

A COMPARISON OF INVOLUNTARY COUNSELING AND
MINIMAL SUPERVISION ON THE SELF-
CONCEPTS OF MISDEMEANANTS

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Crime has risen in the United States during the past two decades. At the same time America has experienced unprecedented social change. This has brought about an increase of social tension, divorce, alcohol and drug addiction, and mental illness (Clark, 1970). The federal government, along with state and local governments, are struggling to understand, cope, and provide programs which possibly could lead to solving the multiple social problems of today. The State of Oklahoma has experienced the same frustrations as other states in trying to provide solutions to the social upheaval within its boundaries. However, few programs are constructively and realistically solving existing problems.

Additional legislative monies have not provided the answers to the social phenomena of increasing crime. Most existing programs, however, deal with the person while in prison or when he/she is placed on parole. Prisons are for the felons and these individuals usually have a history of crime prior to entering the prison setting. Clark (1970) states:

The most important statistic on crime is the one which tells us that 80 per cent of all felonies are committed by repeaters. Four-fifths of our major crimes are committed by people already known to the criminal justice system (p. 215).

It appears that prison/correctional facilities have not been effective

in deterring crime nor in "rehabilitating" this particular element in our society.

Aside from the dehumanizing treatment to which many delinquents and criminals are subjected, labeling individuals as criminals may be detrimental to their self-concepts (Coleman, 1972). He continues that to label persons as delinquents or criminals is devaluing and therefore they are likely to see themselves differently. Significant others in their lives may also view them differently after the negative labeling has occurred. Therefore, the phenomenon of the "self-fulfilling prophecy" may become a reality in terms of the individuals' more negative self-concepts and the social roles they choose.

Sandhu (1974) examined the feelings of self and crime. He cites a study by Reckless and Dinitz (1967) where twelve year old "good boys" and "bad boys," as identified by their teachers, were given two tests on self-concept and responsibility. The "bad boys" scored low on responsibility and showed an unfavorable self-concept; whereas, the reverse was true for the "good boys." Thirty-nine percent of the "bad boys" had been in juvenile court. The researchers concluded that a good self-concept insulates the individual against delinquency (Sandhu, 1974).

Self-concept has been identified by Reckless (1967) as one of the factors which veers an individual away from or toward criminal behavior. Fitts (1969) reported studies of self-concept profiles of delinquent youths which have shown amazingly consistent patterns on their overall level of self-esteem (P scores on the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale). The self-concepts of delinquent youths are consistently low; only a few have average or better P scores (Deitche, 1959; Atchison,

1958, Lefebber, 1965; and Kin, 1968). "The delinquent seems to be saying that he is not much good and that his behavior is proof of this, but that he is not really so dissatisfied with what he is" (Fitts and Hammer, 1969).

Need for the Study

With the increase of criminal activity in Oklahoma resulting in negative social, economic, interpersonal, and psychological consequences for the society, it would be of value to examine if programs forcing offenders into a counseling modality could be effective in changing their delinquent lifestyles. Approximately 80 percent of convicted felons can and should be treated outside the large prisons (Sandhu, 1974). In the past, however, counseling with offenders has occurred after a person is incarcerated, placed in a half-way house or a treatment center. Likewise, probation generally has meant minimal supervision or having the offender simply check in on a periodic basis (Silver, 1968).

If our judicial system is going to continue programs which insist on individuals receiving counseling, then it seems reasonable that the helping professions should come to terms with the question of whether such involuntary counseling is effective. By obtaining empirical evidence on the effects of forced or involuntary counseling on a person's self-concept, counselors could then encourage or discourage involuntary counseling programs or at least alter programs to maximize effectiveness of counseling in existing programs.

If involuntary counseling becomes a more prevalent treatment mode for first or second time offenders on the misdemeanor level, then it

is vital to examine if this type of intervention is effective in changing of self-concepts. Several benefits may occur in an investigation of involuntary counseling as a treatment mode with misdemeanor offenders. First, recidivism could possibly diminish. Second, if counseling focuses on self-concept, the data obtained could be one measure of information in examining effectiveness of programs. Third, the data could be utilized to further understand the psychodynamics of counseling in this "forced setting."

Statement of the Problem

Many existing programs are not effective in deterring crime as evidenced by the high recidivism rate in our country. From most existing evidence, once a person is incarcerated for any length of time (county, state, or federal systems), the chances for recidivism greatly increases (Clark, 1970). It seems that our penal institutions enhance and reinforce the criminal lifestyle rather than deter it (Clark, 1970). White (1978) points out that 65 percent of all individuals currently incarcerated in Oklahoma penal institutions have histories of misdemeanor crimes prior to conviction for a felony. Hence, many felons are sentenced to prison confinement.

Some programs now exist dealing solely with misdemeanor offenders. These programs are based on the premise that by beginning work with offenders when they are initially involved in the criminal lifestyle, then the chance for successful change to a productive lifestyle is more probable (Clark, 1970). It is apparent that some people, after committing one misdemeanor, may never come in contact with the law again because of the fear of being "locked up" and going

in front of a judge. This experience can be a deterrent for many, yet for others it is not. One's self-concept appears to have impact on which direction in life an offender may choose. Therefore, this study is designed to answer the following question: Will forced counseling intervention with persons charged with misdemeanors influence their self-concepts in a positive manner?

Purpose

The primary purpose of this study is to examine the influence of involuntary counseling as compared to minimal supervision with misdemeanants. The focus of the counseling relationship is on facilitating the misdemeanant in learning different and more appropriate coping mechanisms, hopefully resulting in a more positive self-concept.

Limitations

The following are limitations inherent in this study:

1. This study will examine the counseling process only and not specific counseling strategies.

2. A total of 36 misdemeanants referred to the Payne County Program for Misdemeanants, Inc. comprise the subjects for this study. Twenty were required to be involved in individual counseling and twenty were on minimal supervision. This small sample size is an inherent limitation.

3. This experimental study is a program evaluation that gives a fair comparison of two professional (but noncontrollable) treatments (forced counseling versus minimal supervision). Consequently, no replication is possible.

Assumptions

The basic assumption of this study is if involuntary counseling is effective there should be notable changes in the offender's self-concept. These changes in the self-concept would center around a person viewing self in a more positive manner.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions of terms will benefit a full understanding of this study:

1. Counseling. Counseling occurs in an individual counseling session with a professional who holds a minimum of a master's degree in counseling or a related behavioral science. Williamson (1958) defines counseling as a process "through which a person learns to perceive himself as he actually is and to live with and accept himself with all his faults and shortcomings as well as his positive capabilities and potentialities" (p. 521).

2. Involuntary Counseling. Counseling where an individual is forced to see a counselor as part of a court-ordered requirement and where in ordinary circumstances the individual would choose not to enter a counseling relationship.

3. Counseling Effectiveness. Counseling effectiveness is defined as notable positive changes relative to the self-concept after a person has experienced the counseling relationship. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale is the instrument selected for measuring self-concept.

4. Minimal Supervision. This procedure requires that the misdemeanants report weekly to the program's office.

5. Misdemeanor Level. This level of misdemeanor offenses is labeled "minor offenses" and are not generally perceived as particularly threatening to society. Some of these offenses are petty larceny, minor assaults, marijuana possession, alcohol-related offenses, disturbing the peace, some traffic offenses, and minor voyeurism such as "peeping tom" offenses.

Hypotheses

The .05 level of confidence is necessary in rejecting the null hypotheses which are based on selected scores found in the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS):

1. There is no difference in the Total Positive Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

2. There is no difference in the Identity Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

3. There is no difference in the Behavior Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

4. There is no difference in the Moral-Ethical Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

5. There is no difference in the Personal Self Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

Organization of the Remainder of the Study

The present chapter included the introduction, need for the study, statement of the problem, purpose, limitations, assumptions, definition of terms, and the hypotheses to be tested in this investigation. Chapter II contains a review of related research. Chapter III describes the procedures and the statistical processes used in the study. Chapter IV includes the findings and reports the statistical data of the study. Chapter V contains the summary of the information obtained from the investigation as well as conclusions drawn from the data and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

A review of the literature concerning involuntary counseling points out that few studies have dealt with this issue. Most findings dealing with people being forced into counseling (normally within the criminal realm) focus their results in relation to recidivism (Moore, 1973). Although this is an easily identifiable criteria, it does not give the researcher an introspective look into "why" some people continue a criminal lifestyle and others do not. In addition, it does not allow the researcher much insight into the effectiveness of forced counseling treatment.

The literature review in this chapter was selected on the basis of providing an overview of how most involuntary counseling with offenders is presently used (normally in the criminal justice system) and the effects of such counseling programs. Another important aspect deals with community mental health and its systematic approach to social change. A literature review pertaining to the self-concept as a criteria of understanding changes within the person also is discussed. The last section will deal with the impact of involuntary counseling.

Current Use of Counseling

The criminal justice system (which includes the police, courts,

and correctional agencies) is one of the most glaring examples of decadence in a social program (Clark, 1970). Clark emphatically denounced the system as being tragically neglectful. "In its most direct contacts with crime--prevention, detection, apprehension, conviction and correction--the system of criminal justice fails miserably" (p. 123). Clark (1970) argues that existing criminal institutions manufacture criminals.

Prisons are usually little more than places to keep people--warehouses of human degradation. Ninety-five percent of all expenditure in the entire corrections effort of the nation is for custody--iron bars, stone walls, guards. Five percent is for hope--health services, education, developing employment skills (p. 130).

If conditions are as Clark described them, then there is little wonder as to why the system may not be effective. This is further exemplified in Oklahoma by Federal Judge J. Bohanon's (1978) recent decision to release prisoners at McAlester because of the poor and overcrowded facilities. Therefore, when an offender is released, little thought is given to the fact that now the exoffender must function appropriately in society. To illustrate, most serious crime is committed by people convicted of previous crimes (Clark, 1970). Silver (1968) points out that correctional programs are the poorest possible preparation for successful reentry into society and are a positive detriment to rehabilitation.

Therefore, the "lock up" situation does not rehabilitate and usually reinforces continued criminal lifestyle. Crime prevention has been the focus of current criminologist endeavors (Carter, 1974). The misdemeanor appears to be the breeding ground for continuing crime (Silver, 1968). "Our judicial system is most inadequate at

the early stages, just where much crime might be nipped in the bud by adequate correctional facilities for misdemeanants" (Silver, 1968, p. 25). The time lapse between arrests and conviction dissipates any significant deterrent effect and reduces rehabilitational probabilities (Clark, 1970). The legal system fails first at the most crucial point--the onset of a criminal career (Silver, 1968).

The misdemeanor level seems to be the most effective level for intervention because offenders normally have had little or no contact with the criminal justice system until this point in their lives (Silver, 1968). This population consists mainly of young adults: in 1968, two-thirds of all serious crimes were committed by persons under 21, including 79.9 percent of auto thefts, 70.7 percent of burglaries, and 68.5 percent of larcenies (Clark, 1970). Regarding the question of age, the older a person is when released from prison, the less likely he/she is to return to crime (Glasser, 1969). Prevention of recidivism and rehabilitation of the person towards more socially productive behavior should be the goal sought at this time (Moore, 1973) and forced counseling would be one approach. Clark (1970) argues that the criminal justice system is a process in which each stage must contribute to the same goals--prevention and control of crime and rehabilitation of offenders.

Deterring crime and cutting back the recidivist are goals sought but rarely reached in the criminal justice system. Two examples clearly indicate why these goals are not reached (Clark, 1970). First, the criminal justice system is not well organized. Overcrowded courts, little coordination between federal, state, county, and municipal police forces, and inadequate facilities are some examples. Second,

effective probation is not a reality in the present system. Probation and parole are rarely what they profess to be--few if any prison systems have enough manpower to give meaningful supervision. The personnel available rarely have the training or professional competence to provide basic services that are needed (Clark, 1970).

Probation seems to be the most used form of deterring crime, especially on the misdemeanor level. However, little systematic examinations of non-punitive techniques have been conducted to determine if probation on the misdemeanor level is effective. Diana (1955) identifies probation and argues:

While probation as a process of treatment may not be a significant factor in the later adjustments of delinquents, other aspects of probation may be very significant. The imposition of the status of probation on a person may in itself induce a change in behavior (p. 7).

Moore (1973) states that two conditions must be established for successful probation. First, a person must commit fewer additional criminal offenses than a comparable group who are not assigned to probation. Second, probation must be shown to influence probationers to change behaviors which would reduce the likelihood of additional offenses. These do not explore an explanation of rehabilitation during this period in a person's life.

Community Mental Health

In the past ten years there has been a great movement towards community mental health. Fairweather (1972) conceptualizes community mental health programs as needing meaningful mechanisms for social change. His model has three basic elements: 1) humanitarian values, 2) social action, and 3) scientific methods. Change takes place if

agreed upon beneficial values exist to create change in any specific area. To achieve the desired goal, action must take place (as opposed to talk) in order to have movement toward desired goals. His third element validates the need for a particular social change because the scientific method provides a means of accountability and assists in prioritizing social needs.

Adelson (1970) argues that existing agencies are not providing the relief needed in dealing with the social tension of today. He supports Fairweather's need for the scientific method when he states:

We are in a fluid period in which there is profound repositioning of human claims and rights vis-a-vis social claims and rights. This situation is creating pressure for change in the established ecology--regulatory agencies such as education, social welfare, legal correction, mental health, and so forth (p. 31).

Reports by Sherif (1964) indicate most programs do not directly observe the social and psychological behaviors of individuals. What usually occurs are inferences made from specific behaviors such as a person's works and deeds. In the mental health programs for criminals, recidivism is such an inference.

Fairweather (1972) stresses a need to understand the means for social change which must be compatible with the goals of that change, so that a merging of means and desired end products are results. Therefore, probation programs, as well as other mental health programs, should be more scientifically based to ensure a viable means is reached.

The scientific method of research is precisely what Glasser (1972) calls for in any treatment program. He strongly urges experimental research as a means to objectively look at any program,

especially those in corrections. He contends that experimental research is more conclusive and data collected can be used to sell effective programs.

These researchers agree that a scientific method is crucial to any program helping others and rehabilitation is no exception. Research would allow programs a means of systematic analysis of their work and a means to determine if they are accomplishing desired goals.

A plausible criteria for effective probation programming centers around self-concept. There is abundant research from various theories relative to self-concept (Felker, 1974). However, little research has been conducted relative to the self-concept when a person is forced into a counseling modality.

Self-Concept

The study of self-concept is steeped in theoretical base. Freud's idea of self-concept centered around his three systems of id, ego, and superego. In the healthy person each of the three systems performs its task, and the systems then form a unified and harmonious organization (Felker, 1974). After Freud, theorists classified self-concept into three main groups. The first is a variation of Freud's psychodynamic approach. The second group consists of the humanistic orientation in which man's nature is viewed as striving towards fulfillment. Rogers (1951) and Maslow (1954) best exemplify this theoretical slant. Roger's thrust is that individuals must develop themselves which are uniquely their own and they are then fully functioning persons (Rogers, 1951). Maslow (1954), on the other hand, dealt with a hierarchy of needs which he contends leads to self-actualization.

The cognitive dimensions of the self represents the third group. Kelly (1955) and Diggory (1966) are two representatives. While Kelly (1955) does not postulate a self-concept, his ideas have had an influence in showing that the self-concept can be viewed as a personal cognitive structure of the individual. Diggory (1966) applied experimental techniques to the study of self. He sees self as a type of reflexive relation where the individual is both the subject and object. Diggory has demonstrated that study of the self-concept can be investigated in controlled scientific settings.

There is ample research to justify the assumption that if a positive self-concept is attained a person will live a well-integrated life. Coopersmith's (1968) research with boys indicated that one's ability to deal with life situations positively comes from a strong self-concept. Felker (1974) states:

The self concept is a unique factor in human experience and a powerful influence on human behavior. The self concept operates to give individuals some internal consistency through a set of expectations and as an interpreter of present and past experiences. Of particular interest is the positive relationship between self concept and achievement and self responsibility for success and failure (p. 22).

Therefore, Felker (1974) contends that positive self-concept does lead to a more congruent life. If self-concept is negative, everything which is seen in the world by that person takes on a negative hue. If it is positive, it provides the basis for seeing things in a positive manner.

Alexander (1975) states that there are two main ways a person changes: 1) through counseling or psychotherapy, and 2) through education. "Change includes altering problem solving techniques, reacting differently to others and altering the perception of self" (p. 233).

A combination of counseling and education usually takes place within the counseling environments.

Kanfer (1975) explored techniques for changing a person's self-perceptions. These included having the client try to change the problem behavior through insight to one's problem, change in the person's subjective emotional comfort, change in one's self-perception, and restructuring one's lifestyle. In general, the application of such procedures assumes that a person's improved self-image is sufficient to help him/her perform various constructive behaviors.

Combs (1971, p. 60), generally associated with the humanistic perspective, states that the self concept ". . . is the most important single factor affecting human behavior. The self-concept and its functions lie at the very heart of the helping process." Studies by Korman (1974) support Combs' remarks. He found that women of high self-esteem who want to go to college are more likely to engage in behavior which will achieve that goal than women who want to go to college who have low self-esteem. Korman continues that there is a significant positive relationship between the self-concept and a person's grade point average.

Other correlations of the self-concept seem applicable. Aronson and Carlsmith (1968) conducted studies on "the will to fail." As reported by Goldstein (1973) these studies suggest that if persons perceive themselves as failures they will engage in behaviors that will lead to failure. Coleman (1972) examined the effects of stress on the self-concept. If loss of social status, failure in a chosen occupation, or desires a person has which he considers immoral and

incompatible with his self-concept and self-ideal involves a strong element of threat, this results in a negative effect on how one perceives self. He continues that perceived threatening situations lead to more narrow perception which can include "restriction of information that is threatening to the self and an incongruence between reality and the self concept" (p. 219).

Sandhu (1974) states that an individual's self veers him/her away from or towards delinquency and crime. Reckless (1967) identified numerous factors of self (self-concept, images, and perceptions) which shift an individual's behavior such as self-concept, images, and perceptions.

Arbuckle (1975) described the concept of self as essential in developing counseling theories. Counseling allows the person to unfold what no theory can predict: the unique self (Corlis and Rabe, 1969). Again, the center of a person's psyche rests with how one perceives self. Exploring a person's self-concept is a central theme for the professionals in the helping fields.

Involuntary Counseling and the Self-Concept

What constitutes counseling effectiveness is a debated issue within the profession. Most counselor educators and counselors agree that the self-referred client is the one they predict will most likely be adequately motivated to internalize changes in their attitudes of self and others as well as behavior. However, Redl and Redl (1966) make an interesting observation when they state:

Resistance is an unavoidable process in every effective treatment, in that part of the personality that has an interest in the survival of the pathology actually protests each time therapy comes close to reducing a successful change (p. 216).

Vriend and Dyer (1973) support this concept when they state that counselors are least likely to develop skills in working with the reluctant client and yet reluctance in counseling is a common occurrence. Many persons entering a counseling relationship will be "reluctant" or "involuntary" clients.

The need to understand the dynamics of involuntary counseling seems mandatory as more individuals are being forced into a counseling relationship as a means of treatment.

But the involuntary client syndrome extends beyond the school setting. Prisoners who have "counseling" prescribed as a necessary part of their sentence or whose parole considerations is contingent on counseling are examples of reluctant clients. Similarly, counselors in community agencies spend a considerable amount of time in working with court-referred clients or children who have been sent for help by well-meaning parents (Bier, 1952, p. 241).

The emphasis is not whether a person enters a counseling relationship voluntarily or involuntarily, but how the relationship develops once in counseling.

Brammer and Shostrom (1968) developed five techniques to handle resistance. These techniques are: 1) being alert to the resistance, 2) lessen the emotional impact of the discussion, 3) shortening the lead of the discussion, 4) redirect the interview with less threatening topics, and 5) use some direct manipulation techniques. They continue that resistance is natural in counseling and it is the counselor's role to handle this resistance (Hansen, 1977). The involuntary

client could have an external resistance: the client could be unwilling to give up his autonomy of acting independently (Bordin, 1968). A counselor must avoid encroaching on a client's feelings of independence by helping the client to see the counselor as a positive development rather than a problem in the relationship (Hansen, 1977).

Effectiveness is a nebulous term. For the purpose of this paper, however, it is appropriate to clearly define what effectiveness is within the counseling relationship. Patterson (1973, p. xix) indicates that different theoretical approaches to counseling have one central theme: ". . . all accept behavior change of some kind, including changes in attitude, feelings, perceptions, values, or goals, as the objective of counseling." Patterson suggests that counseling deals with a person's self-concept. If movement concerning the self-concept is toward a positive direction, then indications are that the counseling is effective. Combs (1971, p. 60) sums up the need for counselors to work with the self-concept when he states: "The self concept and its functions lie at the very heart of the helping process."

Wylie (1974, p. 36) found that the ideal self-concept "was found between pretherapy and post therapy sorts made by the clients." It is through her extensive research on self-concept that the helping profession has come to understand the need to change a person's negative view on self if counseling is to be effective. The self-concept can be measured and if self-concept is more positive after counseling, then it can be assumed counseling was one important factor for this movement.

There appears to be an inherent problem in measuring the self-concept. Changing the self-concept is generally a slow process.

Combs (1971) states that time is required to change central aspects of the self and the counselor must recognize this fact in order to assure that the helping relationship is effective. However, he goes on to say that the peripheral areas of the self-concept are more conducive to change. For example, a peripheral area of the self-concept related to this study could be "I am not a good person because of breaking the law." This can often change quickly with the intervention of a helper. Aery (1975) supports this idea of peripheral changes. In her study she found significant positive ego strength differences within three and five weeks of counseling for entering college freshmen.

Horwitz (1974) explored extensively how changes in concept of self occur through the "therapeutic alliance." Through feeling accepted by the counselor, the client enhances his/her self-esteem (Hansen, 1977). Horwitz's (1974) study explained that the client's more positive feeling about self were clearly related to the counselor's interest, concern, and values placed on the client.

It appears the self-concept is a central theme in counseling. In order for counseling to be effective it is important for the counselor to help the client build a more favorable self image. There appears to be inherent resistance to changing one's image of self and it is the role of the counselor to help the client overcome this obstacle.

Summary

The use of counseling appears not to be effective and almost non-existent within the criminal justice system. Early intervention at the onset of the criminal lifestyle seems most appropriate. The overall

goal would be to reduce the recidivism rate and have probation programs which would focus on changing the criminal lifestyle more effectively.

Community Mental Health programs are one attempt to relieve the social tension of today. However, very little systematic analysis of such programs to determine their effectiveness is currently being done. Community probation programs need to obtain a more empirical means to maximize their efforts.

One plausible method to obtain this empirical information is to measure change in the self-concept. Abundant evidence is available which indicates changes in behavior is a result of how people view themselves. If persons view themselves positively, they tend to behave in a like manner and if the reverse is true studies indicate continued problems for persons and the society in which they reside.

Since most probation programs deal directly with involuntary counseling, a review of this dynamic was presented. In order for change in one's self-concept to take place, techniques were offered to deal with the involuntary client. In addition, a case was made to the measurable relationship of involuntary counseling in regards to the self-concept. It is suggested that a favorable self-concept is the primary goal of counseling. Hence, if positive change occurs in an offender's self-concept, then more socially accepted behavior would be the result of the counseling relationship.

CHAPTER III

INSTRUMENTATION AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine if involuntary counseling, as compared to minimal supervision, had positive effects on self-concepts of misdemeanants. This chapter will discuss the instrumentation, methodology, and statistical analyses used in this investigation.

Instrumentation

The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS) (Fitts, 1965) was selected for use in this study because it is widely applicable, well standardized, and multidimensional in its description of the self-concept. The TSCS is a self-report instrument designed to measure an individual's concept of himself. The instrument is an easily administered paper/paper inventory, composed of 100 self-descriptive statements. Responses to statements are made on a one to five continuum; one completely false to five complete true. The TSCS normally takes between ten and twenty-five minutes to complete with a mean time of thirteen minutes. To comprehend the statements, subjects need to have at least a sixth grade reading level.

The TSCS is available in two forms: 1) the Counseling Form and 2) the Clinical and Research Form. Major differences in the forms center in the scoring and profiling system. The Counseling Form was

used for this study because it is less complex in psychometrics and psychopathology. The Total P Score in the Counseling Form is described by Fitts (1965, p. 2) as ". . . the most important single score on the Counseling Form," because it reveals the overall level of one's self-concept. Within the Total P Score there are four subscale scores most relevant for the purposes of this study as these scores ascertain a person's internal and external frame of reference in regard to his/her self-concept. Wylie (1974) speaks to the importance of the internal and external frame of reference because how one sees his/her own ability and the perception of self to others and to the environment are the essentials in describing the self-concept.

Description of Scores

Five scales from the TSCS were used in this investigation.

Fitts (1965) describes these scales as follows:

1. Total P Score. This score reflects the overall level of self-esteem. Persons with high scores tend to like themselves, feel that they are persons of value and worth, have confidence in themselves, and act accordingly. People with low scores are doubtful about their own worth; see themselves as undesirable; often feel anxious, depressed, and unhappy; have little faith or confidence in themselves.
2. Row 1 P Score - Identity. These are the "what I am" items. Here the individual is describing his basic identity--what he is as he sees himself.
3. Row 3 P Score - Behavior. This score comes from those items that say "this is what I do or this is the way I act." Thus, this score measures the individual's perception of his own behavior or the way he functions.
4. Column B - Moral-Ethical Self. This score describes the self from a moral-ethical frame of reference--moral worth, relationship to God, feelings of being a "good" or "bad" person, and satisfaction with one's religion or lack of it.

5. Column C - Personal Self. This score reflects the individual's sense of personal worth, his feelings of adequacy as a person, and his evaluation of his personality apart from his body or his relationships to others (pp. 2-3).

Reliability

Fitts (1965) reports a test-retest reliability coefficient of .88 on psychiatric patients in a study by Cogdon (1958) for the Total Positive Scores. In addition, Wylie (1974) reports a two week test-retest reliability coefficient for 60 college students: total self regard equal to .92; row scores in Total P which depicts a subject's internal frame of reference from .88 to .91; and column scores which depict a subject's external frame of reference from .85 to .90. A reliability coefficient of .91 and a standard error of measurement of 3.30 for Total P were computed using the Kuder-Richardson split-half technique (Fitts, 1965). Other evidence of reliability can be found in the TSCS Manual where similarity of profile patterns are found through repeated measures of the same individuals over long periods of time (Fitts, 1965).

Validity

Validation procedures for the TSCS are of four kinds: 1) content validity, 2) discrimination between groups, 3) correlation with other personality measures, and 4) personality changes under particular conditions (Fitts, 1965). While there is a great deal of correlational data for other personality measures available in the TSCS Manual (Fitts, 1965), the two instruments discussed thoroughly are

the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory and the Edwards Personal Preference Scale. Other validation studies that were conducted are presented in the TSCS Manual with supporting data.

Wylie (1970) cites numerous studies regarding validity: Vanderpool (1969) and Gross and Alder (1970) found self-regard scores of alcoholics significantly lower than those of the normative group; Herbert (1968) reports lower reading scores paralleling lower self-regard scores. Atchison (1958) and Lefeber (1964) found significant differences in self-regard between delinquents and normals and between repeating delinquents and first offenders.

Norms

The standardization group establishing the norms for the TSCS consisted of a sample of 626 people. The ages of the norm group ranged from 12 to 68 years. There were approximately equal numbers of both sexes representative of varying social, economic, intellectual, and educational levels. Subjects in the norm group were chosen from high schools, colleges, employers from state institutions, and other various sources (Fitts, 1965). Expansion of the norm group was not done because samples from other populations displayed little differences and effects from other demographic variables such as sex, age, race, education, and intelligence on the scores of the Scale were negligible (Fitts, 1965).

Methodology

The Posttest-Only Control Group Design was the research design used to test the five hypotheses. According to Campbell and Stanley

(1963) randomization is the most adequate assurance of initial non-bias between groups. This design meets this requirement.

Subjects

Subjects for this study were from the Payne County Misdemeanant Program located in Stillwater, Oklahoma. The Misdemeanant Program is a counseling and supervision program for adult misdemeanor offenders (18 years or older). Approximately ninety-five percent of the clients are males. The subjects were referred from the Payne County District Court to the Misdemeanant Program.

From July 7, 1978 to October 7, 1978, seventy-one subjects were referred to the Misdemeanant Program. The only requirements these subjects had when they came on the Misdemeanant Program during this time period was to report in person to the Misdemeanant Program's secretary on a weekly basis. Thirty-one subjects of this group were eliminated from the study because they: 1) resided outside the county, 2) had conflicting work and/or school schedules, or 3) had sought their own professional help prior to assignment to the Program. All of the remaining forty subjects were males. Comparing all male subjects to the norm group is reported by Fitts (1965) as valid and he cites numerous sources of male population studies which confirms this. The forty subjects were then randomly assigned to the involuntary counseling or minimal supervision groups, with equal number of subjects in both groups.

Four subjects were dropped from this study. In the involuntary counseling group, one subject was killed and one admitted himself

into an alcohol treatment center. Two subjects in the control group relocated out of the state with the court's permission. The mean age for the involuntary counseling group was 24.00, and the mean age for the minimal supervision group was 24.89. Age, highest educational levels, employment status, and marital status of all misdemeanants are found in Appendix B. Information relative to the type of offense for each misdemeanant is reported in Appendix C.

Treatment

The subjects randomly assigned to the minimal supervision group were required to report to the secretary of the Misdemeanant Program to validate that they were still residents of Payne County and they had not encountered further difficulty with the law.

Each subject in the involuntary counseling group was randomly assigned to a professional counselor for not less than a five week period for an hour of counseling each week. Therefore, each subject received a minimum of five hours of counseling. Fourteen professional counselors provided treatment. Table I provides a profile of the age, education, and experience of the 14 professional counselors. Eleven counselors had M.S. degrees in counseling or in a related behavioral science field. Five were from psychology programs, three were from counseling programs, two from family relations, and one from a social work program. Three had doctorates in counseling programs. Professional counseling experience ranged from one year to seventeen years, with a mean experience level of 6.36 years. Age ranged from 24 to 44 years, with a mean age of 33.79.

TABLE I
 PROFILE OF PROFESSIONAL COUNSELORS FOR
 INVOLUNTARY COUNSELING GROUP
 (N=14)

Counselors	Age (in years)	Degree Held	Experience (in years)
A	40	Ed.D. Counseling	12
B	37	M.S. Counseling	6
C	41	M.S. Family Relations	17
D	44	Ed.D. Counseling	8
E	24	M.S. Psychology	2.5
F	28	M.S. Counseling	4
G	33	M.S. Psychology	6
H	38	M.S. Psychology	10.5
I	27	M.S. Psychology	2
J	35	M.S. Counseling	7
K	26	M.S.W. Social Work	2
L	28	M.S. Psychology	1
M	40	Ed.D. Counseling	10
N	32	M.S. Family Relations	1

Data Gathering Procedure

Subjects in the involuntary counseling group were assigned randomly to a professional counselor after October 7, 1978. Treatment did not occur simultaneously for the involuntary counseling experimental group due to conflicting schedules of the professional counselors. At the conclusion of the five week involuntary counseling

program, the misdemeanants were referred back to the Misdemeanant Program and reassigned to a report in (minimal supervisory) status--the same as the control group. Between January 22, 1979, and February 5, 1979, all subjects were administered the TSCS by the staff of the Misdemeanant Program.

Administering the TSCS in the period indicated allowed for a maximum of 11 weeks of intervening time when subjects were first released from counseling. Fitts (1969) reports that some intervening time is required in order to reorganize the self-concept. This time period could possibly allow for new behavior to be incorporated into the self-concept. Frank and Hiester (1967) noted time was necessary for changes to take place in one's self-concept because maturation from additional experiences was needed.

Statistical Analysis

The hypotheses tested in the study were that no difference existed between self-concept (as measured by the five scales on the TSCS) of misdemeanants who received forced counseling and those who were assigned to minimal supervision. Scores on the Total P and the four sub scale scores (identity, behavior, moral-ethical self, and personal self) of the TSCS were computed for each subject. To determine differences between the minimal supervision subjects and the forced counseling subjects, the independent t-test was utilized. The .05 level of significance was established by the writer prior to gathering the data. The mean and standard deviation for the variables were also computed and are included in the study.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA AND DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

This study was conducted to assess the self-concept in misdemeanant subjects who received minimal supervision and misdemeanant subjects who received an involuntary counseling program for a prescribed period of time. The subjects consisted of 36 men who had been convicted of a misdemeanor between July 7, 1978 and October 7, 1978 and entered the Misdemeanant Program. The subjects were randomly divided into two groups.

An analyses of data and discussion of the results of this study are presented. The data was analyzed by applying the t-test to each of the variables selected. The format for presenting the data is to state the null hypothesis, present the data related to the hypothesis in tabular form, state each t-test as applied, and present a discussion of the data. Tables of the raw data relative to the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale scores are presented in the Appendixes.

Null Hypothesis 1: Self-Concept

There is no difference in the Total Positive Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

Table II presents the data relative to the Total P scores on the TSCS for the two groups. The mean score for the involuntary counseling

group was 348.33, with a standard deviation of 28.40. For the minimal supervision group on the Total P scale, a mean score of 357.50 with a standard deviation of 37.04 was found. Hartley's F-maximum test for equality of variances indicated equal group variances ($F=1.70, p>.05$). A t-value of $-.836$ denoted no significant difference. Therefore, Hypothesis 1 was not rejected.

TABLE II
COMPARISON OF INVOLUNTARY COUNSELING AND
MINIMAL SUPERVISION GROUPS ON THE
TOTAL P POST-TEST SCORES OF THE
TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCORES
(N=36)

<u>TSCS Scale</u>	<u>Involuntary Counseling</u>		<u>Minimal Supervision</u>		t-value
	SD		SD		
Total P	348.33	28.40	357.50	37.04	-.836

In analyzing the data, it can be determined that after participating in involuntary counseling these subjects did not significantly differ from subjects who were on minimal supervision as to how they feel as persons of value and worth. The involuntary counseling group mean score was equal to the mean of the norm group of the TSCS while the minimal supervision group mean was slightly above the norm group mean.

Null Hypothesis 2: Identity

There is no difference in the Identity Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

The data failed to reject this null hypothesis. Table III presents the data for the Identity scores on the TSCS for the two groups. The mean score for the involuntary counseling group was 126.44, with a standard deviation of 11.24. For the minimal supervision group on the Identity scale, a mean score of 130.28 with a standard deviation of 11.4 was found. Hartley's F-maximum test for equality of variances indicated equal group variances ($F=1.03, p>.05$). A t-value of -1.24 denoted no significant difference. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 was not rejected.

TABLE III

COMPARISON OF INVOLUNTARY COUNSELING AND MINIMAL SUPERVISION GROUPS ON THE IDENTITY SCORES POST-TEST ONLY OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE
(N=36)

<u>TSCS Scale</u>	<u>Involuntary Counseling</u>		<u>Minimal Supervision</u>		t-value
	M	SD	M	SD	
Identity	126.44	11.24	130.28	11.4	-1.24

Again, both groups were equal to or slightly above the mean of the norm group of the TSCS. This data suggests that there was no effect on the Identity Score of the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling as compared to misdemeanants receiving minimal supervision.

Null Hypothesis 3: Behavior

There is no difference in the Behavior Scores on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

The statistical analyses failed to reject Hypothesis 3. As indicated in Table IV, the mean for the involuntary counseling group was 113.72 with a standard deviation of 10.66 and the minimal supervision group had a mean of 117.11, with a standard deviation of 10.82. Hartley's F-maximum test for equality of variances indicated equal group variances ($F=1.03$, $p > .05$). A t-value of -1.19 denoted no significant difference.

TABLE IV

COMPARISON OF INVOLUNTARY COUNSELING AND MINIMAL SUPERVISION GROUPS ON THE BEHAVIOR SCORES POST-TEST ONLY OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE
(N=36)

<u>TSCS</u> Scale	<u>Involuntary Counseling</u>		<u>Minimal Supervision</u>		t-value
	M	SD	M	SD	
Behavior	113.72	10.66	117.11	10.82	-1.19

The two group means were equal to the norm group mean of the TSCS. The data suggests that there was no effect on the Behavior Score of the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling as compared to misdemeanants receiving minimal supervision.

Hypothesis 4: Moral-Ethical

There is no difference in the Moral-Ethical Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

The data failed to reject the null hypothesis. As indicated in Table V, the mean score of the involuntary counseling group was 67.67 with a standard deviation of 8.23 and the minimal supervised group had a mean score of 69.61, with a standard deviation of 8.34. Hartley's F-maximum test for equality of variances indicated equal group variances ($F=1.03, p > .05$). A t-value of -1.13 denoted no significant difference.

TABLE V

COMPARISON OF INVOLUNTARY COUNSELING AND MINIMAL SUPERVISION GROUPS ON THE MORAL-ETHICAL SCORES POST-TEST ONLY OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE (N=36)

<u>TSCS</u> Scale	<u>Involuntary Counseling</u>		<u>Minimal Supervision</u>		t-value
	M	SD	M	SD	
Moral-Ethical	67.67	8.23	69.61	8.34	-1.13

In analyzing the data, it appears that after participating in involuntary counseling these misdemeanants did not significantly differ from subjects who participated in minimal supervision relative to how they view themselves in the moral-ethical area. Both groups were slightly below the mean of the norm group mean of the TSCS.

Null Hypothesis 5: Personal Self

There is no difference in the Personal Self Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

Table VI presents the data relative to the Personal Self Score on the TSCS for the two groups. The mean score for the involuntary counseling group was 67.94 with a standard deviation of 8.24. For the minimal supervision group on the Personal Self scale, a mean score of 69.39 with a standard deviation of 8.33 was found. Hartley's F-maximum test for equality of variances indicated equal group variances ($F=1.2$, $p > .05$). A t-value of -0.63 denoted no significant difference. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was not rejected.

The two groups' mean score placed slightly above the norm group mean score of the TSCS. The data supports the idea that there was no difference between the involuntary counseling treatment and minimal supervision in relation to how one views personal self worth.

Included in Appendixes D through H are the individual raw scores for the participants in both groups. The reader may refer to these for more detailed information of the scores for the variables used.

TABLE VI

COMPARISON OF INVOLUNTARY COUNSELING AND MINIMAL SUPERVISION GROUPS ON THE PERSONAL SELF SCORES POST-TEST ONLY OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-CONCEPT SCALE (N=36)

TSCS Scale	<u>Involuntary Counseling</u>		<u>Minimal Supervision</u>		t-value
	M	SE	M	SD	
Personal Self	67.94	8.24	69.39	8.33	-0.63

Discussion

This study was designed to examine changes of the self-concept as measured by the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale comparing two treatments, involuntary counseling and minimal supervision. No significant difference was found in this investigation. There has been little research done previously on the effects of involuntary counseling with criminal offenders. As noted earlier, Clark (1970) challenged the criminal justice system to find more effective ways to reduce the recidivism rate in this country. This study was an effort to look more closely at the self-concept as one influence of high recidivism rate in this country.

Assessment of the self-concept appears to be a pivotal/crucial element in determining life directions for persons involved with the criminal lifestyle. This study demonstrated the complexity of self-concept assessment and the influence of many factors upon that process. Combs (1971) maintains that it is the self-concept that is central in

the helping relationship and an area we must fully understand. Although this study found no significant relationship between self-concept and subjects who experienced involuntary counseling or minimal supervision, insight was contributed in this investigation relative to the dynamics of involuntary counseling and the self-concept. This is examined in the Future Recommendation section of Chapter V.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter is presented in three sections. First, a general summary of the investigation will be given. The second section is concerned with the conclusions drawn from the study. The last section presents recommendations for future research.

Summary

The purpose of this exploratory investigation was to study the influence of involuntary counseling and minimal supervision on the self-concepts of misdemeanants. The focus of counseling was a one to one approach with the goal of producing a more positive self-concept. Minimal supervision involved checking in with the Misdemeanant Program. Based on this purpose of the research study the following five null hypotheses were generated:

1. There is no difference in the Total Positive Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

2. There is no difference in the Identity Score on TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

3. There is no difference in the Behavior Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

4. There is no difference in the Moral-Ethical Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

5. There is no difference in the Personal Self Score on the TSCS for misdemeanants receiving involuntary counseling and those receiving minimal supervision.

Subjects for the study consisted of 36 males referred to the Misdemeanant Program in Payne County, Oklahoma. All subjects were 18 years of age or older, with a mean age of 24.00 for the involuntary counseling group and a mean age of 24.89 for the minimal supervision group. The population was randomly assigned to a group receiving minimal supervision and a group receiving involuntary counseling. Involuntary counseling consisted of each misdemeanant receiving five hours of counseling. A total of 14 different professional counselors provided the counseling. Upon completion, misdemeanants receiving counseling were reassigned to the same minimal supervision status as the other group. After an intervening time of a maximum of eleven weeks and a minimum of six weeks, and after the last misdemeanant had experienced the involuntary counseling treatment, all subjects were administered the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS).

The t-test was used to determine any differences on the score responses from the TSCS. No significant differences were found. Involuntary counseling of misdemeanants in this investigation produced no measurable differences when compared to a minimal supervision group of misdemeanants on the Total Positive Scores, Identity Scores, Behavior Scores, Moral-Ethical Scores, and the Personal Self Scores of the TSCS.

Conclusions

The mean scores on each of the five scales of the TSCS for both groups were near the standardized TSCS mean scores. This may indicate

that these 36 misdemeanants had relatively favorable self-concepts or that both groups experienced an attention effect. To elaborate, both groups were given attention simply by their particular assignments and through these expectations (being on time, not missing appointments, etc.) they may have automatically seen themselves favorably by fulfilling these expectations. This would possibly account for both groups being near the norm group mean of the TSCS. Therefore, the mean self-concept shown by both groups may be due to receiving attention and not as a result of their particular treatment. The attention effect could be the psychological placebo.

Through randomization, it was expected that the minimal supervision group would be equivalent to the involuntary counseling group. However, the minimal supervision group scores were greater than the involuntary counseling group scores on the five hypotheses tested. From the binomial table this occurrence was significant at the .03 level. Therefore, the direction of the sample means was skewed by chance alone.

The brief involuntary counseling treatment does not appear to have had significant impact on the self-concept, even after an intervening period (six to eleven weeks in this study) when reintegration was allowed to take place. Patterson (1973) supports this contention as he views identity of a person as a life long process which requires significant time and energy on the part of the counselor and client in making any changes. The length of time in counseling may be more significant when working with the involuntary client. Involuntary counseling usually involves dealing with reluctance on the

part of the clients. It seems reasonable that the five weeks of counseling treatment may not have been a long enough time period for the counselor to effectively move beyond the reluctance. Once reluctance subsides, then the counselor and client may be able to move to deeper levels. The deeper level may be where movement around one's self-concept would most likely occur.

Recommendations

The present investigation has made a contribution to existing research by calling attention to the need for reducing criminal offenses. However, additional research is needed to make existing programs more efficient and for creating new programs to further reduce the high recidivism rate for criminal offenders. Recommendations for further research based on the present investigation are as follows:

1. Additional research is needed in the area of determining what counseling procedures are more effective in working with criminal offenders.
2. A study examining change with a person's self-concept would be more facilitative with a larger population to obtain the subtle but important statistical differences.
3. Using the counseling form of the TSCS may be too general a measurement to ascertain important specific differences of a person's self-concept. The clinical form of the TSCS may be suitable to detect these subtle differences and from this more pertinent data could be extracted between and within group differences.

4. A correlational study with such items as attendance factors, keeping appointments, etc. dealing with the attention factor is necessary, since attention may influence the self-concept. Such a study would lead to a better understanding of the possible placebo phenomena.

5. There may be differences with male versus female misdemeanant offenders in regard to their self-concept. This information seems vital in order to establish effective treatment for both sexes in this area.

6. The large number of counselors allowed for little control relative to the counseling strategies being used. What may be more revealing is a comparison of counseling techniques and what effects these techniques may have on the self-concepts of clients in the involuntary setting.

7. More research is needed to determine an appropriate time duration in the counseling treatment of involuntary clients.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

LETTER OF ASSURANCE

Edward F. Reed
508 W. Third
Stillwater, OK. 74074
July 1, 1978

Darrel K. Calkins
Director, Misdemeanant Program
Room 208, Court House
Stillwater, OK. 74074

Dear Mr. Calkins:

This letter is to assure the Misdemeanant Program that any individual participating in the study from July, 1978, to February, 1979, will not be denied counseling if they express, imply, or if it is determined by appropriate individuals that said counseling is needed.

Sincerely yours,

Edward F. Reed

APPENDIX B

TABLES ON AGE, EDUCATION, EMPLOYMENT STATUS, AND
MARITAL STATUS OF EACH SUBJECT IN BOTH GROUPS

TABLE VII
 AGE, EDUCATION, EMPLOYMENT STATUS, AND MARITAL
 STATUS OF EACH SUBJECT IN INVOLUNTARY
 COUNSELING GROUP (N=18)

Subject	Age	Highest Level of Education		Employment Status	Marital Status	
A	27	12		Employed	Divorced	
B	21	12		Employed	Single	
C	18	12		Employed	Married	
D	22	14		Student	Married	
E	20	14		Student	Single	
F	20	14		Student	Single	
G	19	13		Student	Single	
H	19	13		Student	Single	
I	21	15		Student	Single	
J	19	13		Student	Single	
K	19	13		Student	Single	
L	26	14		Student	Married	
M	28	13		Employed	Married	
N	27	16		Employed	Divorced	
O	19	12		Employed	Single	
P	52	18		Unemployed	Married	
Q	21	15		Student	Single	
R	34	11		Employed	Married	
	M. 24.00	S.D. 4.90	M. 13.56	S.D. 3.68	Percent Status Employed: 39% Unemployed: 6% Student: 56% 101%	Percent Status Married: 33% Divorced: 11% Single: 56% 100%

TABLE VIII

AGE, EDUCATION, EMPLOYMENT STATUS, AND MARITAL STATUS OF EACH SUBJECT IN MINIMAL SUPERVISION GROUP (N=18)

Subject	Age		Highest Level of Education		Employment Status	Marital Status
AA		37		16	Employed	Divorced
BB		61		16	Employed	Widowed
CC		44		12	Employed	Married
DD		20		14	Employed	Single
EE		18		14	Student	Single
FF		20		14	Student	Single
GG		21		15	Student	Single
HH		18		13	Student	Single
II		20		14	Student	Single
JJ		21		14	Student	Single
KK		18		13	Student	Single
LL		20		15	Student	Single
MM		20		15	Student	Single
NN		21		14	Employed	Single
OO		22		12	Employed	Married
PP		26		15	Employed	Single
QQ		21		15	Student	Single
RR		20		15	Student	Single
	M.	S.D.	M.	S.D.	Percent Status	
	24.89	4.99	14.22	3.77	Employed: 39%	Married: 11%
					Unemployed: 6%	Divorced: 6%
					Student: 61%	Widowed: 3%
					100%	Single: 78%
						101%

APPENDIX C

TABLES ON TYPE OF OFFENSE OF EACH SUBJECT IN
THE INVOLUNTARY COUNSELING AND MINIMAL
SUPERVISION GROUPS

TABLE IX
 TYPE OF OFFENSE OF EACH SUBJECT IN
 INVOLUNTARY COUNSELING GROUP

Subject	Type of Offense
A	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
B	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
C	Drug - Possession of Marijuana
D	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
E	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
F	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
G	Drug - Possession of Marijuana
H	Drug - Possession of Marijuana
I	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
J	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
K	Theft - Grand Larceny
L	Sex - Outraging Public Decency
M	Drug - Possession of Marijuana
N	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
O	Driving - Reckless Driving
P	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
Q	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
R	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)

TABLE X
 TYPE OF OFFENSE OF EACH SUBJECT IN
 MINIMAL SUPERVISION GROUP

Subject	Type of Offense
AA	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
BB	Alcohol - Actual Physical Control
CC	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
DD	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
EE	Theft - Defrauding an Innkeeper
FF	Thief - Defrauding an Innkeeper
GG	Drug - Possession of Marijuana
HH	Drug - Possession of Marijuana
II	Theft - Petty Larceny
JJ	Theft - Petty Larceny
KK	Drug - Possession of Marijuana
LL	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
MM	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
NN	Alcohol - Impaired Driving (DWI)
OO	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
PP	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
QQ	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)
RR	Alcohol - Driving Under the Influence (DUI)

TABLE XI
PERCENTAGE OF OFFENSES OF BOTH GROUPS
AND TOTAL POPULATION

Item	Alcohol	Drug	Theft	Sex	Driving
Total Population	61%	19%	14%	3%	3% = 100%
Counseling Group	61%	22%	6%	6%	6% = 101%
Supervision Group	61%	17%	22%	0%	0% = 100%

APPENDIX D

INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
TOTAL P SCORE ON THE TENNESSEE SELF-
CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE INVOLUNTARY
COUNSELING AND MINIMAL SUPER-
VISION GROUPS

TABLE XII
INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
TOTAL P SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-
CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE INVOLUNTARY
COUNSELING GROUP

Subject	Raw Score
A	349
B	404
C	335
D	356
E	313
F	345
G	314
H	328
I	366
J	370
K	317
L	312
M	339
N	355
O	391
P	373
Q	382
R	321

TABLE XIII
INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
TOTAL P SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-
CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE MINIMAL
SUPERVISION GROUP

Subject	Raw Score
AA	311
BB	406
CC	371
DD	379
EE	390
FF	369
GG	371
HH	342
II	365
JJ	367
KK	344
LL	319
MM	358
NN	344
OO	341
PP	374
QQ	347
RR	337

APPENDIX E

INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY

IDENTITY SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE

SELF-CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE IN-

VOLUNTARY COUNSELING AND

MINIMAL SUPERVISION

GROUPS

TABLE XIV
INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
IDENTITY SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-
CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE INVOLUNTARY
COUNSELING GROUP

Subject	Raw Score
A	131
B	135
C	113
D	131
E	120
F	130
G	115
H	119
I	132
J	128
K	117
L	113
M	127
N	131
O	142
P	138
Q	136
R	118

TABLE XV
INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
IDENTITY SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-
CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE MINIMAL
SUPERVISION GROUP

Subject	Raw Score
AA	111
BB	145
CC	140
DD	129
EE	134
FF	132
GG	136
HH	123
II	134
JJ	139
KK	134
LL	113
MM	141
NN	125
OO	131
PP	134
QQ	125
RR	119

APPENDIX F

INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
BEHAVIOR SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-
CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE INVOLUNTARY
COUNSELING AND MINIMAL
SUPERVISION GROUPS

TABLE XVI
INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
BEHAVIOR SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-
CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE INVOLUNTARY
COUNSELING GROUP

Subject	Raw Score
A	109
B	138
C	113
D	112
E	104
F	111
G	105
H	108
I	118
J	120
K	101
L	104
M	116
N	119
O	119
P	124
Q	121
R	105

TABLE XVII
INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
BEHAVIOR SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE SELF-
CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE MINIMAL
SUPERVISION GROUP

Subject	Raw Score
AA	110
BB	126
CC	121
DD	121
EE	127
FF	115
GG	123
HH	117
II	114
JJ	126
KK	119
LL	102
MM	118
NN	110
OO	116
PP	121
QQ	105
RR	109

APPENDIX G

INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
MORAL-ETHICAL SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE
SELF-CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE IN-
VOLUNTARY COUNSELING AND
MINIMAL SUPERVISION
GROUPS

TABLE XVIII

INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
MORAL-ETHICAL SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE
SELF-CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE INVOL-
UNTARY COUNSELING GROUP

Subject	Raw Score
A	69
B	85
C	65
D	65
E	58
F	64
G	61
H	58
I	71
J	72
K	63
L	63
M	72
N	65
O	77
P	69
Q	75
R	66

TABLE XIX

INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
MORAL-ETHICAL SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE
SELF-CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE MIN-
IMAL SUPERVISION GROUP

Subject	Raw Score
AA	65
BB	76
CC	64
DD	81
EE	70
FF	73
GG	75
HH	66
II	73
JJ	70
KK	60
LL	62
MM	69
NN	71
OO	69
PP	80
QQ	68
RR	61

APPENDIX H

INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
PERSONAL SELF SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE
SELF-CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE INVOL-
UNTARY COUNSELING AND MINIMAL
SUPERVISION GROUPS

TABLE XX

INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
PERSONAL SELF SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE
SELF-CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE INVOL-
UNTARY COUNSELING GROUP

Subject	Raw Score
A	68
B	85
C	64
D	70
E	62
F	69
G	59
H	66
I	69
J	71
K	53
L	55
M	69
N	73
O	76
P	73
Q	76
R	65

TABLE XXI

INDIVIDUAL RAW SCORES ON POST-TEST ONLY
PERSONAL SELF SCORE OF THE TENNESSEE
SELF-CONCEPT SCALE FOR THE MINI-
MAL SUPERVISION GROUP

Subject	Raw Score
AA	64
BB	80
CC	69
DD	76
EE	77
FF	76
GG	73
HH	69
II	71
JJ	73
KK	62
LL	62
MM	73
NN	69
OO	60
PP	67
QQ	62
RR	66

VITA²

Edward F. Reed

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: A COMPARISON OF INVOLUNTARY COUNSELING AND MINIMAL SUPERVISION ON THE SELF-CONCEPTS OF MISDEMEANANTS

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Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Johnstown, Pennsylvania, April 29, 1944, the son of Bill and Mary Talty.

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