

INFORMATION TO USERS

This was produced from a copy of a document sent to us for microfilming. While the most advanced technological means to photograph and reproduce this document have been used, the quality is heavily dependent upon the quality of the material submitted.

The following explanation of techniques is provided to help you understand markings or notations which may appear on this reproduction.

1. The sign or "target" for pages apparently lacking from the document photographed is "Missing Page(s)". If it was possible to obtain the missing page(s) or section, they are spliced into the film along with adjacent pages. This may have necessitated cutting through an image and duplicating adjacent pages to assure you of complete continuity.
2. When an image on the film is obliterated with a round black mark it is an indication that the film inspector noticed either blurred copy because of movement during exposure, or duplicate copy. Unless we meant to delete copyrighted materials that should not have been filmed, you will find a good image of the page in the adjacent frame.
3. When a map, drawing or chart, etc., is part of the material being photographed the photographer has followed a definite method in "sectioning" the material. It is customary to begin filming at the upper left hand corner of a large sheet and to continue from left to right in equal sections with small overlaps. If necessary, sectioning is continued again—beginning below the first row and continuing on until complete.
4. For any illustrations that cannot be reproduced satisfactorily by xerography, photographic prints can be purchased at additional cost and tipped into your xerographic copy. Requests can be made to our Dissertations Customer Services Department.
5. Some pages in any document may have indistinct print. In all cases we have filmed the best available copy.

University
Microfilms
International

300 N. ZEEB ROAD, ANN ARBOR, MI 48106
18 BEDFORD ROW, LONDON WC1R 4EJ, ENGLAND

7916366

FINNERTY, MARGUERITE CHARLOTTE
THE EFFECTS OF RATIONAL SELF-COUNSELING ON
SELECTED PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS OF UPWARD
MOBILITY REGISTRANTS.

THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY IN VIRGINIA,
ED.D., 1979

University
Microfilms
International 300 N. ZEEB ROAD, ANN ARBOR, MI 48106

© 1979

MARGUERITE CHARLOTTE FINNERTY

ALL RIGHTS RESERVED

THE EFFECTS OF RATIONAL SELF-COUNSELING ON
SELECTED PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS OF
UPWARD MOBILITY REGISTRANTS

A Dissertation
Presented to the
Faculty of the School of Education
College of William and Mary in Virginia

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

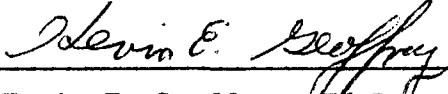
by
Marguerite C. Finnerty

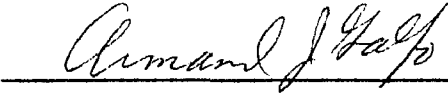
January 1979

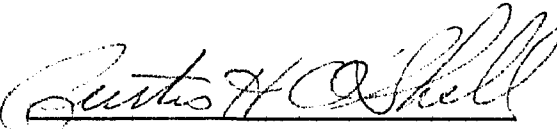
APPROVAL SHEET

We the undersigned do certify that we have read this dissertation and that in our individual opinions it is acceptable in both scope and quality as a dissertation for the degree of Doctor of Education.

Accepted February 1979 by


Kevin E. Geoffroy, Ed.D.


Armand J. Galfo, Ed.D.


Curtis H. O'Shell, Ed.D.

ABSTRACT

THE EFFECTS OF RATIONAL SELF-COUNSELING ON SELECTED PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS OF UPWARD MOBILITY REGISTRANTS

MARGUERITE CHARLOTTE FINNERTY, Ed.D.
THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY IN VIRGINIA, 1979

ADVISOR: KEVIN E. GEOFFROY, Ed.D.

Rational Self-Counseling (RSC) was developed by Maxie Maultsby on the basis of Ellis' Rational Emotive Therapy. The client participates in his cure and, to a large extent, becomes his own therapist. Rational therapy has a cognitive/learning base. This study examined the effects of rational self-counseling training on measures of self-acceptance, interpersonal relations orientation and sex-role identity.

Subjects for the study were eighty civilian volunteers from the Upward Mobility Program of a local government installation. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of four groups, and the groups then randomly designated as control or experimental. Research design was the Posttest Only Control Group design (Campbell and Stanley's design number 6). Both experimental groups received the same semi-structured rational self-counseling training, consisting of five sessions within a two-week period, with time between meetings to return to the work site for application of RSC principles and homework analysis. Training methods included role-playing, didactic teaching, group work, modeling, homework assignments, examinations and feedback from peers and leader. Control groups received no rational training while the study was in progress. They were promised training at a later date. All four groups were posttested: control groups were tested at the same time as experimental groups, but in different locations. All were tested on three personality instruments: The Adjective Check List (ACL), Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior (FIRO-B), and Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI). In addition, all subjects completed a personal data form.

Hypotheses and results were as follows:

1. There will be significant differences between posttest means of groups on the sex identity variables, as measured by the BSRI. Rejected: means of experimental groups did not increase significantly, although experimentals had more androgynous members than controls.
2. There will be significant differences between posttest means of groups on the interpersonal relations variables as measured by the FIRO-B. Rejected: none of the scales reached statistical significance. However, Inclusion Expressed and Control Wanted approached significance: .069 and .058, respectively. Needs scores were generally lower after training.
3. There will be significant differences between posttest means of groups on the self-acceptance variables as measured by the

ACL. Rejected: only one of the four scales, Favorable Adjectives Checked, was statistically significant. However, this was found to be in the second control group, suggesting possible contamination by previous groups.

4. There will be a significant correlation between final composite scores and posttest scores on the three personality instruments. Rejected: statistically significant correlations were found with only three out of fourteen subscales. The three were ACL Unfavorable ($p < .001$), ACL Personal Adjustment ($p < .042$) and FIRO-B Inclusion Wanted ($p < .017$).

Additional analysis revealed that RSC appeared to have had a strong relationship to certain combinations of characteristics (e.g., Personal Adjustment was negatively correlated with Affection Wanted at the .046 level after training, as opposed to .664 before).

For Billie Delene Sly

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	xi
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	xii
EPIGRAPH	xiv
CHAPTER	
1. Introduction	2
Statement of the Problem	10
Theory	13
Hypotheses	22
Definition of Terms	22
Affection	22
Androgynous	22
Behavior Rehearsal	23
Concurrent Validity	23
Content Validity	23
Control	23
Criteria for Rational Thinking	23
Inclusion	24
Rational-Emotive Imagery	24
Summary	24
2. Review of the Literature	25

	The Cognitive/Learning Approach to	
	Behavior Change	25
	Operant Conditioning and Desensitization	29
	The Role of Self-Talk	31
	Research on the Effects of Rational	
	Therapy	34
	The Concept of Psychological Androgyny	43
	Interpersonal Relations Orientation	49
	Self-Acceptance	55
	Summary	57
3.	Methodology	59
	Population	59
	Demography	60
	Research Design	61
	Treatment Procedures	70
	Measurement Instruments	71
	Bem Sex-Role Inventory	71
	Fundamental Interpersonal Relations	
	Orientation--Behavior	73
	Adjective Check List	75
	Final Composite Score	78
	Data Analysis	79
	Data Collection	79
	Statistical Analysis	79
4.	Results	81
	Hypothesis 1	81

Hypothesis 2	86
Hypothesis 3	92
Hypothesis 4	98
Further Exploratory Analysis	102
5. Summary, Conclusions, Limitations and	
Recommendations	109
Summary	109
Conclusions	110
Additional Findings	112
Limitations	114
Recommendations	115
 APPENDIX	
A. Personal Data Form, Confidential	118
B. Letter of Acceptance of Training Offer,	
Fort Eustis	120
C. Rational Self-Counseling Course Outline	122
D. Bem Sex-Role Inventory	125
REFERENCES	129

LIST OF TABLES

Table		Page
1.	Frequency Distribution and Descriptive Statistics for Age of Subjects, Combined Groups	62
2.	Frequency Distribution of Subjects by Sex and by Group	63
3.	Frequency Distribution of Subjects by Race, Combined Groups	64
4.	Frequency Distribution of Subjects by Marital Status, Combined Groups	65
5.	Frequency Distribution of Subjects by Education Level, Combined Groups	66
6.	Frequency Distribution of Subjects by Years of Civil Service, Combined Groups	67
7.	Frequency Distribution of Subjects by Highest Grade Held, Combined Groups	68
8.	Posttest-Only Control Group Design	69
9.	Hypothesis 1: <u>t</u> test of Control Versus Experimental Groups for Posttest Bem Sex- Role Inventory Scores	83
10.	Hypothesis 1: One-way Analysis of Variance among All Four Groups on Bem Sex-Role Inventory	84

11.	Hypothesis 2: <u>t</u> test of Control Versus Experimental Groups for Posttest Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior Scores	87
12.	Hypothesis 2: One-way Analysis of Variance among All Four Groups on Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-- Behavior	90
13.	Hypothesis 3: <u>t</u> test of Control Versus Experimental Groups for Posttest Adjective Check List Scores	93
14.	Hypothesis 3: One-way Analysis of Variance among All Four Groups on Adjective Check List	96
15.	Hypothesis 4: Pearson Product-Moment Correlation between Final Composite Score and Three Instruments	99
16.	Hypothesis 4: Stepwise Multiple Regression Analysis of Final Composite Score with Adjective Check List and Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-- Behavior Scales	100
17.	Pearson Product-Moment Correlations among Selected Variables for the Experimental Groups	103

18.	Pearson Product-Moment Correlations of	
	Selected Variables for Control Versus	
	Experimental Groups	106

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Eclectic Counseling Method	41
2. Four-fold Typology of Sex Roles	50
3. Classification of Subjects by Sex-Role	85

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Nobody does anything alone, least of all a dissertation. I am indebted to those who were patient and understanding. But, I owe even more to those whose chiding and prodding electrified me when will and imagination flagged.

To Kevin Geoffroy for keeping ever before me the objectives of this undertaking, for guiding me through the necessary logistics, and most of all for serving as mentor and friend.

To Armand Galfo for suggesting a useful and economical research design and, with Ronald Braithwaite and David Reed, for making those "bytes" somehow intelligible.

To Curtis O'Shell for giving me unfailing confidence and moral support.

To Fred Adair for providing timely suggestions on interpreting the research.

To Charles Matthews for making available many opportunities for personal growth.

To H. Jackson Darst for offering encouragement and support and for serving as role model of the effective educator.

To the many friends and associates whose cumulative insights provided a dependable buoyage system through unknown waters.

To Major General Alton G. Post for his confidence in allowing me to provide training for his civilians; to his personnel chief, Berkley Thornton, for opening the necessary doors; and to Bobby West

and Nancy LaCross for assistance and personal support throughout the experiment. Special thanks are due to those 80 "subjects" for their courage, humor and enthusiasm for the program.

To Betty Hart for early and continuous encouragement.

To Harry Channing Smith for sharing his great talent in recording what became the most professional and enjoyable portions of the Rational Self-Counseling course.

And finally, to those splendid administrative assistants without whose efforts none of this would have been possible: Gloria Beil, Marion Belman and her staff, Hope Typins, Dorothy McGaffic and Michelle Morabito.

The Lord appeared to Solomon in a dream and said, "What shall I give you?" and Solomon answered, "give thy servant . . . a heart with skill to listen."

1 Kings, Chapter 3, verses 6 & 9
New English Bible

THE EFFECTS OF RATIONAL SELF-COUNSELING ON
SELECTED PERSONALITY DIMENSIONS OF
UPWARD MOBILITY REGISTRANTS

Chapter 1

Introduction

"Life is what happens to us while we are busy making plans," someone has said. Perhaps this is also true of happiness. The Bill of Rights notwithstanding, happiness is not achieved by direct pursuit, but is instead the by-product of a well-integrated, rational life. Albert Ellis has identified 10 irrational ideas, widely held by members of society, which are at the root of much personal unhappiness and despair (Ellis & Harper, 1977). A review of these irrational ideas reveals that essentially they speak to the sense of a lack of control over people's lives: they must be admired, must achieve perfection, must have things their way, must punish the evil-doer, must avoid life's problems, must be depressed over uncontrollable circumstances, et cetera.

The inability of people to control themselves, events and other people is taken as a sign of failure which in the extreme is viewed as "catastrophic." Ellis' Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) helps people to overcome disturbing emotions by identifying and dealing with their irrational ideas. Although Ellis and RET do not promise happiness, since "humans differ enormously in what brings them positive contentment," they do teach people "how not to feel unduly miserable [Ellis & Harper, 1977, p. 75]." Ellis claims that he and his colleagues of the rational school can pinpoint what individuals do to make themselves miserable. Freed of unproductive or destructive

emotions resulting from irrational ideas, people can lead more satisfying lives, which may, in turn, bring them "happiness." Getting rid of irrational ideas does not in itself make people happy; it makes it possible for them to become happy.

The basic philosophy underlying Rational Emotive Therapy is that individuals feel the way they think. By modifying their thinking process, people can change their emotions, since "human emotions do not magically exist in their own right, and do not mysteriously flow from unconscious needs and desires. Rather, they almost always directly stem from ideas, thoughts, attitudes, or beliefs [Ellis & Harper, 1977, p. 11]." Among the assumptions RET makes about the nature of man and the source of his unhappiness are the following: man is both rational and irrational, and rational behavior causes him to be "effective, happy and competent [Patterson, 1973, p. 51]"; emotional disturbances are the results of illogical thinking learned in childhood; being a verbal animal, man uses language to perpetuate his disturbances by verbalizing his irrational thoughts and ideas, thereby reinforcing them; emotional disturbances resulting from self-verbalizations are determined, according to Epictetus, by man's view of events, rather than by the events themselves.

Commenting upon the cognitive-learning trend in psychotherapy as exemplified by RET, Mahoney (1977) credits Ellis with considerable influence in combining elements of two formerly competing perspectives, internal and behavioral, into the new hybrid which recognizes the interactive influences of the organism and its environment. The emerging cognitive-learning approach has four essential elements:

1. The human organism responds primarily to cognitive representations of its environments rather than to those environments per se.
2. These cognitive representations are functionally related to the processes and parameters of learning.
3. Most human learning is cognitively mediated.
4. Thoughts, feelings and behaviors are causally interactive [Mahoney, 1977, pp. 7-8].

Mahoney (1977) sees several important effects of these elements, assuming that they are valid: beliefs predict behavior more reliably than do external variables, but a combination is still more useful; learning theory may be used to modify beliefs, attitudes, et cetera; performance changes and cognitive changes will be highly correlated.

How Ellis translates the cognitive-learning theory into actual practice was the subject of Becker and Rosenfeld's (1976) recent study. They analyzed taped therapy sessions of Ellis, using a classification scheme to categorize his therapeutic techniques. Of the 16 categories listed (including didactic teaching, praise, logical argument), Ellis predictably spent most time in general-didactic teaching, using examples and rhetorical questions. He told the client what his irrational beliefs were and challenged them with logic, maintaining a forceful and directive approach throughout. The authors concluded that Ellis actually does practice what he preaches.

In dedicating his book Help yourself to happiness through rational self-counseling, Maxie Maultsby (1975) acknowledges Ellis as

one of "the three giants who were kind enough to let me stand for awhile on their shoulders [p. v]." And, in his foreword to Maultsby's book, Ellis proposes that Maultsby's name be added to the distinguished roster of rational theorists, which includes such names as Adler, Glasser, Lazarus and Rotter. Ellis acknowledges Maultsby's contributions to RET (Maultsby's RBT for Rational Behavior Therapy): his development of effective training and therapy methods; his analysis of the elements of rational behavior; his adaptation of Ellis' methods to self-counseling; his extensive use of homework assignments; and his development of Rational-Emotive Imagery (REI).

Rational Self-Counseling grew out of Ellis' Rational Emotive Therapy. It provides a means of emotional self-help which teaches individuals to analyze their thinking, to dispute their irrational ideas with logic and to develop a more realistic view of themselves and their circumstances. Maultsby (1975) builds upon Ellis' "A-B-C" method of describing emotions; "A" being the triggering event, "B" the beliefs or thoughts about the event, and "C" the emotional reaction. After the client has separated a disturbing event into the A, B and C categories, he applies Maultsby's five characteristics of rational thinking to challenge both the event as he perceived it and the thoughts and feelings it generated in him. Thinking is said to be rational if it is:

1. true,
2. aids in self-preservation,
3. achieves one's goals quickly,
4. helps one to avoid trouble, and

5. helps one to feel the way one wants to feel (Maultsby, 1974).

Maultsby teaches clients, individually or in groups, to write out their Rational Self-Analyses (RSA) in the following format:

A	Da
(Facts and Events being analyzed)	(Challenge to A)
<hr/>	
B	Db
(Self-talk: thoughts about events in A)	(Challenge to B using five characteristics of rational thinking)
B1	Db1
B2	Db2
et cetera	et cetera
<hr/>	
C	E
(Feelings about A)	(How you want to feel in future about this kind of situation)
<hr/>	

Clients learn to analyze their own or other people's real problems. They are regularly assigned RSAs for homework which are later discussed in the group and/or evaluated by the therapist (Maultsby & Hendricks, 1974). Homework was the original name for Rational Self-Analysis. Now homework becomes an essential part of training in

Rational Self-Analysis: it multiplies treatment time, without requiring the presence of the therapist throughout; it actively involves the client in his own self-improvement program; it permits the client to criticize himself calmly and without "the emotionalism which has distorted his perceptions [Goodman & Maultsby, 1974, p. 12]"; and it teaches the client to distinguish thoughts from feelings, and to describe facts and events in more objective terms (Goodman & Maultsby).

Research done by Maultsby from 1968 to 1970 supports the value of written homework in psychotherapy. He studied the progress of 87 unselected outpatients for whom homework was an important means of treatment. At intervals during therapy, and on termination, patients estimated their progress in overcoming specific psychoemotional problems. As a check upon patients' self-evaluation, the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale was given before and after therapy. Data supported the value of homework: results indicated the practicality of written homework with this kind of population; the majority (85%) of patients who improved cited the benefits of homework; and the correlation between completion of homework assignments and progress was significant at the .01 level (Goodman & Maultsby, 1974).

As Ellis has acknowledged, Maultsby developed Rational-Emotive Imagery which consists of teaching the client to mentally rehearse the habits he wants to learn. This provides both safety and privacy for the client, which are not always available during real life practice. REI is designed for use in accelerating the "self-change process [Goodman & Maultsby, 1974, p. 70]." The client first completes a written RSA on the irrational behavior so as to refute the

fear-producing ideas and substitute rational alternatives. He imagines himself in a situation as he typically behaves or emotes, then pictures himself behaving as he would prefer to do in the same situation, applying the rational challenges from his written RSA. Maultsby also uses auto-aversive imagery to extinguish certain compulsive behaviors (Goodman & Maultsby, 1974).

Making use of Ellis' concept of the 10 irrational ideas which many people share, Maultsby developed the Profile of Irrational Thinking which measures common perceptions, beliefs and traits based upon those irrational ideas. There are three scales that ask clients to respond to each statement by circling the appropriate word from the range of "never" to "always." Typical statements from the three scales are: "The very time I decide to trust someone, it seems that he or she always lets me down [Goodman & Maultsby, 1974, p. 48]"; "I believe that a person's behavior describes the person [p. 49]"; and "I feel guilty when I don't do the things I know I should [p. 53]." Clawson (1976, p. 5) says of these scales that "the phenomena they measure appear stable over time and tend to change for the better with rational therapies."

The effects of rational training have been measured using, among others, the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale (Goodman & Maultsby, 1974); Rotter's Internal-External Scale (I-E) (Clawson, 1976; Maultsby, Knipping, & Carpenter, 1974); the Rathus Assertiveness Schedule, the Social Avoidance and Distress Scale, and the Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (Wolfe & Fodor, 1977); the Ohio State Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Campbell, 1972); Bills Index of Adjustment

and Values; Haggerty-Olson-Wickman Behavior Rating Scale, the Semantic Differential, California Psychological Inventory and the Allport-Vernon Study of Values (Gazda & Larsen, 1972); Sarason's Test Anxiety Scale; the Personal Orientation Inventory (POI) (Maultsby et al., 1974); and the Adult (Irrational) Ideas Inventory (Keller, Croake, & Brooking, 1975).

Maultsby, Knipping, and Carpenter (1974) report on a study to test the effectiveness of teaching self-help in the classroom, using Rational Self-Counseling (RSC). The assessment instruments used were the Personal Orientation Inventory, Maultsby's Common Trait Inventory (CTI), and Rotter's I-E Scale. The POI measures personal development and interpersonal interaction; the Maultsby CTI "is a list of common irrational traits that can cause unhappiness in the daily lives of irrational people [p. 446]," Rotter's I-E Scale was used to check the POI support scale. Results indicated that students in the experimental group improved significantly on the Maultsby inventories; and on the POI and Rotter I-E Scales they changed in the expected direction, though not significantly. The reasons cited for the lack of significance of these latter were the permissive classroom atmosphere and the lack of evidence of learning. A subsequent study, using a structured classroom, and requiring students to demonstrate that they had learned and could apply RSC, found statistically significant changes in the POI and Rotter I-E (Maultsby et al., 1974). The same laws of learning by which irrational thoughts and attitudes have been inculcated can be used to teach rationality. In the final analysis, according to rational theory, people counsel themselves. Rational

Self-Counseling holds out the promise of a more effective life for those who apply its principles.

Statement of the Problem

This investigation studied the effects of training in the use of Rational Self-Counseling upon the: self-concept, as measured by selected scales of the Adjective Check List (ACL); interpersonal relations orientation, as measured by the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior (FIRO-B) scales; and sex-role identity as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI). The study sought to answer the following questions:

What effect, if any, does RSC training have upon the individual's self-acceptance, as measured by selected scales of the Adjective Check List?

What effect, if any, does RSC training have upon the individual's "wanted" and "expressed" scores on the Inclusion, Control and Affection scales of the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior?

What effect, if any, does RSC training have upon the individual's sex-role identity, as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory?

Is there a relationship between course success, as reflected in a composite final course grade, and scores on any of the personality instruments used?

Does demographic data, as reflected on the Personal Data Form, correlate significantly with any of the instrument scores or composite course grade?

These instruments provide, by a kind of "triangulation," an

estimate of the personality from three perspectives: how the individual feels about himself or herself; how the individual behaves toward others and how he prefers to have others behave toward him; and finally, how psychologically "healthy" the individual is as reflected by his masculinity, femininity or androgyny. Posttest measures using these instruments were hypothesized to indicate the extent of the influence of Rational Self-Counseling.

A review of the literature, Chapter 2, shows that the "rational" individual is also one who has a good self-concept and is less rigid in his sex-role definition: the healthier he or she is, the more he or she will resemble the androgynous individual--possessing the positive attributes of both the masculine and feminine sex roles. The rational person will tend also to be more outgoing, gregarious and cooperative in his social relations. Such are the characteristics of Rogers' (1961) "fully functioning person," whom Rogers describes as more open to experience, as opposed to being defensive. "If a person could be fully open to his experience, however, every stimulus--whether originating within the organism or in the environment--would be freely relayed through the nervous system without being distorted by any defensive mechanism [p. 187]." Such a person also lives more existentially--more fully in each moment. "His behavior would come as close as possible to satisfying all his needs--for enhancement, for affiliation with others, and the like [p. 190]." The mature individual looks less to others for approval or disapproval: he "comes to feel that this locus of evaluation lies within himself [p. 119]." He accepts himself "as a stream of becoming, not a finished product--

a continually changing constellation of potentialities, not a fixed quantity of traits [p. 122]." Maultsby could have written these words to describe the rational individual.

Teaching Rational Self-Counseling to groups of government employees enrolled in the Upward Mobility program was particularly appropriate. It served the objectives of both the program and the registrants. Establishment of the program was directed by the President of the United States in 1969 in order to develop career opportunities for lower-level employees whose "positions do not enable them to realize their full work potential [U.S. Civil Service Commission (USCSC), 1974a, p. 1]." An important prerequisite for participation in the Upward Mobility Program is the employee's "potential," defined as "the ability (including desire) to acquire and use skills and knowledges needed to successfully perform higher level work [USCSC, 1974b, p. 1, Attachment 1]." Opportunities for advancement are provided through training and education, counseling and job restructuring. Rational Self-Counseling training combines training and counseling in rational thinking and behaving which should prepare the individual to assume greater personal and job responsibilities.

Although various personality instruments have been used to measure the effects of rational training, changes in interpersonal and sex-role orientation have not been reported in the literature. Neither have Rational Self-Counseling training nor personality assessment been done with Upward Mobility personnel. This study is unique in these respects.

Theory

Rational Self-Counseling is a hybrid of the cognitive and behavioral emphases in psychotherapy. The cognitive perspective grew out of an ancient tradition of "internalism," or the view that ascribes human behavior determinants to the internal man. By contrast, behaviorism emphasizes external influences on behavior--the environmental effects upon the individual. Internalism has been traced beyond the Greek and Roman philosophers to early Eastern influences. Much credit is given to Sigmund Freud for theorizing that the psychological adjustment process was influenced by the inner workings of the mind. Watson's radical behaviorism of the early 1900s had a strong influence on experimental rather than clinical psychology. Later behaviorists such as Wolfe and Lazarus began to apply laboratory findings of Skinner to clinical psychological situations. Finally, Julian Rotter, Kelly and Beck may be credited with melding the two competing perspectives. But, Ellis had perhaps the greatest influence in establishing cognitive therapy as a viable ideology. More recently, Bandura, Mischel, and Meichenbaum have been among the more significant contributors to the cognitive-learning perspective (Mahoney, 1977).

Highlighting the cognitive development since Freud, one might begin with Alfred Adler. A student of Freud, Adler later differed with him in several important respects. Adler held that motives for power and status influenced behavior even more than Freud's sexual motives. He perceived the importance of "social feeling" in determining behavior, in addition to the biological. By social feeling, Adler meant cooperation. "Anything that we estimate as valuable, good,

right, and normal, we estimate simply in so far [sic] as it has 'virtue' from the point of view of an ideal society [Adler, 1965, p. 101]." Later, discussing man's need for a social environment, Adler (1965) says:

The capacity for identification, which alone makes us capable of friendship, humane love, pity, vocation, and love, is the basis of the social sense and can be practiced and exercised only in conjunction with others. . . . And in the course of this identification we are able to conjure up all sorts of feelings, emotions, and affects, such as we experience not only in dreams but also in waking life, in neurosis and psychosis. . . . The style of life is what makes our experiences reasons for our attitude, that calls up these feelings and determines conclusions in accordance with its own purposes [p. 102].

The self theorists, including, among others, Karen Horney and Carl Rogers, placed the individual at the center of the therapeutic process, with responsibility for changing himself. Rogers' "nondirective" approach to the client was a reversal of the usual therapist's leadership role. The self-concept is learned: it grows and changes with experience. Rogers believed that the individual has a need to self-actualize himself, to incline toward wholeness and autonomy (Brammer & Shostrom, 1968).

Rational Self-Counseling has a strong behaviorist component by virtue of the contributions of learning theory. Learning theory evolved from animal experiments in operant conditioning, led by

Skinner. The basic assumption of learning theorists is that most behavior is learned. Maultsby reports that "Recent research in experimental psychology and psychosomatic medicine indicates that habits of perceiving and thinking trigger and maintain most emotional feelings [Maultsby, 1976c, p. 1]." Those habits are learned just as any others, obeying the principles of learning. But, people can learn to replace such habits with others that are based on rational, objective perceiving and thinking. "The patient, in the last analysis, cures himself [Goodman & Maultsby, 1974, p. 8]."

Rational Self-Counseling is based upon Rational Behavior Therapy, whose basic assumptions are:

1. Permanent emotional change is the result of emotional reeducation.
2. The five stages in emotional reeducation are the same and follow the same general principles of learning as the five stages in any type of reeducation, namely:
 - a. Intellectual insight
 - b. Converting practice
 - c. Cognitive dissonance
 - d. Emotional insight
 - e. Personality trait formation
3. In the process of rational emotional reeducation, therapists have the sole responsibility for providing patients with an adequate opportunity for efficient emotional analysis, extinction and auto-conditioning. Patients have the sole responsibility of using that opportunity to put themselves

through the five stages of emotion reeducation.

4. The time required for patients to pass through the five stages of emotional reeducation depends primarily on the patient's ability to learn and willingness to learn new emotional habits.

5. Because Intensive RBT is based on learning theories, most effective teaching and learning aids can be used to facilitate the emotional reeducational process.

6. The events and process of education and reeducation are:

a. Goal-directed repetition of new perceptions and thoughts produce relatively permanent cognitive habits, called attitudes and beliefs, that elicit specific habits of emotional feelings and physical actions.

b. Goal-directed repetition of new perceptions and thoughts about old situations produce new cognitive habits (i.e., new attitudes and beliefs), that elicit new habits of emotional feelings and physical actions which compete with the older habits of emotional and physical actions.

c. At the same time as new cognitive, emotional and physical habits are being formed, the older, competing habits are simultaneously being extinguished [Maultsby, 1975a, p. 2].

Maultsby and Ellis are among the cognitive-learning theorists who believe that behavior change follows upon changes in attitudes and beliefs. This is in contrast to behaviorists, such as Meichenbaum (1977) who believe that behavior must be changed before attitudes and

beliefs can be changed. Meichenbaum's cognitive theory of behavior change consists of three phases: the client observes his own behavior; he discovers his maladaptive behavior, causing him to enter into an internal dialogue with himself; he then changes this dialogue which changes his behavior to that which is more satisfying.

Maultsby and Ellis have the client analyze his own attitudes and emotions, challenge them with rational argument and, as a consequence, behave in more acceptable and enjoyable ways. Mahoney (1977) says both groups of psychologists may be correct, since "there appears to be a continuing reciprocal interaction both between the organism and its environment and among the organism's various response systems [p. 8]."

To check the possible effects of training in Rational Self-Counseling upon the self-concept (self-acceptance), interpersonal relations and androgyny, this investigation used the Adjective Check List, Gough and Heilbrun (1965); the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior, Schutz (1967); and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, Bem (1974). The ACL is based upon the trait theory of personality which describes personality in terms of various, and separate, characteristics. According to Lanyon and Goodstein (1971), personality may be defined as "those enduring characteristics of the person which are significant for this interpersonal behavior [p. 27]." The ACL has its roots in self-concept theory. Rogers (cited in Byrne, 1974), one of the greatest exponents of self-concept theory, believes that behavior is "a function of the individual's perception of events." Subjects respond "in terms of their own individual

perceptions." Behavior is not seen as a response to stimuli, but "is basically the goal-directed attempt of the organism to satisfy its needs as experienced, in the field as perceived [p. 275]." The ACL was used to get from the subject his perception of himself as revealed in the adjectives he selected to describe himself. All groups were posttested. Differences between groups were analyzed in terms of treatment (RSC) effects. This same scheme was used for all three personality inventories.

The FIRO-B is based upon Schutz's (1967) 3-dimensional theory of interpersonal behavior. The theory proposes that interpersonal behavior is based upon a person's attempt to satisfy his internal needs, especially those of inclusion, control and affection. Ryan (1977) defines these three basic interpersonal needs as follows: Inclusion measures how much the individual associates with others; Control assesses how much responsibility the person assumes, and the extent to which he dominates and makes decisions for others; Affection measures the extent of emotional involvement with other people. The "configuration" of these needs in an individual predisposes him to interact with others in a characteristic predictable orientation (Underwood & Krafft, 1973). To the extent that some of the subject's needs in these three areas are irrational, then it appears reasonable to expect that Rational Self-Counseling will cause the subject to change toward more rationality in his needs, with those changes reflected in his interpersonal orientation as revealed in posttest FIRO-B scores.

Tests of masculinity and femininity have a 40-year history.

Among the earliest major tests was the Terman and Miles (cited in Constantinople, 1973) Attitude-Interest Analysis Test (M-F). Terman and Miles believed that "mental masculinity and femininity" was a basic personality trait. But, they did not define this construct because of confusion arising from the acceptance of observable behavior as the criterion of measurement, lack of more general sampling, and bias in judgment. Terman and Miles described their research in their 1936 book: Sex and personality. Strong (cited in Constantinople) included a masculinity-femininity scale in his Strong Vocational Interest Blank to show how career choices differ for men and women. In the 1940s, the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI): Masculinity-Femininity Scale was developed ostensibly to measure masculine and feminine interest patterns, but researchers involved in selecting the items state that its real intent was to identify male inversion. Cronbach (cited in Constantinople) criticizes the scale based upon the size and composition of the groups involved as not representative of the general population. Gough (cited in Constantinople) developed a Femininity Scale as part of the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) whose purpose is to define a bipolar personality trait with masculinity and femininity at opposite poles. Constantinople (1973) notes that Gough's descriptions of item clusters reflect stereotypes of masculinity and femininity and suspects that the scale reflects multidimensionality, in the absence of confirmation by factor analysis.

Other kinds of tests have attempted to measure M-F, including projective, semantic differential, word association and adjective

lists. These tests sought to overcome some of the sex-role stereotypes found in questionnaires, but they too are bipolar and do not deal with the issue of dimensionality (is M-F a unitary trait or a cluster of subtraits?). Lunneborg (cited in Constantinople, 1973), in the early 1970s, did research on multidimensionality of M-F scales in an attempt to discover whether M-F was a single dimension, or contained a few factors common to both sexes, or, finally, was composed of several weak factors suggesting that a number of personality traits reflected sex differences. Lunneborg concluded that M-F is neither undimensional nor nonexistent.

A number of researchers have addressed the question of simple bipolarity of the M-F construct. Among these, Gonen and Lansky (cited in Constantinople, 1973) concluded that the MMPI items which did not discriminate between the sexes might be related to one or the other, but not to M-F, reflecting unipolarity. Constantinople (1973) cites culture lag as a problem in M-F measurement, citing outdated behavior differences appearing in the CPI. Constantinople concludes that research suggests the interaction of item content, sex-role stereotypes and social desirability.

Bem believes, with Jung, that each individual contains both masculine and feminine characteristics, and that to stifle either aspect of one's nature because of sex-role expectations is to harm both one's self and society. Introducing the concept of psychological androgyny, Bem argues that it is possible to be both masculine and feminine, depending upon the situational requirements. In fact, modern society requires that an individual be both self-reliant and

sensitive toward others--both "masculine" and "feminine" (Bem, in press). She cites the research of Maccoby (1966), which has shown that more masculine girls and more feminine boys show greater intellectual development; whereas, boys and girls who are more sex-typical have lower intelligence.

Bem reports on the research of Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz (1972), which suggests "possible detrimental effects of sex-role standards upon the full development of capabilities of men and women [p. 60]." Another finding of Broverman et al., important to Bem's concept of psychological androgyny, is the double standard of mental health, by which "the general standard of health (adult, sex-unspecified) is actually applied to men only, while healthy women are perceived as significantly less healthy by adult standards [p. 71]." Different mental health standards exist for men and women. Another significant finding is that both sexes incorporate both positive and negative aspects of the sex-role stereotype, and that women's self-concept is more negative than men's, since female traits are negatively valued by society. Concerned that "traditional sex roles do restrict behavior in important human ways [Bem, in press, p. 3]," Bem began to search for and to describe the androgynous person. To do this, she began by constructing the sex-role inventory that bears her name. Instead of showing masculinity and femininity at opposite poles, the Bem Sex-Role Inventory treats them as statistically independent of each other. The test-taker has a score for each sex-role and is said to have the sex-role of the score which is significantly higher. The person whose scores are both high

is considered to have an androgynous sex role: this means that the individual endorses both masculine and feminine characteristics.

Hypotheses

The purpose of this study is to measure the effects of training in Rational Self-Counseling upon selected subjects, as follows:

1. There will be significant differences between posttest means of groups on the sex identity variables, as measured by the Sex-Role Inventory.

2. There will be significant differences between posttest means of groups on the interpersonal relations variables as measured by the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior Scales.

3. There will be significant differences between posttest means of groups on the self-acceptance variables as measured by the Adjective Check List.

4. There will be a significant correlation between final composite scores and posttest scores on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior Scales, and the Adjective Check List for treated subjects.

Definition of Terms

Affection

As used in the FIRO-B, refers to the need for deep relationships (Ryan, 1977).

Androgynous

An individual who exhibits a high degree of both masculine and feminine behaviors. As measured by the BSRI, it is reflected in high

scores on both masculine and feminine personality characteristics (Bem, 1977; Bem, Martyna, & Watson, 1976).

Behavior Rehearsal

Role-playing desired behaviors until desired proficiency is achieved.

Concurrent Validity

A function of a test which assesses the individual's present status: "the criterion is measured at about the same time as the predictor [Kerlinger, 1973, p. 459n]."

Content Validity

"[I]nvolves showing that the content of the test is representative of the behaviors in which we are interested [Lanyon & Goodstein, 1971, p. 129]."

Control

As used in the FIRO-B, refers to the need to assume responsibility, make decisions and dominate others (Ryan, 1977).

Criteria for Rational Thinking

Maultsby's five rules:

1. It is based on objective reality.
2. It enables people to protect their lives.
3. It enables people to achieve their goals most quickly.
4. It enables people to keep out of significant trouble with other people.
5. It enables people to prevent or quickly eliminate significant personal emotional conflict (Maultsby, 1975b, p. 8).

Inclusion

As used in FIRO-B, refers to the need to associate with others (Ryan, 1977).

Rational-Emotive Imagery

Mental rehearsal of new emotional and physical habits which subjects want to learn (Maultsby, 1976c).

Summary

Rational Self-Counseling was developed by Maultsby on the basis of Ellis' Rational Emotive Therapy. The client participates in his cure and, to a large degree, becomes his own therapist. Rational therapy has a cognitive/learning theory base and it is client-centered. All three instruments used in this investigation, the ACL, FIRO-B, and BSRI are firmly grounded in theory and are widely used to measure, respectively, self-acceptance, interpersonal relations orientation and sex-role identity. This investigation used selected personality instruments to measure change occurring as a result of training in the theory and application of Rational Self-Counseling techniques. It was hypothesized that such training would cause the subject to be more self-accepting, less sexually stereotypical, and more interpersonally productive.

Chapter 2

Review of the Literature

This chapter reviews the literature in areas appropriate to the investigation, providing background information on its rationale. Areas reviewed concern: (a) the cognitive/learning approach to behavior change, (b) operant conditioning and desensitization, (c) the role of self-talk, (d) research on the effects of rational therapy, (e) the concept of psychological androgyny, (f) interpersonal relations orientation, and (g) self-acceptance.

The Cognitive/Learning Approach to

Behavior Change

Rational therapy has its roots in antiquity. Among early rationalists were the Greeks, going back to the Stoic philosophers of the third century B.C. Epictetus of Phrygia provides Ellis with the wisdom on which he bases his Rational Emotive Therapy. Epictetus said, "It is not the things themselves that disturb men, but their judgments about these things [cited in Clawson, 1976, p. 8]." But, Ellis, the father of modern rational theory, credits certain rational thinkers not only with recognizing the centrality of rationality in men's lives, but also with using it to help change themselves and those around them. To quote Ellis and Harper (1977),

These and other outstanding rational thinkers, after reading about the teaching of still earlier thinkers (Heraclitus and Democritus, among others), and doing some deep thinking of

their own, enthusiastically adopted philosophies radically different from their original beliefs. More to the point for purposes of our present discussion, they actually began to live these philosophies, to act in accordance with them [p. 5].

(As indicated in the preceding chapter, Ellis' RET became Maultsby's RBT, with some modifications.)

Mahoney (1977), in reflecting upon the cognitive/learning trend in psychotherapy, traces the major events leading to the merger of these two divergent perspectives, of which Ellis' rational-emotive psychotherapy is one of the most prominent examples. "His (Ellis') observation regarding the role of irrational thought patterns in emotional distress continues to be one of the fundamental assertions in contemporary cognitive/learning approaches [p. 7]." Fundamental to this new perspective are the following general assertions: the human organism responds not so much to environments as to "cognitive representations" of them; these representations are related to the learning process; "most human learning is cognitively mediated"; and "thoughts, feelings and behaviors are causally interactive [p. 8]."

The rational school owes much to behavior theory. Yates (1970) cites the following: tracing the historical developments of behaviorism begins with experimental psychology and the classical conditioning experiments of Pavlov. The experimental procedures and theories developed by the Russians were applied to abnormal behavior beginning in the 1920s. For example, the principles of conditioning were used by Watson and Raynor in treating children's fears in 1920;

Ivanov-Smolansky in 1928 applied them in treating depression. But, the 1930s saw the development of theories with wider application than conditioning. Hull's work was an attempt to combine both classical and instrumental conditioning on one theoretical framework. His work, based upon Thorndike, made use of theory and facts in the field of abnormal behavior. Dollard and Miller interpreted psychodynamic concepts in learning theory terms.

The basic assumption of learning theory is that a person has physiological drives which give rise to secondary motives through social learning, all of which move the individual toward a goal.

A stimulus or cue sets off the response which propels the client towards his goals. The response is rewarded and tends to be repeated. This sequence is described as an S-R (stimulus-response) [Brammer & Shostrom, 1968, p. 53].

Stimulus-Response (S-R) theories which originally tried to ignore the "mental" component were later "modified to account for those events which occur between the input of a stimulus and the emission of an overt response. Thus, S-O-R theories gained prominence (a stimulus impinges on a unique organism which then emits a response) [Lazarus, 1971, p. 177]." But, the rational-emotive concept, which includes a cognitive map, might be described as Stimulus-Cognitive Map-Response (S-CM-R). Ellis calls it the ABC theory of an emotion, stressing that "it is not the events at point A that cause the reaction at point C, but rather the thoughts at point B about what occurs at A [p. 177]."

Bandura (1977) describes human behavior from a social learning

view which holds that it represents the interaction of personal and environmental factors, and that "self-influence" determines in part which behavior one produces. He holds that, while environmental influences on behavior are significant, "people hold firmly to ideological positions rather than undergo compliant behavior reversals [p. 128]." Bandura also notes the effects of self-appraisal on performance, both favorable and unfavorable. People treat themselves well if they perform well and "badly when they judge themselves self-critically [p. 133]." The value one places on behavior is not inherent in that behavior, but is the result of the positive or negative self-evaluation it produces. In discussing inaccuracies in thinking, Bandura cites faulty logic in processing information:

Personal biases cause people to distort what they see and hear. Many human difficulties and distresses stem from problems of thought. People repeatedly generate aversive arousal by anxiety-producing ruminations; they debilitate their own performances by self-doubting, self-deprecating, and other self-defeating thought; they act without thinking or on misconceptions that get them into trouble [p. 190].

Citing the work of Ellis in modifying faulty thinking by rational analysis and cognitive restructuring, Bandura suggests that effectiveness of the method is probably due more to the "corrective assignments to behave differently than from exhortations to think better. Improvements in behavioral functioning produce cognitive changes [p. 190]." Ellis and Maultsby would claim the reverse.

Operant Conditioning and Desensitization

Operant conditioning and desensitization are two principles of learning which are used in behavior therapy and, to some extent, in RET/RBT. The first refers to the rewarding of desired behavior as it occurs in therapy so that it will be repeated and become stronger. Skinner (cited in Bandura & Walters, 1963) describes the effect of operant conditioning on behavior as that of a sculptor shaping a lump of clay. Maultsby's taped sessions contain frequent use of this kind of reinforcement. He almost invariably responds to his clients' efforts at self-understanding with "Right," "Okay," "Beautiful," "Yes," et cetera. Systematic desensitization, a technique developed by Wolpe,

is the piecemeal breaking down of neurotic anxiety-response habits, employing a physiological state incompatible with anxiety to inhibit the anxiety response to a stimulus that evokes it weakly, repeating the exposure until the stimulus loses completely its anxiety-evoking ability. Then progressively "stronger" stimuli are introduced and similarly "treated [Wolpe & Lazarus, 1966, p. 54]."

Desensitization, as used in Rational Behavior Therapy, teaches that the evaluation of an object or event, rather than the object or event itself, is responsible for the emotive response. A person learns to reevaluate and then to change the resulting emotion. Maultsby developed a technique he calls Rational Emotive Imagery (REI) to get clients to imagine "threatening" situations and to reevaluate them in more realistic, nonthreatening terms in order to learn a healthier

response. Fear of snakes, for example, might be cured by REI.

Piaget and Lazarus (1969) have developed an interesting method of treating the individual who is either unable to call up appropriate images, or to respond affectively to imagined situations, or who is unable to relax. They use a rehearsal-desensitization method in which the usual anxiety hierarchy is developed, but which is followed by role-reversal. Therapist and patient reverse roles at the outset so that the therapist can model the way the patient should behave. After that, when the patient is ready, he role-plays himself. Maltz (1969), in his popular book Psycho-cybernetics, tells how to use role-playing and imagination to sell more, play better golf, practice the piano, et cetera. He says "You act, and feel, not according to what things are really like, but according to the image your mind holds of what they are like [p. 34]." Then he applies this concept in changing personality.

In applying a procedure which he terms "rational imagery," Lazarus (1971) has the client, whenever he is upset (angry, depressed), ask himself what a group of his peers would consider to be a reasonable response under the circumstances (p. 178).

Meichenbaum (1977) attempts to develop a useful theory of behavior change which takes into account the many ways that lead to change. He identifies three basic change processes: the client's behaviors, his internal dialogue and his cognitive structures. These three interact to produce a change in behavior, with the aid of a mediating process. The mediating process, according to Meichenbaum, is getting the client to recognize his maladaptive behavior, which in

turn causes his "inner speech" to change, which ultimately "triggers coping behaviors [p. 218]." Therapy is considered to be a success when the client changes both his behavior and his internal dialogue, adding that "a person is how he behaves as well as what he says to himself [p. 225]." In this respect, he differs from Ellis and Maultsby, who specifically teach that one is not one's behavior. An Ellis poster puts it humorously: "Just because I behave wormily does not make me a worm." Maultsby teaches the concept of human fallibility to his patients to help them see themselves and others less critically. In a cartoon illustrating the self-defeating belief which says, "The way I act tells me what type of person I am," Maultsby shows Irrational Ralph telling himself at various times of one day that he is: stupid for yelling at his wife; kind for helping someone; selfish for some act; cool for attracting "the gals," et cetera. Maultsby points out that "RBT made Ralph see that he's separate from and can never be his behavior; that rational insight lets him calmly accept himself regardless of what he does. He stops rating himself as a person; but he rates his behavior all the time, honestly and correctly [Maultsby & Hendricks, 1974, p. 98]." But, Meichenbaum differs from Ellis and Maultsby in another important respect. He claims that it may not be the incidence of irrational beliefs that distinguishes normal from abnormal individuals, but the difference in their coping skills.

The Role of Self-Talk

The concept of inner speech, or internal dialogue (as Plato called it), or self-talk, per Ellis and Maultsby, is basic to the

cognitive approach to behavior change. Meichenbaum (1977) quotes Beck on this subject:

For a good part of their waking life, people monitor their thoughts, wishes, feelings and actions. Sometimes there is an internal debate as the individual weighs alternatives and courses of action and makes decisions. Plato referred to this phenomenon as an "internal dialogue [p. 213]."

Inner speech is important in influencing behavior, but Meichenbaum (1977) believes that it has the additional function of altering cognitive structures, which he divides as "that organizing aspect of thinking that seems to monitor and direct the strategy, route, and choice of thoughts . . . a kind of 'executive processor,' which holds the blueprints of thinking [p. 213]." Goodman and Maultsby (1974) refer to the process of getting the patient to articulate his self-talk in order to help him realize that between a perception and its resulting emotion is a group of thoughts and attitudes. "Once the thoughts are recognized, rational challenges can be applied, repeated and learned in order to replace the irrational ideas with rational ones [p. 33]." Research done by Meichenbaum and Schwartz and Gottman (cited by Lange & Jakubowski, 1976), support the proposition that there is a significant connection between what a person does and what he says to himself. The latter found that college students with a low level of assertiveness had more negative and fewer positive self-statements than those who were more assertive. The difference between the two groups was the nature of their internal dialogue.

Fritz Perls (1969) identified an inner dialogue which takes

place between the "top dog" or superego, and the "underdog," or infra-ego. The top dog is superior and authoritarian, and deals in "shoulds" and "should nots." In contrast, the underdog is defensive and powerless. With the perfectionistic top dog, he plays the self-torture game and always loses, lamenting his failure to live up to top dog's demands. This internalized control by top dog's "you should" "interferes with the healthy working of the organism. There is only one thing that should control: the situation [p. 19]."

Ellis and Harper (1977) have found that in their clinical practice, almost all so-called emotional disturbance stems from "musterbation: from three kinds of devout shoulds, oughts, or musts that humans invent and then plague themselves with [p. 203]."

"Human beings are verbal animals, and thinking usually occurs through the use of symbols or language," Patterson (1973) states in his analysis of Ellis' rational-emotive therapy. The disturbed individual "perpetuates his disturbance [and] maintains his illogical behavior by internal verbalization of his irrational ideas and thoughts [p. 51]." Ellis believes that the things people tell themselves frequently become their emotions. And, by continuing to thus self-stimulate themselves, they continue to have their disordered behavior and emotions.

Continuing states of emotional disturbance, being the result of self-verbalizations, are thus determined, not by external circumstances or events, but by the perceptions and attitudes toward these events that are incorporated in the internalized sentences about them [p. 51].

Research on the Effects of
Rational Therapy

Julian Rotter (cited in Levis, 1970), in his chapter entitled "Learning approaches to therapeutic behavior change," summarizes the implications of the learning approach for therapeutic practice.

1. Psychotherapy is essentially a learning situation wherein the therapist helps the patient achieve changes in thinking and behavior. Since patients vary in characteristics such as motivation, skill, etc., technique must vary to match the patient's needs.
2. Since the patient's difficulties are seen as deficiencies in problem-solving, emphasis is on developing such problem-solving skills as thinking through consequences, seeking discriminations in real situations, etc.
3. The therapist is much more directive than in traditional analysis, since he is guiding the patient in learning new behavior and attitudes.
4. Learning Therapy calls for a greater emphasis upon the immediate and long-term consequences of behavior.
5. Since the patient often suffers from misinterpretation of the reactions and behavior motives of others, the therapist focuses on teaching him to understand such behavior and motives, using observation, modeling and imitation.
6. While the patient's interaction with the therapist is important, it should not be seen as the primary vehicle of treatment, since the patient may fail to generalize experience

in therapy to real life situations, which is the aim of treatment.

7. Psychotherapy should be seen as social interaction operating under the same laws as any interpersonal learning situation [Levis, 1970, p. 230].

With these guidelines for changing behavior through a learning approach, what evidence is there to document its effectiveness? Levis (1970) cites the following: Rotter reports on the findings of several research efforts. Studies by Good, Cantaneda and Lasko, on the long-range effects of success and failure in therapy as a function of experience on a given task, showed that frequent trials led to the least significant and most recent events which respond most easily to change, encouraging the patient to be less resistant to change. In another study, Rotter and Schroder studied the teaching of patients to seek alternative solutions to problems. They found that the "behavior of looking for alternatives could be rather easily learned and generalized to new problems, resulting in what is typically called flexible or nonrigid behavior [p. 233]."

In a study of the effects of a rational-emotive mental health program on students with a history of disruptive behavior and low achievement, Block (1978) reports considerable success. The 40 participants were Black and Hispanic boys and girls in the tenth and eleventh grades of a school whose pupils were predominantly from low-income families. Students were stratified by sex and randomly assigned to two rational-emotive, two human relations or one no-treatment groups. Leaders, both highly qualified and "eclectic"

counselors, were unaware of the experimental hypothesis, but were told that both types of treatment would be equally effective. Dependent variables were grade point average, disruptive classroom behavior and class-cutting. Results indicated no leader differences and that rational-emotive education students showed significantly higher grade-point average, significantly lower incidents of disruptive behavior, and significantly lower class-cutting than all other groups. This improvement continued over a long follow-up period. Rational-emotive therapy can be used effectively with adolescents of low Socio-Economic Status (SES) and cultural level. Block noted that the difference in leadership style required by the RET and human relations approaches may have an influence on results. He cites recent studies by Rimm, Hill, Brown and Stuart, suggesting that the passive approach may not be effective with adolescents from low income families.

Wolfe and Fodor (1977) compared the effects of three approaches, one using rational behavior therapy, upon the treatment of assertion problems in 64 women. The three approaches were: behavioral, behavioral/cognitive restructuring, and consciousness raising. The hypothesis was that the behavioral/cognitive approach would be most effective in reducing anxiety associated with assertive behavior. The women selected were between 20- to 29-years-of-age and scored low-to average on self-rated assertiveness scales (Global Self-Rating of Assertiveness, and Rathus Assertiveness Schedule). Subjects were assigned to matched treatment or control groups. The Behavioral Therapy (BT) treatment groups learned appropriate assertive responses, practiced them and were given feedback on their assertive behavior. Rational

Behavior groups were given modeling, behavior rehearsal and rational behavior therapy, designed to note the effects of adding a cognitive component to behavior therapy assertiveness training. Consciousness-raising participants shared assertiveness problems and studied the influences of sex-role conditioning upon assertiveness in women. Results showed significant improvement in posttests of behavioral measures for BT and RBT groups, with some improvement in RBT over BT groups. Authors suggest that brevity of treatment (4 hours) was a major limitation. They nevertheless argue that there is some support for combining RBT with BT. In fact, situational anxiety was significantly reduced only in the RBT group.

Rational self-counseling has been used in the classroom to teach self-help. A pilot study was done using high school students to determine whether or not RSC could be taught. Students were exposed to a variety of media and teaching methods, including lecture, taped sessions of successful treatment, and small group experiences using RSC. The Personality Orientation Inventory and Maultsby's Common Trait Inventory were used for pre- and post-course personality assessment. Positive behavior change resulted, and the authors, Maultsby, Knipping, and Carpenter (1974), were encouraged to experiment with university students, using the same pre- and post-personality instruments. There were two groups, experimental and control, that contained 40 students each. Students in the experimental group saw videotapes of successful counseling sessions of Maultsby, read on the subject of RSC, analyzed problems using RSA format and discussed these analyses in small groups. Grading rules were as follows: no one

failed; an "A" student had to perform all course requirements; a "B" student simply had to attend all sessions; a "C" student merely had to "show up." Not surprisingly, results were disappointing. There was no way to measure how much of the method B and C students had learned, though the experimental group as a whole showed significant improvement on the Maultsby instrument. The authors concluded that a structured classroom would probably be more productive than the permissive one used in the study.

In an effort to develop a theory of rational behavioral group process, Maultsby, Stiefel, and Brodsky (1972) conducted a study using 69 unselected outpatients of the University of Wisconsin Hospitals. The patients were given both Rational Behavior individual and group psychotherapy, then completed a standard form on which they rated the value and pleasantness of Rational Behavior group therapy. Comments were analyzed and results used to develop the following theory of Rational Behavior group process:

The therapeutic effects of RB group process is a function of patients' (1) experiencing group as a non-threatening setting in which to expose their inner conflicts, (2) patients' becoming aware of the universality of the neurotic process, thereby enabling them to rid themselves of the shame they had learned to associate with the possession of their problems, (3) patients' viewing the group as a microworld, (4) patients' witnessing progress of other group members for manifestations of rational progress, and (5) patients' being reinforced in their attempts at rational learning [p. 5].

Clawson (1976) studied the effects of a course in Rational Self-Counseling upon the locus of control and critical thinking ability of a group of 60 counselors, teachers, personnel workers and telephone "crisis" counselors. Subjects were taught for 16 hours in three groups of 20 each, receiving pre- and post-testing and identical treatment. No control group was used. The course consisted of lecture, readings, homework assignments in analysing problems using RSA format, listening to taped sessions in problem-solving techniques, completing quizzes on the readings, and group participation in criticizing RSAs. Instruments used in pre- and post-testing were Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control and the Watson-Glaser Critical Thinking Appraisal (CTA). Results showed significant movement toward the internal direction on the I-E, but subjects did not increase their scores on the CTA.

Rational-emotive therapy was used with a small group of older people to study its effect upon irrational thinking and anxiety. Subjects, all volunteers, were pre- and post-tested on the Adult (Irrational) Ideas Inventory and the State Trait Anxiety Inventory. Half of the group served as a control group to be trained later. The experimental group showed significant reduction on posttests in both anxiety and irrational thinking. The experimental groups received 2 hours of instruction (study and discussion) each week for 4 weeks. The authors report that the Adult (Irrational) Ideas Inventory has "established reliability and validity," but do not report what these are (Keller et al., 1975, p. 55).

Ponzo (1976) gives an account of his "eclectic" method of

counseling in which cognitive reorganization and behavioral change form the major part. He reports the method to be highly effective, citing the case of Jo to show how it is applied. Figure 1 of his article gives in capsule form a representation of how he integrates RET, Gestalt, and Transactional Analysis in analyzing his patient's thoughts and feelings in a situation.

The use of written homework is the essential part of self-training in rational thinking. Homework has the effect of extending the time spent in treatment, it involves the patient in his treatment, he analyzes problems in an atmosphere of calm and "without the emotionalism which has distorted his perceptions," and he learns to separate thoughts from feeling (Goodman & Maultsby, 1974, p. 12). Homework was the original name for Rational Self-Analysis. Maultsby did a study of the value of systematic homework during the period 1968 to 1970. His subjects were 87 unselected psychiatric outpatients. Patients were asked to evaluate their progress on a form listing their emotional problems at specified intervals and to explain any changes. He did this by listing the behavior by which change was evident, adaptive or maladaptive. Administrations of the Taylor Manifest Anxiety tests were used as a check upon half of the patients' self-estimates. Maultsby reports that data support the use of homework with this population, 85% of the patients who improved cited the homework as a definite aid, and regular completion of homework assignments correlated significantly with progress in psychotherapy (Goodman & Maultsby).

(A) Situation: Jo is sitting in class, thinking about speaking out.

Gestalt			
role-playing	(B) Thoughts	(C) Emotions	(D) Behavior
Irrational level			
Jo, playing herself, the teacher, and selected students	Parent: You should do well. You're worthwhile when you do well. Child: This is too much for me. I can't do it. They will laugh at me. I'm a failure. I'm no good.	Anxiety, anger, fear	Trembles, sits quietly, leaves class
Rational level			
Jo, playing herself, the teacher, and selected	Parent: It is nice to do well. It often helps you see	Interest, excitement, joy	Speaks out

students what you want,
 and it feels
 good.
Adult: I will
 try. If I do
 not do as well
 as I would
 like, though.
I am not a
 failure but a
 person who has
 failed at
 something.
I'll correct
 my mistakes and
 do better next
 time.
Child: This
 should be fun.
Let me give it
 a go and see
 what happens.

Figure 1. Eclectic counseling method. (From "Integrating Techniques from Five Counseling Theories" by Z. Ponzio, Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1976, 54(8), 418, Figure 1.

The Concept of Psychological Androgyny

The role and significance of gender identity in psychosexual development are viewed differently by social-learning and cognitive therapists. Kohlberg (1966) expresses the difference in syllogisms.

The social-learning syllogism is: "I want rewards, I am rewarded for doing boy things, therefore I want to be a boy." In contrast, a cognitive theory assumes this sequence: "I am a boy, therefore I want to do boy things, therefore the opportunity to do boy things (and gain approval by doing them) is rewarding [p. 89]."

Kohlberg suggests, further, that the individual has internalized a sex-role standard which operates, in the more highly sexed person, to suppress behavior not conforming to that standard. Mischel (1966) claims that the individual does what "pays off" in terms of social rewards, and that society rewards males and females for opposite kinds of behavior, especially aggressive and dependent behavior.

Research on sex-role stereotypes was done by Broverman et al. (1972) in a number of studies, using their Sex-Role Questionnaire with hundreds of college students and some of their mothers. They found that clearly defined sex-role stereotypes still exist, that women are seen as less logical, objective, competent and independent than men, while men are typically described as lacking in sensitivity, warmth and expressiveness compared to women.

Moreover, stereotypically masculine traits are more often perceived to be desirable than are stereotypically feminine characteristics. Most importantly both men and women incorporate

both the positive and negative traits of the appropriate stereotype into their self-concepts. Since more feminine traits are negatively valued than are masculine traits, women tend to have more negative self-concepts than do men. The tendency for women to denigrate themselves can be seen as evidence of the powerful social pressures to conform to the sex-role standards of the society [p. 75].

Half a century ago, Carl Jung (cited in Byrne, 1974) observed that each person has within him elements of both sexes. These elements he named the Anima and Animus. He warned that ignoring either of these archetypes leads to emotional disturbance, as when a male stifles his tenderness, or a woman her ambition. Block (1973) discussed socializing influences on sexual identity and suggested that "If our social aim can become, both collectively and individually, the integration of agency and communion, the behavioral and experiential options of men and women alike will be broadened and enriched and we all can become more truly whole, more truly human [p. 526]." Bem (1974) has called the incorporation of the positive aspects of both male and female characteristics in one personality "Psychological androgyny." She sees masculinity and femininity not as opposite poles, but as complementary characteristics within the same individual. Block et al. described the androgynous woman as "low feminine/low socialized" who "have achieved an active adjustment, channeling impulse into cognitive pursuits and assertive autonomy [p. 338]." This led her to hypothesize that individuals might be androgynous, rather than masculine or feminine, and that "strongly sex-typed individuals might

be seriously limited in the range of behaviors available to them as they move from situation to situation [Bem, 1974, p. 155]." Bem developed the Bem Sex-Role Inventory which treats masculinity and femininity as independent dimensions, making it possible to describe a person as masculine, feminine, or androgynous. Before the BSRI became available, traditional sex-role inventories were based upon an inverse relationship between two dimensions. The new scale sees the sex-typed individual as having "internalized society's sex-typed standards of desirable behavior for men and women [p. 155]." The scale has a built-in social-desirability scale whose items are sex-neutral. Items for the M-F scales were selected if both sexes judged them to be significantly more desirable for one sex than for the other.

To test the hypothesis that psychologically androgynous individuals engage in behavior not typical for their sex, Bem (1975) conducted two experiments. This was the first attempt to empirically validate the BSRI. In the first, male and female subjects who rated "Masculine" "Feminine" or "Androgynous" were asked to rate cartoons for feminineness, but in fact, subjects were being rated on conformity. The experiments attempted to sway individuals to conform to supposed ratings of others. As predicted, "Feminine" individuals proved to be most conforming, while "Masculine" and "Androgynous" were least conforming. These results were interpreted as demonstrating that "masculine and androgynous individuals of both sexes remain independent from social pressure on significantly more trials (in the experiment) than do feminine subjects (of both sexes) [p. 639]." The second

experiment involved males and females who had rated "Masculine," "Feminine" or "Androgynous" on the BSRI. They were exposed to a kitten in a series of controlled situations and note was made of the number and kinds of interactions the subjects had with the kitten. (Playing with a kitten had previously been rated as Feminine behavior by both men and women.) Orthogonal comparisons to be tested were: that Feminine and Androgynous subjects would differ in the "amount of overall involvement" with the kitten (p. 640). Results for males showed that Feminine and Androgynous males significantly interacted with the kitten more and enjoyed it more than "Masculine" males. But, contrary to prediction, Feminine and Androgynous females did not show significantly more overall involvement with the kitten than did "Masculine" females. In fact, Feminine females interacted significantly less with the kitten than did Androgynous females. This, Bem explains as possibly the result of "low self-confidence, low self-esteem, and timidity." She admits it is also possible that they were "simply frightened of animals [p. 642]."

In a study which goes beyond Bem's earlier work suggesting that Masculinity and Femininity are separate dimensions found in both sexes, Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) found that the two factors may be additive, rather than subtractive, in defining androgyny. Instead of androgyny being the difference between masculinity and femininity scores, they claim that possession of a high degree of both characteristics more accurately describes the Androgynous individual. Whereas, Bem would rate a person who is low on both traits Androgynous, Spence et al. suggest that such individuals exhibit the least

desirable state.

Bem's later studies (Bem, 1977; Bem et al., 1976) support Spence et al. (1975) in their finding that low-low scorers (low on both sex-role characteristics) had lower self-esteem than high-high, and exhibited some behavioral inhibition. Henceforth, Bem claims, "the term androgynous should be reserved only for those individuals who score high in both masculinity and femininity [1977, p. 204]."

Strahan (1975) raises an interesting question regarding Bem's selection of items to be included in the BSRI. Subjects were asked, "In American society, how desirable is it for a man (woman) to be _____ [p. 571]?" Strahan asks whether the judgment was to be based upon how things are or how they should be, and desirable for whom, society or the individual (or both)?

In a study of age and sex differences in self-perception, Whiteside (1976) found that among sixth and twelfth grade subjects, girls perceived themselves more favorably than boys, contrary to some other studies. She suggests that for sixth grade boys, this may reflect their being "caught . . . between the feminine world of childhood and the masculine world of adulthood [p. 589]." For adolescent boys, their self-description as "bad" may be a reflection of gender identity: male equals bad.

Parsons, Ruble, Hodges, and Small (1976) reviewed developmental studies of expectancy showing that boys develop higher expectancies for success than girls, and that the lower expectancies "adversely affect the achievement-related behaviors of the girls [p. 57]." They suggest that to overcome this lower expectancy in girls, parents

and teachers should "encourage girls to attribute their successes internally and stably, i.e., to ability rather than encouraging them to 'modestly' deny responsibility for or underrate the magnitude of their success [p. 59]."

In a recent study of behavioral restrictions of sex-typed individuals (masculine or feminine, as opposed to androgynous), Bem and Lenney (1976) found that they were:

more likely than either androgynous or sex-reversed subjects to prefer sex-appropriate activity and to resist sex-inappropriate activity, even though such choices cost them money. Moreover, actually engaging in cross-sex behavior caused sex-typed subjects to report greater psychological discomfort and more negative feelings about themselves [p. 48].

Analyzing Bem's measures of masculinity, femininity and androgyny with M-F scales of the MMPI, CPI, POI and ACL, Wakefield, Sasek, Friedman, and Bowden (1976) found support for Bem's statements about androgyny. Results also showed that sex-role traits are organized similarly for males and females (p. 766).

Burke and Tully (1977) developed a procedure for measuring aspects of the self-concept known as role identities and illustrated its use by measuring gender role identity of a sample of sixth-through eighth-grade students. They found that children whose gender role performances resembled the opposite sex more than their own would tend to attribute similar sex-role inappropriate behavior to others of their same sex. They reported that their measurement

technique simultaneously captures "the meaning of the self-in-role to the self in much of its complexity," and permits "complex multivariate analyses both as independent and a dependent variable [p. 895]."

Baucom (1976) constructed a "fourfold typology of sex roles" using separate masculinity and femininity scales on the CPI. Results are as summarized in Figure 2. Findings support Bem's view of masculinity and femininity as independent dimensions rather than bipolar opposites.

In a study of the relationship between participation in the feminist movement and psychological androgyny and manifest anxiety, involving 500 women, Jordan-Viola, Fassberg, and Viola (1976) found that feminists scored significantly higher than working women, university women and housewives on the BSRI androgyny scale. Negative correlations between anxiety and masculinity were obtained for feminists and university women.

Kanner (1976), in a study of creativity in male architects, suggests that femininity and masculinity are "a meshing of two strongly developed but not antagonistic elements of personality--creativity, from this standpoint, is more akin to an integrative process than to a reconciliation of opposites [p. 805]."

Interpersonal Relations Orientation

Ryan (1977), in his *Clinical Interpretation of the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior*, suggests that "as a measure of interpersonal relationships, the FIRO's applications to human behavior are almost unlimited [p. 5]." He suggests the value of the FIRO-B in researching interpersonal relationships, in

		Femininity	
		High	Low
Masculinity	High	1	3
	Low	3	2

1--Most psychologically healthy
2--Most inadequate
3--Cultural sex-stereotypes

Figure 2. Four-fold typology of sex roles.

establishing groups and in measuring the outcome of group methods (p. 5).

Williams (1977) investigated the ability of FIRO-B to predict personality as measured by the California Psychological Inventory. Additionally, he examined whether significant differences existed in various subgroups of his sample. He used psychology students in a university for his sample, giving them the CPI, from which to estimate personality, and all six inventory scales of the FIRO-B: Expressed and Wanted Inclusion, Expressed and Wanted Control, and Expressed and Wanted Affection. The FIRO-B scales were used as predictor items. Age and sex were also used as predictors. Both instruments were used before and after treatment, a period of 1 week, to measure the magnitude of change resulting from treatment effect. He found numerous positive and significant correlations between the two instruments in both pre- and post-tests. "In addition, the full demographic/FIRO-B multiple-regression models significantly predicted 17 of 18 CPI criterion variables at post-test." It was concluded that FIRO-B subscales "may be the common denominator in the prediction of personality as measured by the CPI [p. 470]."

The authors claimed that it was obvious that people who are reticent have different interpersonal needs from outgoing individuals, yet no convenient, reliable, easily interpreted instrument had been available. They sought to use Schutz's (1976) FIRO-B to help describe the reticent individual. Their hypotheses were:

1. in each of the three interpersonal need areas, both expressed and wanted scores would be lower for reticent than for

nonreticent students,

2. reticent students want more control than they express, and

3. reticent students want more affection than they express.

Results confirmed all three hypotheses (the first was partially confirmed). Since the two groups differed most on Expressed Inclusion and Expressed Affection scales, it was hypothesized that these scores could be used to screen reticent students economically and reliably. Results proved that the FIRO-B could be used effectively for this purpose.

In a study examining "the relationship of interpersonal need structure, as measured by the FIRO-B, to leadership orientation as measured by the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), and the Least Preferred Co-Worker Scale (LPC) [Kuehl, Di Marco, & Wims, 1975, p. 143]," the researchers found positive correlations between the LPC score and the rating of "consideration" of the LOQ, to the FIRO-B scales (except Expressed Control). Other positive correlations were discovered. The purpose of their investigation was to determine how much an individual's interpersonal need structure is related to his leadership orientation. They found support for their hypothesis that leadership orientation and interpersonal need structure are related. Also supported were Fleischman's (cited in Kuehl et al.) proposal that a supervisor's interpersonal values relate to his behavior as a leader, and that if people know a leader's interpersonal orientation they may be able to predict his leadership behavior.

Personality characteristics of husbands whose wives worked and others whose wives were homemakers were studied to note whether there

were any significant differences. Wives were also studied. The instrument used was Schutz's (1976) FIRO-B. Subjects were 189 married couples. Husbands were members of professional associations in Ontario, Canada. The results were consistent with a previous study by Hoffman and Nye (cited by Burke & Weir, 1976) in 1974. There were significant differences on all six need scales between working wives and homemakers and between husbands whose wives worked and those who did not. Members of two-career families had "significantly lower needs for social interchange in the areas of affection, inclusion and control [p. 457]." Other findings were that working wives were less concerned than housewives with "seeking fulfillment through relationships with others, and were more likely to want to be in control of their own destiny [p. 457]." Their husbands were also concerned less with achieving satisfaction through interpersonal relationships and had less need to control others than husbands of homemakers. Implications are that working couples are more self-reliant and self-sufficient.

A study of fourth- and fifth-grade students' needs for social acceptance, using the children's version of the FIRO-B (FIRO-BC), and other measures, was done to discover to what degree the inclusion scales of the FIRO (need to be included and need to express inclusion) and other measures of approval need and social status "can contribute to a better understanding of differentially effective treatment techniques [Brown & Brown, 1976, p. 471]." Questions asked by the research were: How do highly socially accepted students differ from those who rate low in the expression of liking for peers? How do they

differ in need for approval? How do they differ in degree of success in achieving social acceptance? Results showed no difference between high and low socially-acceptable students on expression of liking; no difference was found between groups on need for approval; however, females low on acceptance had high need for approval, and high inclusion of others begets inclusion. Need for approval was unrelated to social acceptance except for females, as noted.

Schultz, Manton, and Salvia (1972) studied procedures for screening emotionally disturbed children in a two-county rural area. They wanted to determine the effectiveness of the screening method in terms of interpersonal bias of teachers and peers, and the correlation between screening procedures and ratings of problem behaviors. Instruments were the FIRO-B and FIRO-BC. Teachers were tested on the FIRO-B, and were asked to complete a behavior screening instrument on their students. Children filled out the FIRO-BC. Results showed no significant correlation between screening procedure and FIRO scores, which indicated that "interpersonal compatibility does not interfere with screening procedures." Also concluded: children screened as emotionally handicapped are also judged to have "higher indices of problem behavior [p. 136]."

In a study of interpersonal compatibility and managerial work effectiveness, Underwood and Krafft (1973) found support for Schutz's (1976) statement that his theory does not treat the relationship between interpersonal needs and task-oriented behavior. They suggested that interpersonal behavior in industry concerns primarily material as opposed to personal needs (costs, schedules, et cetera). "Such a

context may not evoke interpersonal needs to the degree necessary to make the aim of their satisfaction a salient goal [Underwood & Krafft, 1973, p. 93]."

Self-Acceptance

There are four basic assumptions that underlie the concept of self-acceptance, according to Brammer and Shostrom (1968). First is "the idea that the individual has infinite worth and dignity." Next is the assumption that the individual has the "right to make his own decisions and lead his own life." Even more basic is the belief that the individual has the "potential to choose wisely and to live a full, self-actualized, socially useful life." And last, that "each person is responsible for his own life [p. 175]."

Carl Rogers (cited in Byrne, 1974), in a departure from traditional psychotherapy, conceived of a new nondirective role for the therapist: "one who simply facilitates the natural growth processes for the client by offering acceptance, understanding and empathy [p. 274]." In describing the therapist's relationship with the client, Rogers (1951) says:

The therapist perceives the client's self as the client has known it, and accepts it; he perceives the contradictory aspects which have been denied to awareness and accepts those too as being part of the client; and both of these acceptances have in them the same warmth and respect. Thus it is that the client, experiencing in another an acceptance of both these aspects of himself, can take toward himself the same attitude. He finds that he too can accept himself [p. 41].

Rogers notes that during therapy there is a tendency for the "acceptance to self" to increase. In accepting himself, the client tends to perceive himself in new ways: as "worthy of respect rather than condemnation"; as having self-imposed standards rather than relying on those of others; as feeling and experiencing, both personally and socially, without sensory distortion; and "comfortable in acting in terms of these perceptions [pp. 138-139]."

Ellis defines self-acceptance in the sense of "self-choosing [which] doesn't imply any rating of the self [as opposed to self-esteem, self-approval, et cetera]." Acceptance of the self is without conditions. Ellis is opposed to self-judgment "for it cannot be philosophically justified, and it leads to poor results in almost all cases [Ellis, 1972, p. 103]." In his A Guide to Rational Living, Ellis suggests that "you rate your traits and performances but not your self; and if you consider yourself to have worth at all, you say, 'I am good not because I do well or am loved by others, but merely because I am alive [p. 104].'"

Rogers (1961) finds that, based on later research, the acceptance of self as an outcome of therapy seems to imply a warts-and-all attitude; the client "actually comes to like himself [p. 87]." And as he accepts himself, he is able to be more accepting of others. Yalom (1975), in commenting upon the individual's experience in groups, says "acceptance of others is fully possible only after the individual can accept himself [p. 55]."

Byrne (1974), writing of the problems of measuring the self-concept, mentions the work of Stephenson and his Q-sort measurement

device. The Q-sort is one of several means of studying "self-psychology" beginning "from the standpoint of what a person says about himself and his beliefs about what he is like [p. 277]." The Adjective Check List is another measurement device which is widely accepted. In teaching self-acceptance and acceptance of others, Maultsby (1975b) says that all people are simply "fallible human beings" and are "not the same as their acts [p. 167]."

The first and foremost mark of maturity according to Mortimer B. Feinberg (cited in Costello & Zalkind, 1963) is "acceptance of self." He says "Fundamental to mental health is the realization that the individual must accept himself as a human being. He is on the way to maturity if he can begin to appreciate himself without trying to be what he cannot possibly be [p. 164]."

Summary

Rogers (1961), perhaps, defined rational living best, when he described the good life:

Man's behavior is exquisitely rational, moving with subtle and ordered complexity toward the goals his organism is endeavoring to achieve. The tragedy for most of us is that our defenses keep us from being aware of this rationality, so that consciously we are moving in one direction, while organismically we are moving in another . . . [The person who is living the good life] would participate in the vastly complex self-regulatory activities of his organism--the psychological as well as physiological thermostatic controls--in such a fashion as to live in increasing harmony with himself and with

others [pp. 194-195].

Surely the global aim of Rational Self-Counseling may be said to be to help the individual learn "to live in increasing harmony with himself and with others [p. 195]."

The literature on rational theory has shown that since behavior is learned it is possible to teach individuals how to unlearn irrational attitudes, beliefs and values, and substitute a more rational approach to living. Of the greatest aids in this process, one is the recognition of all people as "fallible human beings," capable of noble as well as base behavior, yet "we are not the same as our behavior," Ellis and Maultsby tell us repeatedly: "I am not a worm for acting wormily" says a Rational Living poster. And, "labels are for jelly jars," as someone else has wisely put it.

By giving up harmful stereotyping one frees oneself and others to become whatever they are capable of being. This includes being more rational, more self- and other-accepting, more at peace with the environment, better able to express the finer attributes of both the masculine and feminine sex-role definitions. The literature on self-acceptance, on interpersonal relations orientation and on sex-role identity seem to define the ideally functioning human being as the rational individual.

Chapter 3

Methodology

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of a course in Rational Self-Counseling upon registrants in an Upward Mobility Program in terms of their self-acceptance, sex-role identity and interpersonal relations orientation. This chapter outlines the research methods used in the investigation, including: (a) population, (b) demography, (c) research design, (d) treatment procedures, (e) measurement instruments, and (f) data analysis.

Population

Subjects for this study were 80 volunteers randomly selected from the total number of registrants in a local Federal Upward Mobility program. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of four groups, two experimental and two control, or "wait," groups. The Upward Mobility program is an effort by the government to develop specific career opportunities for lower-level employees in positions "which do not enable them to realize their full work potential," as directed by the President of the United States in 1969. He directed agencies to "provide the maximum feasible opportunity to employees to enhance their skills so they may perform at their highest potential and advance in accordance with their abilities [USCSC, 1974a, p. 1]." Upward Mobility is a requirement of the government's affirmative action program under the provisions of the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972. People are the Federal government's greatest investment.

It is through people that Federal agencies carry out their missions to reach goals: both agencies and the people in them have goals. "When these two sets of goals can mesh and complement each other, mutual satisfaction results. An area in which employer and employee goals meet is Upward Mobility [USCSC, 1974b, p. 1]." Opportunities for advancement are provided through training and education programs, counseling and job restructuring. Development and delivery of counseling services is an essential program element, and agencies are encouraged to provide "meaningful developmental experiences (for program members), both formal and on the job [USCSC, 1974b, p. 4]." A prerequisite for participation in an Upward Mobility program is the individual's "potential," which is defined as "the ability (including desire) to acquire and use skills and knowledges needed to successfully perform higher level work, specifically in those kinds of occupations and at grade levels which could or will be targets for upwardly mobile employees [USCSC, 1974b, p. 1, Attachment 1]." Measurement of employee potential makes use of, among other tools, "self-rating instruments which show employee motivation to assume more complex tasks and greater responsibilities [USCSC, 1974b, p. 2, Attachment 1]."

Demography

Since the preponderance of government employees in low-level jobs are females and/or members of minority groups, it was anticipated that persons selected at random from this source for Rational Self-counseling training would reflect this concentration. Originally, 92 persons volunteered for this project. They were

randomly assigned to one of four groups: two control and two experimental, of 23 subjects each. Attrition through transfer, illness, job priorities and leave reduced the final sample to 80, with 43 (22 and 21) in the control groups and 37 (19 and 18) in the experimental. A description of subjects' age, sex, race, marital status, education level, years of Civil Service and highest grade held can be inspected in Tables 1 through 7. Analysis of the Personal Data (Appendix A) shows that the average age of those reporting was 36.8. Females outnumbered males 69 to 11. There were 21 blacks to 58 Caucasians, with 1 not specifying. More than half the subjects were married, and most had some college. Only 4 were college graduates. Subjects had an average of almost 10 years with Civil Service and held the average grade (General Schedule level) of 5.

The Upward Mobility population was made available in response to an offer of training made in March 1978 to a local Army Commander (Appendix B), suggesting that employees in lower-level jobs might benefit from training in rational self-counseling. Those who successfully completed the 12-hour course were given a Certificate of Training, a copy of which was filed with the employee's official records, serving as an indication of the individual's motivation to improve his career status.

Research Design

The Posttest-Only Control Group design was used in this study as shown in Table 8 (Campbell & Stanley, 1963). Experimental groups 1 and 3 received identical treatment procedures. Groups 2 and 4 were control, or "wait" groups. They received no treatment during this

Table 1
 Frequency Distribution and Descriptive
 Statistics for Age of Subjects,
 Combined Groups
 (Valid 69; Missing 11; Total 80)

Mean	36.899
Median	36.667
Mode	30.000
Standard deviation	11.623
Variance	135.092
Range	39.000

Age	Fre- quency	Age	Fre- quency	Age	Fre- quency
20	1	30	5	45	1
21	3	31	3	49	2
22	1	35	2	50	2
23	3	37	3	51	2
24	3	39	2	53	3
25	2	40	2	54	1
26	4	41	3	56	2
27	4	42	3	57	1
28	2	43	1	58	1
29	1	44	4	59	2

Table 2
 Frequency Distribution of Subjects by Sex
 and by Group

Sex	Control groups		Experi- mental groups		Total of groups
	Num- ber	Num- ber	Num- ber	Num- ber	
	2	4	1	3	
Male	4	2	3	2	11
Female	18	19	16	16	69
Total	22	21	19	18	80

Table 3
Frequency Distribution of Subjects by
Race, Combined Groups

Race	Total
Black	21
Caucasian	58
(Missing)	1
Total	80

Table 4
Frequency Distribution of Subjects by
Marital Status, Combined Groups

Marital status	Total
Single	13
Married	49
Divorced	11
Spouse deceased	4
Separated	2
(Missing)	1
Total	80

Table 5
Frequency Distribution of Subjects by
Education Level, Combined Groups

Education level	Total
High School graduate	21
College	
Less than 1 Year	19
1 Year	15
2 Years	12
3 Years	7
Graduated	4
(Missing)	2
Total	80

Table 6
 Frequency Distribution and Statistics for
 Subjects by Years of Civil Service,
 Combined Groups
 (N = 80)

Mean	9.950
Median	9.167
Mode	4.000
Standard deviation	6.104
Variance	37.263
Range	27.000

Years	Fre- quency	Years	Fre- quency	Years	Fre- quency
1	1	9	3	17	1
2	3	10	3	18	2
3	8	11	7	20	2
4	9	12	5	24	1
5	2	13	5	26	1
6	2	14	1	27	1
7	6	15	6	28	1
8	7	16	3		

Table 7
 Frequency Distribution and Statistics for
 Subjects by Highest Grade Held,
 Combined Groups
 (N = 80)

Mean	5.025
Median	4.868
Mode	5.000
Standard deviation	1.656
Variance	2.743
Range	10.000

General Schedule level	Frequency
2	1
3	10
4	16
5	34
6	9
7	3
8	3
9	1
11	1
12	1
(Missing)	1

Table 8
Posttest-Only Control Group Design

Assignment	Group number	Treatment	Posttest
R ^a	1 (Experimental) ^b	X	O ₁
R	2 (Control) ^c		O ₂
R	3 (Experimental) ^d	X	O ₃
R	4 (Control) ^e		O ₄

Note. There were 23 subjects that were originally randomly assigned to each group.

Based upon experimental design 6 (Campbell & Stanley, 1963, p. 25).

^aR is a symbol for randomization; X is a symbol for treatment; O is a symbol for testing measures.

^bGroup number 1--19 subjects were randomly assigned to this experimental group. They received the treatment (Rational Self-Counseling course) and posttesting.

^cGroup number 2--22 subjects were randomly assigned to this control group. They received only posttesting. No treatment.

^dGroup number 3--18 subjects were randomly assigned to this experimental group. They received the treatment (Rational Self-Counseling course) and posttesting.

^eGroup number 4--21 subjects were randomly assigned to this control group. They were posttested only.

study, but were offered the Rational Self-Counseling course after all posttesting was completed.

Treatment Procedures

The Rational Self-Counseling course was designed for this experiment, and includes materials and exercises from several sources. Appendix C is a course outline by session.

Both experimental groups were led by the same leader (the investigator) and each group received identical training in the same sequence. Treatment included several methods, including diactic teaching, homework, behavior rehearsal, modeling, coaching and group and leader feedback. Course objectives were as follows:

As a result of Rational Self-Counseling training the student will be able to:

1. Discriminate between irrational and rational thinking.
2. Apply Rational Self-Analysis in solving problems.
3. Use Rational Emotive Imagery in altering thinking to control feelings.
4. Use imagery to reduce anxiety.
5. Apply the five rules, or criteria, for rational thinking.
6. Identify several of the basic irrational beliefs.
7. Distinguish between the individual and his behavior.
8. Understand his responsibility for his feelings.

The general goal of training was to provide students with the skills needed to challenge irrational attitudes and replace them with more rational ones, leading to behavior which was healthier, more productive and more personally satisfying. In terms of career goals,

rational self-counseling skills should improve subjects' self-concept, it should improve their attitude toward peers and supervisors, and should help them to accept responsibility for their feelings. Equipped with such new insights, subjects should be in a better position to evaluate and pursue more satisfying career goals, eliminating unproductive attitudes which may have frustrated job success.

Measurement Instruments

This study used three self-report instruments: the Bem Sex-Role Inventory; Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior; and the Adjective Check List. Testing was anonymous using a code number provided by the researcher. Data were considered confidential. The following additional instruments were used: a Personal Data Form and a Final Composite Score. The Personal Data Form was useful in determining the similarities and differences among groups. A final composite score measured the extent to which subjects achieved the course objectives.

Bem Sex-Role Inventory

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory contains 60 personality characteristics on which the individual rates himself or herself from 1 (never, or almost never, true) to 7 (always, or almost always, true). There are 20 characteristics each that are masculine, feminine and neutral. Based upon the subject's responses, he receives three scores: Masculinity, Femininity and Androgyny. A Social Desirability score can also be computed. The mean self-rating for each sex role indicates the extent to which the individual "endorses masculine and feminine personality characteristics as self-descriptive [Bem, 1974,

p. 158]." The two scores are "logically independent." To be considered androgynous, the individual must score high on both masculine and feminine characteristics (Appendix D).

Normative data for the BSRI were obtained from 728 Stanford University, Stanford, California, psychology students and 194 paid students of Foothill Junior College, Los Altos Hills, California. Internal consistency (reliability) was estimated by computing coefficient alpha separately for Masculinity, Femininity and Social Desirability scores of subjects in each of the two normative samples. All three scores proved to be highly reliable for both groups: Masculinity was .86 for both; Femininity was .80 and .82; Social Desirability was .75 and .70. The reliability of the androgyny difference score (F minus M) was .85 and .86 for the two samples. Correlation between M and F scores was as low as had been desired: in the first sample the male r was .11, female r equals $-.14$; in the second, male r equals $-.02$, female r equals $-.07$. This proved that the M and F scales were both logically and empirically independent. Social Desirability correlated with both Masculinity and Femininity whereas there was a near-zero correlation between Androgyny and Social Desirability.

Test-retest reliability was estimated by administering the BSRI after a 4-week delay to 56 males and females from one of the original normative groups. "All four scores proved to be highly reliable over the four-week interval (Masculinity $r = .90$; Femininity $r = .90$; Androgyny $r = .93$; Social Desirability $r = .89$) [Bem, 1974, p. 159]."

Fundamental Interpersonal

Relations Orientation--

Behavior

The Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior is a test containing 54 items measuring three basic dimensions of an individual's interpersonal relationship or style. These dimensions are Inclusion, Control, and Affection. Inclusion measures the degree of association with others. In his clinical interpretation of the FIRO-B, Ryan (1977) claims that Inclusion is similar to Karen Horney's concept of "moving toward or away from people," as well as to Jung's "introversion/extraversion" concept. Control has to do with the need for power and dominance over others. Affection describes the need for loving and affectionate relationships with other people. The FIRO-B may also be used to measure compatibility between people, though this aspect was not explored in the present study. the FIRO contains only six basic questions, but each is repeated with slight variations nine times. The test-taker rates himself from 1 to 6 ("never" to "usually") on items which appear simple, and hence are nonthreatening. Faking is minimized because the FIRO "allows the persons to modify their responses without changing the meaningfulness of their scores [p. 6]."

The test author, Schutz (1966), claims that the FIRO-B has high reliability: the mean coefficient of internal consistency ("reproducibility," in the case of Guttman scales, such as in FIRO-B) is .94;

Reproducibility, according to Guttman, is a more stringent

criterion than internal consistency, since it requires not only unidimensionality--that all items measure the same dimension--but also that the items occur in a certain order [p. 77].

The mean coefficient of stability (test-retest) is reported as .76 for the six scales in a retest of 108 Harvard University, Cambridge, Massachusetts, graduate students over a 1-month period (except for the Affection scale which was repeated in a week). Each of the 3 dimensions is scored for both "expressed" and "wanted" behavior; for example: the extent to which the individual wants to control or be controlled. Content validity, according to Schutz, is inherent in all Guttman, or cumulative scales, such as in the FIRO-B. Concurrent validity studies of 12 occupational groups are essentially consistent with stereotypes of those occupations. For example, architects, and others in occupations requiring less activity with people, score very low, overall, on FIRO-B. Scales show considerable intercorrelations, (e.g., between "expressed" and "wanted" for Inclusion and Affection, and to a lesser, though significant degree, between the Inclusion and Affection scales themselves), but the author believes that "at this point it seems to be advantageous to retain them all in this form [p. 6]."

In suggesting a sequence to be followed in interpreting the FIRO-B scores, Ryan (1977) speaks to their relative importance. First is the significance of prominent high and low points of the profile, since extremes at either end of the range reflect the behaviors the test purports to measure. For example, a high Inclusion score in the

"expressed" category describes a person who is most at home in the company of other people, whereas the reverse is true of a low score. A high "wanted" score in this category reveals a need to be accepted, with the opposite being true of a low score for "wanted" behavior on the Inclusion scale. Next in importance is the actual location of the score on the continuum, since extremes tend to reflect compulsive behavior. The interaction of wanted and expressed behavior within each of the three areas is noted, since wide discrepancies can reveal frustration or conflict. Then interaction among the area scores is noted since behavior in one area can influence behavior in others. Ryan indicates that the scales have relative influence on one another, with Affection being strongest, Control next and Inclusion last. Ryan expresses the standard caveat in using any instrument of this kind: by itself, FIRO-B can yield meaningful data about the individual, but in combination with other information it can give the fullest understanding of the subject's interpersonal adaptation.

Adjective Check List

The Adjective Check List is a list of 300 words describing a wide range of human behaviors useful in assessing personality. Gough and Heilbrun (1965) developed the ACL in its present version in 1952, after years of study. The ACL is a refinement of earlier attempts to describe personality using lists of adjectives, including those of Harthorne and May, in 1930, Allport and May's catalog of 17,953 English words used to define traits, and Cattell's factorial studies leading to 12 "primary source traits of personality [p. 5]." Its most common use is to have subjects check the adjectives,

favorable and unfavorable, although it was originally designed for use by observers to describe others. These adjectives are arranged in 24 scales and indices, 15 of which are derived from Murray's (cited in Gough & Heilbrun) need-press system. The remaining indices cover total adjectives checked, total favorable and unfavorable, self-confidence and self-control, lability, personal adjustment and counseling readiness. The Check List can be completed in 15 minutes by unsophisticated persons, and does not cause anxiety or resistance, according to the authors.

Regarding the validity of the Adjective Check List, the authors (Gough & Heilbrun, 1965) state:

The concept of validity is highly complex. Although indices of validity for the scales of a multi-variate personality measure should be tangible, concrete, and evidential, there is rarely a single and simple variable which may be taken as a criterion for any one scale. The problem of demonstrating validity becomes one of amassing a wealth of information for each scale, and then out of this evidence determining whether a coherent, meaningful, and psychologically useful pattern can be evolved [p. 16].

The authors cite several validation studies involving single or groups of ACL scales. Among these was a study by Heilbrun in 1958 comparing ACL need scales with those of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. There were 15 ACL scales that correlated significantly with their Edwards counterparts, but none were very high. Caution is urged "in equating the scores on one test with those on the

other [Gough & Heilbrun, 1965, p. 16]." Nearly 350 studies are listed in the bibliography included in the Adjective Check List Manual published in 1971.

Reliability of the Adjective Check List is described by the authors in three important aspects: test-retest of the total word list; test-retest of individual scales; and the extent of agreement among observers competent to assess certain personality dimensions of subjects. In a study involving 100 men who completed the Check List twice in 10 days, the mean test-retest reliability was .54. Gough and Heilbrun (1965) interpret this as an indication that adjective lists may not be as stable as "self-report inventories using items and questions [p. 14]." Reliability of individual scales, based upon results of test-retest after 10 weeks, 6 months, and 5-1/2 years (of different samples for each time span) is adequate-to-high for the 10-week interval for both men and women, with several scales (especially Exhibition, Dominance, Defensiveness, Self-Confidence and Autonomy) showing good stability even after 5-1/2 years for a small group of medical students. Even for a group of 100 undifferentiated males, retested in 6 months, results showed relatively high reliability for several scales, including Self-Confidence, Exhibition and Dominance. Judges' agreements were tested using five subjects and two groups of five judges. Reliability between the two groups ranged from a low of .61 to a high of .75, indicating that adequate reliability can be obtained for the ACL using trained observers to assess individuals.

Self-report instruments are subject to influences not necessarily related to the personality traits being described (Lanyon &

Goodstein, 1971). Of these influences, acquiescence and social desirability have been studied for their effect upon Adjective Check List responses. The authors adopted a control method for acquiescence which involved classifying protocols into four categories each for males and females, based upon total adjectives checked, and calculating standard score conversions for these categories. The resulting median correlation with acquiescence for all scales is $+0.04$, indicating that acquiescence is so low as to present no real problem in score interpretation. Social desirability response set, or the attempt to give socially acceptable responses rather than honest ones which would reflect the personality of the respondent more accurately, can have an important influence on responses to personality instruments. Lanyon and Goodstein (1971) report on research which challenges the importance of the social desirability influence, concluding that it is more a personality correlate than a response set. Gough and Heilbrun (1965) caution that social desirability has both "personological implications as well as . . . response set 'tendencies [p. 15].'" They correlated Edwards' Social Desirability scale with ACL scales, showing a median coefficient of $+0.16$ and a range of -0.41 to $+0.45$. These low coefficients demonstrate that social desirability for the ACL is lower than for most personality inventories.

Final Composite Score

The Final Composite Score was a number from 1 (lowest) to 7 (highest) assigned each subject after training by the trainer based upon class participation, homework and a final examination.

Hypothesis number 4 correlates this score with posttest scores on the

three instruments measuring subjects' self-acceptance, sex-role identity, and interpersonal relations orientation.

Data Analysis

Data Collection

All groups were posttested on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, the Adjective Check List and the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior Scales. Experimental groups completed the instruments at the end of the course (Appendix C). Control group members completed the same instruments at their work sites, to minimize time away from the job. In addition, all groups completed the Personal Data Form (Appendix A). Treatment groups also completed homework assignments and a final examination. Instruments were scored and punched on IBM (International Business Machine) cards for statistical analysis, using William and Mary's IBM 370/145 computer.

Statistical Analysis

The effects of RSC training were assessed by computing scores for each subject on the BSRI, the ACL, and the FIRO-B. All three measures were administered as posttests for all groups. This study employed the Posttest-Only Control Group Design, as shown in Table 8.

Statistical treatment of hypotheses 1, 2 and 3. The difference between means of combined control with combined experimental groups was measured by t tests. In addition, one-way analysis of variance was performed comparing means of all four groups. When ANOVA indicated a significant difference, the Scheffé Test was performed.

Statistical treatment of hypothesis 4. Pearson Product-Moment correlations were performed comparing final composite score with

scores on the BSRI, ACL and FIRO-B. In addition, multiple regression analysis was performed to analyze the independent effects of scores on the three instruments on the Final Composite Score as the dependent variable. The significance level for all statistical tests was set at .05.

Chapter 4

Results

Statistical findings are reviewed and interpreted in this chapter for each hypothesis. The level of significance for all statistical tests was set at .05. The t test was used to compare combined experimental with combined control groups, while one-way analysis of variance compared all four groups, two experimental and two control. When analysis of variance disclosed statistically significant difference, the Scheffé procedure was employed to identify the source of the difference. To test for significant correlations between final composite score and scores on the personality instruments, a Pearson Product-Moment correlation was run. Finally, the stepwise multiple regression analysis was used to analyze the relative contributions of individual personality characteristics scores to the final composite score. In addition to testing the hypotheses, exploratory analysis was performed to study results that were related to the study, but were not hypothesized. An example is the number of highly significant correlations between specific personality traits discovered after treatment.

Hypothesis 1

There will be statistically significant differences between posttest means of groups on the sex identity variables, as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory. This hypothesis was designed to answer the question: What effect, if any, does RSC training have upon the

individual's sex-role identity, as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory?

A t test (Table 9) comparing combined control with combined experimental groups on Masculinity and Femininity variables reveals that differences are not statistically significant when tested at the .05 level. One-way analysis of variance (Table 10) was used to assess BSRI variance among all four groups (two control and two experimental), and shows significance levels of performance of 0.9184 for Masculinity and 0.5450 for Femininity (with Degrees of Freedom of 3 and 76) both of which are higher than the hypothesized .05 level. The hypothesis is, therefore, rejected.

Medians for the groups are 5.02 for Masculinity, and 5.12 for Femininity. These are somewhat higher than those Bem found in her research with Stanford undergraduates: 4.89 for Masculinity and 4.76 for Femininity (Bem, 1976, p. 4).

Using Bem's classification scheme, based upon group medians for both sex-role variables, subjects may be described as Androgynous, Masculine, Feminine or Undifferentiated, depending upon where scores fall in relation to these medians. Thus, subjects in the control and experimental groups in the present study may be characterized as shown in Figure 3.

The experimental group showed a greater percentage of androgynous individuals and a smaller percentage of each of the other categories, notably the "undifferentiated" or least "healthy" of all the categories. However, Chi square analysis showed these differences to be not statistically significant. Since no increase in mean scores was

Table 9
Hypothesis 1: t test of Control Versus
Experimental Groups for Posttest
Bem Sex-Role Inventory
Scores

Variable	Mean	Standard devia- tion	Standard error	<u>t</u> value	Degrees of freedom	Signifi- cance level
Masculinity						
Control	5.0	0.89	0.13			
Experimental	5.0	0.85	0.14			
				-0.07	77	0.942
Femininity						
Control	5.0	0.66	0.10			
Experimental	5.0	0.61	0.10			
				0.05	77	0.962

Table 10
Hypothesis 1: One-way Analysis of Variance
among All Four Groups on Bem
Sex-Role Inventory

Source	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean squares	<u>F</u> value	Signifi- cance level
Masculinity					
Between	3	3917.2891	1305.7629	0.167	0.9184
Within	76	594831.3750	7826.7266		
Total	79	598748.6250			
Femininity					
Between	3	8827.4075	2942.4090	0.717	0.5450
Within	76	311973.4648	4104.9102		
Total	79	320800.8125	4104.9000		

Control (N = 43):

		Masculinity score	
		Above 5.02	Below 5.02
Femininity score	Above 5.12	"Androgynous" 10 (23%)	"Feminine" 13 (31%)
	Below 5.12	"Masculine" 10 (23%)	"Undifferentiated" 10 (23%)

Experimental (N = 37):

		Masculinity score	
		Above 5.02	Below 5.02
Femininity score	Above 5.12	"Androgynous" 11 (30%)	"Feminine" 11 (30%)
	Below 5.12	"Masculine" 8 (21%)	"Undifferentiated" 7 (19%)

Figure 3. Classification of subjects by sex-role.

evident after training, this hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 2

There will be significant differences between posttest means of groups on the interpersonal relations variables, as measured by the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior Scale. This hypothesis was designed to answer the question: What effect if any, does RSC training have upon the individual's wanted and expressed scores on the Inclusion, Control and Affection scales of the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior? A t test (Table 11) comparing combined control with combined experimental groups on the Inclusion, Control and Affection scales reveals that none reached the hypothesized 0.05 level of significance.

One-way analysis of variance (Table 12) used to assess variance across all four groups, reveals that while no scale reached the 0.05 level of significance, two scales, Inclusion Expressed and Control Wanted, approached statistical significance, (p equals .069 and 0.058, respectively). The hypothesis is, nevertheless, rejected.

Ryan (1977, p. 8) categorizes FIRO-B scores from low to high (0 to 9) according to the following scheme:

0-1 are extremely low scores, the behavior will have a compulsive quality.

2-3 are low scores; the behavior describing the score will be noticeably characteristic of the person.

4-5 are borderline scores; although not extreme, the person may reveal a tendency toward the behavior described.

6-7 are high scores; the behavior will be noticeably

Table 11

Hypothesis 2: t test of Control Versus Experimental Groups
for Posttest Fundamental Interpersonal Relations
Orientation--Behavior Scores

Variable--Group	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	t value	Degrees of freedom	Significance level
Inclusion Expressed						
Control	4.2	2.0	0.31			
Experimental	3.6	2.1	0.34			
				1.29	75	0.20
Inclusion Wanted						
Control	3.0	3.4	0.52			
Experimental	2.5	3.1	0.53			
				0.60	76	0.55
Control Expressed						
Control	2.2	2.4	0.37			

Table 11--Continued

Variable--Group	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	<u>t</u> value	Degrees of freedom	Significance level
Experimental	2.0	2.2	0.37			
Control Wanted				0.32	76	0.74
Control	2.9	2.0	0.31			
Experimental	3.5	2.1	0.34			
Affection Expressed				-1.26	75	0.21
Control	3.0	1.9	0.29			
Experimental	3.5	1.9	0.32			
Affection Wanted				-1.14	76	0.25
Control	5.2	1.9	0.30			
Experimental	5.1	2.0	0.34			

Table 11--Continued

Variable--Group	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	<u>t</u> value	Degrees of freedom	Significance level
				0.15	73	0.87

Table 12
Hypothesis 2: One-way Analysis of Variance
among All Four Groups on Fundamental
Interpersonal Relations
Orientation--
Behavior

Source	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean squares	<u>F</u> value	Signifi- cance level
Inclusion Expressed					
Between	3	30.8076	10.2	2.461	0.0690
Within	76	317.1420	4.1		
Total	79	347.9495			
Inclusion Wanted					
Between	3	19.6418	6.5	0.589	0.6238
Within	75	833.1169	11.1		
Total	78	852.7585			
Control Expressed					
Between	3	2.5868	0.8	0.149	0.9302
Within	75	434.9318	5.7		
Total	78	437.5186			
Control Wanted					
Between	3	32.2036	10.7	2.592	0.058
Within	76	314.7958	4.1		

Table 12--Continued

Source	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean squares	<u>F</u> value	Signifi- cance level
Total	79	346.9993			
Affection Expressed					
Between	3	8.4376	2.8	0.726	0.5395
Within	76	294.3622	3.8		
Total	79	302.7996			
Affection Wanted					
Between	3	12.8343	4.2	1.060	0.3713
Within	75	302.6844	4.0		
Total	78	315.5186			

characteristic of the person.

8-9 are extremely high scores; the behavior will have a compulsive quality to it.

As can be seen in Table 11, all scores fall into the low or borderline categories, with little discrepancy between the "expressed" and "wanted" scores, indicating behavior which does not lead to conflict.

Based upon Ryan's (1977) interpretations of FIRO-B profiles, the average control group subject appears to be at home either in a group or by himself and is not unduly concerned about being accepted. He has leadership potential, but some self-doubt keeps him from rushing into new situations involving responsibility. He proceeds at his own speed, after being reassured by others. The typical control group member is cautious about initiating close personal relationships. The typical experimental group member is almost indistinguishable from his control group counterpart, except that he is not quite as comfortable whether alone or in a group: he is somewhat more selective of his company.

Hypothesis 3

There will be statistically significant differences between posttest means of groups on the self-acceptance variables, as measured by the Adjective Check List. This hypothesis was designed to answer the question: What effect, if any, does RSC training have upon the individual's self-acceptance, as measured by selected scales of the Adjective Check List? A t test analysis (Table 13) comparing combined control with combined experimental groups on the ACL Favorable, ACL Unfavorable, Self-Confidence and Personal Adjustment scales reveals

Table 13

Hypothesis 3: t test of Control Versus Experimental Groups
for Posttest Adjective Check List Scores

Variable--Group	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	t value	Degrees of freedom	Significance level
Adjective Check List Favorable						
Control	56.1	8.089	1.234			
Experimental	53.7	11.597	1.906			
				1.05	62	0.297
Adjective Check List Unfavorable						
Control	45.1	8.159	1.244			
Experimental	45.6	8.901	1.463			
				-0.27	73	0.790
Self-Confidence						
Control	52.1	7.731	1.179			
Experimental	52.0	9.089	1.494			

Table 13--Continued

Variable--Group	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	<u>t</u> value	Degrees of freedom	Significance level
Personal Adjustment				0.06	71	0.951
Control	54.0	8.103	1.236			
Experimental	53.4	9.878	1.624			
				0.29	69	0.772

that none reached the .05 level of significance.

One-way analysis of variance (Table 14), measuring variance among all four groups, shows that ACL Favorable is significant at the .03 level. None of the others is significant, although Personal Adjustment approaches significance ($p = < 0.06$ with 76, 3 Degrees of Freedom).

As can be seen in Table 14, Scheffé post hoc procedure for the 0.05 level did not differentiate among the groups. At the .10 level, Scheffé did differentiate among groups on the ACL Favorable Scale as follows:

Subset 1

Group	Number 1	Number 2	Number 3
Mean	51.7	52.4	55.7

Subset 2

Group	Number 3	Number 4
Mean	55.7	59.9

The appearance of high scores in the later experimental and control groups 3 and 4 suggests the possibility of contamination related to the passage of time between testing of the earlier and later groups. Perhaps the first groups, despite instructions to the contrary, discussed their experiences with those who were to be trained and tested at a later date.

A high number of favorable adjectives according to the ACL Manual (Gough & Heilbrun, 1965) suggests an excessive concern about others, which would seem to be the opposite of what might characterize the truly "rational" individual. If both control groups had scored

Table 14
Hypothesis 3: One-way Analysis of Variance
among All Four Groups on Adjective
Check List

Analysis of four groups					
Source	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean squares	<u>F</u> value	Signifi- cance level
Adjective Check					
List Favorable					
Between	3	864.297	288.099	3.202	0.027*
Within	76	6838.669	89.982		
Total	79	7702.964			
Adjective Check					
List Unfavorable					
Between	3	346.895	115.631	1.656	0.183
Within	76	5306.308	69.810		
Total	79	5653.203			
Self-Confidence					
Between	3	277.992	92.664	1.353	0.263
Within	76	5206.658	68.508		
Total	79	5484.648			
Personal- Adjustment					

Table 14--Continued

Source	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean squares	<u>F</u> value	Signifi- cance level
Between	3	577.000	192.400	2.565	0.060
Within	76	5700.737	75.009		
Total	79	6277.937			

Scale and means

	Group Number 2	Group Number 4	Group Number 1	Group Number 3
Adjective Check				
List Favorable	52.4	59.9	51.7	55.7

Note. Scheffé Procedure, Ranges for the 0.05 Level.

*Significant, $p < .05$.

high on this scale, one might be tempted to speculate on the influence of Rational Self-Counseling in reducing the number of favorable adjectives a subject might select to describe himself. Hypothesis 3 is rejected.

Hypothesis 4

There will be a significant correlation between final composite scores, which tested mastery of the subject matter, and posttest scores on the BSRI, FIRO-B and ACL, for treated subjects. This hypothesis seeks to answer the question: Is there a relationship between course success, as reflected in a composite final course grade, and scores on any of the other instruments used?

Pearson correlation coefficients for final composite scores of the experimental group and subscales of all three instruments, ACL, FIRO-B, and BSRI (Table 15) indicate significant correlations with ACL Unfavorable (Negative) ($p < .001$), Personal Adjustment (Positive) ($p < .042$), and Inclusion Wanted (Negative) ($p < .017$). Correlations with BSRI Femininity and Masculinity scales did not reach the 0.05 level of significance. In general, subjects scoring high on the final composite score were low on ACL Unfavorable and FIRO-B Inclusion Wanted. But, they also scored high on ACL Personal Adjustment.

A stepwise multiple regression analysis was done to discover the relative contributions of the instruments to the final composite score. As can be seen in Table 16, only ACL Unfavorable and FIRO-B Inclusion Wanted had significant F values.

Both variables had F values which were significant at the 0.01 level. Together they account for 30% of the total variation in the

Table 15
Hypothesis 4: Pearson Product-Moment
Correlation between Final
Composite Score and
Three Instruments

Final composite score with measures administered	Coefficient of correlation	Signifi- cance level
ACL Favorable	0.2895	.082
ACL Unfavorable	-0.5088	.001*
ACL Self-Confidence	0.2929	.079
ACL Personal Adjustment	0.3353	.042*
FIRO-B Inclusion Expressed	-0.2616	.118
FIRO-B Control Expressed	-0.0113	.948
FIRO-B Affection Expressed	-0.0701	.680
FIRO-B Inclusion Wanted	-0.3951	.017*
FIRO-B Control Wanted	-0.1269	.454
FIRO-B Affection Wanted	-0.2185	.201
BSRI Masculinity	0.2222	.186
BSRI Femininity	0.1461	.387

Note. ACL--Adjective Check List; FIRO-B--Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior; BSRI--Bem Sex-Role Inventory.

*Significant $p \leq .05$.

Table 16

Hypothesis 4: Stepwise Multipile Regression

Analysis of Final Score with Adjective

Check List and Fundamental

Interpersonal Relations--

Behavior Scales

 Step Number 1: Adjective Check List unfavorable

Multiple R 0.50797

R square 0.25804

Adjusted R square 0.23622

Standard error 1.13683

Analysis of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean square	<u>F</u> value
Regression	1	15.28157	15.28157	11.82444 ^a
Residual	34	43.94065	1.29237	

Step Number 2: Inclusion wanted

Multiple R 0.58376

R square 0.34078

Adjusted R square 0.30082

Standard error 1.08768

Table 16--Continued

Analysis of variance	Degrees of freedom	Sum of squares	Mean square	<u>F</u> value
Regression	2	20.18162	10.09081	8.52950 ^b
Residual	33	39.04060	1.18305	

^aRequired F(1,34 degrees of freedom) equals 7.42, $p < 0.01$.

^bRequired F(2,33 degrees of freedom) equals 5.30, $p < 0.01$.

final composite score (adjusted R square of 0.30082) and are, therefore, good predictors of final score. Although high correlations were found between ACL and FIRO-B and the final composite score, this hypothesis is rejected because no significant correlation was found to exist with the BSRI.

Further Exploratory Analysis

In an effort to discover whether a pretest-posttest analysis might have reflected greater change on the research instruments after treatment, it was decided to test the control group after training in RSC. There were 31 members of the original control groups that were retested and a paired comparison t test was done of scores made in July with those in October. The Affection Wanted Scale of the FIRO-B proved to be the only score which changed significantly ($p < 0.042$). July mean was 5.2903; October mean was 4.5161. The mean was lower on the second test, reflecting the rational individual's greater selectivity in developing deep relationships with others. No change was noted on the Masculinity and Femininity scales of the BSRI for this pretest-posttest group. Apparently the posttest-only control group design was appropriate for this research.

A Pearson correlation matrix using all variables was done to give additional insights into the results of the research. Table 17 lists some of the significant correlations among variables for the combined experimental groups.

As can be seen in Table 17, the final composite score, which is made up of homework grades, participation in class and score on a final exam, correlates significantly with subscales of the Adjective

Table 17
 Pearson Product-Moment Correlations among
 Selected Variables for the
 Experimental Groups

Correlated variables	Coefficient of correlation	Signifi- cance level*
Unfavorable Adjectives/ Final Composite Score	-0.50	.001
Personal Adjustment/ Control Wanted	-0.32	.051
Personal Adjustment/ Affection Wanted	-0.33	.046
Personal Adjustment/ Final Composite Score	0.33	.042
Inclusion Expressed/ Femininity	0.41	.010
Inclusion Wanted/ Final Composite Score	-0.39	.017
Control Wanted/ Masculinity	-.037	.021
Control Wanted/ Femininity	0.49	.002

*Significant $p \leq .05$.

Check List, The Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-- Behavior and the BSRI. Subjects scoring high on the composite score selected fewer unfavorable adjectives to describe themselves. These subjects also scored high on Personal Adjustment. And, the higher the final score the less subjects felt the need to associate with--be accepted by--large numbers of people. Apparently, these subjects' self-concept was strong enough that they did not need to be "included" in order to feel significant or worthwhile (Schutz, 1966).

Personal Adjustment scores had high negative correlations with both Control Wanted and Affection Wanted. This is consistent with the view of the rational individual as one who does not need to be loved by others in order to have a sense of self-worth and can act independently of others' control. BSRI--FIRO-B correlated scores tend to support the sex-role stereotypes of masculinity and femininity, masculinity being synonymous with ambitiousness, dominance and self-reliance; and femininity with affectionateness, gentleness and understanding (Bem, 1975).

Consistent with these stereotypes, Masculinity on the BSRI correlates negatively at the .02 level of significance with the Control Wanted scale of the FIRO-B: the dominant male eschews control. The opposite is true of high Femininity scores: the more "feminine" the subject the more he/she wants to be controlled. However, Ryan (1977) offers a caveat when interpreting Control scores for women: "For some women, a high score may merely be a measure of 'tolerance' rather than the degree of control desired. This is the only score (of the FIRO-B) that requires a differential interpretation for females [p. 8]."

And, not surprisingly, Femininity and Inclusion Expressed scores correlate highly and positively: the affectionate sociable female personality moves toward people and is comfortable in social settings.

Correlations among some of these variables for control versus experimental groups were strikingly dissimilar, leading one to speculate upon the possible influence of treatment. These differences are displayed in Table 18.

Differences between means of control and experimental groups, Table 18, are all in the direction of the greater autonomy associated with the rational individual. "Improvement" is found in the scores of those who have been trained. Training in Rational Self-Counseling appears to have had a strong influence upon certain combinations of characteristics, with "needs" (for inclusion, control and affection) scores becoming lower as self-confidence and masculinity increase. The "good" variables tend to go together, or to vary inversely with the less desirable ones, after training. Although not hypothesized, such changes are consistent with theory and, hence, not entirely unexpected. Further investigation of the correlates of rationality would seem to be useful.

In a t test comparing the means of blacks versus Caucasians on the three test instruments, blacks scored significantly lower ($p = < 0.026$) on Inclusion Wanted (means: 1.50 versus 3.18). This is not surprising for a population that historically has been systematically excluded from the social mainstream. In fact, blacks scored lower on all of the needs scales of the FIRO-B. Significance was approached ($p = < 0.064$) on the Control Wanted scale, with a mean for blacks of

Table 18
 Pearson Product-Moment Correlations of
 Selected Variables for Control
 Versus Experimental
 Groups

Correlated variables	Coefficient of correlation		Significance level	
	Control	Experi- mental	Control	Experi- mental
Personal Adjustment/ Control Wanted	-0.26	-0.32	.086	.051
Personal Adjustment/ Affection Wanted	-0.06	-0.33	.664	.046*
Inclusion Expressed/ Femininity	0.03	0.41	.827	.010*
Control Wanted/ Masculinity	-0.25	-0.37	.099	.021*
Control Wanted/ Femininity	0.29	0.49	.059	.002*
Self-Confidence/ Inclusion Expressed	0.30	-0.13	.050*	.437
Self-Confidence/ Control Wanted	-0.29	-0.44	.052	.006*

Table 18--Continued

Correlated variables	Coefficient of		Significance	
	correlation		level	
	Control	Experi- mental	Control	Experi- mental
Self-Confidence/				
Masculinity	0.34	0.45	.022*	.004*
Inclusion Expressed/				
Masculinity	0.45	-0.30	.002*	.066
Control Expressed/				
Masculinity	0.44	0.52	.003*	.001*
Control Expressed/				
Femininity	-0.18	-0.42	.223	.011*

*Significant $p \leq .05$.

2.61 compared with Caucasians 3.48.

Blacks also scored significantly lower than Caucasians on the Masculinity scale of the BSRI: 4.67 to 5.14 for a separate variance estimate probability of 0.045. Again, this difference may reflect the effects of socialization of blacks which teaches them to be less audacious, to risk less, and to maintain a lower profile than Caucasians.

Chapter 5

Summary, Conclusions, Limitations and Recommendations

Chapter 5 provides a summary of the study. Results are reported by hypothesis, and in terms of additional data. Limitations of the study are noted and recommendations made for further research.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of rational self-counseling training on measures of self-acceptance, interpersonal relations orientation and sex-role identity. Subjects for the study were 80 civilian volunteers from the Upward Mobility Program of a local government installation. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of four groups, and groups were then randomly designated as control or experimental, for a total of two control and two experimental groups: 64% of the subjects were female. Average age was 37, which was also the median. The age range was from 20- to 59-years: 73% were Caucasian. Blacks accounted for 26% of the total group. Most subjects were married, or had been married. All were high school graduates and half had completed some college work, though only 5% had the bachelor degree. The average number of years in Civil Service was 10, with a range of from 1- to 28-years.

Both experimental groups received the same semistructured rational self-counseling training procedure, consisting of five sessions within a 2-week period, totaling 12 hours. The experimenter

conducted all of the training for both groups. Training methods included role-playing, didactic teaching, group work, modeling, homework assignments, examinations and feedback from peers and leader.

Control groups received no rational training while this study was in progress. Instead, they were promised training at a later date. Training of controls was actually completed 3 months after the experimental groups were trained. Controls were tested on the same instruments (BSRI, ACL, FIRO-B) as the experimental groups. Since subjects came from the same population, were all volunteers, and were randomly assigned, pretesting was considered to be unnecessary and was, therefore, not done. The research design chosen for the study was the Posttest-Only Control Group design. Hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance.

Statistical treatment of the data consisted of one-way analysis of variance of the four groups; t test of the difference between combined experimental and combined control group means; Scheffé Procedure for the .05 level following one-way analysis of variance, as appropriate; and Pearson Product-Moment correlation of every variable with every other variable. Stepwise multiple-regression analysis was done to test the relationship of scores on the three instruments and the final composite score for the course. The composite score was made up of points for class participation, homework assignments and a final examination. Finally, a Chi-square test was done on responses to ACL item number 193: "Rational."

Conclusions

Conclusions about the effects of Rational Self-Counseling

training on the three personality instruments are given by hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1. Apparently, Rational Self-Counseling training had little perceptible effect upon the individual's sex-role, as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory. Means of combined control groups and those of combined experimentals were almost identical. Conceivably, a lifetime of sex-role conditioning does not change readily. It is possible that only with the application of RSC skills over a longer period of time will subjects move away from the stereotypical behavior toward psychological androgyny, incorporating both masculinity and femininity within the same individual. It is interesting to note that using Bem's criteria, based upon the group median, 30% of the experimental group as opposed to 23% of the control group may be classed as androgynous. The hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 2. Although two scales of the FIRO-B approached statistical significance, none proved to be significant at the hypothesized .05 level. Inclusion Expressed was significant at the .069 level, and Control Wanted reached .058. Change was generally in the direction of greater self-actualization, or lower needs scores, both expressed and wanted, after RSC training. This hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 3. A t test comparing means of control groups with experimental groups on the ACL scales chosen to reflect self-acceptance showed none reached the .05 level of significance. Although analysis of variance of all four groups showed that the Favorable scale was significant at the .03 level, the group with the highest mean was the second control group, so no effect of RSC training could be deduced.

The hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 4. This hypothesis stated that there would be a significant correlation between final composite scores and posttest scores on all three instruments used in the study: BSRI, FIRO-B, and ACL. Significant positive correlations were found with the ACL Unfavorable ($p < .001$) and Personal Adjustment ($p = < .042$) scales of the ACL. The other two, Favorable and Self-Confidence, were not significant. Of the FIRO-B scales, only Inclusion Wanted proved to have a significant correlation ($p = < .017$). The remaining five scales did not correlate significantly. No significant correlation was found to exist with the Masculinity and Femininity scales of the BSRI. This hypothesis was rejected.

Additional Findings

Although not part of the original study design, a pre- and post-test analysis was made of control group members after training to determine whether this approach might have been more indicative of change. The only significant change was on the Affection Wanted scale of the FIRO-B.

Pearson correlations using all variables disclosed some interesting results. Rational Self-Counseling training appears to have had a strong relationship to certain combinations of characteristics (e.g., Personal Adjustment was negatively correlated with Affection Wanted at the .046 level after training, as opposed to an insignificant .664 before). All scores after training, whether significant or not, changed in the expected direction.

Blacks scored lower than Caucasians on all of the FIRO-B

scales: Inclusion Wanted was significantly lower and Control Wanted approached significance. Blacks were significantly lower on the Masculinity scale of the BSRI. These differences may reflect the socialization of blacks in society.

The Adjective Check List includes the adjective "rational" (item number 193). Chi square analysis of controls versus experimentals showed that after treatment, significantly more experimentals described themselves as rational. (Chi square value of 8.137, significant beyond .001.)

Subjects were required by the government to complete the standard evaluation of training form, OF 170, and to submit it to the civilian training director. Subjects were not aware that their comments would be reviewed by this researcher. The following shows areas of evaluation and the mean rating given by course participants at the completion of RSC training (1 excellent, 2 adequate, 3 poor):

Evaluation area	Mean Rating
Stated objective accomplished	1.05
Coverage of subject matter	1.18
Organization of subject matter	1.13
Suitability of instructional materials	1.40 (see note)
Level of difficulty	1.02
Length of course	1.00
Amount outside work	1.00
Effectiveness of instructor	1.18
Job applicability	1.29
Facilities	1.30

Recommend to colleagues 1.35

Met career development plans 1.27

[Note: Some students suggested they be permitted to keep the handout material.]

Limitations

The following are the limitations of this study:

1. Results of this study should be generalized only to similar populations of Upward Mobility registrants. This sample was predominantly married female Caucasians whose average age was 36.89 and who had about a year of college. They volunteered not only for the Rational Self-Counseling course, but also for the Upward Mobility Program itself. Motivation was predictably high.

2. A course length of 12 hours may not be adequate to change behavior as measured by the Adjective Check List, the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior, and the Bem Sex-Role Inventory. Among the benefits to be gained from a longer course using the same semistructured format are more opportunities to analyze problems and to practice the desired behavior. The Hawthorne Effect, which may reflect changes in individuals as a result of their being part of an experiment, rather than as a result of training, could have affected both the control and experimental groups, since the controls were promised training after experimental groups were trained.

3. Identification of subjects, especially female subjects, with the female instructor, who was formerly a federal employee at their installation, may have influenced students' receptiveness.

4. Instrumentation used in this study was entirely self-report

and did not include direct measures of behavior.

5. The Halo Effect may have influenced the instructor in assigning a final composite score for the course, despite honest efforts to avoid it. Although the score combined ratings for class participation, homework and a final examination, these were to some extent judgments by the instructor. The use of "impartial" observers, and/or raters, might overcome this possible weakness.

6. Always possible is the tendency among certain test-takers to fake or respond in socially desirable ways. The researcher attempted to eliminate this by having subjects use only code numbers rather than names on all test instruments (as well as on homework and the final examination). But, subjects must have realized that because those numbers were assigned by the instructor, she knew the identity of each individual. Another possible influence on subjects to "look good" could have been the Upward Mobility Program itself which is designed to help those people advance who are well-motivated.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made as a result of this study:

1. Testing the long-term effects of Rational Self-Counseling training after a 6-month "incubation" period might be useful, using the same instruments.
2. Investigation of the possible influences of RSC training upon combinations of personality characteristics, such as uncovered in this study, should be pursued.
3. It might be useful to develop profiles of the "rational"

individual using the ACL, FIRO-B and BSRI. This could be done by having the instrument authors, and others skilled in rational therapy, to mark these instruments as the rational individual would. Assessment of change might be facilitated by having such a standard for comparison.

4. A study of other subjects who are also in low-paying, "dead-end" jobs, but who did not volunteer for the Upward Mobility Program might tell more about the Program and its members. For example, what are the effects of motivation upon androgyny, and vice versa. Such information could be useful to management in designing programs for these individuals.

5. What effect does age have upon the FIRO-B and BSRI?

6. Other measures of the effects of training in RSC should be developed. For example, do trained individuals progress faster and further in their career programs? Is their performance on the job more outstanding? Do they take less sick leave? A "perceived change" measure might be developed for use by supervisors of trained employees.

7. Future courses in RSC might use trained observers to assess improvement after training.

8. Does the sex composition influence success in RSC? Courses should be given to single-sex groups to study the possible effects on success in RSC training.

APPENDIX

Appendix A

Personal Data Form, Confidential

C O N F I D E N T I A L

(Personal in Nature)
PERSONAL DATA FORM

Code Name or SSAN _____ Sex _____ Age _____

Racial/Ethnic Background:

Black American _____
American Indian _____
Chicano _____
Caucasian _____

Marital Status:

Single _____ Married _____ Divorced _____
Spouse Deceased _____ Separated _____
Years Married _____

If married, Spouse's Age _____ Spouse's Occupation _____

Education:

	<u>YOU</u>		<u>SPOUSE</u>		Your Major
	Yes	No	Yes	No	
High School Graduate _____					
College:					
Less than one year _____					
One year _____					
Two years _____					
Three years _____					
Graduated _____					
Graduate Degree _____					

Civil Service:

	<u>YOU</u>	<u>SPOUSE</u>
Number of years _____		
Highest grade held _____		
Current job _____		
Future job desired _____		

Parents' Work History:

Father's Job _____ Civil Service? _____ Years _____

Mother's Job _____ Civil Service? _____ Years _____

Appendix B

Letter of Acceptance of Training Offer,

Fort Eustis



DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY
U. S. ARMY TRANSPORTATION CENTER AND FORT EUSTIS
FORT EUSTIS, VIRGINIA 23604

121

ATZF-CP-EDO

31 March 1978

Miss Marguerite C. Finnerty
204 Dogwood Court
Yorktown, Virginia 23692

Dear Miss Finnerty:

This refers to your 14 March 1978 letter to the Fort Eustis Commander in which you offered to provide a training program for a limited number of civilian employees with no cost to the Government. We accept your offer under the conditions and ground rules established between you and Mr. West on 27 March 1978.

We plan to use this training to enhance the effectiveness of the Upward Mobility Program. Participants will be selected from those individuals who currently have Upward Mobility Developmental Plans. Scheduling of sessions will have to be done in cooperation with supervisors and employees who already face heavy demands on their time; therefore, a commitment on a date to schedule the program cannot be made at this time.

Please contact Mr. West in the Civilian Training and Development Office, 878-2035, to coordinate the details of conducting your Rational Self-Counseling Course.

We appreciate your interest in providing training to our civilian employees.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, appearing to read "B. B. Thornton".

B. B. THORNTON
Civilian Personnel Officer



Appendix C

Rational Self-Counseling Course Outline

RATIONAL SELF-COUNSELING COURSE* OUTLINE

(12 HOURS)

- SESSION I: Introduction and Course Overview.
- A. Welcome by leader.
 - B. Biographical data.
 - C. Course objectives and overview.
 - D. Course procedures, requirements, confidentiality.
 - E. Introduction of group members.
 - F. Irrational ideas.
- SESSION II: Rational Self-Understanding.
- A. Rational self-counseling and why it is rational.
 - B. Your brain and how it works.
 - C. The ABC's of human emotions and how they work.
 - D. New emotional learning and emotional re-education.
- SESSION III: Emotional Re-education Through Rational Self-Counseling.
- A. Rational self-analysis.
 - B. Rational emotive imagery (REI).
 - C. Rational self-control.
- SESSION IV: Emotional Self-Teaching.
- A. Practice in analyzing problems.
 - B. Irrational attitudes behind your thoughts.
- SESSION V: Course Conclusion.
- A. How to continue personal growth using Rational Self-Analysis.
 - B. Course review.
 - C. Posttesting.

*Adapted from Maultsby, M. C., Jr.: Help yourself to happiness through Rational Self-Counseling.

Appendix D

Bem Sex-Role Inventory

Full Name _____

(Please print)

Sex _____ Age _____ School _____

Year in School _____ Occupation _____

(if not a student)

TELEPHONE _____ (If you have no phone, please give us some way of contacting you, e.g., your address):

On the following page, you will be shown a large number of personality characteristics. We would like you to use those characteristics in order to describe yourself. That is, we would like you to indicate, on a scale from 1 to 7, how true of you these various characteristics are. Please do not leave any characteristics unmarked.

Example: sly

Mark a 1 if it is NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 2 if it is USUALLY NOT TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 3 if it is SOMETIMES BUT INFREQUENTLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 4 if it is OCCASIONALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 5 if it is OFTEN TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 6 if it is USUALLY TRUE that you are sly.

Mark a 7 if it is ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE that you are sly.

Thus, if you feel it is sometimes but infrequently true that you are "sly," never or almost never true that you are "malicious," always or almost always true that you are "irresponsible," and often true that

you are "carefree," then you would rate these characteristics as follows:

Sly	3	Irresponsible	7
Malicious	1	Carefree	5

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

NEVER OR USUALLY SOMETIMES OCCASION- OFTEN USUALLY ALWAYS OR
 ALMOST NOT BUT ALLY TRUE TRUE ALMOST
 NEVER TRUE INFRE- TRUE ALWAYS
 TRUE QUENTLY TRUE
 TRUE

Self reliant	
Yielding	
Helpful	
Defends own beliefs	
Cheerful	
Moody	

Reliable	
Analytical	
Sympathetic	
Jealous	
Has leadership abilities	

Warm	
Solemn	
Willing to take a stand	
Tender	
Friendly	
Aggressive	

Independent	
Shy	
Conscientious	
Athletic	
Affectionate	
Theatrical	
Assertive	
Flatterable	
Happy	
Strong personality	
Loyal	
Unpredictable	
Forceful	

Sensitive to the needs of others	
Truthful	
Willing to take risks	
Understanding	
Secretive	
Makes decisions easily	
Compassionate	
Sincere	
Self sufficient	
Eager to soothe hurt feelings	
Conceited	

Gullible	
Inefficient	
Acts as a leader	
Childlike	
Adaptable	
Individualistic	
Does not use harsh language	
Unsystematic	
Competitive	
Loves children	
Tactful	
Ambitious	

Feminine	
----------	--

Dominant	
Soft-spoken	
Likable	
Masculine	

Gentle	
Conventional	

REFERENCES

References

- Adler, A. Individual psychology. In G. Lindsey & C. Hall (Eds.), Theories of personality: Primary sources and research. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1965.
- Bandura, A. Social learning theory. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1977.
- Bandura, A., & Walters, R. H. Social learning and personality development. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1963.
- Baucom, D. H. Independent masculinity and femininity scales on the California Psychological Inventory. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1976, 44(5), 876.
- Becker, I. M., & Rosenfeld, J. G. Rational emotive therapy--a study of initial therapy sessions of Albert Ellis. Journal of Clinical Psychology, 1976, 32(4), 872-876.
- Bem, S. L. Psychology looks at sex roles: Where have all the androgynous people gone? Paper presented at Symposium on Women, University of California, Los Angeles, May 1972.
- Bem, S. L. The measurement of psychological androgyny. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1974, 42(2), 155-162.
- Bem, S. L. Sex role adaptability: One consequence of psychological androgyny. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 31(5), 634-643.

- Bem, S. L. On the utility of alternative procedures for assessing psychological androgyny. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1977, 45 196-205.
- Bem, S. L. Beyond androgyny: Some presumptuous prescriptions for a liberated sexual identity. In J. Sherman & F. Denmark (Eds), Psychology of women: Future directions of research. New York: Psychological Dimensions, in press.
- Bem, S. L., & Lenney, E. Sex typing and the avoidance of cross-sex behavior. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1976, 33(1), 48-54.
- Bem, S. L., Martyna, W., & Watson, C. Sex typing and androgyny: Further explorations of the expressive domain. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1976, 34(5), 1016-1023.
- Bem, S. L., & Watson, C. Revised scoring packet for the Bem Sex-Role Inventory. Unpublished manuscript, Stanford University, 1976.
- Block, J. Effects of a rational-emotive mental health program on poorly achieving, disruptive high school students. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1978, 25(1), 61-65.
- Block, J., Von der Lippe, A., & Block, J. H. Sex-role and socialization patterns: Some personality concomitants and environmental antecedents. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1973, 41(3), 321-341.
- Block, J. H. Conceptions of sex role. American Psychologist, 1973, 28(6), 512-526.
- Brammer, L. M., & Shostrom, E. L. Therapeutic psychology (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1968.

- Broverman, I. K., Vogel, S., Broverman, D., Clarkson, F., & Rosenkrantz, P. Sex-role stereotypes: A current appraisal. Journal of Social Issues, 1972, 28(2), 59-78.
- Brown, J. H., & Brown, C. S. Concomitants of social acceptance: exploratory research and implications for treatment. American Journal of Orthopsychiatry, 1976, 46(3), 470-476.
- Burke, P. J., & Tully, J. C. The measurement of role identity. Social Forces, 1977, 55(4), 881-889.
- Burke, R. J., & Weir, T. Some personality differences between members of one-career and two-career families. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1976, 38(3), 453-459.
- Byrne, D. An introduction to personality: Research, theory, and applications (2nd ed.). Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1974.
- Campbell, D. T., & Stanley, J. C. Experimental and quasi-experimental designs for research. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966. (Reprinted from Handbook of research on teaching. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1963.)
- Campbell, J. P. Laboratory education: Research results and needs. In R. Diedrich & H. Dye (Eds.), Group procedures: Purposes, processes and outcomes. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin, 1972.
- Clawson, T. W. The effects of rational self-counseling on the locus of control of treated subjects. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, College of William and Mary, 1976.

- Constantinople, A. Masculinity-femininity: An exception to a famous dictum. Psychological Bulletin, 1973, 80(5), 389-408.
- Costello, T. W., & Zalkind, S. S. Psychology in administration: A research orientation. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, 1963.
- D'Andrade, R. G. Sex differences and cultural institutions. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.), The development of sex differences. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1966.
- Diedrich, R., & Dye, H. (Eds.). Group procedures: Purposes, processes and outcomes. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin, 1972.
- Ellis, A. Executive leadership: A rational approach. Secaucus, New Jersey: Citadel Press, 1972.
- Ellis, A., & Harper, R. A. A new guide to rational living. North Hollywood, California: Wilshire Book Co., 1977.
- Gazda, G., & Larsen, M. A comprehensive appraisal of group and multiple counseling research. In R. Diedrich & H. Dye (Eds.), Group procedures: Purposes, processes and outcomes. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin, 1972.
- Gilmore, S. K. Pioneers in guidance: Leona Elizabeth Tyler. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1977, 55(8), 451-459.
- Ginzberg, E. Toward a theory of occupational choice: A restatement. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1972, 20(3), 169-176.
- Glasser, W. Reality therapy. New York: Harper & Row, 1964.
- Goodman, D. S., & Maultsby, M. C., Jr. Emotional well-being through rational behavior training. Springfield, Illinois: Charles C. Thomas, 1974.

- Gough, H. G., & Heilbrun, A. B. The Adjective Check List manual. Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1965.
- Harrison, R. Problems in the design and interpretation of human relations training. In R. Diedrich & H. Dye (Eds.), Group procedures: Purposes, processes and outcomes. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin, 1972.
- Hoppock, R. Occupational information. New York: McGraw Hill, 1959.
- Horner, M. S. Fail: Bright women. Psychology Today, 1969, 3(6), 36-38.
- Johnson, P. Women and power: Toward a theory of effectiveness. Journal of Social Issues, 1976, 32(3), 99-109.
- Jordan-Viola, E., Fassbert, S., & Viola, M. T. Feminism, androgyny and anxiety. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1976, 44(5), 870-871.
- Kanner, A. D. Femininity and masculinity: Their relationships to creativity in male architects and their independence from each other. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1976, 44(5), 802-805.
- Keller, J. F., Croake, J. W., & Brooking, J. Y. Effects of a program in rational thinking on anxieties in older persons. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1975, 22(1), 54-57.
- Kelley, J. A., & Worell, L. Parent behaviors related to masculine, feminine and androgynous sex role orientations. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1976, 44(5), 843-851.
- Kerlinger, F. N. Foundations of behavioral research. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1973.

- Kohlberg, L. A cognitive-developmental analysis of children's sex role concepts and attitudes. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.), The development of sex differences. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1966.
- Kuehl, C. R., Di Marco, N., & Wims, E. W. Leadership orientation as a function of interpersonal need structure. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1975, 60(1), 143-145.
- Lange, A. J., & Jakubowski, P. Responsible assertive behavior. Champaign, Illinois: Research Press, 1976.
- Lanyon, R. I., & Goodstein, L. D. Personality assessment. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1971.
- Lazarus, A. A. Behavior therapy and beyond. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971.
- Levis, D. J. Learning approaches to therapeutic behavior change. Chicago: Aldine Publishing, 1970.
- Lindsey, G., & Hall, C. (Eds.). Theories of personality: Primary sources and research. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1965.
- Maccoby, E. E. Sex differences in intellectual functioning. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.), The development of sex differences. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1966.
- Maccoby, E. E. (Ed.). The development of sex differences. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1966.
- Mahoney, M. J. Reflections on the cognitive-learning trend in psychotherapy. American Psychologist, 1977, 32(1), 5-13.
- Maltz, M. Psycho-cybernetics. New York: Pocket Books, 1969.

- Maultsby, M. C., Jr. Help yourself to executive success. Lexington, Kentucky: University of Kentucky Medical Center, 1974-1975.
- Maultsby, M. C., Jr. Basic principles of intensive RBT [Rational Behavior Therapy]. Lexington, Kentucky: Outpatient Psychiatric Department, University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1975 (a)
- Maultsby, M. C., Jr. Help yourself to happiness through Rational Self-Counseling. New York: Institute for Rational Living, 1975. (b)
- Maultsby, M. C., Jr. The art of self-help through rational behavior therapy groups. Lexington, Kentucky: Outpatient Psychiatric Department, University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1976. (a)
- Maultsby, M. C., Jr. Introduction and summary for rational behavior therapy (the art and the science). Lexington, Kentucky: Outpatient Psychiatric Department, University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1976. (b)
- Maultsby, M. C., Jr. Overview of Rational Behavior Therapy. Lexington, Kentucky: Outpatient Psychiatric Department, University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1976. (c)
- Maultsby, M. C., Jr., & Ellis, A. Techniques for using Rational Emotive Imagery [REI]. New York: Institute for Rational Living, 1974.
- Maultsby, M. C., Jr., & Hendricks, A. You and your emotions. Lexington, Kentucky: Outpatient Psychiatric Department, University of Kentucky College of Medicine, 1974.

- Maultsby, M. C., Jr., Knipping, P., & Carpenter, L. Teaching self-help in the classroom with rational self-counseling. Journal of School Health, 1974, 44(8), 445-448.
- Maultsby, M. C., Jr., Stiefel, L., & Brodsky, L. A theory of rational behavioral group process. Rational Living, 1972, 7(2), 73-82.
- Meichenbaum, D. Cognitive-behavior modification, an integrative approach. New York: Plenum Press, 1977.
- Mischel, W. A social-learning view of sex differences in behavior. In E. E. Maccoby (Ed.), The development of sex differences. Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1966.
- Nie, N. H., Hull, C. H., Jenkins, J. G., Steinbrenner, K., & Bent, D. H. Statistical package for the social sciences (2nd ed.). New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975.
- Oakley, A. Sex, gender and society. London, England: Temple Smith, 1972.
- Parsons, J. E., Ruble, D. N., Hodges, K. L., & Small, W. A. Cognitive-developmental factors in emerging sex differences in achievement related expectancies. Journal of Social Issues, 1976 28(2), 47-61.
- Patterson, C. H. Theories of counseling and psychotherapy (2nd ed.). New York: Harper & Row, 1973.
- Perls, F. S. Gestalt therapy verbatim. Moab, Utah: Real People Press, 1969.
- Piaget, G. W., & Lazarus, A. A. The use of rehearsal-desensitization. Psychotherapy: Theory, Research and Practice, 1969, 6(4), 264-266.

- Ponzo, Z. Integrating techniques from five counseling theories. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1976, 54(8), 415-419.
- Rebecca, M., Hefner, R., & Oleshansky, B. A model of sex-role transcendence. Journal of Social Issues, 1976, 32(3), 197-206.
- Robinson, J. P., & Shaver, P. R. Measures of social psychological attitudes. Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute for Social Research, 1969.
- Rogers, C. R. Client-centered therapy. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin, 1951.
- Rogers, C. R. On becoming a person. Boston, Massachusetts: Houghton Mifflin, 1961.
- Rosenfeld, L. B., & Frandsen, K. D. The "other" speech student: An empirical analysis of some interpersonal relations orientations of the reticent student. The Speech Teacher, 1972, 21(3), 296-302.
- Ruble, D. N., & Higgins, E. T. Effects of group sex composition on self-presentation and sex typing. Journal of Social Issues, 1976, 32(3), 125-132.
- Ryan, L. R. Clinical interpretation of the FIRO-B [Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior]. Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1977.
- Schultz, E. W., Manton, A. B., & Salvia, J. A. Screening emotionally disturbed children in a rural setting. Exceptional Children, 1972, 39(4), 134-137.
- Schutz, W. C. The FIRO [Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation] scales manual. Palo Alto, California: Consulting Psychologists, Press, 1967.

- Schutz, W. C. The interpersonal underworld (Reprint ed.). Palo Alto: California: Consulting Psychologists Press, 1966.
- Shectman, F. Conventional and contemporary approaches to psychotherapy. American Psychologist, 1977, 32(3), 197-204.
- Sherman, J., & Denmark, F. (Eds.). Psychology of women: Future directions of research. New York: Psychological Dimensions, in press.
- Spence, J. T., Helmreich, R., & Stapp, J. Ratings of self and peers on sex role attributes and their relation to self-esteem and conceptions of masculinity and femininity. Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 1975, 32(1), 29-39.
- Strahan, R. F. Remarks on Bem's measurement of psychological androgyny: Alternative methods and a supplementary analysis. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1975, 43(4), 568-571.
- Tait, H. S. The effect of assertion training on selected personality dimensions of women. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Missouri, Kansas City, 1976.
- Underwood, W. J., & Krafft, L. J. Interpersonal compatibility and managerial work effectiveness: A test of the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation theory. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1973, 58(1), 89-94.
- U.S. Army, Adjutant General's Office. Appendix F. Guidelines for the Department of Army Upward Mobility Program, CPR 700 (C19) (Washington, D. C.: June 1974). [Pamphlet.]

- U.S. Civil Service Commission, Training in support of Upward Mobility Programs, Bulletin No. 410-83 (Washington, D. C.: June 26, 1974). (a) [Pamphlet.]
- U.S. Civil Service Commission, Upward mobility for lower level employees, FPM Letter No. 713-27 (Washington, D. C.: June 28, 1974). (b) [Pamphlet.]
- Wakefield, J. A., Jr., Sasek, J., Friedman, A. F., & Bowden, J. D. Androgyny and other measures of masculinity-femininity. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1976, 44(5), 766-770.
- Whiteside, M. Age and sex differences in self-perception as related to ideal trait selections. Adolescence, 1976, 11(44), 585-591.
- Williams, K. E. FIRO-B [Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation--Behavior]: A contribution toward its validity. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Northern Colorado, 1977.
- Wolfe, J. L., & Fodor, I. G. A cognitive/behavioral approach to identifying assertive behavior in women. The Counseling Psychologist, 1975, 5(4), 45-52.
- Wolfe, J. L., & Fodor, I. G. Modifying assertive behavior in women: A comparison of three approaches. Behavior Therapy, 1977, 8, 567-574.
- Wolpe, J., & Lazarus, A. Behavior therapy techniques: A guide to the treatment of neurosis. New York: Pergamon Press, 1966.
- Yalom, I. D. The theory and practice of group psychotherapy (2nd ed.). New York: Basic Books, 1975.
- Yates, A. J. Behavior therapy. New York: John Wiley & Sons, 1970.

Young, H. S. A rational counseling primer. New York: Institute for
Rational Living, 1974.

VITA

Marguerite Charlotte Finnerty
Birthdate February 9, 1922
Place of birth Norfolk, Virginia

Education

Doctor of Education in Counseling, College of William and Mary,
May 1979.

Certificate of Advanced Study in Education, College of William
and Mary, May 1976.

Master of Science in Personnel Management, George Washington
University, February 1962.

Bachelor of Arts, State University of California at San Francisco,
January 1956.

Experience

Education Specialist, United States Government.

Instructor: College of William and Mary, Christopher Newport
College, Thomas Nelson Community College.