambivalence has left you feeling confused and indecisive.



APPENDIX H

INSTRUCTIONS FOR AUDIOTAPE RATERS

## Instructions for Audiotape Raters

Your function as a rater is to count the frequency of each counselor candidate's statements (leads, questions, probes, etc.) according to three categories. A worksheet, the Intervention Rating Blank, is provided for each audiotape. You are asked to rate 20 minutes of each audiotape.

As previously mentioned, counselor candidates' statements are scored in one of three categories. The material you have been presented will define each category and provide you with some typical statements (leads, questions, probes, etc.) representing only a few of the many statements that are possible (Cormier and Cormier, 1979; Hackney and Cormier, 1979). These samples are intended to supplement the definitions provided for each category in such a way as to facilitate the task of rating each audiotape accurately.

### Category I: Information-Gathering

Information-gathering is defined as statements (questions, leads, or probes) used by the counselor candidates to elicit specific information about the client or his or her problem(s).

#### I. Purpose of Problem Definition

"I'm going to ask you some questions so that we can get a picture of what is going on. This will help us later to decide what we can do about it."

#### II. Identification and Selection of Problem Concerns

"How could you describe some of the things that are really bothering you now?"

"What is it about \_\_\_\_\_ that bothers you?"

"Which of these concerns do you feel you would like to focus on first?"

"Recall and tell me other times when this has been a problem for you."

"In what other situations has this happened?"

"Has anything like this ever happened to you before--or in any other situation?"

### III. Present Problem Behavior

"Describe what happens in this situation."

"What are you doing when this occurs?"

"What did you mean when you said \_\_\_\_\_?"

"What reactions do you have when \_\_\_\_\_?"

"What goes on inside you when \_\_\_\_\_?"

### IV. Antecedent Contributing Conditions

"What were things like before you had this concern?"

"When and where was the first time this happened?"

"What things that happened seemed to lead up to this?"

"Did you ever feel this way at any other time in your life?"

### V. Consequences

"What happened after this?"

"How does this affect \_\_\_\_\_?"

"Can you recall any thoughts or feelings that made the problem better or worse?"

### VI. Coping Skills

"In the past, how did you master or deal with this or other problems?"

"What skills or resources do you have that might help you manage this concern?"

### VII. Intensity of Problem (Extent, Degree, Frequency, and Duration)

"Does this happen all the time or only sometimes?"

"When does this happen?"

"When do you feel \_\_\_\_\_?"

"Where does this happen?"

"How has this interfered with other areas of your life?"

"How often (how much or how long) does this occur?"

"When do you usually stop feeling (doing, thinking) this way?"

## Category II: Consensual Formulation

### of the Problem

Consensual formulation of the problem is defined as statements (questions, leads, or probes) by the counselor candidate that attempt to focus, structure, order, and summarize comprehensively the elements

involved in the client's presenting problem(s).

I. Purpose of Goals

II. Identification of Client's Goals:

"Suppose a distant relative whom you have never met sees you after your changes. Describe what he or she would see you doing--how would you be different?"

"Imagine what would be different about you (or the situation). What would you (or the situation) be like?"

III. Feasibility of Goal

"What would you have to do to make this be different?"

"To reach this goal?"

"How realistic is this goal for you?"

IV. Risks of Goal

"What might be some possible risks of doing this?"

"What are some possible disadvantages, if any, of going in this direction?"

"How could I tell that you were doing worse?"

V. Advantages of Goal

"What would be the positive results (advantages) of this change?"

"Who might benefit from this change, and how?"

VI. Decision Point

VII. Specify Client's Goal Behavior

"What could I see you doing or thinking after this change?"

VIII. Determine Conditions of Goal

"Who would you be with when you do this?"

"Where would you like to have this happen?"

"In what situations do you want to be able to do this?"

"Where and when do you want to be able to do this?"

IX. Level of Goal

"How much would you want to do this?"

"How frequently do you \_\_\_\_\_ now?"

X. Subgoals

"How could we break down your desired changes into subgoals or smaller steps?"

"How could we order some things you need to do to maximize being successful in reaching this goal?"

## XI. Commitment

"This will take some work. How willing are you to do this?"

### Category III: Other Statements

Other statements are those comments, questions, leads used by counselor candidates that are not classifiable in Categories I or II. Examples of this category would include advice-giving, lecturing, moralizing, offering suggestions, reprimands, etc.

APPENDIX I

INTERVENTION RATING BLANK - REVISED

Student's Number \_\_\_\_\_

## Intervention Rating Blank - Revised

Time (In Minutes)	Category I: Information- Gathering	Category II: Consensual Problem Formulation	Category III: Other
00 - 04	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
04 - 08	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
08 - 12	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
12 - 16	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
16 - 20	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Subtotals			
Total: Category I and Category II			

Rater \_\_\_\_\_

VITA<sup>2</sup>

Larry Gene Bell

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: EFFECTS OF METAPHORICAL COMMUNICATION ON THE ACQUISITION,  
RETENTION, AND TRANSFER OF COUNSELOR GOAL-SETTING SKILLS

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Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Okmulgee, Oklahoma, December 28, 1948, the  
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Professional Experience: Mental Health Worker, Okmulgee County  
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