

THE RELATIONSHIP OF PREDICTED COUNSELING  
EFFECTIVENESS TO PHILOSOPHICAL  
ORIENTATION AND VALUE SYSTEM  
AMONG COUNSELOR TRAINEES

By

BARBARA GRAY

Bachelor of Science  
Kansas State University  
Manhattan, Kansas  
1971

Master of Science  
Oklahoma State University  
Stillwater, Oklahoma  
1972

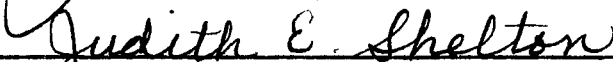
Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College  
of the Oklahoma State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the Degree of  
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION  
May, 1974

MAR 13 1975

THE RELATIONSHIP OF PREDICTED COUNSELING  
EFFECTIVENESS TO PHILOSOPHICAL  
ORIENTATION AND VALUE SYSTEM  
AMONG COUNSELOR TRAINEES

Thesis Approved:

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Thesis Adviser

  
\_\_\_\_\_

  
\_\_\_\_\_

  
\_\_\_\_\_

  
\_\_\_\_\_  
Dean of the Graduate College

902081

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The results of this study indicated that no significant relationships existed between those variables under investigation. However, the following pages describe only one dimension of the study. The purpose of this page is to speak from a less scientific but more personally relevant point of view. Significant relationships did, in fact, result from this effort. They were found in those persons whose support and encouragement helped bring this project from fantasy to reality.

To Dr. James M. Seals, Chairman, whose enthusiasm and reassurance were beyond all tabled values of stated significance.

To Dr. Judy Shelton, whose inspiration and assistance met all assumptions hypothesized of her.

To Dr. Idella Lohmann and Dr. Nick Stinnett, whose critical reading and support was highly correlated with the completion of this study.

And finally, to my own people, who said, "You can do it, Barb" just enough times.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
I. INTRODUCTION . . . . .	1
Significance of the Study . . . . .	4
Limitations . . . . .	4
Statement of the Problem . . . . .	4
Purpose of the Study . . . . .	4
Definition of Terms . . . . .	5
Questions . . . . .	5
Organization of the Study . . . . .	6
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE . . . . .	8
Counseling Effectiveness . . . . .	8
Values in Counseling . . . . .	19
Philosophical Issues in Counseling . . . . .	24
Summary . . . . .	27
III. RESEARCH DESIGN . . . . .	29
Subjects . . . . .	29
Instrumentation . . . . .	30
Data Collection . . . . .	41
Statistical Analysis . . . . .	42
Summary . . . . .	43
IV. ANALYSIS OF THE DATA . . . . .	44
Results Related to Question I . . . . .	44
Results Related to Question II . . . . .	46
Results Related to Question III . . . . .	46
Results Related to Question IV . . . . .	46
Results Related to Question V . . . . .	47
Results Related to Question VI . . . . .	47
Results Related to Question VII . . . . .	48
Results Related to Question VIII . . . . .	48
Results Related to Question IX . . . . .	48
Results Related to Question X . . . . .	49
Results Related to Question XI . . . . .	49
Discussion of the Findings . . . . .	49
Summary . . . . .	50

Chapter	Page
V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . . . .	52
Summary . . . . .	52
Conclusions . . . . .	54
Recommendations . . . . .	54
A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY . . . . .	56
APPENDIX A. THE ALLPORT, VERNON, AND LINDZEY <u>STUDY OF VALUES</u> . . . .	65
APPENDIX B. THE <u>AMES PHILOSOPHICAL BELIEF INVENTORY</u> . . . . .	67

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I. The Primary Source Traits Covered by the 16 PF . . . . .	32
II. Correlation Coefficients Resulting From Predicted Counseling Effectiveness Comparisons . . . . .	45

## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Attempts to define the concept of counseling effectiveness have been concerned with both academic and nonacademic variables (59). Academic variables are often emphasized at two major points in the counselor's preparation. Prior to admission to a counselor education program, academic variables of interest are revealed through records of prior academic achievement and through test data designed to predict academic ability. After admission to the training program, academic variables are generally defined as course offerings, specific counseling techniques, research, and supervised counseling experiences. However, a group of counselor candidates within a given counselor training program will not be identical by virtue of having completed a specified plan of study or attaining similar academic competence. The greatest variation among candidates in counselor education programs is found in what is referred to as nonacademic variables (36).

The importance of nonacademic variables to the counselor's performance has been clearly established by a number of researchers (16, 17, 18). For example, Rogers, as reported by Patterson (79), has found that acceptance, congruence, and empathy are the most important qualities of the helping relationship. He went on to say that:

If the counselor has these characteristics and attitudes

at least to a minimum degree, and if they are communicated to the client, then a relationship develops which is experienced by the client as safe, secure, free from threat, and supporting...this is a relationship in which change can occur. (p. 421)

Carkhuff and Berenson (29), in describing counselors of varied theoretical orientations, viewed effectiveness as being dependent on nonacademic variables referred to as "core factors". These primary characteristics, similar to those that Rogers suggested, are accurate empathy, non-possessive warmth, and genuineness.

The personal characteristics or nonacademic factors of counselors have tended to reduce the barriers between different theoretical orientations to counseling. For example, modern behaviorists, while supporting a structured, interventionistic approach to therapy, generally differ from their behaviorally-oriented predecessors in that they tend to give considerable credit to the person of the counselor (63). Contemporary behaviorists recognized that, although a technique of counseling may be endorsed by a reputable therapist, it may be seriously questioned by others (47). In that sense, behavioral counselors agree with client-centered counselors that, indeed, nonacademic factors do contribute to counseling effectiveness. Perhaps Arbuckle (12) summed up the importance of the personal characteristics of the counselor when he stated that "...the evidence would at least seem to imply that it is the humanness, the very person of the counselor, that is the critical factor in the counseling relationship". (p. 434)

Another way of viewing the counselor's effectiveness may be within the context of the counselor's values and philosophical orientation. Philosophy has provided man with a frame of reference



which has been of value in his relationship to his world, his relationship to others, and his relationship to himself (70). According to Blocher (20), the building of a personal philosophy of counseling is a major developmental task of the counselor. In mastering this task, Patterson (75) has posed five basic philosophical questions which the counselor should undertake to answer: 1) What is the nature of human nature, the nature of man? 2) What is the nature of human development? 3) What is the nature of the "good life" and "the good"? 4) What is the nature of the determination of the "good life" and who determines what is "good"? 5) What is the nature of the universe and what is man's relationship to that universe?

The task of philosophy, then, might be described as a base from which the counselor can develop a working theory or set of principles to guide the facilitation of a client's growth (55). While this task is one that each counselor must do largely for himself, an awareness of the major philosophical systems can provide a framework for the formulation of this position (20).

Closely related to the counselor's philosophy of human nature are his values, for much of what man believes about man is rooted in his value system. Patterson (75) states that, originally, the value system of the counselor was supposed to remain separate from the counseling relationship. In theory, this might be conceivable; in practice, however, there comes the realization that the counselor's own values cannot be separated from facilitative therapeutic interaction. With this realization, it becomes important for the counselor to be aware of what values he does possess, so that he can gain further insight into their potential impact in the relationship (21).

### Significance of the Study

The impact of both philosophical orientation and value system as factors influencing the effectiveness of the counselor have been briefly discussed. Obviously, these variables cannot be ignored, however obscure or abstract they may appear. This investigation represents an effort not only to identify these variables, but to also explore what relationship they have to the potential counselor's predicted effectiveness.

### Limitations

1. The population studied in this investigation was composed of counselor trainees at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma. Therefore, generalizations should be limited to this group.

2. A careful attempt was made to select those instruments most suited to measure the variables in question. However, an interpretation of the findings should be viewed within the framework of those definitions listed by the authors of the instruments.

### Statement of the Problem

The problem under investigation in this study is stated as follows:  
Is there a relationship of predicted counseling effectiveness to the value system and philosophical orientation of counselor trainees?

### Purpose of the Study

Two major purposes of this investigation are stated as follows:

1. To explore the relationship between predicted counseling

effectiveness and each of five philosophical orientations presented by Ames (9).

2. To explore the relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and each of six value systems presented by Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey (6).

#### Definition of Terms

Definitions of terms and concepts of importance to this study are listed below:

1. Predicted Counseling Effectiveness - Predicted counseling effectiveness is defined in relation to the effectiveness criteria used as a basis for the Institute of Personality and Ability Testing (IPAT) specification equations. These regression equations yield a predicted counselor effectiveness score from subjects' responses to the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire.

2. Philosophical Orientation - Philosophical orientation is based on the subjects' responses to the Ames Philosophical Belief Inventory (Appendix B).

3. Value System - Value system is based on the subjects' responses to the Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey Study of Values (Appendix A).

#### Questions

The following questions are under consideration in this investigation:

1. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Realism?

2. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Idealism?

3. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Pragmatism?

4. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Existentialism?

5. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Phenomenology?

6. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Theoretical value system?

7. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and an Economic value system?

8. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and an Aesthetic value system?

9. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Social value system?

10. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Political value system?

11. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Religious value system?

#### Organization of the Study

The present chapter presented an introduction to study, the

significance of the study, limitations of the study, a statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, definitions of terms, and questions to be answered by the study. Chapter II contains a review of the research literature pertinent to this study. Chapter III describes the subjects, instrumentation, data collection, and statistical procedures. Chapter IV contains the findings and a discussion of the results of the study. Chapter V includes further discussion of the results of the study, conclusions, and implications for further research.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The purpose of this chapter will be to review pertinent literature related to this study. Three major divisions will serve to organize the material: First, literature pertaining to counseling effectiveness will be presented, with coverage of both academic and nonacademic variables. Next, the topic of values and their influence in counseling will be discussed. Finally, the topic of philosophy will be presented, with particular emphasis on the importance of a philosophy of counseling practice. The chapter will be completed with a summary of these areas of interest pertaining to the investigation.

#### Counseling Effectiveness

Research designed to identify academic variables which will predict counseling effectiveness has, for the most part, been limited. When research of this nature has been conducted, the majority of results have indicated little or no relationship between academic ability and effectiveness in the counseling role (13, 19, 98, 99). Despite these findings, predictors of academic success continue to dominate as initial screening criteria for admission to graduate programs in counselor education (49, 54, 73, 78, 87, 92). A survey by Gimmestad (44) of entrance requirements of 68 counselor education programs supported the traditional emphasis placed on prior academic achievement and

instruments which predict academic success. Of the programs surveyed, all required a specified undergraduate grade-point average for Masters-level entrance and a specified graduate grade-point average for Doctoral-level entrance. In addition, all programs designated a minimum cut-off score on one of several instruments designed to predict academic success. Those instruments most frequently utilized for this purpose were the Graduate Record Examination, Miller's Analogies Test, and the National Teacher's Examination. One reason for the persistence of these traditional screening methods, despite the dearth of empirical support generated by research is proposed by Wrenn (108), when he states that the basic factor of intellectual ability is easiest to measure. Therefore, the "convenience" of these screening methods seems to have taken priority over their actual usefulness.

Recognition of the limited use of academic predictors of counseling effectiveness has challenged several researchers to provide empirical evidence on the issue. Wittmer and Lister (107), for instance, compared Graduate Record Examination scores with predicted counseling effectiveness as measured by the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire and supervisor ratings of 53 counselor candidates during their counseling practicum. The resulting Pearson product-moment correlations yielded the following findings: 1) Graduate Record Examination - Verbal scores correlated  $-.08$  with supervisor ratings of effectiveness; 2) Graduate Record Examination - Quantitative scores correlated  $.12$  with supervisor ratings of effectiveness. Neither obtained correlation coefficient was significant at the  $.05$  level. On the other hand, a comparison of the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire predicted counseling effectiveness scores yielded a  $.41$

correlation with supervisor ratings of effectiveness. This finding was significant beyond the .01 level of significance. From the results of this investigation, Wittmer and Lister (107) concluded that

While academic aptitude can reasonably be expected to identify students who can survive the intellectual rigors of graduate school, it is increasingly apparent that they provide little assistance in identifying those students who, once admitted to a counselor program, will become effective counselors (p. 293).

A similar effort to identify academic variables related to counseling effectiveness was reported by Jansen (53). Female student counselors with effectiveness ratings falling in the upper 25 percent and the lower 25 percent were compared on three dimensions: Chronological age, intellectual variables, and non-intellectual variables. Effectiveness was operationally defined as "...a composite of knowledge of counseling theories and techniques, knowledge of and ability to use test data in counseling, and counseling skill" (p. 162). Intellectual variables were measured by the Ohio State University Psychological Test, the Comparative English Tests, cumulative grade-point average, and counseling practicum grade. Non-intellectual variables were measured by the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperment Survey and the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory. Chronological age was derived from student records of graduate school application materials. A significant negative correlation between high and low rated groups was observed on the dimension of chronological age. In addition, all intellectual variables with the exception of the Vocational subtest of the Comparative English Tests yielded significant differences between comparison groups. On the other dimension of non-intellectual variables, the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory and four of ten



subtests on the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperment Survey yielded significant differences. Those subtests which discriminated high rated from low rated counselors were Restraint, Sociability, Emotional Stability, and Objectivity. The differences resulting from the Minnesota Teacher Attitude Inventory indicated that high rated counselors would be more likely to maintain a state of harmonious and cooperative relationships in the classroom and would tend to be more open and permissive. The finding that most of the intellectual variables differentiated high rated and low rated groups is not surprising when the operational definition of "effectiveness" is considered: The emphasis on academic skills and techniques appeared to take precedence over the more "personal" qualities of the counselors. Results of a similar nature were found by Stefflre, King, and Leafgren (91), who obtained a significant correlation between graduate school grad-point average and counseling effectiveness as judged by peer ratings. This same study, however, revealed no relationship between undergraduate grade-point average and peer evaluations of effectiveness.

Abeles (1), in his study of characteristics of counselor trainees, utilized 11 instruments in an attempt to contribute additional information on the presence of academic and nonacademic characteristics of counselor candidates. Those instruments selected to identify academically-related characteristics of counselor candidates included the Miller's Analogies Test, the Differential Aptitude Test, the General Aptitude Test Battery, the Diagnostic Reading Test - Survey section, and the Cooperative Reading Comprehension Test. The results of this study indicated that differences in intellectual ability,

beyond a basal level, did not play an important part in determining the counseling proficiency later realized during the student's supervised practicum experience.

Attempts by researchers such as Ables (1) and Jansen (53) to identify both academic and nonacademic variables in counseling effectiveness is supported by Wrenn (108) when he states that

A thoughtful approach to the qualifications of a counselor is to consider him as a person who is grounded in science but who practices an art. Certainly psychology is a basic science for the understanding and know the limits of his knowledge and the errors of his measurements or he cannot, with ever-so-fine a personality, avoid making many mistakes. On the other hand, a person who is professionally educated but who lacks certain sensitivities and essential qualities may know a lot but prove to be a very poor counselor. The truth, of course, is that counseling is a combination of a science and an art (p. 9).

Selection of students for counselor education programs on the basis of prior or predicted academic achievement has assumed that such measures predict optimum performance and professional quality in post-graduate counseling work. As discussed previously, this assumption has not proven to be entirely valid. According to Gruberg (46), such a practice neglects the facet of counselor personality and subsequent effectiveness. Recognition by counselor educators that personality characteristics are an essential part of a counselor's ability to succeed has led several authors to point out the need for identifying the unique personality characteristics which distinguish able counselor candidates from poor counselor candidates (34, 77, 108). Those personality characteristics which appear to be related to effective counseling should be included among the traditional entrance criteria of counselor education programs (46).

Professional organizations have also emphasized the need to identify candidates for admission who have the personal characteristics necessary for the development of effective client relationships (7, 8, 10). In their description of counselor preparation program requirements, APGA (7) not only emphasized a broadly-based academic program, but recognized the "human element" when it recommended that "...counselor education should provide experiences which are planned to contribute to the counselor candidate's growth in self-understanding" (p. 483). APGA policy on selection and endorsement of counselor candidates stated that

Admission and continuance in a counselor preparation program should be based on evidence that the counselor candidate is a person who is likely to achieve the quality of performance necessary for excellence in counseling. Criteria should involve personal qualifications for counseling, as well as an ability to master academic requirements and acquire professional skills (p. 484).

Despite recognition of the importance of personal, nonacademic variables in counseling, the survey cited earlier by Gimmestad (44) indicated a lag in integrating measures of nonacademic factors in counselor training program screening procedures: Of the 68 counselor education programs studied, only one doctoral program and two masters programs utilized a personality instrument as a part of their screening procedures, while all used some instrument predictive of academic success. During the past decade, hundreds of trainees have been selected for National Defense Education Act and Education Professions Development Act counselor training programs. Yet, criteria for selection to these programs have gained little in terms of validity and consensus. According to a review of the literature on counselor selection by Jackson and Thompson (51), the critical problem of

counselor selection results from a lack of agreement on what constitutes the "effective" counselor. Jackson and Thompson (51) go on to say

Humanistic therapists equate counselor effectiveness with accurate empathy, genuineness, and unconditional positive regard. On the other hand, behavior therapists, while not denying the importance of the counseling relationship, emphasize specific reinforcement techniques as being associated with effective counseling. A third point of view advocates cognitive flexibility and tolerance for ambiguity as important characteristics of effective counselors (p. 249).

One attempt to study the humanistic view of counselor effectiveness is reported by Donnan (39). This study was concerned with the relationship between selected personality traits and counselor behaviors of unconditional positive regard, empathetic understanding, congruence, and trust. The selected personality traits for the 22 counselors in this investigation were measured by the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF); counselors behaviors were derived from 880 client interview ratings. Results of the Pearson product-moment correlations of client ratings with the 16 PF profiles of the counselors led Donnan (39) to conclude that

...the counselor who was outgoing, warm-hearted, and easy going was more likely to be perceived as offering a high degree of unconditional positive regard. However, counselors with higher scores on the mature, calm factor were less likely to be rated as congruent. The counselor who was tender-minded and sensitive was more likely to be more congruent as perceived by clients. The counselor who was venturesome, bold, uninhibited, and spontaneous was likely to behave in a way perceived more trustworthy (p. 485).

It is interesting to note in the Donnan (39) study that the counselor behavior of empathetic understanding failed to significantly relate to any specified personality factors.

The effect of the "person" of the counselor operating within a

framework of behavioral techniques was examined by Mickelson and Stevic (69). Utilizing two groups of counselors with identical training in reinforcement techniques, effectiveness was judged according to the amount of information-seeking behavior emitted by the client. One group of counselors operated solely on behavior techniques; the other group, while utilizing behavioral techniques, offered such facilitative conditions as acceptance, warmth, genuineness, and empathy. A comparison of client information-seeking behavior indicated that behavioral techniques, coupled with facilitative conditions, proved more effective than behavioral techniques used alone. The notion that technique plays a secondary role to the "person" of the counselor and his ability to offer facilitative relationship conditions is supported by Carkhuff and Berenson (29), Cash and Munger (31), Kasserra and Sease (58), and Truax and Carkhuff.

Another attempt to isolate and define the characteristics of an effective counselor is reported by Gruberg (46). His study was addressed to the identification of the particular personality characteristic, tolerance for ambiguity, and its relationship to the counselor's theoretical orientation and judged effectiveness. Theoretical orientation, for purposes of this study, was dichotomized into "directive" and "client-centered" and was identified according to a standardized list of counselor leads used in interview sessions. The Complexity scale of the Omnibus Personality Inventory was used as a measure of tolerance for ambiguity. Results of this investigation indicated that counselors measured high in tolerance for ambiguity used significantly more nondirective or "client-centered" leads (clarification, acceptance, reflection, and silence). On the other

hand, counselors who measured low in tolerance for ambiguity used significantly more directive leads (advising, diagnosis, direct question, and evaluation). Following the identification of counselor theoretical orientation and its relationship to tolerance for ambiguity, eight counselor educators were asked to rate the effectiveness of the counselor responses. High-tolerance counselors were judged to be more effective than low-tolerance counselors in (a) responding to client needs, (b) responding to client feeling cues, (c) responding to client feelings and behavior, (d) meaningfully communicating with the client, (e) using a more appropriate level of terminology with client, (f) encouraging the client to talk freely, (g) centering the responsibility for the course of the interview on the client and (h) avoiding an imposition of their own values on the client. The finding that high tolerance for ambiguity is positively related to counseling effectiveness is supported by Brams (24), Donnan and Harlan (40), Mahan and Wicas (64), McDaniel (67), Polmantier (81), and Whetstone (101).

Another aspect of counselor personality, cognitive flexibility, was investigated by Whiteley (103). In this study, cognitive flexibility referred to "...an ability to think and act simultaneously and appropriately in a given situation" (p. 230), along with qualities of open-mindedness, adaptability, and resistance to premature closure. Cognitive flexibility, thus defined, was measured by counselor trainee responses to the Thematic Apperception Test, the Rorschach Ink Blot Test, and the Personal Differentiation Test. The major finding of this study was that cognitive flexibility, as measured by the series of projective instruments, significantly correlated (.78) with supervisor

ratings of effective interview behavior.

Further efforts to identify facilitative counselor characteristics has resulted in studies comparing counselor populations to other occupational groups. Steffire and Leafgren (90), for instance, explored vocational values among practicing counselors and administrators and found that counselors obtained significantly higher mean scores on measures of altruism and self-realization. On the other hand, the administrators obtained higher scores on measures of control and financial reward. Donnan and Harlan (40) report similar counselor-versus-administrator differences, using students enrolled in counselor education and education administration courses at Auburn University. Utilizing the 16 PF as a measure of personality characteristics, mean values on five of the 16 personality scales reported significant differences: counselor education students were higher in the areas of ego strength, expediency, sensitivity, trust, and forthrightness. In contrast, education administration students were described as being effected by feelings, possessing strong superego strength, realistic, suspicious, and shrewd. Similar differences between counselors and administrators, as well as between counselors and related occupational groups such as teachers, are reported by Kemp (60), Foley and Proff (42), and Whetstone (101).

Another approach designed to identify personality characteristics of effective counselors has involved counselor trainee judgments of facilitative counselor qualities. For instance, McQuary (68) asked the following question of graduate students enrolled in an introductory counseling course: "If you found it necessary to seek out the services of a counselor, what personal characteristics would you want this

person to possess?" (p. 146). The result of this survey produced a list of 29 adjectives. The traits listed most frequently were understanding, friendliness, calm, pleasant voice, warmth, and interest in people. Arbuckle (11), in a similar study using 70 counselor trainees at Boston University, asked the following questions:

1. If you felt that it was absolutely necessary to have counseling, list in rank order of preference the three people within this class to whom you would most likely go.
2. If you felt it was absolutely necessary to have counseling, list in rank order of preference the three people in this class to whom you would be least likely to go.
3. List three characteristics, traits, or attitudes that you would most like to find in a counselor.
4. List three characteristics, traits, or attitudes you would least like to find in a counselor (p. 94).

Responses to these four questions indicated that students chosen by classmates showed higher degrees of confidence, as measured by the Heston Personality Inventory, than those who chose them. In addition, they were more "normal" as measured by the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory than those students who chose them. Students who were rejected by their peers showed lower scores on the Home Satisfaction dimension of the Heston Personality Inventory than those who chose them. In addition, the "rejected" counselors showed significantly higher "abnormal" profiles on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory than those who chose them. Desired characteristics, traits, or attitudes most often mentioned in the survey were tolerance, warmth, interest, patience, and sincerity. Undesirable traits most often listed were lack of understanding, disinterest, aggressiveness, probing, moralizing, insincerity, bias, and authoritarianism. Similar adjectives describing effective and



ineffective counselors are offered by Cottle (34), Danielson (35), Johnson (54), Myrick and Kelley (71), Parker (74), and Walton and Sweeney (98).

As indicated by the preceding review of the literature, the concept of counselor personality has been the subject of much discussion and research. In response to this seemingly endless search, Arbuckle (13) questions whether such thing as a "counselor personality" actually exists. Siegel (89) supports this idea when she states that

...the problem of determining who qualifies as a good counselor remains unsolved. Neither teachers nor students can effectively evaluate the counselor...evaluation of a counselor's worth must, therefore, be a self-evaluation (p. 311).

#### Values in Counseling

Values, according to Slinger (88), have been defined in various, but basically similar, ways. For example, Williamson (104) defines values as "...ideas on which people act" (p. 142), while Marden and Meyer (65) see them as the beliefs which dictate approved action in a given society. Jacob (52) views values as the basis or criteria for choice of personal and group conduct. Patterson (76) states that values are neither needs, interests, or goals, but are expressions of needs which form the criteria for the selection of goals. Rokeach (83) describes the concept of values as having at least three separate meanings: He agrees with Thomas and Znaniecki (94), who define values within a sociological context: A value is a natural object that has acquired social meaning.

A second conception of values, as defined by Jones and Gerald (56) states that values are not different from attitudes, assuming that the attitude object has valence or cathexis. According to this view, one would have as many values as he has attitude objects in his environment. Rokeach (83) prefers to modify this view, saying that a value is more basic than an attitude and serves to provide a foundation from which many related attitudes can arise. This third way of describing values, resulting from a modification of the second position of Jones and Gerald (56) defines a value as representing a specific kind of nucleus, centrally located within one's total belief system, providing a foundation which dictates how one ought or ought not behave, or about some terminal goal worthy or not worthy of attaining.

Values, which may be either positive or negative, are abstract concepts representing ideal ways of behaving and ideal terminal goals in life. Rokeach (83) lists as examples of values which are ideal modes of behaving such things as to seek truth and beauty, to be clean and orderly, to behave with sincerity, justice, reason, compassion, humility, respect, honor, and loyalty. Examples of ideal terminal goals in life are security, happiness, freedom, equality, ecstasy, fame, power, and salvation.

Such a definition of values describes them as single beliefs which guide one's actions and judgements in relation to specific experiences. A value is an imperative for action, implying not only a belief about the preferable, but also a preference for the preferable. Value, thus defined, is a standard to direct actions, attitudes, comparisons, evaluations, and justifications of oneself and others.

Values are developed and modified by individuals during life's

experiences. According to Konopka (62), one is not born with an existing set of values; they develop as a result of the many interactions with the environment. For the most part, these values are unconsciously developed and become what Brammer and Shostrum (23) describe as the "core system" of one's philosophy of life. Rokeach (83) views the value system as a hierarchical organization, a rank ordering of ideals, in terms of their importance to a given person. These unconscious beliefs are developed by an individual during the developmental process from two primary sources: His parent-figures and other significant persons most closely related to him in his environment (48). These perceived experiences, which represent the projected values of others, are so internalized by the individual as to become his "core system." Thereafter, experiences within a person's life will be examined and analyzed against this unconscious value system (23). The result of this system of values, according to Allport (4), is the adoption and orientation of the individual to a particular life style.

Values, then, may be seen as resulting from environmental interaction throughout the development process. As values develop out of these interactions, one's experiences in life, they may be modified or replaced due to continuing environmental forces, particularly when these forces initiate value confusion and/or conflict (5). Tyler (96), for instance, views the unrest among youth in the present generation as a result of this value confusion. In light of the unique problems of this generation, as well as future generations, counselors are compelled to give attention to the development of values and the behavioral changes resulting from values with their clients.

The day when counselors were warned to keep values out of their counseling relationships seems to have passed into history. Today, one rarely reads of the naive assertion that the counselor must be morally neutral and in no way allow values to be a matter of consideration in counseling (75). Williamson (105) states that values are evident in every action we take; consequently, counselors cannot fully escape introducing their personal value systems into the counseling interview. Samler (86) supports this notion when he states

... to say that the counselor manifests no values is to require that he have no feelings and whatever great drama this may be, it is not counseling. The unreality of such a devastating neutrality requires no comment. The least we can learn from this is that the counselor's awareness of his values is of prime importance (p. 132).

The traditional attitude of neutrality in values, according to Randall (82) was effectively attacked during the 1950's with the publication of several books and journal articles which carefully describe the pervasive importance of values in all aspects of counseling (22, 30, 41, 97). Blocher (20) reports that, regardless of theoretical orientation, writers agree on the inevitability of counselor influence on the values of clients. Randall (82) states that the problems in human relations can be analyzed, interpreted, and given meaning only within the accompanying social context. Accordingly, it makes an important difference what the counselor's social orientation happens to be, as these values will influence his perceptions of what the client needs, what deserves comment or interpretation, what behavioral changes are viewed as desirable, and the overall goals of the counseling relationship.

Research by Parloff and Rosenthal as reported by Blocher (20),

tends to support the position that client's values and attitudes do change in the course of counseling, and suggest that, in successful cases, those changes are in the direction of increased similarity with the counselor's own value system. Armstrong (14) supports this finding when she states that the client, who has found his relationship with a counselor to be mutually respectful, warm, and supporting is likely to be impressed by the values that the counselor models. In fact, Golightly (45) defines counseling with major emphasis on values when he states that "...counseling is the practical art of making rational decisions about values" (p.289). He describes the counselor as

...a paid maker of value judgements. This is because counseling involves both information seeking and information disseminating behaviors, activities in which the counselor must make choices between alternative courses of action. When he chooses between possible modes of action, a counselor makes a choice between values, and making the choice is a value judgement. Thus, value judgements are intrinsic and integral to the process of counseling because the methodology of counseling practice is valuation (p. 289).

The presence of the counselor's values in the therapeutic relationship is clearly evident from the literature discussed thus far. Such agreement as to the importance of values in counseling merits consideration. Questions directly related to this consideration are posed by Nash (72) when he asks, "What role do values on the client? Should the counselor conceal his values from the client?" (p. 244). Blocher (20) offers some ideas in answer to these questions when he states that the counselor may expose his values in a counseling relationship, but never impose them upon the client. Armstrong (14) supports this point when she says

Values cannot be handed to a student like a report card or a diploma; it is for the counselor to bring the student to freely accept value systems as a part of his personal worth.

The problem cannot possibly be solved by imposing values, an approach that crushes the person's freedom to choose (p. 297).

The counselor may serve as a hypothesis but not as a forced model. Since it is recognized that some clients do move toward the value system of the counselor, it becomes important that the counselor be aware of his own values and what messages they may send to the client (20). Such counselor responses as a smile, a frown, or a nod of the head serve to demonstrate the counselor's attitudes and offer reinforcement of client responses (3). Abramovitz (2) suggests that no therapeutic goal is illegitimate provided that the counselor is aware that the goal choice is related to his, the client's, and society's value systems and are no more objectively valid than any other value system.

### Philosophical Issues in Counseling

Although often discussed as separate entities, the differences between values and philosophy are more imagined than real. Philosophy is, as Patterson (75) describes it, an integration of values, usually resulting in statements of assumptions, hypotheses, and principles. Peterson (80) agrees with Patterson (75) when he describes philosophy as

...a method for attempting to understand the crucial problems of our day and how to deal with them in a effective way. Philosophy is a means of analyzing, of criticizing, of synthesizing, and of evaluating (p. 34).

Philosophy, thus understood, is crucial as an instrument for understanding the role of values in counseling.

Being aware that, as a counselor, one cannot avoid becoming or

acting as a philosopher brings to awareness the responsibility to "philosophize" as effectively as possible (80). The counselor needs a clearly formulated philosophical base from which to operate if he is to have some order and direction in his counseling relationships. According to Johnson and Vastermark (55), many of the barriers to effective counseling and hazards in communication can be avoided if the counselor adopts certain philosophical guidelines. Johnson and Vastermark (55) issue the warning, however, that

No counselor can afford to be encysted in outlook, limited by his own past experience and frame of reference. To avoid engaging in stereotypy and making narrow judgemental contrasts concerning observed behaviors, it is essential that he be open to and aware of change (p. 222).

Numerous articles have stressed the potent role that philosophy plays in the counseling relationship. For instance, Carkhuff (28) states that the way in which a counselor views himself in relation to his world will dictate how he relates to and influences the behavior of his clients. The counselor who operates from a deterministic frame of reference will seek to "...populate the world with 'determined' people" (p. 570). On the other hand, the counselor who views himself as "free" will thus encourage a freeing spirit in his counseling relationships. Delaney and Eisenberg (36) agree with Carkhuff when they emphasize that any discussion of the effective counseling process must consider the interrelated notions of behavior, attitudes, and philosophical assumptions. No field of endeavor which involves humans and their way of behaving can afford to leave its philosophical assumptions unexamined (17).

Despite the unavoidable impact and importance of the counselor's philosophical orientation, Hipple (50) notes that, to many,

philosophy is a threatening term: It is misunderstood and, consequently, avoided. The danger inherent in this avoidance lies in the fact that "...philosophy is the rock upon which the counselor's effectiveness rests." (p. 86). If there is a weakness in the counselor's philosophy, he will not effectively facilitate the growth of his client. Hipple (50) carries his point a step further when he states

One might wonder why it is so important for a counselor to have a concrete expression of his philosophy. It is essential because it is impossible for the counselor to divorce his true self from his practice of counseling. The counselor's working philosophy must, in all ways, be consistent with what he is as a person. This systematic set of beliefs and attitudes is often based on a compromise position gained through the interaction of the counselor's formal academic training and his practical experience (pp. 86-87).

Johnson and Vastermark (55) in discussing the task of philosophy seem to agree with Hipple when they state

Whether we recognize it or not, all facets of our behavior, the way we treat other people, our choices and decisions, our reactions, our values, our responsibility or lack of it, are embedded in a philosophical base. Whether or not we are philosophically aware, we function one way or another depending upon what we believe. Our philosophical beliefs are more often than not only vaguely sensed, more shadow than substance. Asked to delineate our philosophical tenets, most of us would deny ever having considered the subject. And yet, our philosophical beliefs determine our response to our environment, and to the individual who people it. Consider, for example how one would react if he believed on the one hand that man is essentially good, or on the other, that man is essentially evil; if he were an idealist or a pragmatist; if he believed man to be a rational being or a nonrational being; if he believed in free will and freedom of choice or if he believed in determinism and predestination; if he operated from a scientific base or from a religious one (p. 41).

The importance of philosophical orientations to counseling practice has been a major concern to counselor educators. The high



priority assigned to the development of a unifying philosophy of life is clearly visible upon reviewing textbooks, articles and other basic materials adapted for counselor preparation programs. Allport (4) has indicated that a carefully developed philosophy of life constitutes one of the major characteristics of psychological maturity. Every major textbook in counseling reviewed for this investigation revealed that considerable attention was devoted to philosophical issues. Authors such as Beck (16, 17) devoted their entire manuscript to the study of philosophy and implications for counselors. In addition to Beck's works, further endorsement of the importance of philosophy to counseling practice is offered by Johnson (15), Dewal (37), Dey (38), Rousseve (84), Strickland (93), and Williamson (104).

#### Summary

Three major issues have been discussed in this chapter: Counseling effectiveness, values in counseling, and philosophical issues in counseling. Although a great deal of research exists on the topic of counseling effectiveness, concluding evidence is contradictory and varied, leaving a definition of the "effective counselor" rather unclear. Despite this ambiguity, a common thread prevails throughout the literature: Counselor personality is a potent variable in the therapeutic relationship.

Two important aspects of counselor personality, values and philosophy, have also received a great deal of attention in the literature. However, this coverage has been presented in the form of opinions and editorial comments rather than being subjected to research which might yield empirical evidence pertaining to their

importance. One aim of the present investigation was to contribute evidence of a more scientific nature, in hopes that a clearer concept of both values and philosophy, as determinants of counseling effectiveness, might be realized.

## CHAPTER III

### RESEARCH DESIGN

#### Introduction

Literature cited in the preceding chapter has established the importance of nonacademic variables to counseling effectiveness. Two nonacademic variables in particular, values and philosophical orientation, were discussed in depth. The purpose of this chapter is to describe the research methodology employed in the present investigation. Included will be a description of the subjects, instrumentation, data collection, and statistical analysis of the data. The discussion will be summarized at the end of the chapter.

#### Subjects

The 85 subjects for this investigation were masters-level counselor education students at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma. All subjects were enrolled in Education 5562, Laboratory Experiences in Counseling, for one semester between the years 1971-1973. This particular course is designed to orient the counselor trainees to counseling practice through observation and participation in activities related to the total guidance program. The supervised laboratory experiences provide the student and counselor education staff with an opportunity to evaluate the student's strengths and weaknesses

as a potential counselor. In addition, the course serves as a prerequisite to the supervised counseling practicum experience and is required for all candidates pursuing graduate degrees in Student Personnel and Guidance.

#### Instrumentation

Three instruments were employed in extracting the data for this investigation. They included the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF), Form A, the Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey Study of Values, and the Ames Philosophical Belief Inventory (APBI).

#### Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire

The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16 PF) is described by the author (33) as "...an objectively-scorable test devised by basic research in psychology to give the most complete coverage of personality possible in a brief time" (p. 3). Coverage of personality is insured by the sixteen independent and psychologically-meaningful dimensions isolated as a result of over twenty years of factor-analytic research on normal and clinical groups.

In his critique, Lorr, as reported by Buros (26), stated that "...the development of the 16 PF represented, and indeed, reflects a high order of technical skill...at present it appears to be the best factor-based personality inventory available" (p. 88). Stating a similar position, Kerlinger (61) notes that the 16 PF is an important personality measure, based upon factor analysis. Bouchard, as reported by Buros (27), reports that the 16 PF is perhaps the most promising of the personality measures in that it provides much useful information

that is typically unavailable to the test user.

Cattell and Eber (32) report that, for each of the 16 independent scales, 10 to 13 items are included, with a total of 187 items of Form A. Three alternative answers are provided for each of the questions: (a) yes, (b) in between, and (c) no. The primary source traits covered by the 16 PF are shown in Table I.

Primary Source Traits. Bipolar descriptions of the 16 source traits, Factors A through Q<sub>4</sub>, are offered by Cattell and Eber (32): The A+ individual expresses preference for occupations dealing with people, is generous in personal relations, is less afraid of criticism, and is emotionally expressive. The person scoring low, A-, tends to be stiff, cool, skeptical, and aloof. He enjoys things rather than people, prefers to work alone, and avoids compromises of viewpoints.

The person scoring high on Factor B tends to be quick to grasp ideas and is intelligent. The person scoring low on Factor B tends to be slow to learn, dull, and given to concrete and literal interpretations of concepts.

The C+ person tends to be emotionally mature, stable, and realistic about life. A person scoring low on Factor C tends to be low in frustration tolerance, neurotically fatigued, and easily emotionally aroused.

A person scoring high on Factor E is assertive, self-assured, and independent in thought. A person scoring low on this factor tends to be docile, dependent, conforming, and anxious for obsessional correctness.

A person scoring high on Factor F is described as cheerful, frank, expressive, and carefree. A low score on this dimension indicates

TABLE I

## THE PRIMARY SOURCE TRAITS COVERED BY THE 16 PF

Factor	Low Sten Score Descriptions	High Sten Score Descriptions	Factor	Low Sten Score Descriptions	High Sten Score Descriptions
A	Reserved, detached critical, aloof	Outgoing, warm- hearted	L	Trusting, accepting conditions	Suspicious, hard to fool
B	Dull, low intelligence	Bright, high intelligence	M	Practical, "down to earth" concern	Imaginative, bohemian, absent-minded
C	Affected by feelings, easily upset	Emotionally stable, mature, calm	N	Forthright, genuine, socially clumsy	Astute, polished socially aware
E	Humble, mild, easily led, accommodating	Assertive, stubborn aggressive	O	Self-assured, secure, serene	Apprehensive, insecure, worrying
F	Sober, taciturn, serious	Happy-go-lucky, gay, enthusiastic	Q <sub>1</sub>	Conservative, traditional ideas	Experimenting, liberal, free-thinking
G	Expedient, disregards rules	Conscientious, staid, moralistic	Q <sub>2</sub>	Group dependent, a joiner, a follower	Self-sufficient, resourceful
H	Shy, timid, threat- sensitive	Venturesome, socially bold, uninhibited	Q <sub>3</sub>	Undisciplines, self-conflict, lax	Controlled, socially precise

TABLE I (Continued)

---

Factor	Low Sten Score Descriptions	High Sten Score Descriptions	Factor	Low Sten Score Descriptions	High Sten Score Descriptions
I	Tough-minded, self-reliant, realistic	Tender-minded, sensitive, clinging	Q <sub>4</sub>	Relaxed, composed, unfrustrated	Tense, frustrated, driven

---

behavior which is restrained, reticent, introspective, pessimistic, and unduly deliberate. In short, a sober but dependable person.

The G+ person tends to be exacting in character, dominated by a sense of duty, persevering, conscientious, and moralistic. A G- individual tends to be unsteady in purpose. He is commonly self-indulgent and lacking in effort for group undertakings and cultural demands.

A high score on Factor H indicates a person who is sociable, spontaneous, and abundant in emotional responses. He is able to face wear and tear in dealing with people and emotional situations without fatigue. The person scoring low on this trait tends to be shy, withdrawing, cautious, and retiring. He dislikes occupations involving personal contacts.

A high score on Factor I represents a person that is tender-minded, artistic, feminine, and impatient. A low score on this factor indicates a person who tends to be practical, realistic, masculine, independent, and responsible.

A high score on Factor L describes a person that tends to be mistrusting and doubtful. He is often involved in his own ego and is self-opinionated. The person scoring low on this factor is free of jealous tendencies, adaptable, cheerful, and concerned about other people.

The M+ person tends to be unconventional, unconcerned over everyday matters, self-motivated, and creative. His individuality may tend to cause him to be rejected in group activities. The M- person tends to be anxious to do the "right" things, concerned over detail, and often unimaginative.



The person receiving a high score on Factor N tends to be polished, experienced, worldly, and shrewd. The person scoring low on this factor tends to be unsophisticated, sentimental, simple, and easily pleased.

A high score on Factor O tends to indicate a person who is depressed, moody, and has child-like reactions to stress and anxiety. The person scoring low on Factor O tends to be placid, mature, self-assured, and resilient.

A high score on Factor Q<sub>1</sub> describes a person who tends to be well informed, inclined to experiment in life, and tolerant of inconvenience and change. The person who tends to oppose and postpone change reveals a low score on this factor.

A high score on Factor Q<sub>2</sub> describes a self-sufficient and resourceful person. The person scoring low on this factor tends to like and depend on social approval and admiration.

The person scoring high on Factor Q<sub>3</sub> tends to have strong control of his emotions and general behavior and is inclined to be socially aware and cautious. The person scoring low on this factor is not bothered with self-control and regard for social demands.

The person who scores high on Factor Q<sub>4</sub> is tense, excitable, restless, fretful, and impatient. He is often fatigued, but unable to remain inactive. The person scoring low on Factor Q<sub>4</sub> tends to be sedate, relaxed, and composed. In some situations, his oversatisfaction may lead to laziness and low performance.

Reliability Coefficients. The reliability coefficients for the 16 PF are presented by Cattell, Eber, and Tatsuoka (33) as dependability coefficients and stability coefficients. Cattell and Eber (32) describe

the dependability coefficient as "...the correlation between two administrations of the same test when the lapse of time is insufficient for people themselves to change with respect to what is being measured" (p. 30). The scale reliabilities, calculated as dependability coefficients, utilized a test-retest method after a period of four to seven days. The highest reliability coefficient is .83 on Factor H (shy vs. uninhibited) and the lowest, besides Factor B (low intelligence vs. high intelligence) was .61 on Factor N (forthright vs. astute). According to Cattell, Eber, and Tatsuoka (33), the lower reliability coefficient for Factor B is due to subjects' solving intelligence items by reminiscence between the testings.

Cattell, Eber, and Tatsuoka (33) define the second measure of reliability, the stability coefficient, as "...retest after a two month or longer interval" (p. 31). Form A scale reliabilities, calculated as stability coefficients on 44 students after a two-and-one-half month interval indicate the highest stability coefficient as .85 for Factor I (tough-minded vs. tender-minded) and the lowest stability coefficient as .35 for Factor N (forthright vs. astute).

Validity Coefficients. Cattell and Eber (32) report the calculation of construct validity, the extent to which the test measures the theoretical trait it is supposed to measure, in two ways. The first method was estimated from factor loadings of the items according to a specified formula for combining the items. The authors (32) report the highest obtained validity coefficients were .96 on Factors H (shy vs. uninhibited) and Q<sub>4</sub> (relaxed vs. tense); the lowest was .73 on Factor N (forthright vs. astute).

The second method of deriving construct validity for the 16 PF

involved calculating the split-half reliability of each factor. Resulting validity coefficients estimated from correlation of two factor halves yielded a range of .96 for Factor C (easily upset vs. emotionally stable) to .84 for Factor Q<sub>1</sub> (conservative vs. experimenting).

Validity is also reported by Cattell, Eber, and Tatsuoka (33) as concrete validity, correlations of the 16 scales with concrete performances. One such example of concrete validity involved performances which indicate effectiveness as a counselor. The IPAT specification equations reported by Cattell, Eber, and Tatsuoka (33) from data supplied by McClain (66) denote effectiveness of counselors by sex. They are:

$$\begin{aligned}
 1. \text{ Effectiveness (Male)} &= 1.88 + .27A + .12B + .31C + .15E + .15F \\
 &+ .12G + .13H - .71I + .17M - .42N + .180 \\
 &+ .33Q_1 - .39Q_2 - .07Q_3 + .23Q_4
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 2. \text{ Effectiveness (Female)} &= 18.19 - .42A - .36B + .13C - .60E + .51F \\
 &+.33G - .29H - .63L - .16M - .56N + .710 \\
 &+ .12Q_1 - .26Q_3 - .58Q_4
 \end{aligned}$$

In McClain's study (66), 91 male and 46 female counselors were rated as "excellent", "average", and "poor" by supervisors. The point-biserial coefficients of correlation between 16 PF scale scores and membership in the two extreme groups (the counselors rated average were excluded) together with the correlation among the 16 PF scores for the same sample, led to the development of the specification equations.

Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey Study of Values

The authors of the Study of Values describe the instrument as measuring the relative prominence of six basic interests or motives of personality. The six classifications stem from Spranger's work, Types of Men, which defends the view that the personalities of men are best revealed through an examination of their values and evaluative attitudes (6).

The scale is designed primarily for use with college students or with adults who have had some advanced (college-equivalent) education. The test contains 120 statements, twenty pertaining to each of the six value systems (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political, and Religious). The author's definition of each value system may be found in Appendix A.

Reliability Coefficients. The reliability measures for the Study of Values are presented in the Manual (6) as internal consistency coefficients and repeat (test-retest) coefficients. Tests for internal consistency involved the split-half method and the item analysis method. In order to determine split-half reliability, the test items measuring each value were divided into two subscales and responses were correlated using the Spearman-Brown formula. Utilizing a sample group of 100, a mean reliability coefficient of .90 was obtained. The second test of internal consistency, item analysis, was based on responses of 780 male and female college students. A positive correlation coefficient for each item with the total score for its value system was significant at the .01 level of confidence. The measure of repeat reliability was determined for two separate populations, one after an interval of one

month, the second after an interval of two months. The mean repeat reliability coefficients were .89 for the one-month study and .88 for the two-month study.

Validity Coefficients. Very little attention is given in the Manual (6) to the validity of the Study of Values. However, the authors (6) do state

Perhaps the most direct and convincing evidence for the validity of the scale comes from examining scores of groups whose characteristics are known. Thus, common experience leads us to expect that women will, on the average, be more religious, social, and aesthetic than men. We likewise expect students of engineering by and large to stand relatively high in theoretical and economic values (p. 13).

In addition to reporting statistical evidence of the above assumptions, the Manual (6) cites several supporting investigations regarding the validity of the Study of Values.

In his review of the instrument, Hogan, as reported by Buros (72), deals with the issue of construct validity when he states that

On this issue the evidence is clear: The scale scores predict a variety of criteria in the theoretically expected manner. For example, 'gifted' students tend to score high on the Theoretical and Aesthetic scales; 'creative' score high on the Theoretical and low on the Religious scales; a high Theoretical-Economic-Political profile is 'masculine'; a high Aesthetic-Social-Religious profile is 'feminine' (p. 356).

The author concludes his review by noting that the instrument not only provides dependent and pertinent information on individual cases, but also supports its use as a valuable and relevant research device (27).

#### Ames Philosophical Belief Inventory

Based on the assumption that the counselor's philosophical orientation does make a difference in role performance, Ames (9)

developed the Ames Philosophical Belief Inventory (APBI). The primary purpose of the APBI as the author described it, was "...to develop an instrument which could be useful in the assessment and description of the philosophical position of counselors" (p. 335).

The APBI purports to measure the individual's relative position across five independent philosophical orientations: Idealism, Realism, Pragmatism, Phenomenology, and Existentialism (Appendix B). The instrument consists of 105 items, with each item being composed of two opposing statements. The subject must choose which of two statements he feels is most 'true', thus revealing his relative position within each philosophical orientation.

Validity. Although a relatively new instrument, the APBI has generated research designed to yield information pertaining to its validity. For instance, Ryan and Butzow (85) conducted an exploratory study utilizing counselor trainees which examined the relationship of stated philosophical position to APBI responses and interview behavior. Based on the results of this investigation, Ryan and Butzow (85) concluded that

...the high relationship between APBI scores and verbalized philosophical position implies that the APBI accurately assessed the orientation of the counselor trainees...we have found the APBI to be more reliable than an interview in assessing philosophical orientation (p. 118).

A similar study by Wise (106) indicated that the APBI not only provided an accurate assessment of philosophical beliefs, but may have considerable value as an aid to self-examination and development. Additional data regarding the validity of the APBI is reported by Gange (43), Jordan (57), and White (102). A review of these studies indicate acceptance of the APBI as a valid measure of philosophical

position, but also recommend that research be generated that will provide additional evidence of its worth. The present investigation, in part, represents such an effort.

Reliability. Very little information is available at the present time regarding the reliability of the APBI. Ames (9) does, however, report pearson product-moment correlation coefficients derived from a test-retest procedure designed to assess the stability of the APBI. Correlation coefficients ranging from .90 on the Idealism scale to .68 on the Phenomenology scale indicate a high consistency in response over time. The investigation cited earlier by Wise (106) offered additional evidence pertaining to the reliability of the APBI, when he concluded that

Reliability findings from both Ames' and the present study suggest that persons responding to the APBI perform in a comparatively consistent manner on the five parts of the instrument (p. 2).

#### Data Collection

Data for this study was extracted from records maintained on each counselor trainee enrolled in Laboratory Experiences in Counseling. Included in each record were responses to the three instruments selected for use in this investigation: The 16 PF, the Study of Values, and the APBI. Following retrieval of these instruments, several procedures were utilized in preparing the test data for statistical treatment. First, predicted counseling effectiveness scores were computed from subjects' responses to the 16 PF. This procedure involved converting raw scores for each of the 16 personality factors to standard-ten (sten) scores. This conversion to standard scores

allowed the investigator to utilize the IPAT specification equations presented in this chapter.

Next, subjects' responses to the Study of Values were extracted. Although this instrument had been scored by the subjects at the time of administration, a check was made by the investigator to insure accuracy in the scoring procedure. Once corrections for accuracy were made, subjects' scores pertaining to each of six value systems were recorded beside the corresponding predicted counseling effectiveness score.

Finally, test data on subjects' responses to the APBI was extracted. A check for accuracy in scoring was made by the investigator. Subjects' scores for each of five philosophical orientations were then recorded beside the corresponding predicted counseling effectiveness scores and Study of Values scores.

#### Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis of the data was performed by the investigator, utilizing the appropriate program developed by the University Computer Center, Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma. One treatment of the data yielded information for the study.

This procedure involved the construction of a correlation matrix. The statistical technique used was the Pearson product-moment correlation formula and is presented as follows:

$$r = \frac{N\sum XY - (\sum X)(\sum Y)}{\sqrt{N\sum X^2 - (\sum X)^2} \sqrt{N\sum Y^2 - (\sum Y)^2}}$$

where

N = number of pairs of scores



$\Sigma XY$  = sum of the products of the paired scores  
 $\Sigma X$  = sum of the scores on one variable  
 $\Sigma Y$  = sum of scores on the other variable  
 $\Sigma X^2$  = sum of the squared scores on the X variable  
 $\Sigma Y^2$  = sum of the squared scores on the Y variable (25, p. 153)

This treatment yielded a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness scores from the 16 PF with scores obtained on each of six value systems derived from responses to the Study of Values. The same statistical treatment was employed to compare predicted counseling effectiveness scores from the 16 PF with scores obtained on each of five philosophical orientations derived from the APBI.

#### Summary

Chapter III has presented the research methodology utilized in this investigation. First, counselor trainees serving as subjects for the study were described. Next, instruments utilized to collect the data for the investigation were discussed. Methods of data collection comprised the third major section of the chapter. Finally, statistical treatment of the data was explained. The following chapter will present the results of the investigation.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

#### Introduction

The data for this study was analyzed according to the procedure outlined in Chapter III. The purpose of this chapter is to report the findings of the statistical treatment. Each of 11 questions presented in Chapter I will be restated with the corresponding results. In addition, the findings will be presented in tabular form (Table II). Following this discussion, a summary statement will be presented.

#### Results Related to Question I

Question I - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Realism?

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with a philosophical orientation of Realism was .136. A coefficient of .217 was necessary for the relationship to be significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

TABLE II  
CORRELATION COEFFICIENTS RESULTING FROM  
PREDICTED COUNSELING EFFECTIVENESS  
COMPARISONS

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	Correlation Coefficient	Level of Significance
Realism	17.07	6.33	.136	n.s.
Idealism	12.80	6.54	-.051	n.s.
Pragmatism	19.42	5.54	-.014	n.s.
Existentialism	25.52	6.53	-.109	n.s.
Phenomenology	30.26	4.90	.077	n.s.
Theoretical	37.64	6.46	.020	n.s.
Economic	37.68	7.52	-.026	n.s.
Aesthetic	42.04	8.22	-.183	n.s.
Social	43.31	6.22	.061	n.s.
Political	38.64	6.44	-.039	n.s.
Religious	40.73	9.93	.150	n.s.

### Results Related to Question II

Question II - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Idealism?

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with a philosophical orientation of Idealism was  $-.051$ . A coefficient of  $.217$  was necessary for the relationship to be significant at the  $.05$  level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

### Results Related to Question III

Question III - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Pragmatism?

The Person product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with a philosophical orientation of Pragmatism was  $-.014$ . A coefficient of  $.217$  was necessary for the relationship to be significant at the  $.05$  level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

### Results Related to Question IV

Question IV - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Existentialism?

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with a philosophical orientation of Existentialism was  $-.109$ . A coefficient of  $.217$  was necessary for the relationship to be significant at the  $.05$  level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

#### Results Related to Question V

Question V - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Phenomenology?

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with a philosophical orientation of Phenomenology was  $.077$ . A coefficient of  $.217$  was necessary for the relationship to be significant at the  $.05$  level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

#### Results Related to Question VI

Question VI - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Theoretical value system?

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with a Theoretical value system was  $.020$ . A coefficient of  $.217$  was necessary for the relationship to be significant at the  $.05$  level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

### Results Related to Question VII

Question VII - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and an Economic value system?

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with an Economic value system was  $-.026$ . A coefficient of  $.217$  was necessary for the relationship to be significant at the  $.05$  level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

### Results Related to Question VIII

Question VIII - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and an Aesthetic value system?

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with an Aesthetic value system was  $-.183$ . A coefficient of  $.217$  was necessary for the relationship to be significant at the  $.05$  level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

### Results Related to Question IX

Question IX - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Social value system?

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with a Social value system was  $.061$ . A coefficient of  $.217$  was necessary for the relation-

ship to be significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

#### Results Related to Question X

Question X - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Political value system?

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with a Political value system was  $-.039$ . A coefficient of  $.217$  was necessary for the relationship to be significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

#### Results Related to Question XI

Question XI - Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Religious value system?

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient resulting from a comparison of predicted counseling effectiveness with a Religious value system was  $.150$ . A coefficient of  $.217$  was necessary for the relationship to be significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, it was concluded that the two variables in question were not significantly correlated.

#### Discussion of the Findings

The review of the literature presented in Chapter II clearly emphasized the importance of counselor values and philosophical

orientation as they relate to counseling effectiveness. The results of the present investigation appear to contradict these assumptions. However, before such conclusions are drawn, two points should be considered:

1. Values and philosophical orientation are viewed as potent forces in the counseling relationship. However, the abstract nature of these variables creates difficulty when attempts are made to define and objectively measure these traits. Therefore, the finding that no significant relationship existed between the variables studied does not necessarily indicate that they are irrelevant in the counseling process, only that these concepts may not lend themselves to scientific measurement.

2. The subjects for this investigation were counselor trainees. The three variables studied in this investigation (predicted counseling effectiveness, philosophical orientation, and value system) were measured early in the counselor training program. Therefore, it is possible that these persons were not at a stage of professional development where their underlying values and philosophies had been clearly defined according to the parameters of the instruments employed.

#### Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to report the results of the present investigation. The Pearson product-moment correlation technique was employed to measure the relationship of predicted counseling effectiveness to five philosophical orientations and six value systems. Analysis of the data yielded results which indicated that no significant relationship existed between the dependent and independent variables.



A brief discussion followed the presentation of the results of the investigation. The purpose of the next chapter will be to present a summary of the investigation as well as conclusions drawn and recommendations for further research.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

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

#### Summary

The purpose of this investigation was two-fold. First, the relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and counselor trainee philosophical orientation was explored. Second, the relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and counselor trainee value system was explored. Based on the purposes of the investigation, eleven questions were answered concerning the relationship between the dependent variable and eleven independent variables:

1. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Realism?
2. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Idealism?
3. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Pragmatism?
4. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of

Existentialism?

5. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and the philosophical orientation of Phenomenology?

6. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Theoretical value system?

7. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and an Economic value system?

8. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Aesthetic value system?

9. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Social value system?

10. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Political value system?

11. Is there a significant relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and a Religious value system?

Subjects for the study were 85 counselor trainees at Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma. All were enrolled in Education 5562, Laboratory Experiences in Counseling, at the time that the measures of predicted counseling effectiveness, philosophical orientation, and value system were administered. Instruments employed to measure these three variables were the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, the Ames Philosophical Belief Inventory, and the Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey Study of Values.

The Pearson product-moment correlation technique was used to analyze the data. Resulting correlation coefficients indicating the strength of relationship between predicted counseling effectiveness and

the eleven scales of the APBI and Study of Values yielded no significant relationships at the .05 level of confidence.

### Conclusions

The results of the analysis of data in the present investigation warrant the following conclusions: First, a non-significant relationship exists between predicted counseling effectiveness and each of five philosophical orientations (Realism, Idealism, Pragmatism, Existentialism, and Phenomenology). Second, a non-significant relationship exists between predicted counseling effectiveness and each of six value systems (Theoretical, Economic, Aesthetic, Social, Political, and Religious).

### Recommendations

The present investigation has made a contribution to the existing research on counseling effectiveness as it related to two specific non-academic variables: values and philosophical orientations. However, additional research is needed in several areas before conclusions concerning the components of counseling effectiveness can be drawn. Recommendation for further research based on the present investigation are offered as follows:

1. Subjects for this investigation were counselor trainees. In order to gain additional information regarding the values and philosophical orientations of effective counselors, it is recommended that a similar investigation be conducted utilizing a sample of practicing counselors.

2. Both values and philosophical orientation have been hypothesized as crucial factors in the counseling relationship. However,

methods of measuring such traits have not advanced to a stage where they are consistently reliable and valid. It is recommended that one future goal of counseling and personality research emphasize the refinement of existing instruments as well as the development of new instruments.

3. Additional research is needed to determine the stability of values and philosophical orientations over designated periods of time in the counselor's professional development. An extended study beginning at the introductory stage of graduate training with reevaluation of the same subjects after the practicum or internship experience, after completion of training and after a period of professional experience could lend evidence of the stability or modification of these traits.

#### A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

- (1) Abeles, Norman. "A Study of the Characteristics of Counselor Trainees." Dissertation Abstracts, Vol. 18 (1958), p. 2205.
- (2) Abramovitz, Carole. "Beyond Empiricism." Psychological Reports, Vol. 28 (1960), pp. 137-138.
- (3) Ajzen, Rachel. "Human Values and Counseling." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol 52 (1973), pp. 77-81.
- (4) Allport, G. W. Pattern and Growth in Personality. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1963.
- (5) Allport, Gordon W. "Values and Our Youth." Teachers College Record, Vol. 63 (1969), pp. 311-314.
- (6) Allport, Gordon, Phillip E. Vernon and Garner Lindzey. Manual: Study of Values, 3rd ed. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1970.
- (7) American Personnel and Guidance Association. "The Counselor: Professional Preparation and Role." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 41 (1963), pp. 480-485.
- (8) American School Counselor Association. "Statement of Policy for Secondary School Counselors." Counseling: A Growing Profession. John W. Loughary, Robert O. Stripling and Paul W. Fitzgerald, eds. Washington: American Personnel and Guidance Association, 1965.
- (9) Ames, Kenneth A. "The Development of an Instrument for Assessing the Philosophical Positions of School Counselors." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 7 (1968), pp. 335-339.
- (10) Association for Counselor Education and Supervision. "The Counselor: Professional Preparation and Role." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 42 (1964), pp. 536-541.
- (11) Arbuckle, Dugald S. "Client Perception of Counselor Personality." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 3 (1956), pp. 93-96.

- (12) Arbuckle, Dugald. "Counseling Effectiveness and Related Issues." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 15 (1968), pp. 430-435.
- (13) Arbuckle, Dugald S. "Current Issues in Counselor Education." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 7 (1968), pp. 244-251.
- (14) Armstrong, Delores M. "Values Are the Basis of Ethical Behavior." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 50 (1971), pp. 295-297.
- (15) Bates, Marilyn and Clarence D. Johnson. "The Existentialist Counselor at Work." School Counselor, Vol. 16 (1969), pp. 245-250.
- (16) Beck, Carlton E. Philosophical Guidelines for Guidance. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1963).
- (17) Beck, Carlton E. Philosophical Guidelines for Counseling. 2nd ed. Dubuque, Iowa: Wm. C. Brown Co., 1971.
- (18) Benjamin, Alfred. The Helping Interview. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1969.
- (19) Bergin, Alan and Sidney Solomon. "Personality and Performance Correlates of Empathetic Understanding in Psychotherapy." American Psychologist, Vol. 8 (1963), pp. 393.
- (20) Blocher, Donald H. Developmental Counseling. New York: The Ronald Press Co., 1966).
- (21) Boy, Angelo and Gerald Pine. "Values in the Counseling Relationship." Counseling and Values, Vol. 16 (1972), pp. 192-201.
- (22) Brameld, Theodore. Cultural Foundations of Education. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957.
- (23) Brammer, Lawrence M. and Everett L. Shostrum. Therapeutic Psychology. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1968.
- (24) Brams, Jerome M. "Counselor Characteristics and Effective Communication in Counseling." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 8 (1961), pp. 25-30.
- (25) Bruning, James L. and B. L. Kintz. Computational Handbook of Statistics. Glenview, Illinois: Scott, Foresman, and Co., 1968.
- (26) Buros, Oscar K., ed. The Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook. New Jersey: Gryphon Press. 1965.

- (27) Buros, Oscar K., ed. The Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook. Vol. 1, New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, 1965.
- (28) Carkhuff, Robert R. "Implications of a Phenomenological Approach to Counseling." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 14 (1967), pp. 570-571.
- (29) Carkhuff, Robert R. and Bernard G. Berenson. Beyond Counseling and Therapy. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1967.
- (30) Carlson, E. R. "Attitude Change Through Modification of Attitude Structure." Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, Vol. 52 (1956), pp. 256-261.
- (31) Cash, W. L. and Paul F. Munger. "Counselors and Their Preparation." Review of Educational Research, Vol. 36 (1966), pp. 256-263.
- (32) Cattell, Raymond B. and Herbert Eber. Manual for Forms A and B, Sixteen Personality Factors Questionnaire. Champaign, Illinois: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1962.
- (33) Cattell, Raymond B., Herbert W. Eber, and Maurice Tatsuoka. Handbook for the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire. Champaign, Illinois: Institute for Personality and Ability Testing, 1970.
- (34) Cottle, William C. "Personal Characteristics of Counselors, I." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 31 (1953), pp. 445-450.
- (35) Danielson, Harry A. "Personality of Prospective Elementary School Counselor: Implications for Preparation." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 8 (1969), pp. 99-103.
- (36) Delaney, Daniel and Sheldon Eisenberg. The Counseling Process. Chicago: Rand McNally and Co., 1972.
- (37) Dewal, Onkar S. "Philosophy of Guidance: View from the East." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 47 (1968), pp. 116-119.
- (38) Dey, Glen R. "Philosophers, Counselor Educators, and Relevant Questions." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 8 (1969), pp. 135-142.
- (39) Donnan, H. H. "Counselor Personality and Level of Functioning as Perceived by Couselees: Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire." Journal Counseling Psychology, Vol. 16 (1969), pp. 482-485.



- (40) Donnan, Hugh H. and Grady Harlan. "Personality of Counselors and Administrators." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 47 (1968), pp. 228-233.
- (41) Dugan, Willis E., ed. Counseling Points of View. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1959.
- (42) Foley, W. J. and F. C. Proff. "NDEA Institute Trainees and Vocational Rehabilitation Counselors: A Comparison of Characteristics." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 4 (1965), pp. 154-159.
- (43) Gange, Samuel J. "A Validation Study of the Ames Philosophical Belief Inventory." (Unpub. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Wyoming, 1967).
- (44) Gimmetstad, M. J. "Admission Policies for Graduate Programs in Counselor Education." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 12 (1973), pp. 172-177.
- (45) Golightly, C. L. "Philosopher's View of Values and Ethics." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 50 (1971), pp. 289-294.
- (46) Gruberg, Ronald. "A Significant Counselor Personality Characteristic: Tolerance of Ambiguity." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 8 (1969), pp. 119-124.
- (47) Harper, Robert A. Psychoanalysis and Psychotherapy: 36 Systems. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1959.
- (48) Hassinger, Robert. "A Rationale for Changing Student Values." Education Record, Vol. 48 (1967), pp. 61-70.
- (49) Hill, G. E. "The Selection of School Counselors." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 39 (1961), pp. 355-360.
- (50) Hipple, John. "Development of a Personal Philosophy and Theory of Counseling." The School Counselor, Vol. 16 (1968), pp. 86-89.
- (51) Jackson, Mozelle and Charles L. Thompson. "Effective Counselor: Characteristics and Attitudes." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 18 (1971), pp. 249-254.
- (52) Jacob, Philip E. Changing Values in College. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1957.
- (53) Jansen, David G., et al. "Characteristics of High-Rated and Low-Rated Master's Degree Candidates in Counseling and Guidance." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 9 (1970), pp. 162-169.

- (54) Johnson, Dorothy, et al. "The Relationship of Counselor Candidate Characteristics and Counseling Effectiveness." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 6 (1967), pp. 297-304.
- (55) Johnson, Dorothy E. and Mary J. Vastermark. Barriers and Hazards in Counseling. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1970.
- (56) Jones, E. E. and H. B. Gerard. Foundations of Social Psychology. New York: Wiley Press, 1967.
- (57) Jordan, Mel E. "Ratings of Counselor Competence for Counselor Trainees and the Relationship of Philosophy and Values to these Ratings." (Unpub. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Wyoming, 1967).
- (58) Kassera, Wayne J. and William A. Sease. "Personal Change as a Concomitant of Counselor Education." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 9 (1970), pp. 208-211.
- (59) Kelz, James W. "The Development and Evaluation of a Measure of Counselor Effectiveness." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 44 (1966), pp. 511-516.
- (60) Kemp, C. G. "Comparative Study of the Need Structure of Administrators, Teachers, and Counselors." Journal of Educational Research, Vol. 57 (1964), pp. 425-427.
- (61) Kerlinger, Fred N. Foundations of Behavioral Research. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964.
- (62) Konopka, G. "Formation of Values in the Developing Person." American Journal Orthopsychiatry, Vol. 43 (1973), pp. 86-96.
- (63) Krumboltz, John D. and Carl E. Thoreson. Behavioral Counseling: Cases and Techniques. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1969.
- (64) Mahan, Thomas W. and Edward A. Wicas. "Counselor Personality Characteristics: A Preliminary Exploration." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 3 (1964), pp. 78-83.
- (65) Marden, C. F. and G. Meyer. Minorities in American Society. New York: American Book Company, 1962.
- (66) McClain, Edwin W. "Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire Scores and Success in Counseling." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 15 (1968), pp. 492-496.
- (67) McDaniel, William. "Counselor Selection: An Evaluation of Instruments." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 6 (1967), pp. 142-144.

- (68) McQuary, John P. "Preferred Counselor Characteristics." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 3 (1964), pp. 145-148.
- (69) Mickelson, Douglas J. and Richard R. Stevic. "Differential Effects Facilitative and Nonfacilitative Behavioral Counselors." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 18 (1971), pp. 314-319.
- (70) Miller, Lyle L. Counseling Leads and Related Concepts. Laramie, Wyoming: Developmental Reading Distributors, 1970.
- (71) Myrick, Robert D., F. Donald Kelly, Jr., and Joe Wittmer. "The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire as a Predictor of Counselor Effectiveness." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 11 (1972), pp. 293-299.
- (72) Nash, Paul. "Philosophy of School Counseling." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 43 (1964), pp. 243-248.
- (73) O'Hean, Jane S. and D. S. Arbuckle. "Sensitivity: A Measureable Concept?" Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 42 (1964), pp. 572-576.
- (74) Parker, Clyde. "The Place of Counseling in the Preparation of Student Personnel Workers." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 45 (1966), pp. 256-260.
- (75) Patterson, C. H. "The Place of Values in Counseling and Psychotherapy." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 5 (1958), pp. 216-223.
- (76) Patterson, C. H. Counseling and Psychotherapy: Theory and Practice. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1959.
- (77) Patterson, C. H. "Test Characteristics of Rehabilitation Counselor Trainees." Journal of Rehabilitation Counseling, Vol. 28 (1962), pp. 15-16.
- (78) Patterson, C. H. "Selection of Rehabilitation Counseling Students." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 41 (1963), pp. 318-324.
- (79) Patterson, C. H. Theories of Counseling and Psychotherapy. New York: Harper and Row, 1966.
- (80) Peterson, James A. Counseling and Values. Scranton, Penn.: International Textbook Co., 1970.
- (81) Polmantier, Paul C. "The Personality of the Counselor." Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Vol. 15 (1966) pp. 95-100.

- (82) Randall, Donald H. "Psychotherapy and Values." (Unpub. paper, Stillwater: Oklahoma State University, 1969).
- (83) Rokeach, Milton. Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1968.
- (84) Rousseve, R. J. "Counselor, Know Thyself." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 47 (1969), pp. 628-633.
- (85) Ryan, Charles and John Butzow. "Philosophical Beliefs of Counselor Trainees." Canadian Counselor, Vol. 7 (1973), pp. 113-118.
- (86) Samler, Joseph. "Change in Values: A Goal in Counseling." in John F. McGowan and Lyle D. Schmidt, eds. Counseling: Readings in Theory and Practice. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1962.
- (87) Santavicca, G. G. "Supervised Experience and Selection of Trainees." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 38 (1959), pp. 195-197.
- (88) Slinger, George E. "Values and the Counseling Relationship in High School." Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Vol. 16 (1966), pp. 11-17.
- (89) Siegel, Betty, "Evaluating a Guidance Counselor." School Counselor, Vol. 16 (1969), pp. 309-311.
- (90) Stefflre, Buford and Fred Leafgren. "Value Differences Between Counselors and Administrators." Vocational Guidance Quarterly, Vol. 10 (1962), pp. 226-228.
- (91) Stefflre, Buford, Paul King, and Fred Leafgren. "Characteristics of Counselors Judged Effective by their Peers." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 9 (1962), pp. 335-340.
- (92) Stoughton, R. W. "The Preparation of Counselors and Personnel Workers." Review of Educational Research, Vol. 27 (1957), pp. 174-185.
- (93) Strickland, Ben. "The Philosophy-Theory-Practice Continuum: A Point of View." Counselor Education and Supervision, (1969), pp. 165-175.
- (94) Thomas, W. I. and F. Znaniecki. The Polish Peasant in Europe and America: Vol. 1. Boston: Badger Press, 1920.
- (95) Truax, Charles B. and Robert R. Carkhuff. Toward Effective Counseling and Psychotherapy. Chicago: Adline Press, 1967.

- (96) Tyler, Leona E. "Reflections on Counseling Psychology." The Counseling Psychologist, Vol. 3 (1972), pp. 6-11.
- (97) Walker, Donald E. and Herbert C. Peiffer. "The Goal of Counseling." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 4 (1957), pp. 204-207.
- (98) Walton, F. X. and L. J. Sweeney. "Useful Predictors of Counseling Effectiveness." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 48 (1969), pp. 32-38.
- (99) Wehr, M. and J. Wittmer. "Paraprofessional Trainees and Counselor Education Students: A Comparison of Personality and Predicted Counseling Effectiveness." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 12 (1973), pp. 255-262.
- (100) Weitz, Henry. "Counseling as a Function of the Counselor's Personality." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 35 (1957), pp. 276-280.
- (101) Whetstone, Bobby D. "Personality Differences Between Selected Counselors and Effective Teachers." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 43 (1965), pp. 886-890.
- (102) White, Richard A. "A Follow-up Study of Enrollees in the National Defense Education Act Counseling and Guidance Institutes at the University of Wyoming from the year 1959 through 1964-1965." (Unpub. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Wyoming, 1957).
- (103) Whitely, J. M. "Selection and Evaluation of Counselor Effectiveness." Journal of Counseling Psychology, Vol. 14 (1967), pp. 226-234.
- (104) Williamson, E. G. "Value Orientation in Counseling." in John F. McGowan and Lyle D. Schmidt, eds. Counseling: Reading in Theory and Practice. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1962.
- (105) Williamson, E. G. "The Future Lies Open." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 50 (1972), pp. 426-433.
- (106) Wise, Don E. "An Initial Study of the Ames Philosophical Belief Inventory with Students in Education." (Unpub. Doctoral Dissertation, University of Wyoming, 1966).
- (107) Wittmer, Joe and James L. Lister. "The Graduate Record Examination, Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire, and Counseling Effectiveness." Counselor Education and Supervision, Vol. 10 (1971), p. 293.

- (108) Wrenn, C. Gilbert. "The Selection and Education of Student Personnel Workers." Personnel and Guidance Journal, Vol. 31 (1952), pp. 9-14.

APPENDIX A

THE ALLPORT, VERNON, AND LINDZEY STUDY OF VALUES

Value systems are defined by Allport, Vernon, and Lindzey (6) as follows:

A. THEORETICAL - The dominant interest of the theoretical man is the discovery of truth. In the pursuit of this goal he characteristically takes a cognitive attitude, one that looks for identities and differences; one that divests itself of judgements regarding the beauty or utility of objects, and seeks only to observe and to reason. Since the interests of the theoretical man are empirical, critical, and rational, he is necessarily an intellectualist, frequently a scientist or philosopher. His chief aim in life is to order and systematize his knowldege.

B. ECONOMIC - The economic man is characteristically interested in what is useful. Based originally upon the satisfaction of bodily needs (self-preservation), the interest in utilities develops to embrace the practical affairs of the business world--the production, marketing, and consumption of goods, the elaboration of credit, and the accumulation of tangible wealth. This type is thoroughly practical and conforms well to the prevailaing stereotype of the average American businessman.

C. AESTHETIC - The aesthetic man sees his highest value in form and harmony. Each single experience is judged from the standpoint of grace, symmetry, or fitness. He regards life as a procession of events; each single impression is enjoyed for its own sake. He need not be a creative artist, nor need he be effete; he is aesthetic if he but finds his chief interest in the artistic episodes of life.

D. SOCIAL - The highest value for this type is love of people. In the Study of Values it is the altruistic or philontropic aspect of love that is measured. The social man prizes other persons as ends and is therefore, himself kind, sympathetic, and unselfish. He is likely to find the theoretical, economic, and aesthetic attitudes cold and inhuman. In contrast to the political type, the social man regards love as itself the only suitable form of human relationship.

E. POLITICAL - The political man is interested primarily in power. His activities are not necessarily within the narrow field of politics; but whatever his vocation, he betrays himself as a Macht mensch. Leaders in any field generally have high power value. Since competition and struggle play a large part in all life, many philosophers have seen power as the most universal and most fundamental of motives.

F. RELIGIOUS - The highest value of the religious man may be called unity. He is mystical, and seeks to comprehend the cosmos as a whole, to relate himself to its embracing totality. The religious man might be thought of as one whose mental structure is permanently directed to the creation of the highest and absolutely satisfying value experience. Some men of this type are immanent mystics, that is, they find their religious experieince in the affirmation of life and in active participation therein.



APPENDIX B

THE AMES PHILOSOPHICAL BELIEF INVENTORY

Five philosophies of education presented by Ames (9) are defined as follows:

A. REALISM - A person holding this general position believes that the natural objects of the world exist separate from man's knowledge of them. Also, he believes that the best way to learn of the natural world is through emirical means and scientific methods. Further, he sees these same scientific methods as most appropriately applied to working with people and their problems.

B. IDEALISM - A person holding this general position places greatest emphasis upon man's ability to think. He believes that great ideas and values exist independent of man, but that their existence and meaning can best be approached through the perception of man's thinking ability. These ideas, values, and man's rational quality would be the basis from which this person would work with another in an effort to help him meet his problems.

C. PRAGMATISM - A person holding this general position believes that since the world is in continual change, values and knowledge are relative in time. He believes people plan and evaluate their actions in terms of the probable consequences of those actions. Additionally, he believes that since people really learn when they solve problems, the best way to help people is to assist them in developing skills in problem solving.

D. EXISTENTIALISM - A person holding this general position believes that man's own experiences are the basis of meaning in life. Thus, he accordingly believes that if man has the courage to be himself, he can then bring meaning into his own life through his chosen experiences. This person believes that to help another is to help him be himself.

E. PHENOMENOLOGY - A person holding this general position believes that how man chooses and evaluates his actions in primarity a result of the views he has of himself. Also, this person believes that a man's self understanding as well as his knowledge of his environment are gained through man's own perceptions. Thus, to help a person with his problems would be a matter of helping him understand how and why he views things the way he does.

VITA

Barbara Gray

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

**Thesis:** THE RELATIONSHIP OF PREDICTED COUNSELING EFFECTIVENESS TO PHILOSOPHICAL ORIENTATION AND VALUE SYSTEM AMONG COUNSELOR TRAINEES

**Major Field:** Student Personnel and Guidance

**Biographical:**

**Personal Data:** Born in Topeka, Kansas, July 14, 1949, the daughter of Dr. David E. and Jean C. Gray.

**Education:** Attended public schools in Topeka, Kansas. Graduated from Topeka West High School in 1967. Attended Kansas State University, Manhattan, Kansas and received Bachelor of Science degree in Family and Child Development, 1971. Attended Oklahoma State University, Stillwater, Oklahoma and received Master of Science degree in Family Relations and Child Development, 1972. Completed requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Education at Oklahoma State University in May, 1974.

**Professional Experience:** Graduate Teaching Assistant, Child Development Laboratories, Oklahoma State University, 1971-72. Graduate Research Assistant, Office of International Programs, Oklahoma State University, 1972-1973. Graduate Research Assistant and Liaison Officer to USOE Career Education Project (Sand Springs, Oklahoma), State Department of Vocational and Technical Education, 1973. Instructor, Oklahoma State University Education Extension, spring, 1974. Counselor, University Counseling Service, Oklahoma State University, January 1, 1974 to present.