The assessment of behavior patterns, personality characteristics and theoretical orientations for Master's level counseling students

by

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THE ASSESSMENT OF BEHAVIOR PATTERNS, PERSONALITY CHARACTERISTICS AND THEORETICAL ORIENTATIONS FOR MASTER'S LEVEL COUNSELING STUDENTS

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(ABSTRACT)

Answers to the question of what works best for what persons under what conditions have given rise to a new wave of metatheoretical approaches to counseling and psychotherapy that are situationally specific and tailored to meet the needs of individual clients. Such questions have only begun to be raised in the field of counselor education. Hence, the education and supervision of counseling students has remained largely an amorphous undertaking.

In this study the researcher sought to examine how Master's level counseling students differed on measures of behavior, personality and theoretical orientation. Behavior patterns were assessed using Hutchins' metatheoretical model, called the T-F-A system, and the Hutchins Behavior Inventory (H.B.I.) that measures thinking, feeling and acting dimen-

sions of human behavior. Personality characteristics were assessed using the Adjective Check List (A.C.L.). Theoretical orientations were assessed using a modified Smith Questionnaire. The students were divided into groups on the basis of behavior patterns, theoretical orientations, and gender. The issue of differences across these groups on measures of personality and behavior was then investigated. Results indicated that the H.B.I. works very well in assessing a) different personality orientations, b) responses to specific situations and c) theoretical preferences of counseling students. The existence of significant differences across theoretical orientation, behavior pattern, and gender groups on measures of behavior and personality calls for the development of a prescriptive approach to the training of counseling students. Results clearly suggest how counselors need to adapt to the specific client situations to maximize the possibility of behavior change. Implications for counselor education programs are discussed.

DEDICATION

To ; my buddy, wife and counselor.

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Chapter One

Introduction

New approaches to psychotherapy have proliferated at an astounding rate. A recent count (Corsini, 1984) suggested that presently there are in excess of 250 distinct approaches to psychotherapy with most of them claiming for themselves the title of "the most effective treatment". Beutler (1983) wondered if this "proliferation of theories is both a cause and symptom of a greater problem--that none of the theories or techniques which they spawn are adequate to deal with the complexity of the problems for which people seek help" (p. 2). While each theory has functioned out of what Zilbergeld (1984) calls the "One Best Therapy Myth", reality has demanded an eclectic perspective.

Norcross (1986) maintains that, "clinicians of all persuasions are increasingly seeking a rapprochement of various systems and an integration of therapeutic interventions" (p. 4). Eclecticism has now become the preferred theoretical orientation of psychologists with between one third and one half ascribing to it (Garfield & Kurtz 1974, 1976; Norcross & Prochaska, 1982; Smith, 1982). Smith's (1982) affirmation that, "the heyday of schools in psychotherapy has past" and that "eclecticism is clearly the preference of the largest number of psychologists" (p. 808), seems to be increasingly justified. Evidence for such an

affirmation was gathered from his survey of four hundred twenty-two clinical and counseling psychologists.

Initially, a "hodge podge" orientation characterized the eclectic approach. Robertson (1979) quoted colleagues who believed eclecticism to be the "last refuge for mediocrity, the seal of incompetency" and "a classic case of professional anomie" (p. 19). In the presence of such a negative evaluation other descriptive terms and approaches have arisen in recent years to replace eclecticism. Smith (1982) spoke of this growing dissatisfaction with eclecticism and the evolution of new approaches. He stated; "current literature on counseling and psychotherapy indicates a trend in the direction of creative synthesis, masterful integration, and systematic eclecticism" (p. 802). Ivey (1980), when prophetically summarizing his thoughts on counseling in the year 2000, made the following observation.

> A new synthesized metatheoretical framework for counseling and psychotherapy will evolve. With an increasing awareness of person-environment transaction complexities, the psychoeducational model, systematic decisional processes, cultural and social differences, and the linguistic base of the entire process, the final gasp of 'my theory is better and more perfect than your theory' will

> be heard. The question now being asked, 'which theory or therapy for which individual under which conditions?' will within the next five years offer practical guidance for the beginning counselor. Out of this awareness will evolve a gradual synthesis of old theories into new perspectives more metatheoretical in nature (p. 14).

One such comprehensive metatheoretical model based on a Thinking-Feeling-Acting approach to defining human behavior has been offered by Hutchins (1979, 1982, 1984). It is called the T-F-A system. Hutchins' system is the only one, at present, that is accompanied by instrumentation and is hence operational. The Hutchins Behavior Inventory (H.B.I.) assesses the T-F-A patterns of persons in situations and is recommended by Walker (1984), Wheeler (1986) and Mueller (1987) for use in clinical research.

Recent studies have examined the implications of metatheory for enhancing relationships between counselors and clients and increasing the effectiveness of counselor interventions (Ivey and Authier, 1978; Egan, 1986; Hutchins, 1979, 1982, 1984; L'Abate, 1981; Lazarus, 1984). At the present time however, very little is known about the application of these metatheoretical advances to the process

of counselor training.

Many experts have lamented the amorphous nature of counselor training (Hansen, Pound, and Petro, 1976; Delaney, 1978; Holloway and Wolleat, 1981; Bartlett, 1982). Hess (1980) and Ryan (1978) maintained the importance of utilizing different types of training methods depending on the characteristics of the trainees. Hunt (1974, 1981) suggested that learning was maximized when different training approaches were matched with different students. He affirmed that it was not the formulation of a "best" method, or even a unified eclectic mode that was needed, but rather the coordination between training approaches and personality characteristics of trainees.

Counselor education should be conducted in such a manner that trainees are assisted with the task of answering "the metatheoretical question" of what works best, with what persons, under which conditions? In recent literature on counseling the metatheoretical question was posed again and again as a guide for efficient intervention (Garfield, 1980, Hutchins, 1984; Ivey and Authier, 1978; Ivey and Simek-Downing, 1980; L'Abate, 1981, Lazarus, 1984).

In the interest of the efficient instruction of counselors-in-training, it seems that the time is right to suggest that educators should be seeking to answer the question of what works best in terms of theory and tech-

nique, with what students, under which conditions. One approach to answering this question would be to examine whether assessment tools yield information concerning differences among groups of trainees. Should significant group differences exist, they may bear relevance for counselor education. The assessment of such differences would make possible an approach to training that would be more systematic and efficient than the amorphous and subjective approaches that presently dominate the field.

In this study I will assess what behavioral patterns are present in a group of Master's level counselors-in-training when they are administered the Hutchins Behavior Inventory. I will also examine whether or not trainees in such groups differ from one another on selected traditional personality characteristics assessed with the Adjective Check List. Additionally, I will examine whether or not persons in theoretical orientation groups differ on measures of behavior assessed by the H.B.I. A questionnaire will be used to determine what theoretical orientations exist for this group of counselors-in-training. Finally, I will examine whether or not the trainees differ on measures of personality when they are placed in groups according to their theoretical orientations. The possible implications of such group differences for constructing an individualized approach to counselor training will then be examined.

Statement of the Problem

Much has been written about metatheory but we do not know what the implications of the literature on metatheory are for counselor education. The Hutchins Behavior Inventory is at the heart of one metatheoretical approach, the T-F-A System, and operationalizes our understanding and assessment of human behavior. The problem addressed in this study is that we do not know:

a) what kinds of T-F-A patterns emerge for students involved in counselor education programs,

b) whether personality characteristics differ significantly across student T-F-A pattern groups,

c) whether the students, when grouped according to theoretical orientations, differ significantly on measures of behavior,

d) whether the students, when grouped according to theoretical orientations, differ significantly on measures of personality.

e) whether the students, when grouped according to sex, differ significantly on measures of personality.

Rationale for the Study

In a pilot study (n=20) using the H.B.I. and A.C.L., Hawkins (1985) found significant differences between groups

on several personality variables. If it could be shown that counseling students have various behavioral orientations and if differences exist on measures of personality and theoretical orientation, then this could have implications for counselor training.

Wheeler (1986) recommended that: "Efforts should be made to identify various H.B.I. behavior patterns. Research into H.B.I. behavior profile analysis should be undertaken." (p. 114). Additionally, he suggested that "future efforts to investigate the validity of the H.B.I. scores should focus on the measurement of group differences" (p. 113).

At present we do not find in the literature a parsimonious methodology for measuring behavioral differences, personality differences, and differences of view on counseling theory and technique for counselors in training. The combined use of the Hutchins Behavior Inventory, the Adjective Check List, a questionnaire and the evaluation of the derived data may serve as a useful first step toward the construction of a more efficient and systematic approach to counselor training. The need for such a systematic approach will be demonstrated in the review of literature.

Definitions

Eclecticism,

Webster's Collegiate Dictionary defined eclecticism as

the "method of selecting what seems best from various systems." Brammer & Shostrom (1982) defined therapeutic eclectism as the "process of selecting concepts, methods, and strategies from a variety of current theories which work" (p.35).

Metatheory

A framework upon which the counselor educator may "organize and synthesize existing information into systematic patterns" (Ivey & Matthews, 1984, p. 23). Such a theory provides counselors with a framework for matching therapies with individual differences and conditions (Smith, 1982).

In this research project the researcher sought to examine the utility of one metatheoretical model - the T-F-A system - for the development of a framework that would make possible a more efficient and systematic approach to counselor education.

The Metatheoretical Question

The metatheoretical question is, "which treatment works best for which individual (or system) under which conditions?" (Ivey, 1980; Ivey & Simek-Downing, 1980; Super, 1980, Garfield, 1980, Lazarus, 1984, Hutchins, 1979, 1982, 1984).

Smith Questionnaire

Smith (1982) designed a questionnaire to obtain data

representing the views of both clinical and counseling psychologists on the current trends in counseling and psychotherapy. The questionnaire in this study is a modification of that questionnaire. The two questionnaires can be seen in Appendices A and B.

Delimitations of the Study

This study was limited to an intact group of students who were enrolled in a Master's in Counseling program at a private university with a strong religious commitment. This fact needs to be considered when generalizing the results of the study.

This study was limited to an attempt to assess only one metatheoretical model the T-F-A System. Furthermore, this study was limited to using the A.C.L. to assess traditional personality characteristics, the H.B.I. to assess behavior patterns, and the questionnaire to assess theoretical orientations.

Summary

Answers to the question of what works best for what persons under what conditions has given rise to a new wave of situationally specific and client-centered interventions in the field of counseling. Such interventions suggest the end of provincialism in counseling and the birth of an

emerging rapprochement between the schools that can signify improvement in counseling services.

The "metatheoretical question" has only begun to find application in the field of counselor education. However, increasing numbers of counselor educators are beginning to apply the insights gained through metatheory to the task of counselor training. Specifically, greater attention is being given to assessment of individual behavior and personality characteristics as a part of tailoring training to the individual. This study sought to examine first, how theoretical orientations, behavior patterns and personality characteristics of master's level counseling students could be measured by using the A.C.L., H.B.I., and questionnaire. Second, group differences on these measures were examined. Finally, the researcher sought to determine implications of these differences for counselor education.

CHAPTER TWO

Review of Related Literature

The review of related literature is divided into four sections. Section one consists of an overview of eclecticism and metatheory. In section two Hutchins' metatheoretical model is examined. In section three representative literature is surveyed to illustrate the importance of the thinking, feeling, and acting concepts in counseling and psychological literature. In section four literature related to the T-F-A concepts and their relevance for the development of a prescriptive approach to counselor training is examined.

An Overview of Eclecticism and Metatheory

Corsini (1984), when justifying the need for the periodic revision of his classic textbook on Current Psychotherapies, maintained that the field of psychotherapy was in constant ferment. Systems of psychotherapy were constantly fading, changing, splitting, and synthesizing. He went on to say that, "new ideas, new concepts, new views which amount to complete new systems, arise. In illustration of this, there are currently at least 250 innovative systems of psychotherapy in existence" (p. ix). Norcross and Wogan (1983) expressed some concern but concluded that there was something healthy about this pluralism because

in the midst of all this theorizing people are being helped. Evidence has accumulated that psychotherapy is effective (Cavanagh, 1982; Beutler, 1983; Norcross, 1986). With this knowledge of effectiveness came the concomitant need to appreciate that different treatment strategies had essentially the same impact on a wide variety of clients (Beutler, 1983). Additionally, Fiedler's (1950a, 1950b) classic studies indicated that, although experienced psychotherapists identified theoretically with one school or another, in practice they all did virtually the same thing with their clients. Smith and Glass (1977) surveyed a large number of research studies devoted to the theoretical differences between schools of psychotherapy, and concluded:

> the results of research demonstrate negligible differences in the effects produced by different therapy types. Unconditional judgments of superiority of one type or another of psychotherapy, and all that these claims imply about treatment and training policy are unjustified (p. 760).

This appreciation of equivalent impact and shared methodologies led researchers to shift their efforts. They moved from the comparison of different treatment effects to

the attempt to discover ingredients that were held in common by various theories and techniques. This shift gave birth to what has been labeled eclecticism.

The term eclecticism was broadly employed. Smith (1982) suggested that its meanings ranged from "a worn out synonym for theoretical laziness" to the "only means to a comprehensive psychotherapy (p. 802). Webster's Collegiate Dictionary defined eclecticism as the "method or practice of selecting what seems best from various systems" (p. 441). Brammer and Shostrom (1982) defined therapeutic eclecticism as," the process of selecting concepts, methods, and strategies from a variety of current theories which work" (p. 35).

Wholesale commitment to a particular school of therapy is increasingly becoming a rarity. The "sibling rivalry" among orientations that characterized the early schoolism of psychotherapy and generated what Larson (1980) called a "dogma eat dogma" environment, has become largely a thing of the past.

Surveys of clinical and counseling psychologists have identified and substantiated this shift toward eclecticism in counseling theory and practice (Garfield & Kurtz, 1974, 1976, Kelly, 1961; Norcross & Prochaska, 1982; Smith, 1982). Norcross (1986) stated: "Clinicians of all persuasions are increasingly seeking a rapprochement of various systems and

an integration of therapeutic intervention. Eclecticism has become the modal orientation of psychologists, with between one third and one half ascribing to it" (p. 4).

Smith (1982) in a survey of theoretical orientations, held by psychologists, noted that, "fewer than 2% of his sample believed that the phrase 'exclusive schools' (e.g., Freudian, Rogerian) adequately described the emphasis in psychotherapy today" (p. 807). His respondents felt that terms like multimodalism, creative synthesis, emerging eclecticism, and technical eclecticism better described current trends in counseling and psychotherapy. Forty-one percent of the 422 Smith (1982) respondents and fifty-five percent of the 855 Garfield and Kurtz (1976) respondents subscribed to the label of eclectic as the best designation for their approach to the construction of counseling theory and techniques. Little wonder that Smith (1982) affirmed; "the heyday of schools in psychotherapy is past" (p. 808). The eclectic movement that Wachtel (1977) had viewed as a therapeutic underground born in the strife and bewilderment of theoretical dogmatism had clearly become a dominant force in counseling and psychotherapy in the 80's.

Nicholson and Golsan (1983) maintained that "eclecticism is an essential perspective for dealing with the complexity of human problems" (p. 25). Eclecticism provided a breadth of orientation that was vital for counselors who

sought to service a diverse clientele. The need for such breadth has been cited by many current writers. Hutchins (1984) suggested that "no single theory to date seems adequate for all people" (p. 572). Egan (1986) cited the need for models of counseling "open to being corroborated, complemented and challenged by any other approach, model or school of helping... the needs of clients--not the egos of model builders...must remain central in the helping process" (p. 10). Ellis (1984) too, cited the need for such openness when he said; "efficient therapy .... is ready to give up the most time-honored and revered methods if new evidence contradicts them. It constantly grows and develops; and it sacredizes no theory and no methodology" (p. 33).

Eclectics spurred on by the knowledge that "no school of psychotherapy .... provides complete answers for all clinical problems" (Thorne, 1967, p. 354) became a significant force in contemporary counseling and psychotherapy. Thorne (1967) developed a comprehensive psychology based on a broad spectrum eclecticism. His voluminous writings, although thought provoking, were too cumbersome to be taught and practiced. Many were not happy with such cumbersome and confusing attempts at constructing counseling theory and some cautions have been issued.

Brammer (1969) cautioned that "using the term eclectic to label one's counseling point of view is still likely to

incur accusations from some colleagues of being naive, lazy, confused, or deluded" (p. 192). Smith (1982) suggested that "although the eclectic model allows for openness and flexibility, it also encourages an indiscriminate selection of bits and pieces from diverse sources that results in a hodge podge of inconsistent concepts and techniques" (p. 102). Eysenck (1970) has characterized this kind of eclecticism as a "mish-mash of theories, huggermuggery of procedures, gallimaufry of therapies" (p. 45).

Ward (1983) cautioned therapists on the dangers inherent in operating "without guidelines to structure counseling and to govern the appropriate selection and application of theoretical demands, strategies, and techniques" (p. 23). Beutler (1983) maintained that "while the current movement toward eclecticism is an improvement over earlier approaches to psychotherapy, it will still be some years before research can validate the many approaches advocated for working with specific clients" (p. 3). Abroms (1983) insisted that "eclecticism has too much the connotation of superficiality, of 'a-jack-of-all-trades, master of none', to capture the stringent requirements of modern psychiatric professionalism" (p. 744).

Corey (1986) warned that "an undisciplined eclectic approach can be an excuse for failing to develop a sound rationale for systematically adhering to certain concepts

and to the techniques that are extensions of them" (p. 2). His fear was that therapists would pick and choose pieces from a variety of therapies that merely served to support their own biases. Egan (1986) shared this concern over counselors randomly borrowing ideas. He maintained that "helpers need a conceptual framework that enables them to borrow ideas, methods, and techniques systematically from all theories, schools, and approaches and integrate them into their own theory and practice of helping" (p. 9).

Although the influence of eclecticism on counseling and psychotherapy continued to grow, such cautions have given rise to the desire to replace the term eclecticism with other terms and approaches. Smith (1982) stated that "there seems to be a growing dissatisfaction with the traditional label 'eclecticism'. Current literature on counseling and psychotherapy indicates a trend in the direction of creative synthesis, masterful integration, and systematic eclecticism" (p. 802).

Ivey (1980) predicted that within five years both theoretical exclusiveness and lazy eclecticism would lose favor to systematic metatheoretical approaches that stressed matching therapies with individual differences and conditions. Garfield (1980) had anticipated the need for such an approach when he asked the question that is at the heart of later metatheoretical formulations, "How does one know which

form of psychotherapy is best?" (p. 31).

Ivey (1980) affirmed that by the year 2000 "counseling psychologists will no longer be satisfied with the random selection of treatment techniques, they will be searching for logical consistency in their procedures" (p. 14). The evolution of this consistency was to be accompanied by the demise of eclecticism and the growing popularity of metatheoretical approaches that would provide the counselor with a rationale for his practice. Ivey and Matthews (1984) sharpened the definition of metatheory. They believed that models comprehensive enough to embrace and describe other models should be viewed as meta-models. "The purpose of meta-modeling is not to present new information, but to organize and synthesize existing information into systematic patterns" (p. 23). These systematic patterns, once discovered, served to highlight underlying and unifying schemes that were there all the time. The philosophical assumption undergirding the meta-model concept was that "the more we split and pulverize matter artificially; the more insistently it proclaims its fundamental unity. The search in meta-modeling is for a fundamental unity in helping" (p. 23).

Currently, "Therapists are searching for systematic metatheoretical approaches that stress matching therapies with individual differences and conditions" (Smith, 1982,

p. 803). These therapists were guided by the desire to give increasing attention to answering the question of what counseling theories and techniques work best, for which clients under what circumstances? I call this the metatheoretical question and have found it everywhere in the literature on counseling and psychotherapy.

Ivey and Authier (1978) emphasized the importance of this question when they said; "the scholarly opportunities lie in defining even more precisely what it is that makes for effective and satisfactory interpersonal communication. What skills, what qualitative conditions, what theories are most applicable to which groups of people under what conditions?" (p. xiv).

Ivey and Simek-Downing (1980) pointed out the importance of the metatheoretical question when they asked, "which treatment for which individual, under what conditions? This question,increasingly asked by counselors and therapists, undergirds this book" (p. 1).

Garfield (1980) expressed the need for the development of specific therapeutic strategies for specific clients. The question that should always be asked is "what types of therapeutic procedures will work best with clients with given types of problems administered by what kind of therapists?" (p. 284). He maintained that this approach was always to be preferred over those that viewed psycho-

therapy as a uniform process. In his view, therapeutic procedures should be individualized and their effectiveness systematically investigated.

L'Abate (1981) raised the issue of what made classifications important to the process of therapeutic intervention. He concluded that classifications of behavior would increase the potential for the best match between the behavior and the methodology employed to improve that particular behavior. "Hence, classification would allow us to test one of the questions that has plagued counseling and therapy since their inception, which method should be used with which behavior, by whom, and at what price?" (p. 263).

Lazarus (1984) maintained that multimodal therapists constantly ask; "What works, for whom, and under which particular circumstances? Thus they took care not to attempt to fit the client to a predetermined treatment" (p. 496). Lazarus felt that this was not what most practitioners actually did. The client usually got what the therapist was used to administering. This could, in fact, be exactly what the client did not need. Multimodal therapists deliberately attempted to determine what type of interactive posture would fit the particular client best. This placed a heavy emphasis on therapeutic flexibility. No one way could be viewed as the best approach to all clients.

Bruce (1984) expressed a similar concern over being

devoted to one theoretical model to the exclusion of others or avoiding commitments to any model since none fitted all situations. He suggested that "a more efficacious stance would be to develop a framework in which several models might be utilized, depending on the circumstances with a particular client" (p. 259). Downing (1975) also cautioned against the danger inherent in viewing any one theory as a stopping point, or abandoning all theories. Commendable as many of the concepts and elements of the present theories may be, there is still a need for a counseling theory that will better satisfy the needs of the times. Downing maintained that it was

> not a case of abandoning all current theories, but rather one of developing a theory that appropriately utilizes the best from each theory in creating a sounder and more logical approach for providing realistic and acceptable assistance for everyone, no matter what his state of adjustment or maladjustment might be (p. 180).

The intent of the metatheoreticians is clear for all to see. They pursued a creative synthesis that neither denigrated nor deified any theory. They proposed a creative pragmatism that had as its goal the greatest benefit for the

greatest numbers in the largest possible number of circumstances. They maintained that this task was achievable only if the individual therapist was given a metatheoretical scheme that would allow theories and techniques to be tailored to the individual. This was to be done in such a manner that the needs of the individual would be met in his situation. Ward (1983) personified the metatheoretical spirit when he called for models of counseling and psychotherapy that would serve "to guide the conceptualization and application of theories and techniques" (p. 154). Norcross (1986) also summarized this metatheoretical intention well when he said; "The resultant challenge is to operationalize fully treatment procedures and to concertize, as much as possible, therapists' decision-making processes" (p. 20).

Metatheoretical approaches to counseling and psychotherapy have developed at a rapid pace. Ivey and Authier (1978) have developed a metatheoretical model and called it microcounseling. They sought to provide a conceptual framework that allowed for the systematic examination of counselor theories to identify similarities and differences between them. L'Abate (1981) developed the E-R-A metatheoretical model. L'Abate emphasized emotionality, rationality, and activity or affect, reason, and action. From the E-R-A model L'Abate (1981) proposed "a classification of counseling and psychotherapeutic techniques, as well as

specific training programs for families" (p. 265). Egan (1986) has developed a metatheoretical model he called the problem solving model. Barclay (1983) offered the "four I" model. Lazarus (1984) proposed multimodal therapy as a comprehensive metatheoretical approach to counseling and psychotherapy. Hutchins (1979, 1982, 1984) has developed a metatheoretical model that he calls the T-F-A system.

These are but a few of the metatheoretical models that have been proposed. Each one sought to find that "fundamental unity"; that "underlying consistency" among the theories and techniques of counseling. Patterson (1973) suggested that there was in reality such an underlying consistency among the theoretical phenomena that would be discovered and eventually give rise to a formal theory. Metatheoriticians believed that the discovery of the underlying factors would make possible the construction of a systematic and comprehensive model of therapy. Such a model would facilitate the efficient and systematic delivery of intervention to persons in their situations. In short it would allow for a systematic and efficient response to the metatheoretical question. It would provide a theory to undergird theoretical and technical choices.

Hutchins T-F-A System - A Metatheoretical Model

Hutchins (1979, 1982, 1984) believes in an underlying

consistency. He proposed that the term behavior be defined to include how a person thinks, feels, and acts. He then developed a metatheoretical model called the T-F-A system. Hutchins designed his model to assist counselors with the task of addressing "the most critical task in counseling by answering such questions as: What works? For which clients? With which concerns?" (Hutchins, 1984, p. 575). The prominence of this question in metatheoretical models has been cited. Hutchins maintained that,

> systematic counseling using T-F-A (Thinking-Feeling-Acting) strategies, provides a model counselors can employ with a diverse population yet can be adapted to the uniqueness of the client in concert with the competencies of the counselor. The counselor's task is therefore to learn how to select intervention strategies that are specifically designed to affect the clients' thoughts, feelings, or actions (Hutchins, 1979, p. 529).

Although some overlap existed in Hutchins' categories the T-F-A system provided a "heuristic methodology for examining theories, techniques, behavior patterns, and the interactional styles that exist between people" (Hutchins 1984, p. 573). Hutchins offered the following definitions

for behavioral orientations:

Thinking Orientation

Generally thinking persons are characterized by intellectual, cognitively oriented behavior. They tend to behave in logical, rational, deliberate, and systematic ways. They are fascinated by the world of concepts, ideas, theories, words, and analytic relationships. The range of behavior in this category runs from minimal thought to considerable depth in quality and quantity of thinking. Organization of thoughts ranges from scattered to highly logical and rational. Counselors with this orientation tend to focus on what clients think and the consequences. Special attention is paid to what the client says or does not say. Frequently, illogical, irrational thinking is seen as a major cause of client problems. A primary goal of this approach is to change irrational thinking, thus enabling the client to see things more rationally and to resolve problems. Counselors who use this approach are likely to be influenced by the work of Ellis (Rational-Emotive Therapy), Beck (Cognitive Therapy), Maultsby (Rational Behavior Therapy), and Meichenbaum (cognitive modification) (Hutchins, 1984 p. 573).

Feeling orientation

Feeling persons generally tend to behave in emotionally expressive ways. They are likely to go with their feelings in making decisions: 'If it feels good, do it!' The expression and display of emotions, feelings, and affect provide clues to people with a primary feeling orientation. A person's mood can range from angry, anxious, bitter, hostile, or depressed to one of elation, joy, or enthusiasm. One's emotional energy level can vary from low to high. Counselors with this orientation are likely to be regarded as especially caring persons. They tend to focus on the client's feelings, paying special attention to how the person talks. Knotted and tangled emotions are seen as a major source of the client's problems. These counselors help the client describe, clarify, and understand mixed up and immobilizing emotions. As emotional incongruencies are straightened out, the client is frequently able to perceive things more clearly (insight). Counselors using this approach are likely to be influenced by the work of Rogers (Non-Directive, Client-Centered, Person Centered Therapy), Perls (Gestalt Therapy), Maslow, and a host of phenomenological, humanistic, and existential writers (Hutchins, 1984 p. 573).

Acting orientation

> Acting persons are generally characterized by their involvement in doing things and their strong goal orientation. They are frequently involved with others, and tend to plunge into the thick of things. Action types get the job done, one way or another. To them, doing something is better than doing nothing; thus, they are frequently involved in a variety of activities. Their behavior may range from loud, aggressive, and public-oriented, to quiet, subtle, and private. Counselors with an action orientation tend to see client problems as arising from inappropriate actions or a lack of action. These counselors focus particularly on what the client does or does not do, and they tend to encourage clients to begin programs designed to eliminate, modify, or teach new behavior. An action-oriented counselor is likely to be influenced by the work of Bandura (Behavior Modification), Wolpe (Behavior Therapy), Krumboltz and Thoresen (Behavioral Counseling), and others espousing a behavioral approach to change (Hutchins 1984, p. 573).

Hutchins' (1984) major concern was the proposal of guidelines for "linking counseling theories and techniques to current eclectic practices in counseling and psychothera-

py" (p. 572). The counselor's ability to identify behavior patterns for clients and adapt to a client's unique T-F-A pattern was viewed as a vital element in the success of counseling and psychotherapy. Counselors "should base their choice of theories and techniques on each client's behavior" (Hutchins 1984, p. 572).

Lazarus (1984) voiced a similar concern for counselor adaptation when he discussed bridging. He said;

> bridging refers to a procedure in which the therapist deliberately tunes into the clients preferred modality before branching off into other dimensions that seem likely to be more productive. Failure to tune into the clients presenting modality often leads to feelings of alienation (pp. 492-493).

What Lazarus called bridging Hutchins called counselor adaptation. One major difference between the models is the way the task is accomplished. Lazarus' bridging is a subjective exercise rooted in counselor experience. Hutchins' adaptation is objectified through the administration of the Hutchins Behavior Inventory (H.B.I.).

The H.B.I. allowed for an empirical assessment of client behavior in situations. It provided both experienced

and inexperienced counselors with an assessment tool that afforded the opportunity to adapt to the client on a solid empirical foundation. The benefits of such an instrument for clients, particularly those seen by counselors who lack the experience or intuition to properly adapt, is obvious. This commitment to the role of assessment in the counseling process was a key element in many metatheoretical models and in all probability accounted for their growth in popularity (Barclay, 1983; Bruce, 1984; Prochaska and Diclemente, 1984; Lazarus, 1984).

Hutchins was aware that experienced counselors bridged and adapted intuitively. He stated; "In my opinion evidence indicates that the "art" of psychotherapy and counseling comes mainly from experience, by means of which counselors intuitively synthesize elements of theory and techniques and adapt their personal relationship to the uniqueness of each client" (Hutchins, 1984, p. 575). He went on to state, "evidence suggests that these experienced counselors are more likely to adapt their personal style of relating to clients than are their less experienced counterparts (Hutchins, 1984, p. 572). This view seemed warranted in light of the studies done by Fiedler (1950, 1958) and Auerbach and Johnson (1977).

Although, the importance of experience in counselor adaptation has been challenged in additional studies

(Brammer and Shostrom, 1982) there was no argument about the need for counselor adaptation and flexibility. Egan (1986) and Cormier and Cormier (1985) stressed that effective counselors were those who possessed the greatest array of responses. Brenner (1982) believes,

> the empathic, composed, encouraging, purposeful therapist who is attentive and ready to discuss everything is like the capable teacher who knows the material and comes to class prepared to present a good lecture but whose work fails to reflect an appreciation for the subtleties, complexities, and tensions inherent in the student-teacher relationship. Such teachers may have mastered the techniques of teaching, but they often lack flexibility and are blind to what they can learn from students. Such teachers are forgotten quickly (p. 13).

Jourard (1968) added that to be a psychotherapist one must be "as flexible, inventive, and creative as law, ethics and the dignity and wellbeing of oneself and one's patient will allow" (p. 97). Many have acknowledged that the relative merits of various theories have been overrated in importance and that counselor flexibility is as desirable as

adherence to any particular orientation (Corey, Corey & Callanan, 1984; Cummings, 1979; McGhee, 1979; Schimel, 1980).

Frank (1973, 1982) maintained that for most types of clients the differences achieved in terms of outcomes for counselors of differing theoretical orientations is derived from the facility of each to utilize common factors that facilitate change. These common factors are a therapeutic relationship, a therapeutic setting, a conceptual scheme for explaining the patients demoralized behavior, and a prescribed procedure. "Common factors are meant to be construed as superordinate classifications for specific and definable effects that commonly occur during the course of psychotherapeutic change" (Lynn and Garske, 1985, p. 508). Frank (1982) emphasized that behavior change is not derived from specific effects hypothesized in theory. He maintained that all effective therapies share active correlative ingredients, and that although specific factors serve to give individual therapies their unique characters, it is the presence of these common factors that give the therapies clout.

The T-F-A Concepts in Counseling and Psychotherapy

Hutchins has sought to establish the T-F-A system for the development of a framework that would make possible the

systematic and comprehensive organization of theories and techniques to facilitate efficient intervention. At this point, it would seem warranted to ask the question of whether or not the literature warrants such an undertaking. Is there sufficient evidence in the literature to warrant the suggestion that the T-F-A system should be advanced as the foundation upon which a metatheoretical model should be built? Are there recognized experts in the field of counseling and psychotherapy whose writings have supported the advancement of such an hypothesis?

The following chart (see Table 2:1) consists of representative authors who have advocated the importance of the thinking, feeling, and acting concepts for, a) the construction of a theory of personality and behaviors, b) the enhancement of the counseling process through the provision of a framework to guide that process and, c) the development of a framework on which the common elements from theories of counseling and psychotherapy might be placed with the end in view of generating a comprehensive metatheoretical model.

Table one is constructed in the following manner. First, the author and date are noted. Second, a, b, and c categories are included to identify the particular emphases of the respective authors within the categories of emphasis designated a, b, and c above. Third, the particular terms that are employed by the author to designate the T-F-A

Table 2:1

Representative authors who have advocated the importance of thinking, feeling and acting concepts.

Author/date	a	b	c	Thinking	Feeling	Acting
Glasser (1965)	x	x		thinking	feeling	behavior doing acting
Brandon (1966)	x			cognitive	affective	volitional
Lazarus (1967, 1976)		x	x	cognition	affect	behavior
New Scofield Reference Bible (1967)	x			thinking	feeling	behavior
Schaeffer (1971)	x			thinks	feels	acts
Weiner (1975)		x		cognitive	affective	behavior
Aponte (1977)			x	thinking	feeling	acting
Oratio (1977)		x		knowing	feeling	doing
Crabb (1977)	x	x		thinking	feeling	behavior
Sall (1978)	x	x		thinking	feeling	acting
Seay (1978)	x	x	x	cognition	affect	behavior
Stewart (1978)		x		cognitive	affective	psychomotor
Hutchins (1979, 1982, 1984)		x	x	thinking	feeling	acting
Linehan (1979) 1980)	x	x		thinking	feeling	acting
Frey & Raming (1979)		x		rational	affective	action
Maddi (1980)	x		x	thoughts	feeling	actions
Krumboltz (1980)	x	x		thinking	feeling	acting

Author/date	a	b	c	Thinking	Feeling	Acting
Steinfeld (1980)		x	x	thinking	feeling	action
Oglesby (1980)	x	x		knowing	being	doing
Collins (1980)	x	x		thinking	feeling	acting
Backus, (1980)	x			thinking	feeling	behavior-acting
Mischel (1981)	x			thoughts cognitions	emotions	overt actions
Minuchin & Fishman (1981)		x		cognitive	affective	behavioral
Staats (1981)	x	x	x	thinking	feeling	acting
L'Abate (1981)	x	x	x	rational-ity	emotion ality	activity
Blocher (1982)	x	x	x	thinking	feeling	acting
Bordin (1982)	x	x	x	thought	feeling	action
Cavanagh (1982)		x	x	cognitions	emotions	actions
Goldfried (1982)		x	x	thinking	feeling	doing
Ellis (1982)		x		cognitive	emotional	behavioral
Smith (1982)	x		x	cognition	affect	behavior
Liebert Spiegler (1982)	x			thinking	feeling	doing
Ryle (1982)		x	x	think	feel	act
Schwartz (1982)		x	x	cognition	affect	behavior
Murray (1983)		x	x	cognition	affective	behavioral
Ward (1983)	x	x	x	cognitive	affective	behavioral
Lee (1983)	x	x	x	thought	affect	behavior
Presbury, McKee & Moore (1983)	x	x	x	cognition	affect	change

Author/date	a*b*c*	Thinking	Feeling	Acting
Corsini (1984)	x x x	cognition	affection	behavior
Kirwan (1984)	x	cognition	affect	volition
Ellis (1984)	x x x	cognitions	emotions	actions
Greenberg & Safran (1984)	x x	thinking	feeling	action
Baruth & Huber (1985)	x x x	think	feel	act
Martin & Hiebert (1985)	x x	beliefs	feelings	behaviors
Corey (1986)	x x x	thinking	feeling	doing
Goldfried & Safran (1986)	x x	thoughts	feelings	behavior
Egan (1986)	x	thoughts	feelings	actions
Norcross (1986)	x	cognitions	affect	behavior
Cormier & Hackney (1987)	x	cognitive	affective	behavioral

* a = a theory of personality and behavior.

* b = a framework to guide the counseling process.

* c = a framework with which to generate a comprehensive/integrative model.

concepts are noted under the appropriate headings. T-F-A concepts enjoy a place of prominence in the writings of many contemporary theoreticians. Affirmations abound in the literature that the T-F-A concepts serve a valuable function as theoreticians attempt to sharpen personality theory, heighten counselor effectiveness, and construct metatheoretical models for counseling and psychotherapy. An overview of some of the writings of those designated in Table 2:1 will serve to demonstrate how they have used the T-F-A concepts to accomplish these task.

Weiner (1975) has written a manual on the conduct of psychotherapy for practitioners. He was primarily concerned with putting before these practitioners a manual that would enhance the practice of psychotherapy. In discussing the importance of interpretation to the communication of understanding, he suggested that we think of interpretation as a means of communicating with the client about behaviors that he was not fully aware of. Such a process was intended to produce in the client enhanced self-understanding. Weiner summarized by maintaining, "accordingly, the desired effect of an interpretation can be seen as helping the patient achieve restructuring of his cognitive and affective experience and re-organization of his behavior patterns" (p. 116).

Seay (1978) attempted the formulation of a systematic

eclectic therapy. He, like other responsible eclectics, was exercised over the attempt made by some psychotherapists to force clients' needs and intrapersonal dynamics to conform to the parameters of a single theory. Seay proposed a "theory of functioning". His theory of functioning sought to integrate the various aspects of being a human organism. He has set such a theory over against dimension-limited theories that focused on learning, motivations, etc. These various aspects, natures, or dimension of the human organism were cognition, affect, and behavior. "People think, they feel, and they behave. Each psychological subdiscipline must be directed toward cognitive, affective, and behavioral components, and how they fit into the framework of each discipline" (p. 61).

Stewart (1978) has proposed a systematic counseling model. He viewed his model as the first that attempted to specify the tasks performed by counselors at each stage of the counseling process. His system was designed to provide a rational guide for both counselor training and counseling practice. He viewed the psychotherapeutic process as one in which the counselor assisted with the task of examining the psychological dimensions of what the person was thinking, saying, and feeling. "This means that you must be sensitive to all dimensions of behavior: verbal, nonverbal, cognitive, affective, and psychomotor" (p. 336).

Frey and Raming (1979) have used content analysis and multivariate taxonomic procedures to generate taxonomies of counseling methods and goals. They felt that prior to their efforts taxonomies were arrived at through a kind of armchair approach. They maintained that little attention was given to the application of the derived taxonomies to the task of developing techniques and goals for intervention. They suggested that they had started counseling and psychotherapy in a new direction. The original Frey classification was based on "a synthesis of London's action-insight continuum for the description of goals and Patterson's rational-affective dimension to describe processes" (p. 28).

Maddi (1980) was interested in writing a book on personality that transcended the limitations of "benevolent eclecticism" and schoolism. He wished to discover the similarities and differences among the existing views on personality in order to begin an evaluation of the type of theorizing that was apt to be the most beneficial. To accomplish this task he formulated a theory of personality that gave attention to behaviors that have psychological importance. He affirmed that such a theory would focus on thoughts, feelings, and actions (p. 8). Maddi goes on to define personality as, "a stable set of characteristics and tendencies that determine those commonalities and differ-

ences in the psychological behavior (thoughts, feelings, and actions) of people that have continuity in time and may not be easily understood as the sole result of the social and biological pressures of the moment" (p. 10).

Krumboltz (1980) called attention to the revolution in counseling (which he believed began in 1965) and revolved around the concern to tailor specific behavioral goals with clients. This concern was accompanied by the desire to test innovative procedures and the use of those procedures for helping clients achieve specific outcomes. He believed that this "experimental self-correcting approach" has produced a variety of helpful techniques... He went on to state that, "future counseling will emphasize prevention more than remediation, internal more than external control, and a better balance among cognition, emotion, and action" (p. 463).

Mischel (1981) pointed out the difficulties that were associated with studying the entire person in his environment. He concluded that although such an undertaking was commendable, it's achievement, in fact was a practical impossibility. He offered the observation that progress beyond pure admiration for the complexity of human beings would require that researchers select dimensions of persons that could be studied. Mischel (1981) maintained that, "in practice, personality study deals with many aspects of the

complex behavior of individuals. The term 'behavior' is used broadly; it includes emotions, and covert mental activities, such as thoughts or 'cognitions', as well as overt actions" (pp. 3, 4).

Staats (1981) bemoaned the separatistic tendencies in psychology. He viewed the tendency of schools to develop separately, even where unification could be easily achieved anachronistically. Such tendencies, he felt, were largely due to the lack of unifying theory that would serve to connect presently unrelated bodies of information. Staats (1981) proposed such a unification. In his proposed unifying schemes,

> Three general areas of personality were involved: language-cognitive processes were considered central in human behavior, as were emotional-motivational processes and the sensorimotor acts that constitute significant elements of the individuals impact on the world. It was in the process of doing systematic research in each of these three areas that the basic social behaviorism concept of personality emerged. These systems are called basic behavioral repertoires (or personality repertoires) and are considered to be the basic constituents of personality (p. 244).

Minuchin and Fishman (1981), writing from a strong family systems orientation, were equally committed to the importance of the thinking, feeling, and acting concepts. Their approach to family therapy demanded that the family's definition of the problem and the nature of their response be challenged by the therapist. Challenge could be offered in a direct or indirect manner. "The goal is to change or reframe the family's view of the problem, pushing its members to search for alternative behavioral, cognitive, and affective responses" (p. 68). Aponte (1977) was another prominent marriage and family systems therapist who gave attention to the role of these concepts in family therapy. He maintained, "For a therapist, diagnosis is recognizing repetitive patterns of thinking, feeling, acting, and communicating in the contexts of life operations that people are asking us to affect" (p. 102).

Cavanagh (1982) attempted to identify the eclectic underpinning that would accommodate most of the counseling theories. He focused on the behavior dynamics of the person in counseling and concluded "the interaction between cognitions, emotions, and actions reflects a system of reciprocal causality" that the counselor must monitor and influence if he was to be successful. Ellis (1984) commented on the reciprocal relationship of the T-F-A modalities. He said, "Just as cognitions importantly contribute

to emotions and actions, emotions also significantly contribute to or 'cause' cognitions and actions, and actions contribute to or 'cause' cognitions and emotions. When people change one of these modalities of behaving they concomitantly tend to change the other two" (p. 194). This holistic emphasis was important and pointed out the need to consider the T-F-A concepts in a reciprocal holistic fashion as opposed to a reductionistic one.

Ellis (1982), while responding to several articles in the Personnel and Guidance Journal, called attention to the writings of Frey and Raming (1979), Hutchins (1979), and L'Abate (1981). He maintained that their efforts to classify,

> counseling and therapy theorists and practices under either the Emotionality-Rationality-Activity (E-R-A) or the Thinking-Feeling-Acting (TFA) model....seem largely accurate. When theories of counseling are divided into Emotionality-Rationality-Activity or Thinking-Feeling-Acting categories, most major schools can be fairly accurately placed in one of these three categories. The main schools actually significantly overlap in their goals, processes, and intervention methods... The whole field of counseling and psychotherapy seems

to be developing a more comprehensive and more eclectic outlook (p. 7).

Goldfried (1982) examined converging themes in psychotherapy. He was particularly concerned with delineating principles of change that were common to large numbers of psychotherapeutic schools. These methods for change he has labeled clinical strategies. He believed feedback to be a clinical strategy that was common to all therapeutic approaches. Feedback was a strategy "whereby patients/clients are helped to become more aware of what they are doing and not doing, thinking and not thinking, and feeling and not feeling in various situations" (p. 384). McFall (1970) maintained that "when an individual begins paying unusually close attention to one aspect of his behavior, that behavior is likely to change" (p. 140).

Smith (1982) completed an extensive survey of the attitudes and orientations of clinical and counseling psychologists. He sought to discover their views on current trends in counseling and psychotherapy. He found a distinctive trend in the direction of a systematic eclecticism. No single theme seemingly dominated the current development of professional psychotherapy. His findings did suggest however, that present day psychotherapists registered a distinct preference for theoretical orientations that were

cognitive-behavioral. Smith concluded, "There seems to be a greater interest at this time in therapy systems that emphasize the integration of affect, cognition, and behavior and stress intervention strategies more than heavily theoretical approaches" (p. 808).

Lee (1983) attempted to develop a metatheoretical model through dealing with the relationship between philosophy and counseling. He maintained that counseling cannot proceed with the task of helping clients change their behaviors without making some assumptions about the human condition and what influences behavior. He believed that the counselor's choice of theory and his beliefs about the process of change were rooted in anthropological assumptions. He maintained that, "beliefs about a person's capabilities, motivating forces, or the etiology of their condition (affect, thought, and behavior) necessarily precede mechanisms and parameters of change" (p. 525).

Ward (1983), building on the Smith (1982) and Garfield and Kurtz (1976) studies, accepted the evidence for the eclectic preferences of psychologists. He issued a concern however, over the lack of sufficient guidelines to structure the counseling interview and to guide in the selection of appropriate theories and techniques. He worried that without such guidelines the eclectic was in grave danger of operating haphazardly and with little efficiency. After

citing models by Hutchins and L'Abate, Ward affirmed that,

> a three dimensional, affective-cognitive-behavioral schema is most parsimonious and useful in guiding the selection of specific theories for conceptualization and intervention in each domain. In order to maximize the effectiveness of the application of techniques a system for conceptualization and assessing client functioning level is also necessary. The most logical choice is to use the affective-cognitive-behavioral, three domain approach here too. The use of this comprehensive, multifaceted system to guide the application of theories and techniques according to client functioning level...will broaden and strengthen counseling effectiveness and will stimulate further development and maturation of the field of counseling and psychotherapy (pp. 156-157).

In Corsini's third edition of his text (1984), recognized as one of the leading textbooks in the field of counseling theory and technique, a rather lengthy introduction was found that was not included in the second edition (1979). He stated, "what all psychotherapies have in common

is that they are methods of learning. All psychotherapies are intended to change people: to make them think differently (cognition), to make them feel differently (affection), and to make them act differently (behavior)" (p.4). He then proceeded to develop this thesis. His expanded treatment of cognition, affect, and behavior in the 1984 edition of his textbook, leaves one with the inescapable impression that these concepts have become a popular foundation for the development and integration of counseling theories and techniques.

A similar developmental pattern emerged upon examination of the revisions of Corey's textbook on counseling theory and technique. His text has gone through three revisions. In the 1977 edition Corey did not give much attention to the thinking, feeling and behaving concepts as a basis for the development of a systematic approach. However, in the 1982 and 1986 revisions Corey said:

> As revised, this book represents 15 approaches to counseling and therapy. I believe that they serve as an excellent base on which students can build a personalized theory that will incorporate the feeling, thinking, and behaving dimensions of human experience. In my view, practitioners need to pay attention to what their clients are

> feeling, thinking, and doing. Thus, a complete therapy system must address all three of these facets. All of these facets combined form the basis of a powerful therapy, and excluding any of these dimensions by overstressing a factor of human experience leads to an incomplete therapy approach (p. 7).

Corey's appreciation for the importance of thinking, feeling and acting concepts reflects the increasing concern for a "powerful therapy" that rests on a metatheoretical foundation. This finds broad support in the literature.

Baruth and Huber (1985) have organized their entire textbook on counseling and psychotherapy around the T-F-A concepts. They maintained that the primary goal of all approaches to counseling and psychotherapy was positive change in primarily one domain of human functioning "The three domains are: 1) affective - changing how a person feels, 2) behavioral - changing how a person acts, and 3) cognitive - changing how a person thinks. We reiterate that while our primary focus is on one domain, the other two are not ignored" (p. 7).

Martin and Hiebert (1985) maintained that one of the most important tasks of the counselor was to assist clients with the formulation of general learning goals. The goals

should then be used as a basis for reliable preassessments of currently relevant feelings, beliefs, behaviors and perceptions of clients. "Finally as instructors, counselors engage in careful evaluations of client learning (increments in cognitive, behavioral, or affective repertoires) to determine whether or not counseling goals and objectives have been attained" (p. 5). The overall goal was the development of client insight that allowed for ongoing client self-instruction.

Egan (1986) suggested that after clients had decided on what they would like to focus, the next step was exploration and clarification. He maintained that problems were easier to manage if they were well formulated and defined.

> Problem situations are clarified if they are spelled out in terms of specific and relevant experiences, behaviors, and feelings. Hutchins (1979, 1982) has developed a thoughts-feeling-actions matrix that can help counselors and clients to focus on high-priority areas (p. 170).

Norcross (1986) suggested that an examination of the literature on counseling and psychotherapy would lead one to the conclusion that we have only begun to identify the issues that were of major significance for rapprochement.

He maintained that recurrent themes were emerging and these would serve to give direction to a creative synthesis. "Such recurrent themes include: the advantages of focusing on the interactions of cognitions, behavior, and affect in clients/patients" (p. 42). Norcross (1986) went on and affirmed, "why not be prepared to give strong emphasis to the interaction of cognitions, behavior, and affect?" (p. 44).

Cormier and Hackney (1987) sought to provide counselors with a comprehensive list of illustrative counseling strategies categorized by domain. The categorization system they selected was not chosen arbitrarily, "but is based on previous classification systems, particularly the T-F-A (thought, feeling, action) model described by Hutchins (1979, 1982, 1984) and the E-R-A (emotionality, rationality, activity model) (L'Abate, 1981)." (p. 103).

Several evangelical Christian writers have also called attention to the need for giving the T-F-A concepts a place of prominence in the development of counseling theory and technique. Crabb (1977) proposed a seven stage model for counseling. Stage one consisted of the identification of problem feelings. Stage two consisted of the identification of problem behaviors. Stage three consisted of the identification of problem thinking. The assessment of thinking, feeling, and acting behaviors was at the core of his

approach to counseling.

Collins (1980) maintained that throughout the Bible there was an emphasis on emotions, thinking, and behavior. He maintained that in the Bible people were held responsible for their actions. Actions, however, were never emphasized at the expense of, or to the exclusion of, feelings and thinking. He maintained that, "feeling, thinking, and acting - all three are important in the Scriptures, and each must be considered in counseling" (p. 199).

Backus (1980) also maintained the importance of T-F-A concepts for the development of a Christian approach to counseling. He maintained that even through a casual reading, "we discover the Bible solidly teaches that man's feeling, passions and behaviors are subject to and conditioned by the way he thinks" (p. 16).

This survey of the literature produces the realization that the use of thinking, feeling and acting concepts as a metatheoretical core for counseling and psychotherapy is not unique to Hutchins or a few isolated writers. The literature abounds with references to the significance of this scheme for understanding human personality and behaviors. There is strong evidence that thinking, feeling and acting concepts provide the core for a creative synthesis or metatheoretical model to govern the therapist's choice of theory and techniques. The literature suggests that this

model could well serve the counselor or psychotherapist who has worked to answer the question of what works best, for what person, under what circumstance. The T-F-A model provides a scheme for assessing persons and intervention procedures as well as promoting more systematic and efficient ways for doing counseling and psychotherapy. Persons from a variety of epistemological biases, as diverse as secular humanism and evangelical Christianity, have subscribed to T-F-A concepts as an operational core for the development of a comprehensive metatheory.

Prescriptive Counselor Training and The T-F-A Concepts

Calls have recently been issued for an approach to counselor training that is prescriptive or tailored to meet the needs of the individual student. The temptation to "operate on the assumption of uniformity in trainee characteristics and learning style" (Rosenthal, 1977, p. 231), has slowly eroded. The assumption seemed inconsistent with both common sense and a growing body of research, which suggested that learning was maximized when training approaches were matched with the trainee (Hunt, 1974; Holloway and Hosford, 1982; Rosenthal, 1977). Rosenthal (1977) maintained that "It is not the formulation of a 'best' method, or even of a unified eclectic mode that is needed, but rather the coordination between training approaches and personality characteristics of trainees" (p. 231).

At present, far too many "beginning supervisors develop their own natural style of supervision which is stable over time with different trainees, rather than a systematic approach to supervision which is assumed to provide stability over time" (Bartlett, 1982, p. 9). The literature speaks amply of the desire for a metatheoretical base that would provide counselor educators with the foundation for a systematic, comprehensive, and prescriptive approach to counselor training (Hart, 1983; Krumboltz, 1966; Lambert, 1980; Stoltenberg, 1981; Wiley & Ray, 1986). The thought of these writers was summed by Holloway and Wolleat (1981) when they suggested that,

> the successful supervisor can create a climate for learning that is appropriate for the particular trainee being supervised. Supervisors can learn to attend to significant dimensions of the trainees behavior and choose the instructional responses from their own repertoire of skills that will best match the trainee's learning needs (p. 375).

Counselor education should never be a random process. The assessment of trainee styles of behavior and personality, and the development of a training approach to the

trainee that is informed by that assessment, is demanded by present literature. Such an undertaking should be viewed as a first step toward the development of an individualized instructional methodology that systematically broadens the educator's skills, and at the same time encourages the opportunity to individualize the training program.

Several writers have suggested that thinking, feeling, and acting concepts may be helpful allies in the construction of a comprehensive yet prescriptive approach to counselor training (Blocher, 1982; Bordin, 1982; Linehan, 1980; Oratio, 1977). This is not surprising when one recognizes the significance of these concepts for the development of a metatheoretical base for counseling and psychotherapy.

Blocher (1982) maintained that one of the strengths of his approach to training counselors was its capacity for adjusting to, or fine tuning to the individual differences of students. In his view, counselor training has typically been done rather casually with a "seat of the pants" approach. He maintained that "supervision ought to be in reality psychological education in the fullest and most complete sense of the term. It uses psychological content in a systematic way to change the psychological functioning of a learner" (p. 28). Central to Blocher's cognitive developmental approach to counselor training was the

assertion that "human beings, whether counselors or clients are thinking, feeling, and acting organisms" (p. 30). His approach to training counselors was "a logical application and extension drawn from contemporary theory and research" (p. 20). The trainer's responsibility was to monitor trainee behavior and give feedback on the thinking-feeling-and acting as it occurred in the counseling situation. The focus was on "what the counselor heard or understood from the client, and how this information was processed and became a basis for feeling and acting" (p. 30).

Bordin (1982) proposed a working alliance model for counselor training. According to his theory of training, the power for change would be attributed to two factors: the strength of the alliance between trainer/trainee and the power of the tasks to be accomplished. Tasks were powerful when they were mutually agreed upon, understood, and when they tapped abilities that were part of the trainees repertoire of behaviors. Bordin maintained that "the kinds of change goals agreed upon usually were in terms of thought, feeling, and action or some combination, and would contribute to the differentiation of the kinds of working alliances" (p. 35).

Strong working alliances would be possible when the tasks assigned were congruent with the trainees thinking, feeling, and acting preference or ordering. "Various

combinations of goals and tasks will differ only in how much liking, caring, and trusting there needs to be to sustain that particular collaboration" (p. 36). The better the task was suited to the persons behavioral preference, the stronger the working alliance and the potential for achieving the goal. Weiner (1975) suggested earlier that one of the components of quality counselor education would be "appreciating the individual differences among student clinicians to such an extent that supervisory programs and practices might be radically altered to suit each student's needs" (p. 471). Tuckman and Orefice (1973) and Hunt (1974, 1981) also proposed a match-mismatch model for assigning students to instructional experiences on the assumption that students with different personality structures were differently affected by such experiences. Bartlett (1982) also suggested that "the effectiveness of supervision is influenced by the mediating factors such as gender, cultural, and personality differences" (p. 15).

In Bordin's approach to counselor education, the focus was on the identification of habits of thought, feeling, and action that contributed negatively to trainee effectiveness. "As these obstacles are overcome, the person is provided with new, more satisfying ways of thinking, feeling, and acting. Under the right circumstances, these changes will generalize beyond the working alliance to other areas of his

or her life" (p. 36). This building and repairing was to be the major focus of the training process.

Oratio (1977) maintained that three forms of counselor education have dominated the field. He believed, that the three forms served to illustrate a range of counselor education processes on a continuum. In his opinion each of these processes was effective in fostering at least one aspect of the trainee's development. They served to assist in developing the trainee's knowing, feeling or doing. "All three of these aspects are essential for effective therapy, and in the end the client will judge the clinician by what he knows, feels, and does" (Oratio p. 20).

Oratio suggested that thinking, feeling, and acting elements should be advanced as major elements in the establishment of clinical competencies. He suggested that, "perhaps an ultimate research strategy into clinical competence involves first determining parameters of significant therapeutic behavior on a molar level, and then content analyzing the more discrete molecular components for clinical training" (p. 40).

The process of training counselors is highly complex. "The interpersonal characterological pattern of each member must always be considered" (Oratio, 1977, p. 24). The counselor educator bears the responsibility for identifying characterological traits of the student and assisting

him/her with a developed understanding of the implications of those traits for the therapeutic process.

> An integrated supervisory process is a microcosm of helping to facilitate all aspects of clinical development: cognitive, emotional, and experiential. The ultimate challenge of clinical supervision involves helping the clinician to incorporate all of these aspects into a unique clinical self which will make for a powerful approach to his future clinical practice with clients of all types (Oratio, 1977, p. 21).

Linehan (1980) suggested that the issues related to counselor education should be analyzed from three different perspectives. Goals of training should be considered, methods and procedures for achieving goals should be considered, and the universes (client types, therapeutic modalities, settings) across which generalizations are to be made, should be considered. She proposed a model for counselor training that was based on a tripartite theory of behavioral functioning and personality.

> The essence of this approach is the belief that human functioning can be fruitfully concep-

> tualized as occurring in one or more of three separate, although interrelated, systems: the cognitive response system; the physiological/ affective response system and the overt motor response system (p. 158).

In less technical terms, this approach suggests that behavior can be thought of as involving thinking, feeling, and acting. Linehan hastens to add that the relative weight given to each of these systems is one way of explaining the distinguishing factors among the different schools of therapy and counselor training. Linehan suggested that a central feature of counselor education is teaching the student to respond appropriately across all three systems. She further suggested that trainees should receive instruction that sensitized them to the relative influence of each of the systems on the other systems (e.g., thinking on feeling, acting on thinking, feeling on action, etc.). Since trainees have a differing appreciation for the significance of these systems the attention given to the systems would vary for different trainees. This preference for a particular system indicated that "the variables controlling the trainees therapeutic behavior must be discovered empirically for each individual and within individuals for each setting" (Linehan, p. 159). She went

on to affirm,

> with respect to issues in supervision, the tripartite model is most applicable to delineating the goals or objectives of supervision. To the extent that the goals can be conceptualized as involving an increase in therapeutic skills, broadly conceived, the needed skills can be classified as belonging primarily to one or more of the behavioral systems (Linehan, p. 162).

Linehan (1980) stressed that trainees needed a conceptual model of human functioning that could be readily understood and applied to individual clients. She maintained that, "it would seem that the most critical skill here is the ability to conceptualize a case and identify the problem, that is, assessment" (Linehan, p. 164).

Summary

Counseling theory and counselor education have shared some common developmental concerns. Both have been heavily tied to schoolism. Both have suffered from competitiveness and polarity. The field of counseling and psychotherapy has witnessed the birth of responsible eclecticism. Metatheoretical approaches that make possible the comprehensive and

systematic application of theories and techniques to specific clients in specific situations are developing.

Counselor training has suffered from a continuing commitment to the attitude of "my approach is better than yours". This has served to make counselor education, by its very nature, largely an amorphous undertaking. The counselor educator has typically applied one model, a personal model, to all students. However, this parochialism is beginning to wane. Concerns for more prescriptive, tailored, and trainee-centered approaches to counselor training were evident in the literature.

The thinking, feeling, and acting concepts have been proposed by many as a foundation for a metatheoretical approach to defining human behavior. Their use as a framework for guiding the complex task of matching clients and counseling approaches has been strongly encouraged. It has been maintained that such matching would help promote responsible interventions for specific clients in specific situations.

Counselor educators have affirmed that the T-F-A concepts could be of great assistance with the task of developing a metatheoretical and prescriptive approach to counselor training. This approach would be marked by a deep concern to answer the question of, what works best, for which trainee, under what set of circumstances? The T-F-A

system may afford the opportunity to give greater specific ity to a task that has to this point been largely amorphous and non-specific.

CHAPTER THREE

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to examine the utility of certain measures for discovering individual differences across a group of Master's level counseling students. The first measure to be assessed, student behavior, was assessed by using the Hutchins Behavior Inventory (H.B.I.). The second measure, personality characteristic, was assessed by using the Adjective Check List (A.C.L.). The third measure, theoretical orientation, was assessed by using a modified Smith questionnaire.

This assessment served several purposes. First, the measurement of behavior through the use of H.B.I. allowed for the examination of the behavioral homogeneity of the sample. The matter of interest, as behavior was examined, had to do with the discovery of the extent to which the behavior patterns for this population differed within and across situations. The use of the H.B.I. produced information that allowed not only for the question of difference to be answered but additionally the issue of the direction of differences could be examined.

Second, the use of the A.C.L., in conjunction with the H.B.I. allowed the researcher to examine the question of whether significant differences existed across behavior patterns and gender groups on measures of personality.

Specifically, in this research it was asked whether or not the H.B.I. behavior patterns and gender groups that emerged in this population differed on A.C.L. personality measures of: achievement, dominance, endurance, order, intraception, nurturance, affiliation, heterosexuality, exhibition, autonomy, aggression, change, succorance, abasement, deference, counseling readiness, self-control, self-confidence, personal adjustment, ideal self, creative personality, military leadership, masculine attributes, feminine attributes, critical parent, nurturing parent, adult, free child, and adapted child. Pilot research revealed significant differences between TA and FT groups, as assessed by the H.B.I., on several of these measures of personality.

Third, the use of the questionnaire in conjunction with the H.B.I. and A.C.L., allowed the researcher the opportunity to do two things. First, the researcher could test the hypothesis that students holding various theoretical orientations would differ significantly on measures of behavior from students holding other orientations. Second, the researcher could test the hypothesis that students holding certain theoretical orientations would differ significantly on measures of personality.

In summary, the researcher examined whether significant differences existed across a) behavior patterns and gender

groups on measures of personality, b) theoretical orientations held by students on measures of behavior and c) theoretical orientations held by students on measures of personality. In view of the current literature on counselor education that strongly advocates the development of prescriptive and trainee centered approaches to counselor education, attempts to systematically assess these measures and explore group differences on them seemed timely.

To fulfill these purposes a research design was developed. The design is presented in this chapter. Three aspects of the design will be addressed: instrumentation, subjects and procedures and the research questions with the analysis that is appropriate for each question.

Instrumentation

Three different instruments were used in this study: the Hutchins Behavior Inventory, the Adjective Check List, and the Modified Smith Questionnaire.

The Hutchins Behavior Inventory (H.B.I.)

Hutchins designed the H.B.I. to measure behavior. In defining behavior Hutchins (1986) observed that the term is variously interpreted by members of the helping profession. He suggested, "as it is used during the helping process, behavior includes a person's thoughts, feelings, and actions" (Hutchins & Cole, 1986, p. vi). These terms are

defined in the literature review.

Hutchins' theoretical approach to counseling was built around these thinking-feeling-acting dimensions. He called his approach the T-F-A system and offered it as a foundation for a systematic approach to the integration of major theories and techniques. Hutchins & Cole (1986) maintained that, "today's effective helping persons, who work in many different settings, must be able to recognize and use the complex interaction of thoughts, feelings and actions to help clients change behavior" (p. vii). The H.B.I. is at the heart of the T-F-A system and makes possible the assessment of these thinking-feeling-and acting dimensions of behavior.

Walker (1984), Wheeler (1986) and Mueller (1987) have conducted extensive research on the H.B.I. to establish its reliability and validity. Walker identified the 15 words that are used in the H.B.I. (see Appendix C). Five of these words represent thinking behavior, five represent feeling behavior, and five represent acting behavior. The pairing of all T, F, and A sets of words with one another resulted in the creation of 75 different pairs of items. One responds to the items by mentally selecting the word most characteristic of behavior in a specified situation, and then marking whether that word is somewhat, moderately, or very characteristic of behavior.

Walker investigated the reliability of the H.B.I. by examining the T-F-A frequency scores. Computation of the Cronbach coefficient alphas for each group's T, F, and A scores allowed her to examine the internal consistency of the T-F-A frequency scores. She additionally computed alphas for each group's T, F, and A retest scores. She derived alpha coefficients ranging from .78 to .98. On 15-minute and 16-day test-retest studies she obtained Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients that ranged from .84 to .93. Walker concluded that, "the results of this research indicate that the H.B.I. is a highly reliable method of assessing the thinking, feeling, and acting dimensions of a person's behavior in specific situations" (p. 31).

After Walker's study, Hutchins made some adjustments to the H.B.I. and brought it to its present form (Appendix D). Mueller (1987) investigated the situational specificity of the H.B.I. He found it to be very sensitive to the particular situation to which the person responds.

Wheeler (1986) conducted research on the H.B.I. by comparing the measurement properties of the H.B.I. with an alternative replication of the H.B.I. that he designed. He examined the reliability and validity of the scores produced by these two instruments. The H.B.I. yields three scores. Choice scores are derived by adding up the number of T or F

or A words chosen. Intensity scores are derived by summing the intensities assigned to all T words chosen and then dividing by the number of T words chosen. F and A intensity scores are derived in the same manner. Bipolar scores indicate the behavior domain the respondent selected: T vs A, A vs F, and F vs T. T-A bipolar scores are derived by counting the number of times the subject chose T words over A words when they appeared in combination. A-F and F-T bipolar scores are derived in the same way. The H.B.I. contains 25 TA word pairs, 25 AF word pairs, and 25 FT word pairs. Bipolar scores could then range from 0 to 25. The procedure for placing students in TA, AF, FT and TFA groups using the bipolar scores is explained in Appendix E.

Wheeler specifically investigated test-retest reliability for these H.B.I. scores. He derived reliability coefficients for 7-day, 14-day, and 28-day intervals. The range of the 7-day test-retest reliability coefficients derived from using the Pearson product moment correlation procedure was from .68 to .86. The range for the 14-day test-retest reliability coefficients was from .71 to .83. The range for the 28-day test-retest reliability coefficients was from .57 to .75. Wheeler concluded that, "the stability coefficients for the H.B.I. choice and bipolar scores were high enough to warrant the use of these scores for research purposes" (p. 102).

Walker established in her research the content-related validity of the H.B.I. Wheeler used a multitrait-multimethod validity matrix to investigate the construct-related validity of the H.B.I. scores. Wheeler concluded that, "the high convergent and low discriminant validity coefficients ...provide evidence that the HBI-I scores are measuring the thinking, feeling, and acting dimensions of behavior as hypothesized by Hutchins" (p. 103).

The Adjective Check List (A.C.L.)

The Adjective Check List was proposed originally in 1949 at the Institute of Personality Assessment and Research in Berkeley, California. The instrument was idiographic, in that it reflected personal saliency rather than competitive rank. It was normative because the choosing of one adjective had no automatic consequences for the choice of another.

Initially (1949) the A.C.L. consisted of approximately 125 adjectives which were selected from Cattell's (1946) description of the complete personality-sphere. The choice of terms was designed to reflect the theoretical viewpoints of such noteworthies as Freud, Jung, Mead, and Murray. The choice of words like stingy, rational, adaptable, and understanding, reflected the impress of their theoretical orientations upon the instrument. In 1950 the list con-

tained 279 words, in 1951 it expanded to 284, and in 1952 the list expanded to its present form with 300 terms.

Description of the A.C.L.

Thirty seven scales are recommended for scoring in the A.C.L. These scales encompass a wide range of personality factors and may be employed to compute "empirical distinctions between groups" (Gough and Heilbrun, 1980, p. 2). The scales employed in this study from the A.C.L. are found in Table 3.1. The scales are carefully defined in the manual. The manual definitions for variables used in this study are found in Appendix F. The A.C.L. must be computer scored. A one page printout is returned with standard scores for the various scales indicated. The A.C.L. is easy to administer to individuals as well as groups and takes the average graduate student approximately forty minutes.

Reliability coefficients for the scales on the A.C.L. showed a median of .76 for males and .75 for females. Test-retest correlations cited in the manual for a six month test interval showed a median of .65 for males and .71 for females. Gough and Heilbrun (1980) believed "the reliability estimates to be in the region of correlation commonly found for self-report inventories" (p. 30), and recommended the material for clinical research. A recent survey ranked the A.C.L. "26th in the list of the 100 most frequently used

Table 3.1. Scales Employed in this study from the Adjective Check List

Designation on the profile sheet		Variable Assessed
Group A		
1	ACH	Achievement
2.	DOM	Dominance
3.	END	Endurance
4.	ORD	Order
5.	INT	Intraception
6 .	NUR	Nurturance
7.	AFF	Affiliation
8.	HET	Heterosexuality
9.	EXH	Exhibition
10.	AUT	Autonomy
11.	AGG	Aggression
12.	CHA	Change
13.	SUC	Succorance
14.	ABA	Abasement
15.	DEF	Deference
Group B		
16.	CRS	Counseling Readiness
17.	S-CN	Self-Control
18.	S-CFD	Self-Confidence
19.	P-ADJ.	Personal Adjustment
20.	ISS	Ideal Self
21.	CPS	Creative Personality
22.	MLS	Military Leadership
23.	MAS	Masculine Attributes
24.	FEM	Feminine Attributes
25.	CP	Critical Parent
26.	NP	Nurturing Parent
27.	A	Adult
28.	FC	Free Child
29.	AC	Adapted Child

and cited tests in psychology" (Buros, 1978, p. 39). Gough and Heilbrun indicated in the A.C.L. manual that most content and construct validity studies done on the scales have supported the use of the scales and the theoretical expectations.

The Modified Smith Questionnaire (Questionnaire)

The Smith questionnaire has been selected for inclusion in this study because of its use in his landmark article on "Trends in Counseling and Psychotherapy" (Smith, 1982) and its relevance for this research project. The questionnaire was employed by Smith to collect data on the views of both clinical and counseling psychologists concerning the current trends in counseling and psychotherapy (see Appendix A).

The Smith Questionnaire reflected the Garfield and Kurtz (1976) desire to periodically survey existing trends in clinical psychology. Smith (1982) maintained that it was unfortunate that previous surveys of theoretical orientations had focused only on clinical psychologists (Garfield and Kurtz, 1974, 1976; Kelly, 1961), and sought to broaden that scope. The Smith questionnaire is specifically designed to ascertain which "emphases psychologists consider to best identify the current trends in therapy systems" (Smith, 1982, p. 803). Ambiguity regarding the status of therapy systems makes such ongoing surveys necessary

(Brammer, 1969; Patterson, 1973; Ivey, 1980; Brammer and Shostrom, 1982).

Smith employed a multiple choice format to obtain demographic data on sex, age, highest degree earned, primary emphasis in graduate study, divisional status in APA, years of psychological work, primary job, and theoretical orientation. Likert-type scales were used to gain respondents evaluations of the status of various schools in counseling and psychotherapy and the status of eclectic approaches to counseling and therapy. Another multiple-choice item was employed to identify the terms the respondents felt most characterized the current theoretical trends in counseling and psychotherapy. Respondents were also asked to rank order the three psychotherapists they considered to be the most influential. Finally, respondents were asked to designate the book that they considered to best represent the predominant emphasis in counseling and psychotherapy.

The modified Smith questionnaire was created to gather demographic data on the sample and make possible the assessment of views that were of particular significance for this study (see appendix B). Questions were added to the questionnaire that specifically addressed the issue of choosing between cognitive/thinking, affective/feeling, and behavioral/action approaches.

Additionally questions were reframed to allow students

the opportunity to express their theoretical orientation on a continuum rather than as a "one space phenomenon". This change has been made in response to Norcross's (1985) caution that,

> through their method of assessment, researchers may themselves be perpetuating the erroneous precept that orientations are singular and simplistic. Questionnaires typically permit only one space for the identification of a clinicians orientations. Asking a respondent to indicate the two or three orientations most like his/her own approach or requesting a short descriptive phrase or rank ordering of orientations would improve both specificity and accuracy in research (p. 15).

The questionnaire revealed the following demographic information concerning the sample. A total of 80 persons participated in this study. Table 3:2 contains the results of a crosstabulation procedure that was run on H.B.I. groups by sex. It revealed that the sample consisted of 23 females (28.7%) and 57 males (71,3%).

The students were divided into three age groups (see Appendix B, question 2). Twenty one were under thirty, forty six were between thirty and forty-five, and thirteen

Table 3:2. Crosstabulation: Group on H.B.I. By Sex

H.B.I. Behavior Pattern	Sex: Female 1	Sex: Male 2	Row Total
TA	4	15	19 23.8
AF	4	14	18 22.5
FT	9	19	28 35.0
TFA	6	9	15 18.8
Column Total	23 28.7	57 71.3	80 100.0

were over forty-five. Sixty-one of the students had completed a Bachelors degree, fourteen held a Master's degree and five had additional degree work beyond the Master's.

Students were asked to indicate their major field of study in the last degree they received (see Appendix B, question 4). Twenty indicated that their main field had been education, twenty indicated psychology, thirty-one religion, four science, four business, and one music.

Students reported membership in several professional organizations (see Appendix B, question 5). Eighteen students were members of the American Association for Counselor Development. One student was a member of the American Federation of Teachers and two were members of the National Education Association. One student was a member of the Music Educators Association. Two students were members of the American Association of Marriage and Family Counselors. Fifty-six students belonged to no professional organizations.

Students were asked to report on the number of years they had worked professionally (see Appendix B, question 7). Eight students indicated no professional work experience, twenty-six indicated one-five years, fifteen indicated six-ten years, thirteen indicated eleven-sixteen years and eighteen indicated over seventeen years of professional work

experience.

Students were asked to choose the term that best described their theoretical orientation (see Appendix B, question 8). Forty selected the term eclectic, three selected Adlerian, twelve selected behavioral, one selected reality, twelve selected cognitive-behavioral, and seven selected person-centered.

Students were asked to indicate their appraisal of the current status of exclusive schools of psychotherapy by circling the appropriate number on a rating scale from one-five (see Appendix B, question 9). Twelve selected one as their preference. This meant that in their opinion the days of schools in counseling and psychotherapy are virtually over. Thirty-nine selected three as their preference. This meant that in the opinion of these students exclusive systems are decreasing in popularity but still are very much alive. Twenty-seven selected two as their preference. These students were of the opinion that in reality the truth lies somewhere between the opinion that the days of schools are virtually over and alive although decreasing in popularity. Only two students expressed a preference for four and five on the scale. They were of the opinion that schools of psychotherapy are still alive or as popular as ever.

Students were also asked to use a scale to indicate

their evaluation of eclectic counseling and psychotherapy (see Appendix B, question 10). Two students selected one as their preference indicating that they believed eclecticism to be a worn out synonym for theoretical laziness and mediocrity. Thirteen students selected three as their preference indicating that they believed the eclectic approach was a superficial attempt to be open and pragmatic. Sixty-five students selected four and five as their preference. This indicated that the bulk of the students believed that eclecticism was the only means to a comprehensive psychotherapy.

The students were asked to choose the terms that they considered to be the most descriptive of the current trend in theoretical orientations to counseling and psychotherapy (see Appendix B, question 11). Seventeen chose the term technical eclecticism, thirty-one chose the term multimodalism, eleven chose creative synthesis, eight chose meta-modeling, one chose systems theory, six chose integration, and six chose emerging eclecticism.

The students were asked to indicate how many courses in counseling theory they had taken at the undergraduate and graduate levels (see Appendix B, question 12). At the undergraduate level fifteen indicated that they had one course, thirty-three indicated that they had taken two courses, seven indicated three courses, and thirteen

indicated they had taken four courses. At the graduate level eight students indicated they had taken one theories course, sixteen indicated two, twenty-nine indicated three, and twenty-seven indicated that they had taken four courses in counseling theory. The results of these questions is of little value since care was not taken to specify exactly what constituted a theories class. However, all graduate students had taken minimally a course in advanced counseling theories, a course in personality development and a practicum that required the application of various theoretical orientations to counseling cases.

The students were asked to rank order the persons who in their opinion were the most influential psychotherapists today (see Appendix B, question 13). The students listed fourteen therapists. Sixteen selected Rogers, thirteen Ellis, and nine selected Lazarus. The rest were scattered across the following psychotherapists: Adams, Crabb, Hutchins, Glasser, Freud, Adler, Skinner, Erikson, Maslow, Satir, and Minuchin.

The students were asked to give the single book that they considered to be the most representative of the present zeitgeist or predominant emphasis in counseling and psychotherapy (see Appendix B, question 14). Twenty-four chose Egan's, The skilled helper: A model for systematic helping and interpersonal relating. Sixteen chose

Norcross's, Handbook of eclectic psychotherapy. Fifteen chose Lazarus', The practice of multimodal therapy. The remaining choices were divided among tests authored by Corsini, Corey, Goldenberg and Satir.

Procedures

Subjects

The subjects for this study were students enrolled in the M.A. Counseling program at a private university. Subjects were enrolled in the practicum component of that program in the winter modular (January 6-18) or spring semester (January 20-May 2) of 1986. The practicum was taken at the end of their program of study. Demographic data for the subjects is included under the discussion of the questionnaire in this chapter.

Administration of the Instruments

The researcher supervised all of the testing. He was the instructor in charge of the practica in which these students participated. The following sequence of events led up to and informed the actual testing procedure.

First, five experienced counselor educators, all holding doctorates in counselor education or related fields, met with the researcher in November of 1985. The purpose of the meeting was to develop three contrived situations to be used with the Hutchins Behavior Inventory. The educators

discussed the difficulty of constructing situations in view of the current debate over the relationship between cognition and affect (Lazarus, 1984; Zajonc, 1984). The consensus among the counselor educators was that this debate will remain an ongoing one. However, it was felt that three scenarios could be established that called primarily for an informational-reasoning-thinking response, a supportive feeling response, and an overt action response from the counselor. These situations are described in Appendix H.

The fourth situation or the ideal situation required the students to envision themselves counseling the ideal client by their own definition. This served to identify the ordering of the T-F-A modalities that was most preferred by the individual student. This revealed what Lazarus (1984) labeled the normative "firing order" for the student. All statistical computations were calculated using the bipolar and choice scores derived from the administration of the H.B.I. specifying this ideal situation. The remaining three situations were designed to simulate respectively thinking, feeling, or action situations. It was reasoned that such a procedure served to identify the range of possible behavior patterns that might potentially emerge across a wide variety of situations.

Second, the scenarios designated by the experienced counselor educators were placed on cards. Additionally,

cards labeled respectively thinking response, feeling response, and action response were created. Five experienced counselors were asked to give what they deemed to be the best match between the scenarios and the labeled cards. The five counselors all rated the situations without difficulty. They rated each according to what they judged to be the best primary response called for under the T-F-A structure. The five counselors were in 100% agreement with the ratings assigned the scenarios by the counselor educators. This component of the research took place in December of 1985.

Third, the students involved in the practica were informed by the instructor that they were being asked to take part in a research project that was related to the instructors pursuit of an advanced graduate degree. The instructor read the material contained in appendix G to the students. This information was given to the students in the first class session that was held for each group in January of 1986. Assurance was given that the results of all testing would be held in confidence and that the instructor would be available to discuss their personal scores with them at the conclusion of the study. Students were assured that the testing would in no way affect their grade for the course. Students who did not wish to participate in the research project were allowed to dissent from involvement.

No student chose to not participate.

Fourth, students were randomly divided into three groups by means of a random numbers table. This was also done during the first class meeting with each group of students in January of 1986.

Fifth, at the beginning of the second, third and fourth class meetings for each group the students were tested with the H.B.I., A.C.L. and questionnaire according to the schedule contained in Table 3:3. This testing arrangement was employed to produce a counterbalancing effect. Christensen (1985) recommended counterbalancing as a method for controlling the effects of contingency variables that might introduce a significant level of error into the scores.

Sixth, students were divided into their groups and provided with the appropriate inventories along with pencils to complete the inventories. Instructions for the inventories were then read to the groups. Particular attention was given to the instruction on the H.B.I. that required the participants to picture themselves in a specific situation. The contrived situations developed by the experienced counselor educators was printed on the inventories. Students were given time to fill in the required information for each inventory and encouraged to ask questions that would clarify the testing procedure.

Table 3.3. Counterbalancing for the Administration of the Inventories

	Order of Inventory Administration		
	Test Situation Number 1 (First Class Meeting)	Test Situation Number 2 (Second Class Meeting)	Test Situation Number 3 (Third Class Meeting)
Group			
A	A.C.L. H.B.I.-1	Questionnaire H.B.I.-2	H.B.I.-Ideal H.B.I.-3
B	Questionnaire H.B.I.-2	H.B.I.-Ideal H.B.I.-3	A.C.L. H.B.I.-1
C	H.B.I.-Ideal H.B.I.-3	A.C.L. H.B.I.-1	Questionnaire H.B.I.-2

After these preliminary matters students were told to complete the inventories at a comfortable pace. A similar procedure was followed for each inventory.

Scoring of the Tests

The H.B.I. and the A.C.L. are computer scored instruments. The H.B.I. was scored by the (V.P.I.& SU) Learning Resources Center. The A.C.L. was scored by Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc. The questionnaire was scored manually by the researcher.

Research Questions, Hypotheses and Analysis of Data

The following questions guided the research and the following hypotheses were tested:

1. What behavior patterns emerged with Master's level counseling students who responded to the Hutchins Behavior Inventory with four different situations specified? The situations were established by five experienced counselor educators (see Appendix H) and were structured to represent the following situations.

a. Ideal situation

b. Thinking situation: calling initially for a thinking response.

c. Action situation: calling initially for an action response.

d. Feeling situation: calling initially for feeling response.

Numbers of male and female students in the various behavior patterns were noted and percentages in each group computed to answer this research question.

2. Was there a significant difference across behavior patterns on measures of personality when student behavior patterns were assessed using the H.B.I. with the ideal situation specified? The particular measures of personality that were examined in this study were derived from the A.C.L. and were specified in Table 3.1. Additionally, it was asked whether there was a significant difference across male-female groups on these same measures of personality.

The hypotheses tested were:

With respect to the H.B.I. behavior patterns derived from specifying the ideal situation there were no significant differences across groups on the A.C.L. personality measure specified.

With respect to male-female groups there were no significant differences across groups on the A.C.L. personality measure specified.

For research questions two, three and four, a series of One Way Analyses of Variance (ANOVA) were run to test the null hypotheses. The alpha level was set at the .05 level of significance. When significant differences across the groups were found the Tukey post hoc multiple comparison test was used to determine which means differed significantly from one another.

3. Was there a significant difference across theoretical orientations on measures of behavior, when theoretical orientations were assessed by means of the questionnaire, and measures of behavior were assessed by means of the H.B.I. with the ideal situation specified?

The hypotheses to be tested were:

For this group of students there were no significant differences across theoretical orientations on measures of behavior.

The specific questions from the questionnaire that were used in the analyses were questions eight and fifteen.

4. Was there a significant difference across theoretical orientations on measures of personality, when theoretical orientations were assessed by means of the question-

naire, and measures of personality were assessed by means of the A.C.L.?

The theoretical orientations used in the analyses were drawn from questions 8 and 15. The particular personality measures used in the analyses were specified in Table 3.1.

The hypotheses to be tested were that no significant differences on the specified personality measures existed across students who were grouped according to their preference for a particular theoretical orientation.

Chapter Four

Results and Discussion

Research Question One

The first research question examined the issue of what behavior pattern preferences would emerge when students responded to the H.B.I. with four situations specified, and whether the percentage of men and women in these groups would be different. The crosstabs procedure was used to answer this research question. The procedures involved the crosstabulation of behavior group by situation and behavior group by sex. The procedures were run using SPSS-PC+. The results of all procedures are available upon request from the researcher.

A crosstabulation procedure was run on the behavior groups TA, AF, FT and TFA by ideal situation. Table 4:1 contains the results of this crosstabulation procedure. In the ideal situation 35% chose a feeling-thinking response, 23.8% a thinking-acting response, 22.5% an acting-feeling response, and 18.8% a thinking-feeling-acting response.

Another crosstabulation procedure was run on the behavior groups TA, AF, FT, and TFA by situation one, designed to evoke a thinking response. Table 4:1 contains the results of this crosstabulation procedure. In this situation 40% of the total group chose a thinking-acting response, 30% chose thinking-feeling-acting, 16.3% chose

Table 4:1. Crosstabulation: Group on HBI by Situations

HBI Situation	Ideal	One*	Two**	Three***
HBI Behavior Pattern				
TFA	15 18.8	24 30.0	21 26.3	10 12.5
FT	28 35.0	13 16.3	21 26.3	34 42.5
AF	18 22.5	11 13.8	35 43.8	32 40.0
TA	19 23.8	32 40.0	3 3.8	4 5.0
Column Total	80 100%	80 100%	80 100%	80 100%

* Thinking Oriented Situation
** Action Oriented Situation
*** Feeling Oriented Situation

feeling-thinking, and 13.8% chose an acting-feeling response. Thus, 86.2% reacted to the thinking oriented situation with H.B.I. responses that contained a thinking oriented pattern (TFA, FT, or TA).

Another crosstabulation procedure was run on the behavior groups TA, AF, FT, and TFA by situation two, designed to evoke an action-oriented response. Table 4:1 contains the results of this crosstabulation procedure. In situation two, 43.8% of the group chose to respond with an acting-feeling orientation, 26.3% feeling-thinking, 26.3% thinking-feeling-acting, and 3.8% thinking-acting. Thus, 73.7% chose a response to the action oriented situation that contained action as one of the preferred response modalities (AF, TFA, or TA).

A crosstabulation was run on groups TA, AF, FT and TFA by situation three, designed to evoke a feeling response (Table 4:1) In situation three 42.5% of the group responded to the H.B.I. with a feeling-thinking pattern, 40% with acting-feeling, 12.5% thinking-feeling-acting, and 5% with a thinking-acting orientation. Thus, 95% of the respondents reacted to the feeling-oriented situation by choosing a response that contained feeling as one of the preferred response modalities (FT, AF, or TFA).

Another crosstabulation procedure was run for the four groups in the ideal situation by sex. Table 4:2 shows for

Table 4:2. Crosstabulation: Hutchins Behavior Pattern Across Situations By Sex

Situation		Ideal		One (Thinking Response)		Two (Acting Response)		Three (Feeling Response)	
Sex		Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
HBI Behavior Patterns	TFA	6 * 26.1**	9 15.8	7 30.4	17 29.8	8 34.8	13 22.8	3 13.0	7 12.3
	FT	9 39.1	19 33.3	8 34.8	5 8.8	8 34.8	13 22.8	8 34.8	26 45.6
	AF	4 17.4	14 24.6	3 13.0	8 14.0	7 30.4	28 49.1	11 47.8	21 36.8
	TA	4 17.4	15 26.3	5 21.7	27 47.4	0 0	3 5.3	1 4.3	3 5.3

* Count
** Column percentage

those who responded with a TA response in the ideal situation 17.4% were female and 26.3% male; AF responses were 17.4% female and 24.6% male; FT responses were 39.1% female and 33.3% male; and TFA responses in the ideal situation were 26.1% female and 15.8% male. Females reacting in the ideal situation were more likely to combine thinking with feeling (TFA, FT) than males who preferred combining action with thinking or feeling (TA, AF).

Situation one was structured to elicit a cognitive response from the student. Table 4:2 contains the results of this crosstabulation procedure by sex. For those who responded with a TA response 21.7% were female and 47.4% male; AF responses were 13% female and 14% male; FT responses were 34.8% female and 8.8% male; and TFA responses were 30.4% female and 29.8% were male. Again, males seemed to show a greater preference for the use of the action modality than did the females. Males seemed to combine the thinking element with the action element more so than their female peers who seemed to prefer combining the thinking element with the feeling element.

A crosstabulation procedure was run for the behavior groups in situation two by sex. Situation two was structured to elicit an action-oriented response from the student. Table 4:2 shows that for those who responded with a TA response 0% were female and 5.3% were male; AF respon

ses were 30.4% female and 49.1% male; FT responses were 34.8% female and 22.8% male; and TFA responses were 34.8% female and 22.8% male. Males showed a greater preference for combining action with feeling. Females preferred to combine action with thinking-feeling. They reacted more frequently in the action oriented situation with a feeling-thinking response. Only males combined acting with thinking alone.

A crosstabulation procedure was run for the behavior groups in situation three, structured to elicit an affective response, by sex (Table 4:2). For those who responded with a TA response 4.3% were female and 5.3% were male; AF responses were 47.8% female and 36.8% male; FT responses were 34.8% female and 45.6% male; and TFA responses were 13% female and 12.3% male. Males expressed a preference for combining feeling with thinking, while females preferred to combine feeling with action.

Research Question Two

The second research question involved assessing the differences across behavior patterns on measures of personality when student behavior patterns were assessed using the H.B.I. with the ideal situation specified. The particular measures of personality that were examined were derived from the Adjective Check List, and are specified in

Table 3.2.

The hypotheses to be tested were: With respect to the H.B.I. behavior patterns derived from specifying the ideal situation, there were no significant differences across groups on the specified A.C.L. personality measures. Additionally, the researcher examined the issue of whether significant differences across the personality measures could be accounted for using sex as the independent variable and the A.C.L. measure as the dependent variable.

To answer the first part of this research question a series of One Way Anovas were run. The H.B.I. group was the independent variable and the A.C.L. score for the particular measure was the dependent variable. The Bartlett-Box F was used to examine the issue of homogeneity of cell variances for these and all Anova's used in this study. All Anova's included in the study yielded a probability >.05 when this homogeneity of variance test was used. The null hypothesis of non-homogeneity of cell variance was then rejected. Significant differences were noted on several A.C.L. variables and the null hypothesis was rejected. In each case, when significant differences were observed at the .05 level of significance or less, the Tukey multiple comparison procedure was used to discover which H.B.I. groups were significantly different from one another.

Since A.C.L. scores were reported as standard scores,

the issue of statistical and practical significance must be addressed. Some differences were statistically significant but not practically significant since they did not lie at least one standard deviation from the mean. Only variables that were both statistically and practically significant were included in this study. In the following discussion these variables will be examined. In each case the variable will be stated and defined, the significance level for the differences stated, the results in terms of group means and the direction of the differences given, and a summary statement concerning the data will be presented.

Achievement is defined as the need to strive for outstanding performance in areas that are recognized to be socially significant. There was a difference across the behavior pattern groups on the measure of the need for Achievement at a significance level of .0000. The following chart summarizes the H.B.I. group differences on the dependent variable of Achievement.

A.C.L. Score		H.B.I. Group Behavior Patterns			
Achievement		TA	AF	FT	TFA
FT	48.75				
AF	57.00				
TFA	58.13				
TA	66.37		*	*	*

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that

students who showed a preference for the FT, AF and TFA patterns were significantly lower in their need for Achievement than their peers who showed a preference for the TA pattern. The preference for patterns containing the action component was accompanied consistently by higher Achievement scores. The highest Achievement scores were obtained by those students who expressed a preference for the TA pattern.

Dominance is defined as the need to seek and maintain the role of the leader in groups. It also involves the need to be influential and controlling in relationships. There was a difference across behavior pattern groups on the measure of the need for Dominance at a significance level of .0000. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Dominance.

A.C.L. Score	H.B.I. Group Behavior Patterns			
Dominance	TA	AF	FT	TFA
FT 46.50				
TFA 54.33				
AF 55.78				
TA 64.74		*	*	*

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who indicated a preference for the FT,

TFA, and AF behavior patterns were significantly lower in their need to control relationships than their peers who preferred the TA pattern. The preference for patterns containing the action component was accompanied by higher dominance scores. The presence of the feeling component in the behavior pattern preference served to moderate the student's Dominance score. The highest Dominance scores were achieved by students who preferred the TA pattern.

Endurance is defined as the need to persist in the performance of a task until it is brought to completion. There was a difference across behavior patterns on the measure of the need for Endurance at a significance level of .0001. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Endurance.

A.C.L. Score	H.B.I. Group Behavior Pattern
Endurance	TA AF FT TFA
FT 51.54	
AF 57.61	
TFA 58.13	
TA 62.68	*

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who preferred a pattern of behavior that

combined thinking and acting orientations were significantly higher in their need to persist in tasks than their peers who preferred, in the ideal situation, to operate from a pattern of behavior combining thinking and feeling.

Order is defined as the need to place special emphasis on neatness, planning and organization as one approaches the activities of life. There was a difference across behavior patterns on the measure of the need for Order at a significance level of .0025. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Order.

A.C.L. Score	H.B.I. Group Behavior Pattern			
Order	TA	AF	FT	TFA
FT 52.71				
AF 56.06				
TFA 58.20				
TA 62.05			*	

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who expressed a preference for a behavior pattern combining thinking with acting were significantly higher in their need to plan and organize their work than their peers who expressed a preference for a behavior pattern that combined thinking and feeling.

Nurturance is defined as the need to engage in behaviors that provide for the emotional and material benefits of others. There was a difference across behavior patterns on the measure of the need for Nurturance at a significance level of .0001. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Nurturance.

A.C.L. Score		H.B.I. Group Behavior Groups			
Nurturance		TA	AF	FT	TFA
TA	48.53				
FT	55.96				
TFA	56.87				
AF	60.84		*		

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who expressed a preference for the TA behavior pattern were significantly lower in their need to provide emotional benefit to others than were their peers who preferred to respond from the AF behavior pattern. The preference for patterns containing the feeling component was accompanied by higher Nurturance scores. Those students who had the greatest need to provide emotional benefit for others expressed a preference for combining acting with feeling.

Affiliation is defined as the need to seek out and

maintain numerous close relationships with people. There was a difference across the behavior patterns on the measure of the need for Affiliation at a significance level of .0023. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Affiliation.

A.C.L. Score	H.B.I. Group Behavior Patterns			
Affiliation	TA	AF	FT	TFA
TA 51.84				
FT 55.54				
TFA 58.60				
AF 60.56	*			

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who preferred to combine thinking and acting while responding to clients in the ideal situation were significantly lower in their need for close relationships than their peers who preferred to respond to their clients with a combination of acting-feeling behaviors. The presence of the feeling component was accompanied by higher scores on affiliation. The highest scores on affiliation were obtained by students who preferred to act and feel without the presence of the thinking component.

Succorance is defined as the need to solicit emotional

support and affection from others. There was a difference across the behavior patterns on the measure of the need for Succorance at a significance level of .0004. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Succorance.

A.C.L. Score	H.B.I. Group Behavior Patterns			
Succorance	TA	AF	FT	TFA
TA 39.16				
AF 45.28				
TFA 45.60				
FT 49.32	*			

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who preferred to combine patterns containing thinking and acting were significantly lower in their need for the emotional support and affection of others than their peers who expressed a preference for responding with behavior patterns that combined the thinking response with the feeling component.

Abasement is defined as the need to express feelings of self-depreciation through self-criticism, guilt, or social impotence. There was a difference across the behavior patterns on the measure of the need for Abasement at the .0000 level of significance. The following chart summarizes

the group differences on the dependent variable of Abasement.

A.C.L. Score		H.B.I. Group Behavior Pattern			
Abasement		TA	AF	FT	TFA
TA	36.89				
TFA	48.20	*			
AF	48.44	*			
FT	53.04	*			

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who expressed a preference for the TFA, AF, and FT behavior patterns were significantly higher in their need to participate in self-depreciating behaviors than their peers who preferred patterns that combined the thinking and acting dimensions of behavior. The presence of the feeling component in the preferred behavior pattern was accompanied by higher scores on abasement. The presence of the action component in the preferred behavior pattern was accompanied by lower abasement scores with the lowest scores on abasement being obtained by those who preferred the thinking-acting behavior pattern.

The high scorer on Self-Confidence is apt to be an initiator. He is confident of his ability to achieve goals.

Low scorers on this variable tend to experience difficulty with the organization of resources for action. They are often viewed as inhibited and withdrawn. There was a difference across the behavior patterns on the measure of Self-Confidence at a significance level of .0000. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Self-Confidence.

A.C.L. Score		H.B.I. Group Behavior Pattern			
Self-Confidence		TA	AF	FT	TFA
FT	46.36				
TFA	55.13				
AF	57.67				
TA	62.79			*	*

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who expressed a preference for the TA behavior pattern obtained significantly higher scores on Self-Confidence than their peers who chose the FT behavior pattern. Students who expressed a preference for the TFA behavior pattern that included the thinking-feeling pattern in combination with the action component obtained significantly lower scores on Self-Confidence than their peers who expressed a preference for the TA behavior pattern. The presence of the action component in the pattern preference served to

indicate an increased level of Self-Confidence. The highest scores on Self-Confidence were obtained by those students who preferred to think and act without feeling. The presence of the feeling component in the behavior pattern preference was accompanied by lower scores on Self-Confidence. The students with the lowest level of Self-Confidence were those who preferred to feel and think without acting.

The high scorer on the Ideal-Self Scale is characterized by interpersonal effectiveness and goal attaining abilities. Some narcissistic ego inflation accompanies these characteristics. Low scorers on the Ideal-Self Scale appear to have low morale and feel defeated by life. They also find it difficult to set and attain goals. There was a difference across the behavior patterns on the measure of Ideal-Self at a significance level of .0000. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Ideal-Self.

A.C.L. Score	H.B.I. Group Behavior Pattern			
Ideal-self	TA	AF	FT	TFA
FT 51.07				
TFA 56.20				
AF 58.61				
TA 63.00			*	

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who indicated a preference for the TA behavior pattern were significantly higher in their goal attaining abilities and interpersonal effectiveness than their peers who indicated a preference for the FT behavior pattern.

The high scorer on the Masculine Attribute Scale will be seen as ambitious, impatient when blocked, quick to take the initiative, and stubbornly goal oriented. The low scorer will be seen as kind and considerate.

There was a difference across the behavior patterns on the measure of Masculine Attribute at a significance level of .0000. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Masculine Attribute.

A.C.L. Score		H.B.I. Group Behavior Pattern			
Masculine attribute		TA	AF	FT	TFA
FT	45.57				
AF	50.94				
TFA	55.27				
TA	65.79		*	*	*

Summary: Students who preferred the TA pattern were significantly more ambitious and goal oriented than their peers who preferred the FT, AF, and TFA patterns. Students who preferred the FT, AF, and TFA behavior patterns were sig-

nificantly less goal oriented in their behavior and impatient when blocked than their peers who preferred the TA behavior pattern. The students who preferred the FT behavior pattern were the least goal oriented while the preference for patterns containing the acting component was accompanied by higher Masculine Attribute scores. The highest scores were obtained by students who preferred the TA pattern.

The high-scorer on the Critical Parent Scale is easily angered, often indifferent to the interests of others, and self serving. Low-scorers are more interdependent and tolerant of the weaknesses of others. There was a difference across the behavior patterns on the measure of Critical Parent at a significance level of .0000. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Critical Parent.

A.C.L. Score	H.B.I. Group Behavior Pattern			
Critical parent	TA	AF	FT	TFA
FT 42.21				
TFA 44.60				
AF 46.56				
TA 60.21		*	*	*

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that

students who expressed a preference for the TA pattern were significantly less interdependent and concerned for the interests of others than their peers who expressed a preference for the FT, TFA, and AF behavior patterns. The presence of the feeling component in the preferred behavior pattern was accompanied by a greater tolerance for the weaknesses of others and a higher commitment to interdependent behaviors. Students who preferred the FT behavior patterns with the absence of the action component obtained the lowest scores on the Critical Parent scale.

The high-scorer on the Adult Scale is work-centered, and ambitious, but at the cost of spontaneity. The low-scorer is more relaxed but less effective in coping with the demands of work.

There was a difference across the behavior patterns on the measure of the Adult Scale at a significance level of .0041. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of Adult Scale.

A.C.L. Score	H.B.I. Group Behavior Pattern
Adult scale	TA AF FT TFA
FT 53.11	
AF 58.72	
TFA 59.00	
TA 61.68	*

Summary: Students who expressed a preference for the TA pattern were significantly more ambitious and less relaxed then their peers who expressed a preference for the FT behavior pattern. The preference for the TA behavior pattern served to indicate a greater orientation toward ambitious behaviors performed by persons who were less relaxed, spontaneous, and sensitive to the needs of those around them. The preference for the FT behavior pattern was accompanied by a more relaxed approach to life but this was combined with greater difficulty in meeting the demands of life.

High scorers on the Adapted Child Scale experience difficulty in setting aside childhood roles, and lack independence. The low scorer is autonomous, inconsiderate, and oriented toward power. There was a difference across the behavior patterns on the measure of Adapted Child at a significance level of .0023. The following chart summarizes

the group differences on the dependent variable of Adapted Child.

A.C.L. Score		H.B.I. Group Behavior Pattern			
Adapted child		TA	AF	FT	TFA
TA	38.74				
TFA	40.27				
AF	41.83				
FT	46.71	*			*

Summary: Students who expressed a preference for the TA behavior pattern were significantly more autonomous and oriented toward power than their peers who expressed a preference for the FT behavior pattern. The preference for the thinking-acting pattern is again associated with a more autonomous and aggressive orientation. The preference for the feeling-thinking pattern was associated with a lack of independence and difficulty in setting aside childhood roles.

One Way Analyses of Variance were also run on each of the A.C.L. variables specified in Table 3.2 using the personality measure as the dependent variable and sex of the student as the independent variable. The researcher wished to reject the null hypothesis of no difference on the A.C.L. measures across the sex groups. Such a difference, should

it exist, would be important to appreciate in the educational process. The null hypothesis was rejected and the following are the A.C.L. measures that differed at a significance level of .05 or less across sexual groups. The analyses revealed that males were significantly higher than females on measures of dominance, exhibition, autonomy, aggression, and free child. Females were significantly higher than males on the measures of abasement, deference, and self control. Results were statistically but not practically significant since no means were outside of plus or minus one standard deviation. However, many of the means were outside of these limits when the confidence intervals were examined and these measures should be taken into consideration by counselor educators. The following chart summarizes the male-female group differences on the A.C.L. variables.

A.C.L. Variable	Male-Female Group Means	Level of Difference
Dominance	M=55.93 F=50.57	.0220
Exhibition	M=48.39 F=43.83	.0413
Autonomy	M=47.25 F=42.78	.0429
Aggression	M=48.68 F=42.57	.0109
Free Child	M=52.14 F=47.61	.0325
Abasement	M=45.19 F=52.39	.0019
Deference	M=51.58 F=57.04	.0143
Self-Control	M=51.14 F=57.52	.0043

Research Question Three

The third research question involved testing the

hypothesis of no significant difference across theoretical orientations on measures of student behavior. Student behavior measures were assessed using the H.B.I. with the ideal situation specified. Theoretical orientations were derived from the questionnaire. The specific questions from the questionnaire used in the analyses were eight and fifteen.

A series of One Way Analyses of Variance were run and analyzed to test the various hypotheses of no significant differences across the theoretical orientations for measures of student behavior. The null hypothesis was rejected as a result of these procedures. When differences in behavior measures were found, the Tukey post hoc multiple comparison test was employed to discover exactly what groups were significantly different from one another.

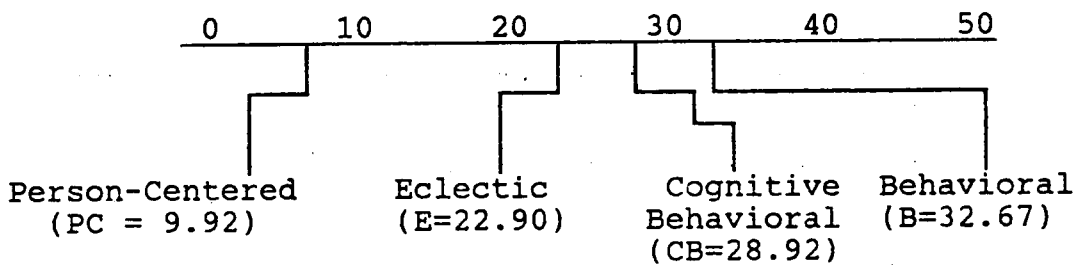
Questionnaire Question Eight

8.a) Students were asked in question eight to choose the term that best represented their theoretical orientation. A One Way Analysis of Variance was run using the student's expressed preference for theoretical orientation as the independent variable and the acting choice score as the dependent variable. Many orientations were selected by one or two students but only four of the orientations were selected with a frequency that was large enough to warrant

their inclusion for data analysis with the anova procedure. These orientations were the person-centered, eclectic, cognitive-behavioral, and behavioral orientations. The acting choice score was obtained from the H.B.I. and can range from 0-50. It was derived by adding up the number of acting words chosen by the student.

Significant differences across the groups were found for the acting and feeling, but not for the thinking choice scores. The analysis yielded a difference on the acting choice score across the groups at a significance level of .0000. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent variable of the acting choice score.

8.a) H.B.I. Acting Choice Score



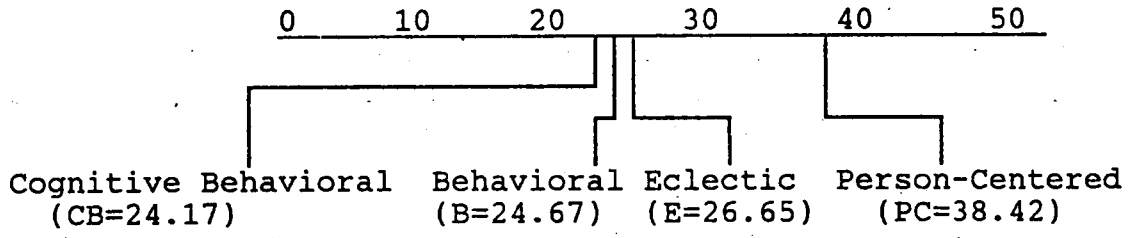
PC ** < E, CB, B and E ** < B
** = p < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who indicated a preference for the person-centered orientation were significantly lower in their preference for H.B.I. acting terms

than were those who indicated a preference for eclectic, cognitive-behavioral, and behavioral orientations. Students who preferred the behavioral orientation were significantly higher in their choice of acting terms from the H.B.I. than were those students who preferred the eclectic theoretical orientation. Behavioral orientations were associated with a greater preference for an action orientation. The eclectic orientation contains some moderating element that make its adherents less action oriented than their behavioral peers.

8.b) Another anova was run using the same theoretical orientations outlined in part (a) of question eight as the independent variable and the H.B.I. feeling choice score as the dependent variable. The feeling choice score was obtained from the H.B.I. and can range from 0-50. It was derived by adding up the number of feeling words chosen by the student. The analysis yielded a difference on the dependent measure across the orientation groups at a significance level of .0119. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of the feeling choice score.

8.b) H.B.I. Feeling Choice Score



PC * > CB, B, E
* = p < .05

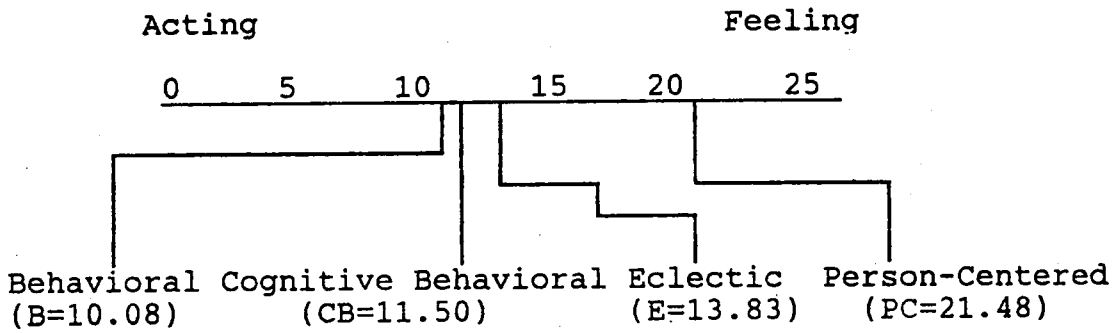
Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who indicated a preference for the person-centered orientation were significantly higher in their preference for H.B.I. feeling terms than were those students who indicated a preference for cognitive behavioral, behavioral, and eclectic orientations. Students who preferred the behavioral and eclectic orientations showed a significantly lower preference for the choice of feeling terms when responding to the H.B.I.

8.c) Anovas were run using the student's expressed preference for a theoretical orientation outlined in question 8.a) as the independent variable and the Hutchins bipolar scores as the dependent variables. The thinking-acting bipolar score was obtained from the H.B.I. by counting the number of times the student chose T words over A words when they appeared in combination. A-F and F-T

bipolar scores were derived in the same manner. Bipolar scores can range from 0-25. Significant differences across the groups were obtained for the A-F and T-A bipolar scores. No significant differences on the F-T bipolar scores were found across the theoretical orientations.

The anova using the student's expressed preference for a theoretical orientation as the independent variable and the Hutchins bipolar score with acting-feeling as the dependent variable yielded a difference on the dependent measure across the groups at a significance level of .0016. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the bipolar acting-feeling score.

8.c) Bipolar Score Acting-Feeling



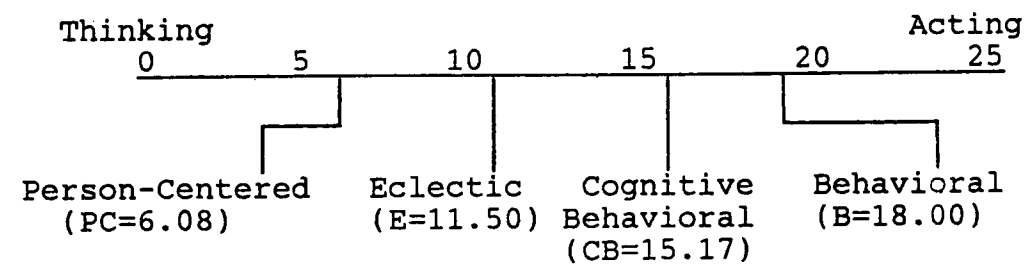
PC ** > E, CB, and B
** = P < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who expressed a preference for a person-centered theoretical orientation obtained a sig-

nificantly higher feeling score when the choice was between feeling and acting, than did those students who preferred a behavioral, cognitive-behavioral, and eclectic theoretical orientation. The eclectic, behavioral, and cognitive behavioral groups showed a significantly higher preference for acting terms when the choice was between acting and feeling terms.

8.d) An anova was run using the student's expressed preference for a theoretical orientation (identified in 8.a) as the independent variable and the Hutchins' bipolar score with thinking vs. acting as the dependent variable. The analysis yielded a difference on the dependent measure across the orientation groups at a significance level of .0001. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the thinking-acting bipolar scores.

8.d) Bipolar Thinking-Acting Score



PC ** < CB, B and E ** < B
** = p < .01

Summary: Students who expressed a preference for a person-centered orientation obtained a significantly lower acting score when the choice was between thinking and acting than did their peers who expressed a preference for the cognitive-behavioral and behavioral orientations. The person-centered students preferred to employ thinking terms in such situations while their peers who chose the cognitive-behavioral and behavioral orientations preferred to employ acting terms. Students who expressed a preference for the eclectic orientation obtained a significantly lower acting score than did their peers who preferred the behavioral orientations when the choice was between thinking and acting terms. Counseling students who chose the eclectic orientation were inclined to prefer to think more than act, whereas the students who preferred the cognitive-behavioral and behavioral orientation were more disposed to action.

Questionnaire Question Fifteen

Question fifteen on the questionnaire consisted of three parts. The students were asked to circle the number on each of three continuums that best indicated their

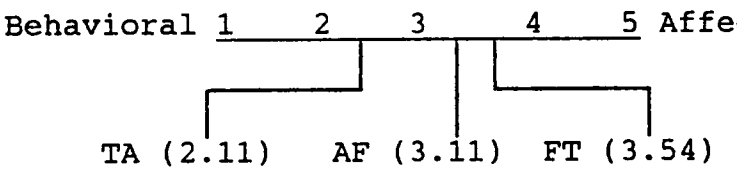
personal approach (in terms of theory and technique) to working with people in a helping relationship. Each continuum was numbered from one through five. The three individual continuums were a) cognitive approaches vs. behavioral approaches b) behavioral approaches vs. affective approaches and c) affective approaches vs. cognitive approaches.

15.a) A One Way Analysis of Variance was run using the H.B.I. behavior pattern as the independent variable and the student's approach (in terms of theory and technique) to working with people on the cognitive-behavioral continuum as the dependent variable. No significant differences at the .05 level of significance were found on the dependent measure across the H.B.I. behavior patterns on the student's preference for theories and techniques when the choice was made between cognitive and behavioral theories and techniques.

15.b) A One Way Analysis of Variance was run using the H.B.I. behavior pattern as the independent variable and the student's approach (in terms of theory and technique) to working with people on a behavioral - affective continuum as the dependent variable. The analysis yielded a difference on the dependent measure across the groups at a significance level of .0000. The following chart summarizes the group

differences on the dependent measure of student preference when the choice was made between behavioral vs. affective approaches to helping people.

b) H.B.I. Behavior on choice of approach to helping



TA ** < AF, FT
** = p < .01

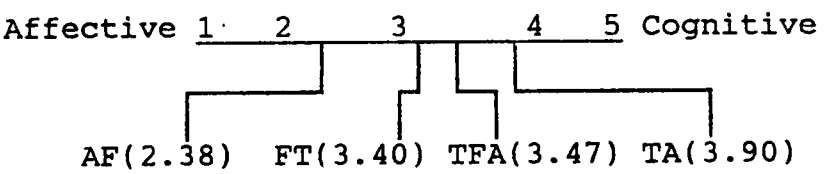
Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who indicated a preference for the AF and FT behavior patterns were significantly higher in their preference for employing affective approaches while working with people in helping relationships than were their peers who indicated a preference for the TA pattern. Students who indicated a preference for the TA behavior pattern expressed a significantly greater preference for employing behavioral approaches in helping relationships when the choice was between behavioral vs. affective approaches.

15.c) A One Way Analysis of Variance was run using the H.B.I. behavior pattern as the independent variable and the

student's approach (in terms of theory and technique) to working with people as the dependent variable. Here the choice was made from a continuum with affective approaches at one end and cognitive approaches at the other. The analysis yielded a difference across the groups on the dependent measure at a significance level of .0000.

The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of students preferences when the choice was made between affective vs. cognitive approaches to helping people.

15.c) H.B.I. Behavior patterns on choice of approach to helping



AF ** < FT, TFA, TA
** = p < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students who preferred the FT, TFA, and TA behavior patterns were significantly higher in their commitment to cognitive approaches to helping people than their peers who preferred the AF behavior pattern when the choice was between affective and cognitive approaches. The students who preferred the AF behavior pattern were

significantly higher in their preference for affective theories and techniques to undergird the helping relationship than were the students who preferred the FT, TFA, and TA behavior patterns. The presence of the thinking component in the H.B.I. behavior pattern does seem to reflect a preference for employing cognitive approaches while participating in helping relationships. The lack of the thinking component in the H.B.I. pattern and the presence of the feeling component was accompanied here by an expressed preference for affective approaches.

Research Question Four

The fourth research question involved testing the hypothesis of no significant difference across theoretical orientations on measures of personality when theoretical orientations were assessed by means of the questionnaire and measures of personality were assessed by means of the A.C.L.

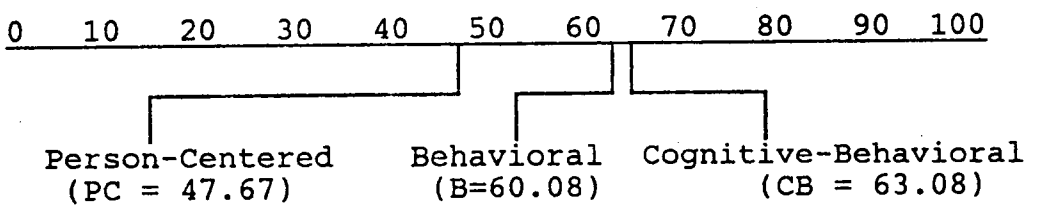
The theoretical orientations used in the analyses were drawn from questions eight and fifteen. The particular personality measures used in the analyses were specified in Table 3:2. Students were asked in question eight to choose the term that best represented their theoretical orientation. Theoretical orientations that received enough support

in question eight to be used in the anova procedures were the person-centered, eclectic, behavioral, and cognitive-behavioral orientations. Anovas were run and analyzed to test the various hypotheses. The null hypothesis was rejected as a result of these procedures and the Tukey post hoc multiple comparison test was employed to discover exactly what groups were significantly different from one another.

Questionnaire Question Eight

The anova with Achievement as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the groups at a significance level of .0005. The following chart summarizes the differences on the dependent measure of achievement across the theoretical orientations.

A.C.L. Achievement Score



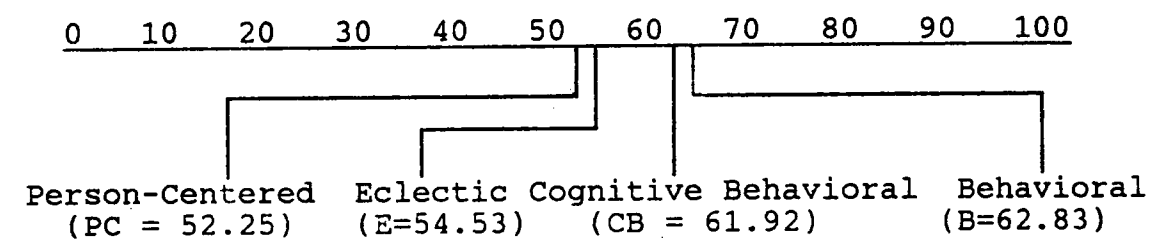
PC ** < B, CB
*** = P < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that the students in the person-centered group were

significantly lower in their need for Achievement than were their peers who expressed a preference for behavioral and cognitive-behavioral orientations. The behavioral orientations were accompanied by a greater need for achievement. Again, only differences on A.C.L. variables that were both statistically and practically significant will be reported.

The anova with Endurance as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the groups at a significance level of .0011. The following chart summarizes the differences on the dependent measure across the theoretical orientations.

A.C.L. Endurance Score



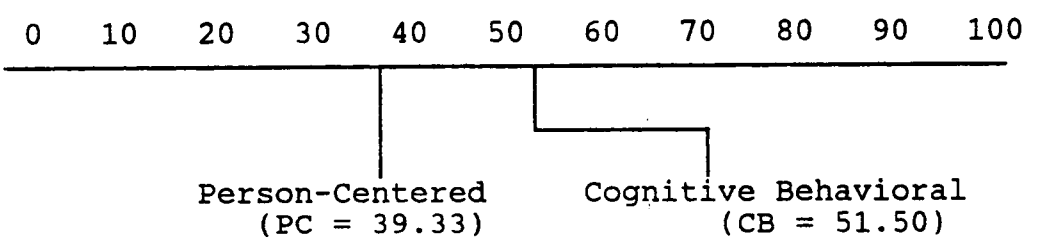
PC ** < CB, B and E ** < B
** = P < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that the students in the person-centered group were significantly lower in the need to persist in the

performance of a task until it was brought to completion than were the students who indicated a preference for the cognitive-behavioral and behavioral orientations. Additionally, the students who indicated a preference for the eclectic orientation were significantly lower in the need for persistance in goal oriented behaviors than were the students who selected the behavioral orientation.

The anova with Aggression as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the groups at a significance level of .0073. The following chart summarizes the differences on the dependent measure across the groups.

A.C.L. Score on Aggression



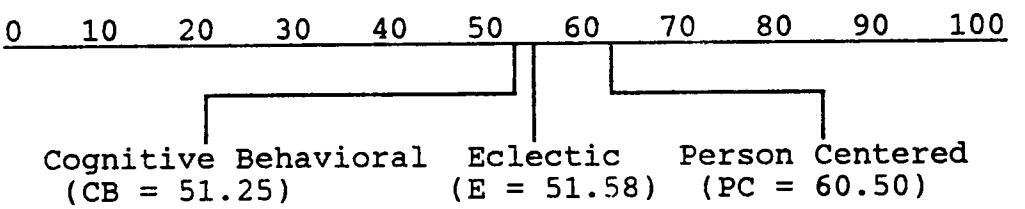
PC ** < CB
** = P < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that the students who expressed a preference for the person-centered orientation were significantly

lower in their need to engage in behaviors that were injurious to others than were their peers who expressed a preference for the cognitive-behavioral orientation. The students who preferred the cognitive-behavioral orientation showed a significantly greater need for aggressive behavior than students who preferred the person-centered orientation.

The anova with Self-Control as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the groups at a significance level of .0012. The following chart summarizes the differences on the dependent measure across the groups:

A.C.L. Score on Self-Control



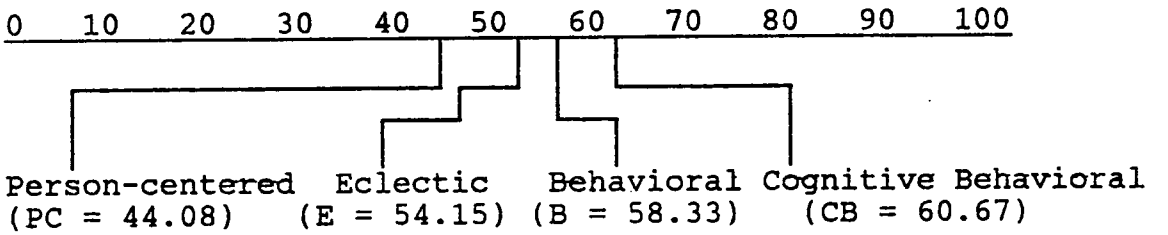
PC ** > CB, E
** = P < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that the students who expressed a preference for the person-centered orientation showed a greater need for diligence and giving careful attention to duty

at the expense of spontaneity and the enhancement of the self than did their peers who expressed a preference for the cognitive-behavioral and eclectic orientations. The students in the cognitive-behavioral and eclectic groups were capable of greater spontaneity and more able to participate in self enhancement than their peers who chose the person-centered orientations.

The anova with Self-Confidence as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the groups at a significance level of .0001. The following chart summarizes the differences on the dependent measure across the groups.

A.C.L. Score on Self-Confidence



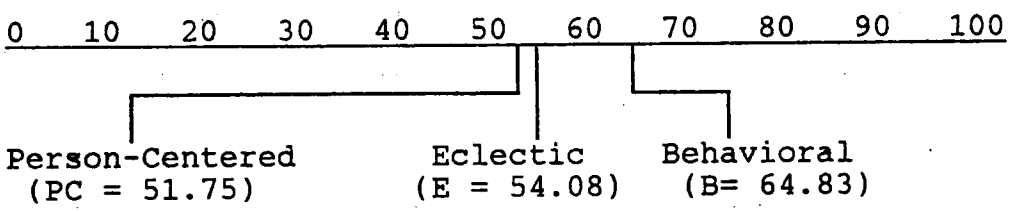
PC ** < E, B, CB
** = P < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that the students who selected the person-centered orientation to designate their preference for a theoretical orientation had a significantly lower

level of confidence in their ability to achieve goals. They also tended to experience more difficulty with organizing resources for action than did their peers who chose the eclectic, behavioral, and cognitive-behavioral orientations. The students who selected the eclectic, behavioral, and cognitive-behavioral orientations were more apt to be initiators and manifest confidence in their ability to achieve goals than were their peers who selected the person-centered orientation.

The anova with Ideal-Self as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the groups at a significance level of .0008. The following chart summarizes the differences on the dependent measure across the theoretical orientation groups.

A.C.L. Score on Ideal-Self

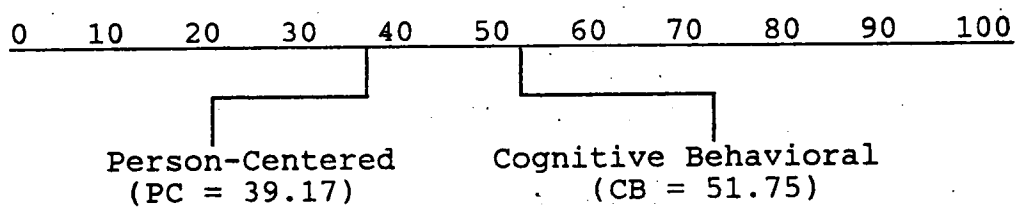


B ** > PC, E
** = P < .01

Summary: Students who selected the behavioral orientation as their preference were significantly higher in morale and goal oriented behaviors than their peers who chose the person-centered or eclectic orientations. The students who selected the person-centered and eclectic orientations were more apt to have low morale and feel defeated by life than their peers who preferred the behavioral orientation. They also found it more difficult to set and attain goals than their peers who preferred the behavioral orientation.

The anova with Critical Parent as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the groups at a significance level of .0085. The following chart summarizes the differences on the dependent measure across the groups.

A.C.L. Score on Critical Parent



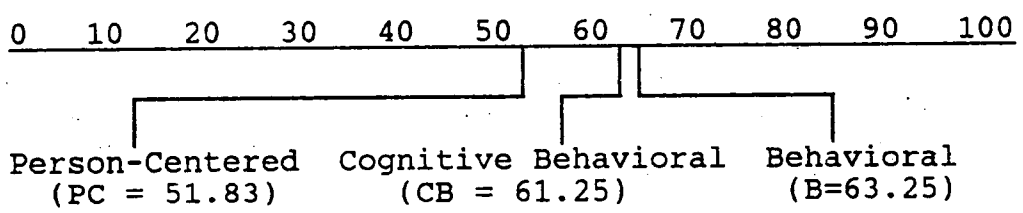
PC ** < CB

** = P < .01

Summary: Students who selected the person-centered orientation as their preference were significantly less skeptical, easily angered and indifferent to the needs of others than their peers who chose the cognitive-behavioral orientation. Students who expressed a preference for the cognitive-behavioral orientation were not as sensitive to the needs of others and more skeptical of the intentions of others than were their peers who chose the person-centered orientation.

The anova with Adult as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the groups at a significance level of .0074. The following chart summarizes the differences on the dependent measure across the groups.

A.C.L. Score on Adult



PC ** < CB, B
** = P < .01

Summary: Students who selected the person-centered term to designate their preference for a theoretical orientation were significantly less

work centered and ambitious than their peers who chose the behavioral orientation. The preference for a behavioral orientation was accompanied by a greater commitment to ambitious action than was found in students who preferred the person-centered orientation.

Questionnaire Question Fifteen

Question fifteen consisted of three parts. The students were asked to circle the number on each of three continuums that best indicated their personal approach (in terms of theory and technique) to working with people in a helping relationship. Each continuum was numbered one through five. The three individual continuums were

a) cognitive approaches vs. behavioral approaches

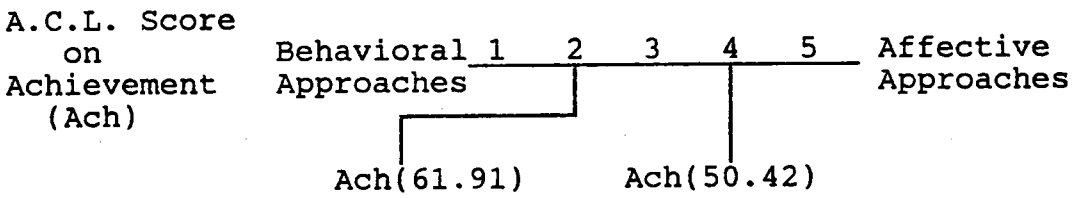
b) behavioral approaches vs. affective approaches and

c) affective approaches vs. cognitive approaches.

15.a) Anovas were run using the possible choices from one to five on the cognitive vs. behavioral continuum as the independent variable and the A.C.L. score on personality characteristics as the dependent variable. The analyses revealed no significant differences on the A.C.L. measures across the five groups designated by the number points on the continuum.

15.b) The second continuum presented the student with the task of choosing between behavioral approaches vs. affective approaches. A series of anovas were run using the possible choices from one to five to establish the independent variables and the A.C.L. personality characteristics as the dependent variables. Several significant differences were found.

The anova with Achievement as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the groups at a significance level of .0003. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Achievement.



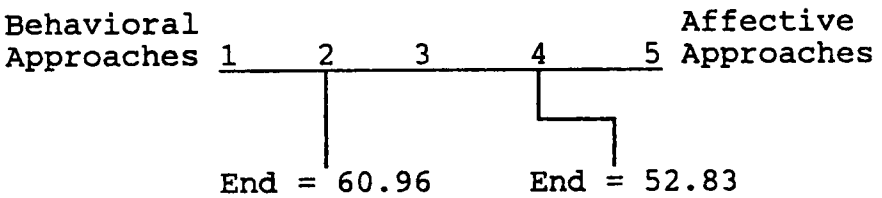
Ach 2 ** > Ach 4
** p < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in group four who preferred the affective approaches were significantly lower in the need for achievement than their peers in group two who indicated a preference for the behavioral approaches. The need to strive for outstanding performance and complete socially significant

tasks was significantly greater in students who indicated a preference for behavioral approaches when the choice was between behavioral and affective approaches.

The anova with Endurance as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the behavioral vs. affective approach groups at a significance level of .0374. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Endurance.

A.C.L. Score on Endurance (End)



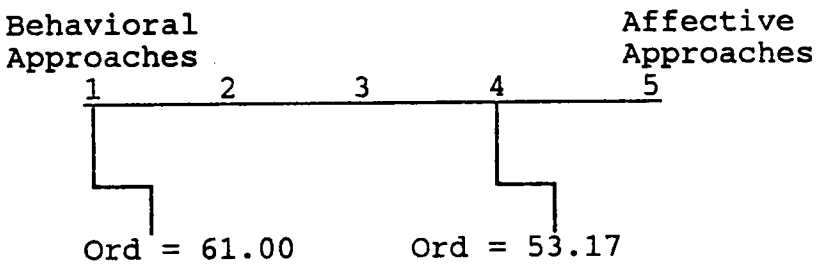
End 2* > End 4
* = p < .05

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in group four who preferred the affective approaches were significantly lower in their need to persist in the performance of a task until it was brought to completion than their peers who preferred the behavioral approaches. Students in group two who preferred the behavioral approaches were significantly higher in task oriented be-

haviors.

The anova with Order as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the behavioral vs. affective approach groups at a significance level of .0456. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Order.

A.C.L. Score on Order

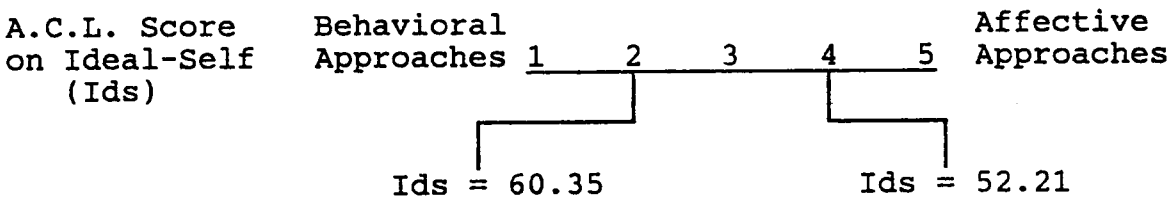


Ord. 1 * > Ord 4
* = p < .05

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in group four who preferred the affective approaches were significantly lower in their need for neatness, organization, and planning than their peers in group one who indicated a preference for the behavioral approaches. Students who preferred the behavioral approaches scored significantly higher on the need for organization and planning than peers who preferred to use

affective approaches to theory and technique when helping people.

The anova with Ideal-Self as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the behavioral vs. affective approach groups at a significance level of .0273. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Ideal-Self.



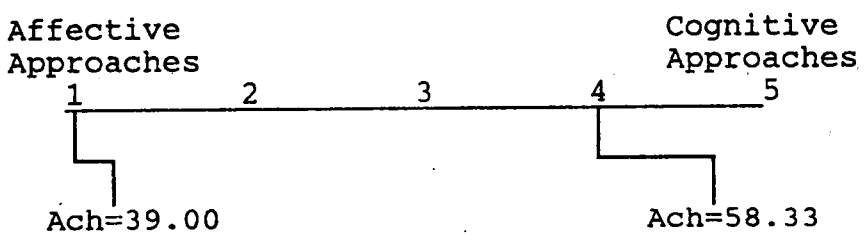
Ids 2 * > Ids 4
* = p < .05

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in group four who preferred the affective approaches were significantly lower in their need to set and attain goals than the students in group two who indicated a preference for the behavioral approaches. Students who preferred the behavioral approaches were significantly higher on goal oriented behaviors than their peers who preferred the affective approaches. The high goal orientation may also be attended by some level of narcissistic ego inflation.

15.c) The third continuum presented the students with the task of choosing between affective vs. cognitive approaches (in terms of theory and technique) to working with people in a helping relationship. A series of anovas were run using the possible choices from one to five to establish the independent group variables and the A.C.L. personality characteristics as the dependent variables. Several significant differences were found as a result of these analyses.

The anova with Achievement as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the affective and cognitive approach groups at a significance level of .0442. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Achievement.

A.C.L. Score on Achievement (Ach)



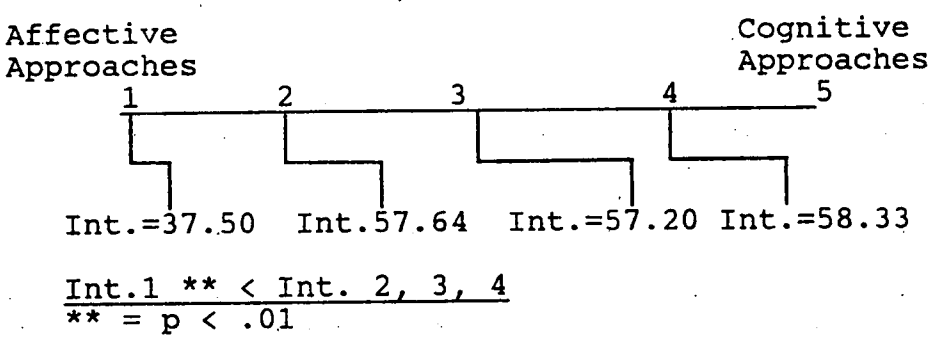
Ach.1 * < Ach 4
* = p < .05

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in group one who preferred the affective

approaches to theory and technique when helping people were significantly lower in the need to strive for outstanding performance than were their peers in group four who preferred the cognitive approaches. The need to strive for outstanding performance and complete socially significant tasks was significantly greater in students who indicated a preference for cognitive approaches when the choice was between affective vs. cognitive approaches.

The anova with Intraception as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the affective and cognitive approach groups at a significance level of .0047. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Intraception.

A.C.L. Score on Intraception (Int.)



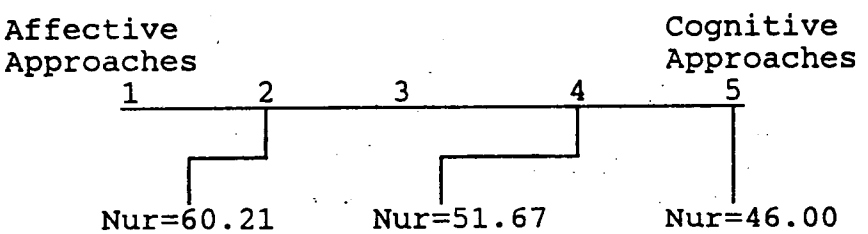
Int.1 ** < Int. 2, 3, 4
** = p < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in groups two, three, and four were

significantly higher in the need to engage in attempts to understand their own behavior and the behavior of others than were students in group one who preferred the affective approaches. Students who preferred the affective approaches were less analytical in their relationships with self and others than were their peers who registered greater preference for the cognitive approaches to working with people in the helping relationships.

The anova with Nurturance as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the affective and cognitive approach groups at a significance level of .0001. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Nurturance.

A.C.L. Score on Nurturance (Nur)

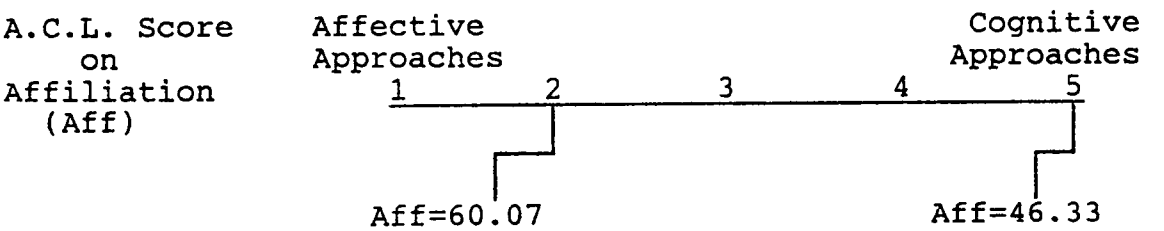


Nur 2 ** > Nur 4, 5
** = p < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in groups four and five who preferred the

cognitive approaches were significantly lower in their need to engage in supportive behaviors that provided material and emotional benefits to others than were the students who indicated a preference for the affective approaches. Students who preferred the affective approaches, in terms of theory and techniques, when working with people in a helping relationship were significantly higher on the need to utilize supportive behaviors than their peers who preferred the cognitive approaches.

The anova with Affiliation as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the groups at a significance level of .0143. The following chart summarizes the differences across the affective and cognitive approaches on the dependent measure of Affiliation.

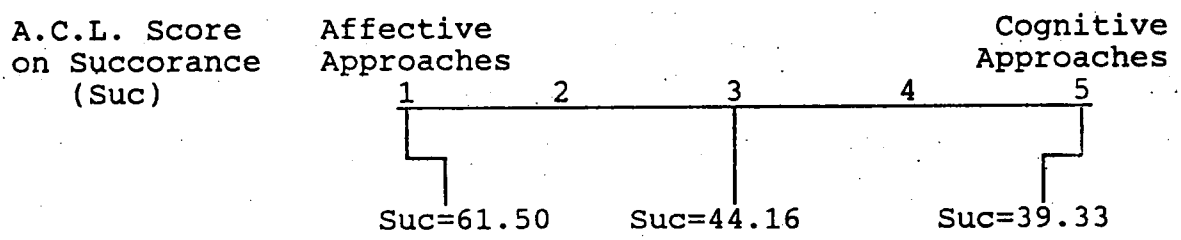


Aff 2 * > Aff 5
* = p < .05

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that

students in group five who preferred the cognitive approaches were significantly lower in their need to seek out and maintain numerous close relationships with people than were those students in group two who indicated a preference for employing affective approaches in the helping relationship. Students who preferred the affective approaches were characterized by a deeper need for close relationships than their peers who preferred the cognitive approaches.

The anova with Succorance as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the affective and cognitive group approaches at a significance level of .0435. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Succorance.

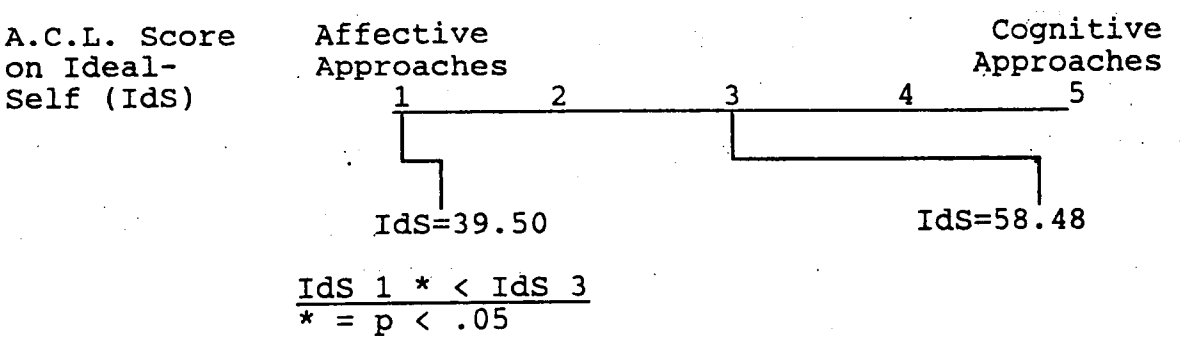


Suc 1 * > Suc 3, 5
* = p < .05

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in groups five and three were sig-

nificantly lower in their need to solicit sympathy, affection, or emotional support from others than their peers who were in group one. The higher a student's preference for cognitive approaches to helping persons the less his need for emotional support. The students who preferred to use affective approaches in the helping relationship showed a significantly greater need for emotional support than their peers who either strongly or moderately preferred the cognitive approaches.

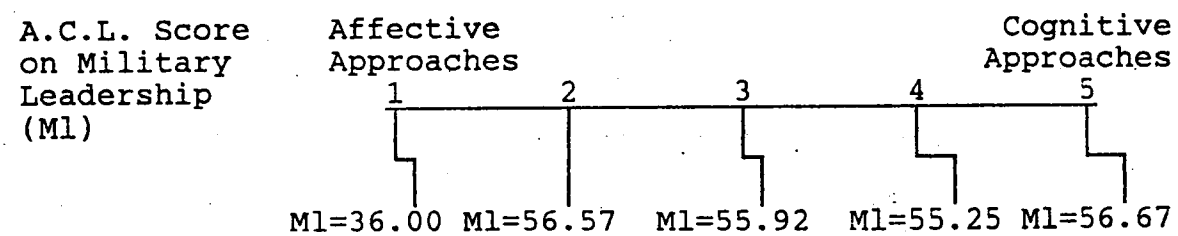
The anova with Ideal-Self as the dependent variable yielded a difference across affective and cognitive approaches to helping people in the counseling relationship at a significance level of .0525. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Ideal-Self.



IdS 1 * < IdS 3
* = p < .05

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in group one who preferred the affective approaches were significantly less goal oriented and effective in interpersonal relationships than their peers who expressed a greater preference in the direction of cognitive approaches. The greater the students' preference for cognitive approaches the higher will be his goal orientation and effectiveness in interpersonal relationship.

The anova with Military Leadership as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the affective and cognitive approaches to helping people in a counseling relationship at a significance level of .0061. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Military Leadership.

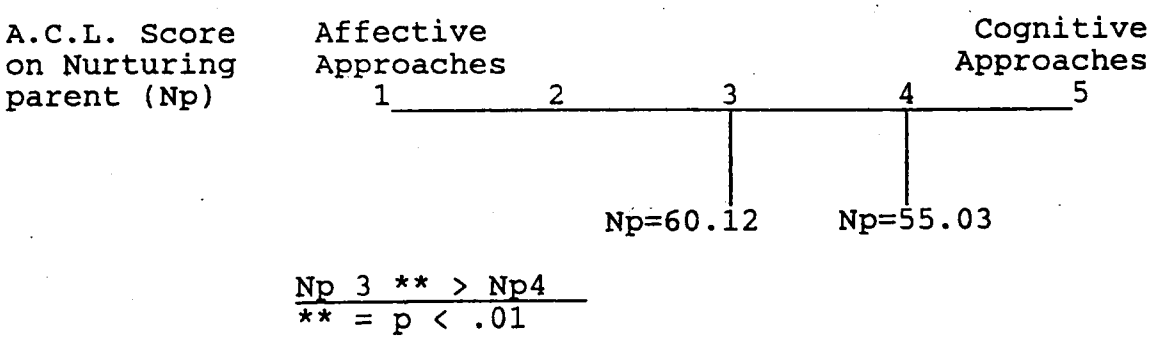


Ml 1 ** < Ml 2, 3, 4, 5
** = p < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in group one who preferred to use

affective approaches in the helping relationship were significantly less convinced of the worth of hard work and self discipline than were the students in groups two, three, four, and five. The students in groups two, three, four, and five were significantly higher in their orientation toward duties, goals, and hard work than were their peers who expressed a preference for the affective approaches. In general then, the greater the student's preference for cognitive approaches the more oriented he was toward duty and hard work.

The anova with Nurturing Parent as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the affective and cognitive approach groups at a significance level of .0092. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Nurturing Parent.



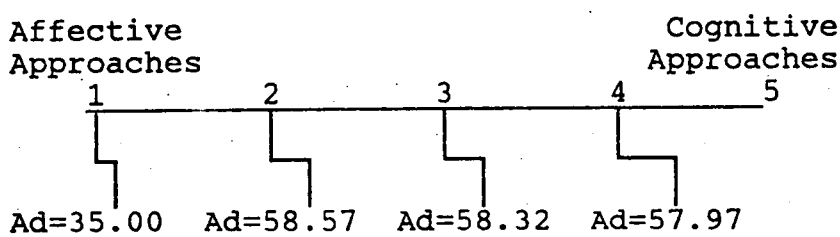
Np 3 ** > Np4
** = p < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that

students in group three who preferred a middle position between affective and cognitive approaches were significantly higher on the need to cultivate and sustain relationships than were their peers in group four who expressed a greater preference for cognitive approaches. The greater the student's preference for cognitive approaches to helping in the counseling relationship the lower was his need to cultivate and sustain relationships.

The anova with Adult as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the affective and cognitive approach groups at a significance level of .0041. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Adult.

A.C.L. Score on Adult (Ad)

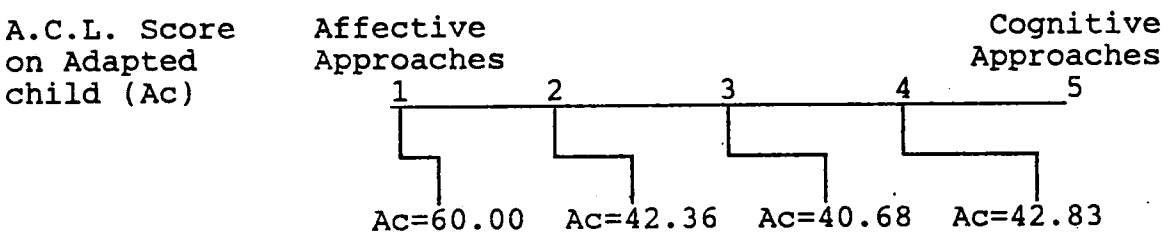


Ad 1 ** < Ad 2, 3, 4
** = p < .01

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in group one who expressed a strong

preference for the use of affective approaches in the counseling relationship were significantly less work centered, ambitious, and self disciplined than the rest of the students in the tested group. When compared with the extreme represented by group one the students in the remaining groups all registered a significantly higher level of concern for work centered, ambitious, and self disciplined behaviors.

The anova with Adapted Child as the dependent variable yielded a difference across the affective and cognitive approach groups at a significance level of .0201. The following chart summarizes the group differences on the dependent measure of Adapted Child.



Ac 1 * > Ac 2, 3, 4
* = p < .05

Summary: The chart shows specifically, that students in group one who expressed a strong preference for the use of affective approaches in

the counseling relationship were significantly less independent, sure of their ability to cope with the demands of adult life, and confrontational than their peers who expressed a preference for groups two, three, and four. Students in groups two, three, and four all showed a greater ability to cope with the demands of adult life. The ability to cope got higher as we moved toward the preference for the cognitive approaches in groups two, three, and four, but not appreciably so.

Summary

In this chapter the utility of selected instruments for identifying differences across a group of Master's level Counseling students was demonstrated. The following summarizes the results of the research questions which were presented and discussed.

In the first research question we asked what behavior patterns would emerge for this group of Master's level counseling students when they responded to the H.B.I. with four situations specified. In each situation all four response patterns were found to be present in varying degrees. This group of students demonstrated a high degree of heterogeneity. However, the majority of the students indicated preferences for behavior patterns in each situa-

tion that were consistent with the patterns rated as appropriate by expert supervisor raters. The situational scenarios used in conjunction with the H.B.I. provided a methodology for dividing students into groups and assessing the appropriateness or inappropriateness of their in situation responses.

In research question two we asked whether a significant difference across behavior patterns on measures of personality would be discovered. The utility of the H.B.I. and the A.C.L. for assessing personality differences across behavior pattern groups was demonstrated. Consistent differences on measures of personality at the .05 and .01 levels of significance were demonstrated across the TA, AF, FT and TFA groups. The null hypothesis of no difference across the H.B.I. groups on A.C.L. measures of personality was rejected.

In research question two we also asked whether significant differences on measures of personality existed across gender groups. The question of differences across male-female groups on measures of personality was demonstrated. Although no differences were identified that were both statistically and practically significant, several differences were noted that were statistically significant at the .05 level. When 95% confidence intervals were considered, several variables were both statistically and practically

significant. The null hypothesis of no difference across the gender groups on A.C.L. measures of personality was rejected.

Additionally in research question three we asked whether significant differences on measures of behavior existed across theoretical orientations. The utility of the questionnaire and the H.B.I. for assessing such group differences was demonstrated. The students were divided into groups on the basis of their theoretical orientations derived from the questionnaire. H.B.I. choice and bipolar scores were used as dependent measures. The examination of the question of differences across the groups resulted in a number of significant differences at the .05 and .01 levels of significance. The null hypothesis of no difference on choice and bipolar scores across the theoretical orientation groups was rejected.

In the fourth research question we asked whether significant differences on measures of personality existed across theoretical orientation groups. The utility of the questionnaire and the A.C.L. for identifying such differences was demonstrated. Differences on measures of personality were identified at the .05 and .01 levels of significance across groups established on the basis of the different theoretical orientations. The null hypothesis of no difference on A.C.L. measures of personality across

theoretical orientation groups was rejected.

In conclusion the instruments used in this study provided a useful methodology for dividing the students into groups and identifying significant differences across the groups on measures of behavior, personality, and theoretical orientation. The research questions were answered and the null hypotheses for each of the questions were rejected.

Chapter Five

Summary, Conclusions, Implications, and Recommendations

Summary of the Results

The results of this research established that the subjects for this study were not a homogenous group. The preferences for behavior patterns in the ideal situation were well distributed across the student group. We can readily understand on the basis of these real differences why counselors have professed allegiance to diverse theoretical orientations.

Basic differences between males and females on the manner in which cognition, action and feeling get implemented were discovered in this study. Male-female differences were also noted on personality characteristics. These differences may be a function of culture, genetics, sample selection or some other variables.

The examination of student preferences for behavior patterns indicated that the largest percentage made, what was rated by experts to be, situationally appropriate responses. However, some students made responses that were different. Since situations were viewed differently by some students the counselor educator needs to be particularly alert to these alternative responses and the rationale for them.

Student profiles emerged that were rooted in behavior

pattern preferences and enhanced by significant differences across the behavior patterns on measures of personality characteristics. As a result of this study it was possible to state that the TA, AF, FT, and TFA behavior pattern groups differed significantly on the measure of personality characteristics (on the A.C.L.) that they possessed when compared to each other.

Student profiles were further enhanced by examining students' commitments to theoretical orientations and approaches. The results of this research demonstrated that students who preferred different theoretical orientations differed significantly on measures of behavior and personality characteristics.

In conclusion, the results of this research established that the heterogeneity of students seeking education as counselors is a fact. Additionally, individual student profiles demonstrating student differences on measures of behavior, gender, personality characteristics and theoretical orientations were demonstrated. The importance of these findings for the practice of counseling and counselor supervision needs further investigation. Such investigation is more than justified based upon the findings of this study.

Conclusions

The following conclusions were drawn with respect to

the Masters level students who were the subjects for the study.

1) The subjects were a heterogeneous group with the TA, FT, AF, and TFA patterns assessed by means of the H.B.I. all represented. The largest number of students were in the FT group. Counseling students were more cognitive and affective than acting in their orientation. Counselor educators must give attention to the diverse group of people who seek involvement in counselor education programs.

2) The situational scenarios used in conjunction with the H.B.I. provided a useful methodology for dividing students into groups and assessing the appropriateness or inappropriateness of their in situation responses.

3) Important gender differences on measures of personality and behavior preferences revealed different ways that males and females interfaced with clients.

4) The use of the H.B.I., A.C.L. and questionnaire provided the researcher with a methodology for assessing meaningful differences among students.

5) There was a relationship between student behaviors, personality characteristics, and expressed preferences for theoretical orientations. Theoretical orientation preferences appear to be as much a function of student behavior patterns and personality characteristics as any other intervening variable.

6) The bipolar and choice scores from the H.B.I. were consistently congruent with expected profiles for personality characteristics and theoretical orientations. H.B.I. components accurately reflected thinking, feeling and acting dimensions of personality.

Implications

1) The existence of strong student differences on behavior patterns, personality characteristics and theoretical orientations has clear implications for the future direction of counselor education, particularly as these differences relate to the supervision of individual students. Students should not be treated as a homogenous group.

2) The observed relationships between the H.B.I. and the A.C.L. that resulted from this study suggested the possibility of generating individual student profiles. These profiles have implication for the supervision process. Supervisors may infer that a certain constellation of personality characteristics go with certain behavior patterns. The insight gained from such behavioral pattern - personality characteristic profiles has clear implications for assisting with the development of a more prescriptive approach to supervision of individual students.

3) The differences across gender groups on measures of

personality characteristics and behavior patterns that were observed in this study clearly imply the need for further assessing the divergent ways in which males and females approach the counseling process.

4) The results obtained in this study clearly implied that professed allegiance to a particular theoretical orientation may be as much a function of a student's individual behavior pattern and personality characteristics as any other intervening variables.

5) When comparing the preference for eclectic theory for subjects from the Smith study (41%) and the preference for eclectic theory for this sample (50%) a close similarity was discovered between the groups. This implied that the two groups were not that dissimilar in terms of their preference for eclectic theory and techniques.

Recommendations

Based on the findings of the present study, the following recommendations are offered.

1) It is recommended that the study be replicated using:

a) other measures of personality to see if the group patterns derived from the H.B.I. also yield significant group profile differences,

b) a larger number of students,

c) a more diverse population that would make possible a larger number of preferences for theoretical orientations. This would allow for a broader assessment of the relationship between behavior, personality measures and theoretical orientations,

d) other populations that represent different social, cultural, religious orientations, geographical areas and,

e) experienced counselors and therapists.

2) It is recommended that experimental designs be established to assess the impact of different models of counselor education on subjects possessing significantly different profiles. The question of one's flexibility and openness to change should be examined.

3) It is recommended that those who wish to provide instruction through counselor education programs have training in assessment that will make them proficient in the development and use of existing assessment tools for discovering differences in individuals.

4) It is recommended that continuing research be conducted on gender differences and counselor educators sensitized to the possible implications of such differences for counselor education.

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Appendix A

Original Smith Questionnaire

Dear Colleague:

I invite your participation in this funded nationwide study of views of clinical and counseling psychologists on current theoretical trends in counseling and psychotherapy. An effort has been made to minimize the amount of time required to complete the questionnaire. After responding to each of the following items, refold the questionnaire so that the return address is facing out, tape or staple it, and drop it in the mail. If you would like to receive a summary of the results, indicate your wish and I will be happy to forward a copy of the findings as soon as they are ready. Your contribution to the study is appreciated.

Sincerely,

Darrell Smith, Ph.D.
Texas A & M University

1. Sex: -- Female -- Male 2. Age: -- under 30 -- 30-45 -- over 45

3. Highest Degree: -- M.S./M.A. -- Ed.D. -- Ph.D. -- D.Psy. -- other (specify_____)

4. Primary Emphasis in Graduate Study (check only one):
-- Counseling Psychology -- Clinical Psychology
-- Counselor Education -- Marriage & Family
-- Other (specify_____)

5. Divisional Status: -- Division 12 -- Fellow -- Member
-- Division 17 -- Fellow -- Member

6. Number of Years of Psychological Work: -- 1-5 -- 6-10 -- 11-16 -- 17 or over

7. Primary Job (check only one): -- University teaching -- Research -- Private practice -- Clinical agency practice -- Administration -- Clinical supervision -- Other (specify_____)

8. Your Basic Theoretical Orientation (check only one):
-- Psychoanalytic -- Cognitive Behavior -- Transactional Analysis
-- Jungian -- Person-centered -- Psychodrama
-- Adlerian -- Gestalt -- Family Systems
-- Behavioral -- Existential -- Eclectic
-- Reality -- Rational-Emotive
-- Other (specify_____)

9. Indicate your appraisal of the current status of exclusive schools of psychotherapy (e.g. psychoanalysis, behavioral, person-centered) by circling the appropriate number on the rating scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
The days of schools in counseling & psychotherapy are virtually over.		Exclusive systems are decreasing in popularity but still are very much alive.		Exclusive schools of psychotherapy are as popular now as ever.

10. Use the scale below to indicate your evaluation of eclectic counseling and psychotherapy.

1	2	3	4	5
Eclectic is a worn-out synonym for theoretical laziness and mediocrity.		The eclectic approach is a superficial attempt to be open and pragmatic.		Eclecticism is the only means to a comprehensive psychotherapy.

11. Which of the following terms do you consider to be the most descriptive of the current trend in theoretical orientations to counseling and psychotherapy?

-- Technical eclecticism -- Creative synthesis
-- System theory -- Multimodalism -- Meta-modeling
-- Integration -- Exclusiveness
-- Ecological psychology -- Emerging eclecticism
-- Other (specify)_____

12. In rank order, whom do you consider to be the three most influential psychotherapists today?

_____1st. _____2nd.

_____3rd.

13. What single book do you perceive to be the most representative of the present zeitgeist or predominant emphasis in counseling and psychotherapy?

Title book _____
Author(s) _____

14. I -- do -- do not wish to receive a summary of the results of this study.

Appendix B

Modified Smith Questionnaire

Dear Student,

Thank you for your participation in this study of current theoretical trends in counseling and psychotherapy. An effort has been made to minimize the amount of time required to complete the questionnaire. If you would like to receive a summary of the results, indicate your wish and I will be happy to forward a copy of the findings as soon as they are ready. Your contribution to the study is appreciated.

Sincerely,

Ronald E. Hawkins
Liberty University

1. Sex: -- Female

   -- Male

2. Age: -- under 30

   -- 30-45

   -- over 45

3. Highest Degree: -- B.S./B.A.

   -- M.S./M.A.

   -- other (specify)_____

4. Please identify in the space below your major field of study in the last degree you received.

   _____ Major Field for last degree.

5. Membership in Professional Organizations including counseling related organizations (specify).

   _____

6. Primary Job (check only one):

-- Private Practice

-- University Teacher

-- Clinical Agency Practice

-- Administration

-- Public School Teacher

-- Other (specify) _____

7. Number of years working professionally:

-- 1-5

-- 6-10

-- 11-16

-- 17 over

8. Your Basic Theoretical Orientation (Check one):

A. -- Psychoanalytic

B. -- Jungian

C. -- Adlerian

D. -- Behavioral

E. -- Reality

F. -- Cognitive Behavior

G. -- Person-centered

H. -- Gestalt

I. -- Existential

J. -- Rational Emotive

K. -- Transactional Analysis

L. -- Psychodrama

M. -- Family Systems

N. -- Eclectic

O. -- Other (specify) _____

9. Indicate your appraisal of the current status of exclusive schools of psychotherapy (e.g. psychoanalysis, behavioral, person-centered) by circling the appropriate number on the rating scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
The days of schools in counseling & psychotherapy are virtually over.		Exclusive systems are decreasing in popularity but still are very much alive.		Exclusive schools of psychotherapy are as popular now as ever.

10. Use the scale below to indicate your evaluation of eclectic counseling and psychotherapy.

1	2	3	4	5
Eclectic is a worn-out synonym for theoretical laziness and mediocrity.		The eclectic approach is a superficial attempt to be open and pragmatic.		Eclecticism is the only means to a comprehensive psychotherapy.

11. Which of the following terms do you consider to be the most descriptive of the current trend in theoretical orientations to counseling and psychotherapy?

A. -- Technical eclecticism

B. -- Multimodalism

C. -- Exclusiveness

D. -- Creative synthesis

E. -- Meta-modeling

F. -- Ecological psychology

G. -- System theory

H. -- Integration

I. -- Emerging eclecticism

J. -- Other (specify)_____

K. -- Don't know

12. How many courses in counseling theory have you taken at:

Undergraduate level -- 1
-- 2
-- 3
-- 4

Graduate level -- 1
-- 2
-- 3
-- 4

13. In rank order whom do you consider to be the three most influential psychotherapists today?

_____ 1st.

_____ 2nd.

_____ 3rd.

14. What single book do you consider to be the most representative of the present zeitgeist or predominant emphasis in counseling and psychotherapy?

Title of Book _____

Author _____

15. Circle the number on each continuum below (a,b,c.) that BEST indicates YOUR APPROACH (in terms of theory and techniques) to working with people in a helping relationship:

a.	Cognitive Approaches	1	2	3	4	5	Behavioral Approaches
b.	Behavioral Approaches	1	2	3	4	5	Affective Approaches
c.	Affective Approaches	1	2	3	4	5	Cognitive Approaches

16. Rank order from 1 to 3 your theoretical orientation to counseling. Write numbers in the corresponding blocks so that:

1 = highest theoretical preference

2 = second preference

3 = third preference

-- Cognitive Theory

-- Affective Theory

-- Behavioral Theory

17. Circle the number on each continuum below (a,b,c) that BEST indicates the type of counseling supervisor you would choose:

a.	Cognitive Supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	Behavioral Supervisor
b.	Affective Supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	Cognitive Supervisor
c.	Behavioral Supervisor	1	2	3	4	5	Affective Supervisor

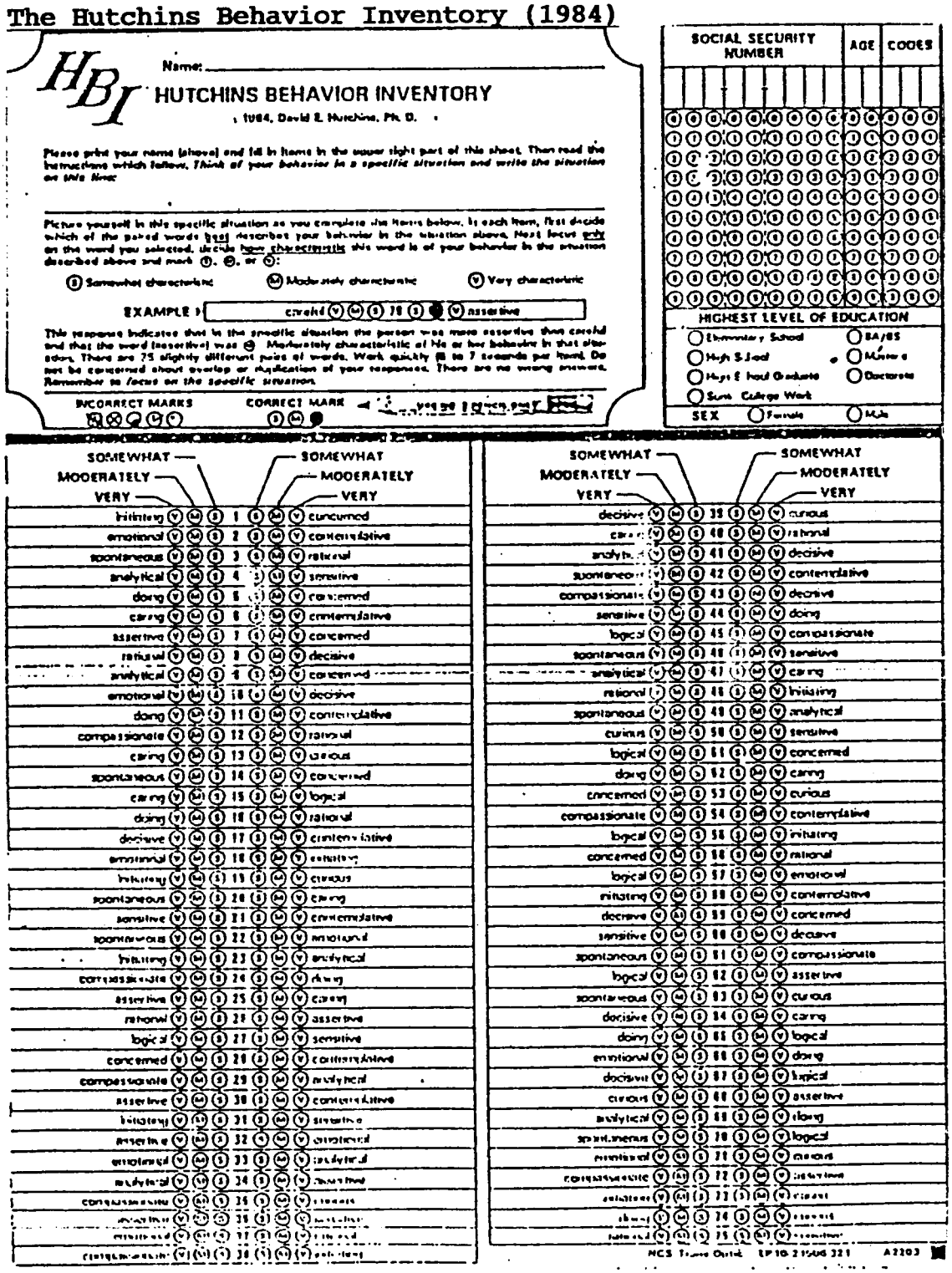
Appendix C

The Fifteen Words Used in The H.B.I.

Behavior Category	Words
Thinking	Logical
	Contemplative
	Curious
	Rational
	Analytical
Feeling	Sensitive
	Compasssionate
	Emotional
	Caring
	Concerned
Acting	Initialing
	Decisive
	Spontaneous
	Assertive
	Doing

Appendix D

The Hutchins Behavior Inventory (1984)



HBI

Name: _____

HUTCHINS BEHAVIOR INVENTORY

© 1984, David E. Hutchins, Ph. D.

Please print your name (above) and fill in items in the upper right part of this sheet. Then read the instructions which follow. *Think of your behavior in a specific situation and write the situation on this line:*

_____

Picture yourself in this specific situation as you complete the items below. In each item, first decide which of the paired words best describes your behavior in the situation above. Next locate only on the word you selected, decide how characteristic this word is of your behavior in the situation described above and mark ①, ②, or ③:

① Somewhat characteristic ② Moderately characteristic ③ Very characteristic

EXAMPLE ▸ careful ⓥ Ⓜ ① 78 ① ● ⓥ assertive

This response indicates that in the specific situation the person was more assertive than careful and that the word (assertive) was ② Moderately characteristic of his or her behavior in that situation. There are 75 slightly different pairs of words. Work quickly (5 to 7 seconds per item). Do not be concerned about overlap or duplication of your responses. There are no wrong answers. *Remember to focus on the specific situation.*

INCORRECT MARKS ⊘ ⊗ ◐ ◑ ◒

CORRECT MARK ● [illegible]

SOCIAL SECURITY NUMBER	AGE	CODES

HIGHEST LEVEL OF EDUCATION

○ Elementary School ○ High School ○ High School Graduate ○ Some College Work ○ BA/BS ○ Master ○ Doctorate

SEX ○ Female ○ Male

SOMEWHAT / MODERATELY / VERY		SOMEWHAT / MODERATELY / VERY
initiating Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	1	① Ⓜ Ⓥ concerned
emotional Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	2	① Ⓜ Ⓥ contemplative
spontaneous Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	3	① Ⓜ Ⓥ rational
analytical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	4	① Ⓜ Ⓥ sensitive
doing Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	5	① Ⓜ Ⓥ concerned
caring Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	6	① Ⓜ Ⓥ contemplative
assertive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	7	① Ⓜ Ⓥ concerned
rational Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	8	① Ⓜ Ⓥ decisive
analytical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	9	① Ⓜ Ⓥ concerned
emotional Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	10	① Ⓜ Ⓥ decisive
doing Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	11	① Ⓜ Ⓥ contemplative
compassionate Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	12	① Ⓜ Ⓥ rational
caring Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	13	① Ⓜ Ⓥ curious
spontaneous Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	14	① Ⓜ Ⓥ concerned
caring Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	15	① Ⓜ Ⓥ logical
doing Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	16	① Ⓜ Ⓥ rational
decisive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	17	① Ⓜ Ⓥ contemplative
emotional Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	18	① Ⓜ Ⓥ sensitive
initiating Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	19	① Ⓜ Ⓥ curious
spontaneous Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	20	① Ⓜ Ⓥ caring
sensitive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	21	① Ⓜ Ⓥ contemplative
spontaneous Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	22	① Ⓜ Ⓥ emotional
initiating Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	23	① Ⓜ Ⓥ analytical
compassionate Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	24	① Ⓜ Ⓥ doing
assertive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	25	① Ⓜ Ⓥ caring
rational Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	26	① Ⓜ Ⓥ assertive
logical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	27	① Ⓜ Ⓥ sensitive
concerned Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	28	① Ⓜ Ⓥ contemplative
compassionate Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	29	① Ⓜ Ⓥ analytical
assertive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	30	① Ⓜ Ⓥ contemplative
initiating Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	31	① Ⓜ Ⓥ sensitive
assertive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	32	① Ⓜ Ⓥ emotional
emotional Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	33	① Ⓜ Ⓥ analytical
analytical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	34	① Ⓜ Ⓥ assertive
compassionate Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	35	① Ⓜ Ⓥ rational
assertive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	36	① Ⓜ Ⓥ initiating
rational Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	37	① Ⓜ Ⓥ initiating
compassionate Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	38	① Ⓜ Ⓥ analytical

SOMEWHAT / MODERATELY / VERY		SOMEWHAT / MODERATELY / VERY
decisive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	39	① Ⓜ Ⓥ curious
caring Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	40	① Ⓜ Ⓥ rational
analytical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	41	① Ⓜ Ⓥ decisive
spontaneous Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	42	① Ⓜ Ⓥ contemplative
compassionate Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	43	① Ⓜ Ⓥ decisive
sensitive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	44	① Ⓜ Ⓥ doing
logical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	45	① Ⓜ Ⓥ compassionate
spontaneous Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	46	① Ⓜ Ⓥ sensitive
analytical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	47	① Ⓜ Ⓥ caring
rational Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	48	① Ⓜ Ⓥ initiating
spontaneous Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	49	① Ⓜ Ⓥ analytical
curious Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	50	① Ⓜ Ⓥ sensitive
logical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	51	① Ⓜ Ⓥ concerned
doing Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	52	① Ⓜ Ⓥ caring
concerned Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	53	① Ⓜ Ⓥ curious
compassionate Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	54	① Ⓜ Ⓥ contemplative
logical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	55	① Ⓜ Ⓥ initiating
concerned Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	56	① Ⓜ Ⓥ rational
logical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	57	① Ⓜ Ⓥ emotional
initiating Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	58	① Ⓜ Ⓥ contemplative
decisive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	59	① Ⓜ Ⓥ concerned
sensitive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	60	① Ⓜ Ⓥ decisive
spontaneous Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	61	① Ⓜ Ⓥ compassionate
logical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	62	① Ⓜ Ⓥ assertive
spontaneous Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	63	① Ⓜ Ⓥ curious
decisive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	64	① Ⓜ Ⓥ caring
doing Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	65	① Ⓜ Ⓥ logical
emotional Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	66	① Ⓜ Ⓥ doing
decisive Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	67	① Ⓜ Ⓥ logical
curious Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	68	① Ⓜ Ⓥ assertive
analytical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	69	① Ⓜ Ⓥ doing
spontaneous Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	70	① Ⓜ Ⓥ logical
emotional Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	71	① Ⓜ Ⓥ curious
compassionate Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	72	① Ⓜ Ⓥ sensitive
initiating Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	73	① Ⓜ Ⓥ rational
doing Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	74	① Ⓜ Ⓥ rational
logical Ⓥ Ⓜ ①	75	① Ⓜ Ⓥ sensitive

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Appendix E

Placement of Student in TA, AF, FT and TFA groups.

Placement of students in H.B.I. pattern groups was accomplished in the following manner.

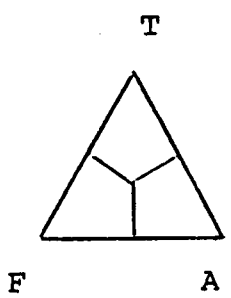
1) The Bipolar weighted scales derived from the computer printout were plotted on the respective TA, FT, and AF sides of a triangle containing three vectors that started at the midpoint on each side of the triangle and intersected in the middle of the triangle (see a below). This plotting was done in the testing center by means of their computer program and resulted in a triangle within a triangle that occupied space within two or three of the vectors.

2) When the created triangle was in the lower two vectors of the triangle the person represented by the triangle was placed in the acting-feeling group (see b below).

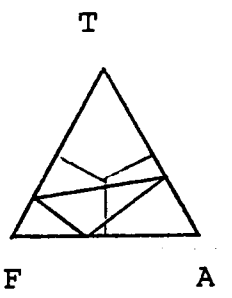
3) When the created triangle was in the top vector and the vector on the lower left side of the triangle the person was placed in the feeling-thinking group (see c below).

4) When the created triangle was in the top vector and the vector on the lower right side of the triangle the person was placed in the thinking-acting group (see d below).

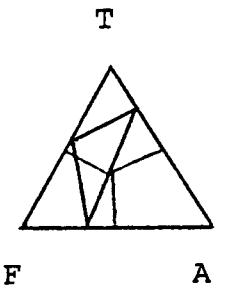
5) When the created triangle was in segments of all three vectors the person was placed in the TFA group (see e below).



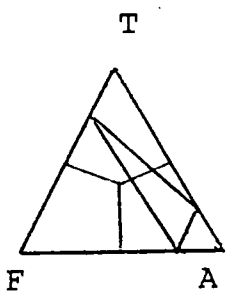
(a)



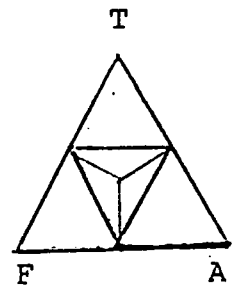
(b)



(c)



(d)



(e)

Appendix F

Manual Definition of Variables from the Adjective Check List used in this study.

Term	Definitions
Achievement	To be hard working, goal directed, and determined to do well.
Dominance	To seek and maintain a role as leader in groups, or to be influential and controlling in individual relationship.
Endurance	To have a strong sense of duty, work conscientiously and eschew frivolity and the nonessential.
Order	To seek objectivity and rationality. To be firm in controlling impulse and unswerving in the pursuit of goals.
Intraception	To engage in attempts to understand one's own behavior or the behavior of others.
Nurturance	To engage in behaviors that provide material or emotional benefits to others.
Affiliation	To seek and maintain numerous personal friendships.
Heterosexuality	To like the company of the opposite sex, having vigorous erotic drives and abundant vitality.

Exhibition	To be forceful obtrusive, and insistent on winning attention.
Autonomy	To act independently of others or of social values and expectations.
Aggression	To engage in behaviors that attack or hurt others.
Change	To like variety. To have confidence in oneself and welcome the challenge found in disorder and complexity.
Succorance	To solicit sympathy, affection, or emotional support from others.
Abasement	To express feelings of inferiority through self-criticism, guilt, or social impotence.
Deference	To seek and maintain subordinate roles in relationships with others.
Counseling Readiness Scale	High scorers have problems in interpersonal behavior which are brought on by shyness, diffidence, and even self-denial.
Self-control	High scorer is an admirable individual from the standpoint of sobriety, diligence, and attention to duty, but these virtues seem to be attained at the cost of spontaneity and the enhancement of self.

Self-confidence	High scorers are initiators, confident of their ability to achieve goals. Assertive and Enterprising.
Personal Adjustment	High scorers have a positive attitude toward life, enjoy the company of others and feel capable of initiating and activities.
Ideal Self Scale	High scorers are characterized by interpersonal effectiveness and goal attaining abilities. There may be an element of narcissistic ego inflation.
Creative Personality Scale	High scorers are venturesome, aesthetically reactive, clever, and quick to respond.
Military Leadership Scale	High scorers are oriented toward duties and obligations, hold fast to agreed upon lines of action and work hard to see that consensual goals are attained.
Masculine Attribute Scale	High scorers will be seen as ambitious and assertive, impatient when blocked or frustrated, and quick to take the initiative to get things moving.

Feminine Attribute Scale	High scorers prompt positive reaction from others and in turn treats them in a cooperative, considerate, and sympathetic manner.
Critical parent	High scorers are easily angered, skeptical, and counteractive. Indifferent to others.
Nurturing parent	High scorers seek to sustain relationships and foster feelings of courtesy and respect. They prefer continuity and the preservation of old values.
Adult	High scorers are productive, work-centered, reliable, and ambitious, at the expense of spontaneity.
Free child	High scorers are bullient and enterprising, not at all inclined to postpone gratification.
Adapted child	High scorers experience great difficulty in setting aside subordinate childhood roles. Lack independence, unsure of themselves, fear and avoid confrontation.

Appendix G

Instructions Read to Subjects Prior to Administration of Inventories

As part of your practicum experience you will be asked to complete several inventories. Some of the inventories you will be taking are being studied to see if they may be of some assistance with the task of developing a more student centered approach to counselor training. You are participating in a research project that is being carried on by your professor as a component of his doctoral studies.

Feedback concerning the results of the inventories will be available to you and will serve as a component of your ongoing education as a counselor. Individual sessions to discuss the results of the assessment may be arranged through Mrs. Ruby Tyree at the University Counseling Center at extension 2202.

Appendix H

Situations Used for H.B.I. administration

The Ideal Situation.

You are counseling a client who by your own definition is the ideal client.

The following short scenarios have been assigned an appropriate H.B.I. behavioral response pattern by five experienced counselor educators. The scenarios have been designated as either T, A, or F situations by the educators. A rating of at least 90% agreement was required for the inclusion of the scenario in this study.

Situation One - The T situation.

Parents have come to you for information on how to deal with their adolescent. They are having problems communicating with him and feel the need to seek assistance in this area.

Situation Two - The A situation.

A young woman has just broken up with her fiance. She is openly verbalizing her suicidal plans and feelings of self depreciation.

Situation Three - The F situation.

A fifth grader wants to talk about the death of his mother. She has recently died of cancer.

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