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An Investigation Of Altruism And Personality Variables Amongbeginning Counseling Students

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AN INVESTIGATION OF ALTRUISM AND PERSONALITY VARIABLES AMONG
BEGINNING COUNSELING STUDENTS

by

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ABSTRACT

Altruism is loosely defined as a desire to help others as well as acts and behaviors towards

that end, particularly when no expectation of personal gain or reward exists (Batson, Fultz,

Schoenrade & Paduano, 1987).   It seems likely that individuals who choose to pursue a

career in counseling might be doing so out of some altruistic interest; in other words a desire

to come to the aid of others in distress. It has been noted as well that some individuals may

enter the counseling profession based more on self-interest; for example, as "wounded

healers" hoping to work on personal issues (Wheeler, 2002). Some researchers (Shapiro &

Gabbard, 1996) hypothesize that overstated altruism may lead to burn-out and fatigue among

some counselors whereas those who have limited altruism may have difficulties empathizing

with clients.   Despite the apparent relevance of altruism to counseling as a profession, very

few studies have investigated the level of altruism among those in the field. The primary

purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between altruism and personality

variables in beginning counseling students. It is currently unclear to what extent altruism is a

state (situational) vs. a trait (inherent). Grasping a greater sense of what constitutes altruistic

behavior among beginning counseling students may benefit researchers in understanding the

potential difficulties Shapiro & Gabbard (1996) suggest; i.e., burn-out, limited empathy or

even self-gratification. The population in this study was 87 students entering a Master's

degree in Counselor Education at a large, public institution in the Southeastern Unites States.

The subjects completed the following assessments at orientation to their program: The

Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory (an instrument designed to study altruism vs. self-interest

in counselor education students), the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the

Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior (FIRO-B). It was hypothesized

that higher scores on altruism would correlate with the intuitive and feeling dimensions of the

MBTI and low scores on wanted inclusion, wanted affection and expressed control on the

FIRO-B. The hypotheses were not supported in this study; the only finding of statistical

significance was the correlation between the thinking dimension of the MBTI and the total

score on the RHI. Suggestions for future research are discussed.

Dedicated, with love, to my parents, Robert and Patricia Schmuldt. Your example taught me to value learning, self-sufficiency and perseverance. I thank you for these invaluable lessons.

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LIST OF ACRONYMS/ABBREVIATIONS

RHI   Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory

MBTI   Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

FIRO-B   Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation-Behavior

WI   Wanted Inclusion

WA   Wanted Affection

EC   Expressed Control

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

Altruism is loosely defined as a desire to help others as well as acts and behaviors towards that end (Batson, 1998; Kottler, 1994; Monk-Turner, Blake, Chniel, Forbes, Lensey & Madzuma, 2002; Shapiro & Gabbard, 1996); particularly when no expectation of personal gain or reward exists (Batson, Fultz, Schoenrade & Paduano, 1987). The connection between altruism and counseling is apparent; i.e., one would expect that those who select a career in counseling are responding to some internal drive or need to come to the aid and benefit of individuals in crises. Some disagreement exists as to whether or not acts of altruism inherently offer their own set of rewards (Shapiro & Gabbard, 1996) ranging from feelings of self-satisfaction (which some refer to as a "helper's high") to more exaggerated feelings such as viewing one's self as heroic or extraordinarily competent as a helper.

Shapiro & Gabbard (1996) discuss the existence and evolution of altruism, particularly as it relates to those in the helping professions. They view a continuum of altruism versus self-interest; as well as the potential hazards associated with either extreme. Pronounced or exaggerated feelings of altruism may lead to burn-out and fatigue on the counselors' part, whereas overstated self-interest may impede the counselors' ability to empathize with clients. Such a counselor might be inclined to view client progress strictly as evidence of their own competence. Shapiro & Gabbard (1996) note that the altruism vs. self-interest continuum is intentionally presented in an extreme fashion; i.e., neither absolute altruism nor absolute self-

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interest are likely to exist in human subjects and both are mitigated by a variety of personal and interpersonal characteristics and factors.

The relevance of altruism in relation to those in the counseling field is echoed by Parr, Bradley, Lan & Gould (1998). In as survey of members of the Association of Counselor Educators and Supervisors (ACES), the researchers found that altruism is one of the overarching characteristics of counselor educators who are satisfied in their careers. While this data refers to those in counselor education positions rather than those working as practicing counselors, some parallels may be inferred.

Definitions

Altruism, in this investigation, refers to the motives of beginning counselor education students. For the purpose of this study, altruism will entail the degree to which a beginning counselor education student is other-oriented vs. self-oriented, as determined by responses on the Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory.

Counselor Education students refers to those students beginning a Master's program in Counselor Education who have yet to begin coursework.

Personality variables refers to interpersonal data collected from standardized instruments, in this case, the Meyers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and the Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO-B).

Theoretical Foundations

Individuals entering the counseling profession may be doing so for a myriad of reasons. It is assumed that as a counselor works to help others with problems they are facing, that those entering the counseling profession are doing so based on some internal desire to come to the aid of others in distress (Shapir & Gabbard, 1996). This desire to assist others is viewed as altruism for the purposes of this study. Shapiro and Gabbard (1996) note that altruism is diametrically opposed to self-interest, yet neither of these concepts exists as an absolute in human behavior. Altruism and self-interest are concepts with which counselors struggle on a routine basis (Shapiro & Gabbard, 1996). Some research suggest that the clients of counselors who have a greater degree of altruism, as measured by self-report instruments, show greater outcomes in terms of therapeutic change (Zarski, Sweeney & Barcikowski (1977). However, no current research exists on measuring altruism versus self-interest among those entering the counseling profession. This research attempts to understand which personality variables seem to correlate with altruism. This study will implement the MBTI and the FIRO-B These individuals, it is

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noted, most frequently endorse the intuitive orientation, which is focused on future possibilities that could arise from current situations, and the underlying meanings of people, places, and events (Dunning, 2001).   When the intuitive orientation is coupled with the feeling orientation, as Myers (1993) notes, a desire to respond to a human need often follows. This desire often applies to career choice, such as selecting a career as a counselor. Myers' (1993) assertion supports the hypothesis that the higher levels of altruism would be expected among individuals with the NF preference.

Statement of the problem

Although it appears worthwhile to consider the altruism of individuals entering the counseling profession, research on the topic is absent from the professional literature. Therefore, the primary purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between altruism and personality variables in beginning counseling students. It is currently unclear to what extent altruism is a state (situational) vs. a trait (inherent). Grasping a greater sense of what constitutes altruistic behavior among beginning counseling students may benefit researchers in understanding the potential difficulties Shapiro & Gabbard (1996) suggest; i.e., burn-out and self-gratification. The purpose of this study is to gather data regarding altruism as it relates to other personal and interpersonal data. Such information may allow inferences regarding which beginning counseling students might have tendencies towards either self-sacrifice or self-gratification.

Purpose of the Study

The FIRO-B will serve to expand upon the interpersonal needs of the beginning counseling students and how they relate to data gathered from the Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory. Specifically, the following scales are expected to correlate negatively with the Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory: wanted inclusion (wI), expressed control (eC) and wanted affection (wA). These assessments consider interpersonal preferences and personality style while avoiding inferences as to pathology or interpersonal dysfunction.

When the intuitive orientation is coupled with the feeling orientation, as Myers (1993) notes, a desire to respond to a human need often follows. This desire often applies to career choice, such as selecting a career as a counselor. Myers' (1993) assertion supports the hypothesis that the higher levels of altruism would be expected among individuals with the NF preference.

Research Question

The dependent variable in this study is the level of altruism of beginning counseling students. The independent variables are personality type (using Jung's typology) and interpersonal preferences, to be explained in the measurement section of this essay.

Null Hypothesis #1: There is no relationship between level of altruism among beginning counseling students and Sensing-iNtuition or Thinking-Feeling subscales of the MBTI.

Null Hypothesis #2: There is no relationship between expressed interpersonal needs (eC) and level of altruism among beginning counseling students.

Null Hypothesis #3: There is no relationship between preferred interpersonal needs (wI and wA) and level of altruism among beginning counseling students.

Methodology

The population in this study will consist of students entering the counselor education master's program at the University of Central Florida. Students will complete assessments at the time of orientation to the program. Completing assessments at this time—presumably prior to completing coursework in counseling—might control for students seeking to answer as they expect a counselor "should" answer—e.g., trying to "look good". All students entering the program will complete the assessments.

This study requires the administration of three instruments: The Robison-Heintzelman Inventory (unpublished test); the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Briggs & Myers, 2003); and the FIRO-B (Fundamental Interpersonal Relation Orientation-Behavior) (Schutz, 2003). The statistic Eta will be used to analyze the relationship between the RHI and the MBTI. Eta is a coefficient of nonlinear association .This interpretation requires that the dependent variable be interval in level, and the independent variable be categorical (nominal, ordinal, or grouped interval). Eta is a measure of strength of relationship based on sums of squares computed in analysis of variance. A Pearson correlation will be used to measure the significance of the relationship between the RHI and the FIRO-B. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two variables.

The Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory is an unpublished assessment designed for administration with counseling students. The inventory solicits data regarding a students' motivations for entering the counseling profession. It examines the extent to which a counselor or counseling student is attempting to meet their own needs versus the needs of clients or potential clients. By inquiring into these motives, data regarding the student's altruism vs. self-interest is collected.

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is a popular instrument used for information on personality preferences. These preferences are measured as four dichotomous extremes;

Introversion vs. Extroversion (I-E); iNtuition vs. Sensing (N-S); Thinking vs. Feeling (T-F); and Judging vs. Perceiving (J-P). Data exists suggesting that counselors are most likely to have a Myers-Briggs code of ENFP (Briggs & Myers, 1990).

The final assessment is the FIRO-B (Schutz, 2003) which measures the extent to which a person expresses and desires behaviors on three dimensions: Control, Affection and Inclusion. For the purposes of this study, these three dimensions will be coded in terms of high versus low for each of the dimensions, both preferred and expressed. Of interest to this study is the extent to which those entering the counseling profession have high needs for control, inclusion and affection, and how that might relate to their levels of altruism. It would appear that those with higher needs for controlling others, as well as higher needs to receive affection and inclusion might seek a counseling profession in order to meet those needs via their clients; i.e., acting from self-interest versus altruism.

These assessments were selected in order to gain preliminary data on altruism as it relates to beginning counseling students. The Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory was created specifically for this reason. The MBTI will provide information on personality preferences as related to altruism vs. self-interest; e.g., it is expected that preferences towards Intuition and Feeling will correspond with higher levels of altruism. The FIRO-B will serve to expand upon the interpersonal needs of the beginning counseling students and how they relate to data gathered from the Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory. Specifically, the following scales are expected to correlate negatively with the Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory: wanted inclusion

(wI), expressed control (eC) and wanted affection (wA). These assessments consider interpersonal preferences and personality style while avoiding inferences as to pathology or interpersonal dysfunction.

Data Analysis

Because the MBTI utilizes nominal data, the statistic eta will be used to apply the two MBTI sub-scales to the scores on the RHI altruism scale. The FIRO-B implements interval data, thus, a Pearson correlation is appropriate for assessing the relationship between the three FIRO-B sub-scales and RHI scores. The statistic Eta will be used to analyze the relationship between the RHI and the MBTI. Eta is a coefficient of nonlinear association .This interpretation requires that the dependent variable be interval in level, and the independent variable be categorical (nominal, ordinal, or grouped interval). Eta is a measure of strength of relationship based on sums of squares computed in analysis of variance. A Pearson correlation will be used to measure the significance of the relationship between the RHI and the FIRO-B. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two variables.

Limitations

A number of threats to internal and external validity must be considered in this study. While it is postulated that students in orientation have not completed coursework in counselor education, it is a possibility that some may have taken classes as students-at-large and have a greater sense as to how a counselor "should" answer items on the Robinson-Heintzelman Invetory. Additionally, beginning counseling students may be entering either a school counseling or a mental health counseling track; inherent differences in these two groups of students are possible. It is also possible that the instrumentation used in this study does not adequately or accurately measure the variables sought out by the researcher. In terms of external validity, care must be taken to note that these students all attend a large, public institution in the Southeastern United States and perhaps generalizations to the larger population cannot be made.

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

Chapter Two presents a review of the literature relevant to altruism among counselor education students, and is divided into the four following major sections as the rationale and theoretical orientation for this study: (1) definition and perspectives on altruism; (2) altruism as it relates to counseling; and (3) personality assessment and altruism.

Definition & Perspectives on Altruism

Altruism is defined as concern for the welfare of others and/or actions towards that end. Some consensus exists that altruistic actions provide some measure of benefit to the altruist. Margolis (in Shapiro & Gabbard, 1996) argues that a degree of altruism was necessary for the human race to endure and evolve. He suggests that altruistic motivations are responsible for the mutual protection, cooperation, and well being of others, both inside and outside the traditional family unit. Rareshide and Kern (1991) echo this sentiment, describing the benefits individuals in their study gained from volunteering their time. They write that volunteerism "enhances one's well-being" and that it gives the individual a way to increase not only approval from others, but also a way to increase approval from themselves" (p. 469). A survey of lower-income senior citizens, conducted by Dulin, Hill and Anderson (2001),

found that altruistic tendencies were not only a positive predictor of overall life satisfaction, but were also more positively correlated to life satisfaction than any of the other variables measured, such as physical health and economic status.

Among the major theories of personality and counseling, Adlerian psychology is perhaps the most vocal proponent of the idea of altruism as a core concept-- if not in name, then certainly in spirit. Social interest, a major component of Adler's work, is defined by Rareshide & Kern (1991) as a "genuine concern for others, a cooperative approach toward life, and a striving for ideal community" (p. 464). Adler believed the meaning of life lay in the idea of an individual's "selfless contribution to the greater good of society with no expectation of repayment or reward" (Dreikeurs, 1971, p.6) Adler, in fact, saw the development of social interest as one of the most basic tenets of positive mental health, and recommended cultivating social interest as a means of enhancing psychological adjustment (Rareshide & Kern, 1991). Leak, Gardner & Pounds (1992) note that social interest allows one to value something outside of the self by "transcending these self-centered personal concerns and devoting oneself to a global outlook and specifically the needs of others" (p. 63). This sentiment is further expressed by Mosak (1991), who notes the necessity of personal growth as a precursor to helping others. He suggests that if an individual's primary concern is to help others, then this selflessness could produce beneficial results for the individual's overall well being.

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In his own writings, Adler ascribes altruistic behaviors as inoculation against feelings of inferiority:

> "The only salvation…is the knowledge and the feeling of being valuable which originates in the contribution to the common welfare. This feeling of being valuable cannot be replaced by anything else...it is the contribution to the general welfare which holds promise for the claim of immortality". (Adler, 1933, p. 304).

Grinker (in McWilliams, 1984) describes altruism as stemming from the projection of one's own needs. By making this transference (not to be confused with the Freudian/Psychoanalysis concept of transference), the individual receives gratification through his identification with the other's feelings. According to Grinker, this is a learning process which strengthens and stabilizes ego integrity. The process also increases autonomy while concurrently putting the individual more in touch with both the inherent "rewards" and social benefits of altruism (McWilliams, 1984). In other words, the development of the ability to relate to and care for others has its roots in an awareness of the needs of the self.

Krueger, Hicks & McGue (2001) sought to examine the link between altruism and antisocial behavior among male twins. The participants (n=673) completed the 198-item version of the MPQ. The researchers identified Positive emotionality using the Well-Being, Social Potency, Social Closeness, Achievement and Absorption scales. Negative emotionality was indicated by the Stress Reduction, Alienation and Aggression subscales. The correlation between altruistic and antisocial behavioral tendencies was measured using comparably reliable self-report inventories. These inventories inquired specifically about the frequency of altruistic and antisocial behaviors, as opposed to attitudes or reputation. The

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findings indicated that altruism and antisocial behavior are uncorrelated tendencies stemming

from different sources (Krueger, Hicks & McGue, 2001).   Whereas altruism was primarily

linked to shared environments and personality traits (such as familial environments),

antisocial behavior was linked primarily to genes, unique (nonfamilial) environments, and

personality traits reflecting negative emotionality and a lack of constraints.

As a limitation, Krueger, Hicks & McGue note that they relied on self-report

methods for ascertaining a distinction between the personological sources of altruism and

antisocial behavior. This finding serves to explain why only sporadic relations between

positive emotionality and behavior have been encountered. It suggests that behavioral

correlates entail adaptive behaviors and not that positive emotionality lacks these correlates.

The authors further caution that specific personality traits had only modest validity as

predictors of behavioral tendencies but, when aggregated, personality was found to be

substantially related to behavior. This substantiates the idea that altruism in personality

might correspond to altruism in behavior.

Shapiro & Gabbard (1996) subscribe to the idea of altruism as an innate human

attribute that may be shaped by early childhood object relations. They echo the sentiment

that both self-interest and altruistic tendencies were certainly necessary for the evolution of

our species, and that both create the foundation of mental health and adjustment.

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Dovidio, Schroeder, and Allen (1990) note that some theories of helping can be characterized as egoistic because they propose that the motivation for helping is related to a desire to improve one's own welfare. Other theories can be considered altruistic because they hypothesize that the motivation for helping is based on the desire to improve the other person's welfare.

Batson, Batson, Slingsby, Harrell, Peekna, & Todd (1991) present an empathy-altruism model whereby witnessing another person in need may elicit two different emotional reactions: Personal distress (upset, alarm) and empathetic concern (sympathy, compassion). Batson (1987) further proposes that personal distress and empathic concern lead to two distinct motivations to help: Personal distress creates a desire to reduce one's own distress, whereas empathic concern produces an altruistic desire to reduce the distress of the person in need (Batson, 1987).

Stasio and Capron (1998) investigated the possible existence of an altruistic personality type. Researchers have examined the altruistic disposition as a cluster of personality variables (such as other-oriented empathy, sympathy, social responsibility, ascription of responsibility, and perspective-taking) but an actual "classifiable" altruistic personality type has never been truly identified. In addition, the authors note that recent research has shown increased support for the concept that humans have an "innate capacity

and need for relatedness to others" that does not conform to labels indicative of a particular belief system.

Penner, Craiger, Fritzsche & Freifeld (1995) developed a measure called the Prosocial Personality Battery, a 54- item scale with subscales including ascription of responsibility, interpersonal reactivity index, and helpfulness. Factor loadings reveal a two-factor solution: other-oriented empathy and helpfulness. Other-oriented empathy involves both affective and cognitive empathy and refers to thoughts and feelings of concern for others. Helpfulness, the second factor, is a self-reported history of being helpful. The other-oriented empathy factor, however, was found to be significantly correlated with social desirability.

This seemingly anomalous correlation raises important questions concerning other-oriented empathy as an influence. Penner's group offers two explanations for this positive correlation of other-oriented empathy with social desirability. First, the authors suggest that individuals scoring high on the other-oriented empathy factor may desire the approval of others; and second, that they may have a bias towards regarding themselves as good people who engage in positive actions.

Batson, Fultz, Schoenrade & Paduano (1987) offer a social learning rationale for the development and maintenance of altruism. By acting in accordance with internalized values that promote helping others, adults are able to avoid self-criticism for being selfish. They are

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then able to continue to view themselves as kind, caring and altruistic people. However, presumably individuals then begin a self-analysis process, asking themselves why they acted in a prosocial manner. Was it due to personal goodness or to extrinsic pressure? Questioning oneself for doing good in the absence of external pressure is often associated with longer-term helping, such as cases of those individuals who have selected a career involving high-cost altruism.

Batson, Fultz, Schoenrade & Paduano (1987) contend that if a behavior continues for the sake of maintaining and enhancing self-esteem, it cannot be viewed as altruistic. As we begin to question our own reasons for acting in an altruistic manner, we may begin to lose some of the intrinsic rewards for altruism. In other words, our own skepticism regarding the nature of our helping robs us of the ability to feel good when we have come to the aid of another human. Furthermore, we are likely to exceed this way of thinking, according to the authors, and develop a self-deprecating bias, viewing our own behaviors as far more selfish than they actually are . The authors found this tendency to be especially true for those who place a high value on honest self-knowledge, and to be almost completely untrue for those who place little or no value on self-knowledge.

Jeffries (1998) suggests that both personality factors and situational conditions are important in influencing the occurrence and nature of altruistic behavior He theorizes that the altruistic personality is composed of a variety of human virtues developed during socialization. The most important source of this socialization, according to Jeffries, is a

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loving and supportive family in which the parents serve as altruistic role models and provide

stable moral guidance for the child as he or she matures into adulthood (1998).

Rosenhan (in Clary & Miller, 1986) interviewed former volunteers in the Civil Rights

movement and classified them into one of two categories: partially committed and fully

committed. The partially committed activists were those who had been one one or two

activist events, while the fully committed activists had worked continuously for over a year

in the movement. The crucial difference between the two groups centered around childhood

experiences. Fully committed activists tended to report warm, positive relationships with at

least one of their parents, and these parents were themselves fully committed activists of an

earlier era (in other words, they modeled altruism, serving as an example for their children).

On the other hand, the partially committed were more likely to have experienced negative or

ambivalent relationships with their parents, possibly leading to a type of role confusion when

the partially committed activists reached adulthood (in other words, the parents did not

"practice what they preached"). Rosenhan further argued that the behavior of the fully

committed activists represented autonomous altruism (referring to help that is internally

directed, presumably by a genuine concern for the needy other), while that of the partially

committed illustrated normative altruism (this being help that is motivated by concern for the

self and is more externally controlled, specifically by rewards for helping and/or avoiding

punishment for failure to help). Rosenhan examined real-life opportunities for altruistic

involvement which tended to be more costly and time consuming when compared to the

experimental research employed by most individuals writing on altruism.

In a meta-analysis of the literature on helping behaviors, in which helping was non-spontaneous (i.e., not part of a fabricated laboratory experiment), more costly to the helper and sustained over time, Clary & Miller (1986) found significant support for the relationship between the interpersonal variables of empathy, nurturance, self-confidence and self-acceptance. However, it is not clear whether these interpersonal variables led to the helping behaviors or were actually enhanced or more prominent as a result of the helping behaviors. The authors note, for example, that positive changes in similar variables (self-confidence and empathy, among others) have been found among individuals after they have participated in volunteer work.

Clary & Miller (1986) also note that different childhood experiences can produce different types of altruists, and that parental influence determines to a great extent what type of altruist a child becomes. They note that parents who are less nurturing and altruistic themselves tend to have offspring whose helpfulness is situationally controlled by rewards and punishments. Nurturing, altruistic parents, on the other hand, raise children whose altruism is internally controlled. Furthermore, Clary & Miller's findings also highlight the importance of empathy as a mediator of helpful behavior, as socialization practices from childhood again seemingly influence the degree of a person's empathic reactions considerably. The authors conclude by noting that while parental models of altruism provide perhaps the most reliable route towards the development of altruism, there are also other means that can facilitate the development of altruistic tendencies. Examples of alternative

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means include a relationship with a nurturing person who is a non-family member, the experience of enduring some suffering or victimization, or some occurrence that leads the individual to see themselves as somehow being altruistic.

Mikulincer & Shaver (2005) discuss the idea of attachment security as it relates to helpfulness and altruism. Attachment security refers to the degree to which one feels trusting of and confident in relationships to significant others. According to Mikulincer & Shaver, hyperactivation of the attachment system refers to intense efforts to avoid separation from significant figures in order to ensure attention and support. A person with a hyperactivated attachment system will frequently (and perhaps compulsively) seek "proximity and attention" from the focus of their attachment, as well as spend a significant portion of their time attempting to identify perceived threats to these relationships, both internal (i.e. personal deficiencies) and external (i.e. social cues, signs indicative of impending rejection) in nature (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005, p. 34). On the other hand, deactivation refers to a minimization of attachments to others. A "deactivated" individual would prefer self-reliance and experience discomfort with personal relationships (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005, p. 34).

Since the point of caregiving is to alter a needy person's situation in order to increase his or her safety, well-being and support, Mikulincer & Shaver hypothesize that individuals who have developed secure attachments might be more inclined towards altruistic behaviors. In fact, they note that these "secure" individuals (as compared to their insecure counterparts)

tend to describe themselves as being more sensitive to their partner's needs and more likely to provide emotional support to them.

Furthermore, Mikulincer & Shaver (2005) note that activating the attachment system by asking study participants to recall personal memories of support or exposing them to a photo of a supportive interaction increased not only their compassion towards people in distress, but also uncovered an increase in broader values such as compassion and "universalism" (Mikulincer & Shaver, 2005, p.36). This method was in comparison to attempts at enhancing participants' positive affect or under neutral conditions.

Mikulincer & Shaver go on to describe areas for future research related to this aspect of altruism, such as determining how compassion relates to attachment security and moral development, and whether attachment insecurity can be mitigated by such activities as psychotherapy, family therapy, meditation or participation in religious or charitable organizations.

Bierhoff & Rohmann (2004) describe the empathy-altruism hypothesis as beginning with the response of an observer witnessing another person facing some challenge or difficulty. This voyeuristic experience, in turn, motivates an altruistic response in the observer. According to Bierhoff & Rohmann, the altruistic response or behavior is mainly performed in an attempt to reduce the suffering of another person. Empathetic concern, then, is altruistically driven, unlike what is referred to as egoistic motivation. Egoistic motivation

occurs when the action is intended largely to reduce the anxiety or personal distress of the individual observing the person in distress.

Bierhoff & Rohmann (2004) further explore the theory of the altruistic personality, noting that individuals who fit this personality type frequently receive high scores on both the social responsibility and the dispositional empathy scales of the Social Responsibility Scale. The authors note that the degree of pro-social behavior a person displays can often be predicted by his or her degree of social responsibility and dispositional empathy.

Maner, Luce, Neuberg, Ciadini, Brown & Sagarin (2002)echo Bierhoff and Rohmann's summation that altruistic behavior may also occur for more selfish reasons, such as to reduce tension associated with seeing someone in distress. They also note that the factors which lead to empathetic concern are the same factors that contribute to a sense of oneness with others—shared group identity, kinship and relational closeness. Therefore, it is difficult to extrapolate whether or not the exhibition of helping behavior is due to a sense of oneness with the person needing help versus that which is due to a true or valid empathic reaction.

Cialdini (1997) attempted to control for this sense of oneness that observers feel with those in need of help or assistance by measuring four potential mediators of reported aid: empathetic concern, sadness, personal distress and oneness. He found that the relationship of empathetic concern to helping could be accounted for by perceived oneness. This result

maintained a strong and significant relationship to helping over and above the effect of empathetic concern (Cialdini, 1997).

Batson, Early & Salvarani (1997), however, argue that empathetic concern overrules perceived oneness when it comes to helping behaviors. These researchers manipulated the similarity of subjects by introducing a fictitious person in need, measuring the subject's willingness to help, empathetic concern, and self-other merging. Their findings suggest that taking the target's perspective fueled the empathetic concern and increased the likelihood that help would be offered.

Oswald (1996), in discussing perspective-taking, describes three categories under which perspective-taking might fall: perceptual, cognitive, and affective. Affective perspective-taking is the ability to recognize and understand the emotions of others. Perceptual perspective-taking refers to the ability to take on another person's literal situation. Cognitive perspective-taking, however, refers to the ability to recognize and understand the thoughts of others. A meta-analysis of ten studies found a strong positive relationship between cognitive perspective taking and altruistic helping (Underwood and Moore in Oswald, 1996). However, since affective perspective taking refers to the ability to identify and understand how another person is feeling, Oswald hypothesized that it should have lead to empathetic arousal and altruistic helping.

Oswald (1996) sought to operationalize the concepts of altruistic helping, empathetic awareness and perspective taking in order to identify the patterns of causal relationships therein. As such, she asked sixty-five adult students in a part-time evening college program to watch a videotape of an older gentleman discussing his thoughts and concerns about possibly returning to college. The students were asked to either pay attention to the actor's thoughts, feelings or some irrelevant condition. After watching the video, students completed a questionnaire which measured their self-reported cognitive and affective perspective taking. Afterwards, students were asked to volunteer their time to speak with students like the individual in the video, who were trying to decide whether or not to return to school.

Oswald (1996) found that affective perspective-taking significantly influenced altruistic responding. Compared with the other two conditions, time volunteered was greatest for those participants who were in the affective perspective-taking condition. Oswald suggests that empathetic concern was the reason that those adopting the affective perspective volunteered time more frequently than those taking the cognitive perspective or those in the control condition. Oswald further speculates that those in the cognitive perspective-taking condition may have lost focus of the fact that the person featured in the film was actually in need of help due to their inattention to affective expression.

Regarding altruism's influence on career choice, Serow (1993) views the helping motive as one that addresses the psychic needs of the helper. Serow notes that selecting an

occupation based on opportunities to help others is at times a questionable endeavor. He

writes that this is because the concern for others must be "grounded in expert, esoteric

knowledge that is the product of extensive education and training" (p. 198). Thus, altruism

"--defined as a concern for others at the expense of one's own interests-is difficult to establish

as an exclusive or even primary factor for so fundamental a decision as the choice of one's

life work" (p. 198).

Serow (1993) concedes that altruism in the workplace, then, is probably significantly

driven by the Western ability to create and recreate ourselves. As such, what Serow termed

"the psychological virtues of modernity (namely, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and an internal

locus of control") (p. 203) become the most important currency in the job market. Thus,

occupations involving teaching or counseling, for example, often serve to enhance both the

well-being of the people we work with and our own self-esteem.

Wuthnow's (1991) study of voluntarism in the United States, for instance, concluded

that while individualism and altruism are not necessarily antithetical, the rising importance of

self-fulfillment as a life goal has been made possible by the declining sense of obligation that

many Americans feel to the "common good" of society.

Csikai and Rozensky (1997) designed a study intending to measure "social work

idealism" and factors influencing career choice among beginning BSW and MSW students.

The researchers utilized surveys of bachelor's and master's level social work students, with

150 total respondents (74 BSW, 76 MSW) taking part in the study. The survey was designed to gather data on the students' degree of idealism. Items were generated by 16 independent experts in the field who did not communicate with one another to avoid influencing their item selection. Students were asked to respond to each statement using a Likert scale of 5 points, ranging from "strongly disagree" (5) to "strongly agree" (1). The second section of this survey examined the importance the students placed on altruism and professional concerns.

The resulting data indicated an overall greater emphasis placed on the importance of altruistic reasons for selecting a social work career than for interest in professional concerns (Csikai and Rozensky, 1997). Idealism was found to also be a significant predictor of altruistic motives among students. Bachelor's students' data revealed a slightly higher altruism mean than did the data of Master's students; and the reverse was true for idealism-- however, these differences were not statistically significant.

Watts & Trusty (1995) examined the relationship between social interest and counselor effectiveness. They noted the similarity between Adler's description of how social interest is manifested in social interaction and the core facilitative conditions discussed by both Adlerians and non-Adlerians alike (Watts & Trusty, 1995). Similarly, Adler stated that social interest is something which must be taught—another similarity to the core counseling conditions. In order to test the relationship between high social interest and ability as a counselor, Watts & Trusty selected 54 practicum students and had each complete the Social

Interest Inventory. The SII was used as a self-report measure to assess the student counselor's social interest in four areas: friendship, love, work and self-significance Furthermore, each of these students was rated on counseling skills by his or her practicum instructor. An analysis of the data indicated that the relationship between the two instruments was non-significant for both the correlation ($r(53)=.15$, $p=.272$) as well as the t-test ($t(34)=.04$, $p=.97$).

The authors offer two plausible explanations for the lack of significance found in this study. First, they suggest that perhaps the SII only measures some aspect of social interest, rather than a global assessment of social interest. Secondly, the authors suggest that it may be the case that the students in the study who agreed with the items on the Social Interest Scale, but who were rated as less effective by their instructors, may simply not know how to operationalize social interest in their counseling of clients (Watts & Trusty, 1995). The authors suggest future research investigating the variables that hinder counselors from operationalizing social interest in their work as counselors.

Frost, Stimpson & Maughan (1978) note that the ability of a person to trust another is determined largely by two factors—learned expectancy and the perceived motives of the other person. If the other person is perceived to have selfish intentions, trust is not likely to develop, but if he is viewed to be altruistic, trust may occur.

Buie (1981) notes that empathy is not infallible and can be either accurate or inaccurate. This depends on factors such as how expressive the client is, how perceptive the counselor is, how adept the counselor is at identifying with others, and the presence or absence of similar affective experiences in the counselor's personal history.

Jenkins, Stephens, Chew & Downs (1992) note the importance of mastering empathy for graduate counseling students. For this reason, considerable research has attempted to identify the personal characteristics that appear to correlate with or even determine a students' degree of empathetic awareness. Studies have frequently focused on a student's intellectual capacity as determining empathy. Combs (1969), on the other hand, asserts that a counselor's interpersonal attitudes , values and beliefs serve as the necessary foundation for acquisition and performance of counseling skills. The fundamental premise is that counseling skills are formed through a person's existing social schema, thus making them an extension of the self (Combs, 1969). Jenkins, Stephens, Chew & Downs (1992) note that this premise appears particularly relevant in terms of empathetic responding which is often associated with "spontaneity, genuineness and animation" (p. 1004).

Shapiro & Gabbard (1994) discuss "critical self-reflection", noting that this ability is most likely observed among those individuals involved in "long-term and costly helping" (p.595), particularly counselors, therapists and others in the helping professions. The authors especially expect this premise to be true among those whose theories highlight self-knowledge. This self-knowledge and critical self-reflection are likely to contribute to burn-

out, according to Shapiro & Gabbard. This is the case because critical self-reflection often "undermines self-perceived altruism" (p. 596) and can decrease the self-rewards an individual experiences concurrently with a helping act. This decrease of rewards often reduces the likelihood of the individual to provide further help, particularly in those situations that are similar to the ones the person reflected upon.

Shapiro & Gabbard (1994) caution that therapist altruism should not be viewed wholesale as a good thing, nor that narcissism among therapists should be viewed as an inherently bad thing. Taken too far, therapist altruism can lead to rescuing behaviors, "boundary violations and...a self-destructive course towards burn-out and despair" (p.596) Shapiro & Gabbard conclude by noting that a "therapist's own self-other balance and his or her capacity for mature empathy and altruistic gratification (as opposed to over-reliance on self-gratification or excessive patient rescuing) becomes the foundation on which the therapeutic structure and outcome are based" (p. 596).

Altruism as it relates to Counseling

Based on the idea of altruism as an innate attribute, Shapiro & Gabbard (1996) describe conditions under which altruism is more likely to occur. Examples of conditions found to be conducive to altruistic development include instances when helping is beset by positive emotions, when fear of social embarrassment and low self-esteem are lacking, and when the helper is alone. In reference to this last condition (the helper being alone), Shapiro

& Gabbard found that when others are nearby, the diffusion of responsibility tends to occur and helping is not seen as contingent upon or mitigated by social approval. Shapiro & Gabbard further note with surprise the lack of attention that altruism has received in counseling literature, as they view altruism as central to the therapists' task.

Shapiro & Gabbard (1996) also consider the issue of therapist balance, more specifically the delineation of self-interest and altruistic concern for patients. The altruistic response of the therapist is viewed as more than seeking to decrease their own tension and anxiety from viewing the needs of another human being. It is the belief of these authors that all altruistic behavior derives at least in part from complicated internal responses based on early experiences of being helped as children. They write that "higher order motivational systems, such as those involving attachment, mastery, and meaning are critically important to a comprehensive understanding of patterns of object relatedness. These motivational systems, however, rest on the foundation defined by the balance of self-oriented and other-oriented modes" (Shapiro & Gabbard, 1996, p. 36).

Zarski, Sweeney & Barcikowski (1977) reported a positive correlation between a counselor's level of social interest and the client's satisfaction with counseling as well as the client's self-acceptance and sociability. Measures used to identify this correlation included the Early Recollection Questionnaire, the Rating Scale of Social Interest Characteristics, and the Counseling Evaluation Inventory. Results of this study indicated that the counselor's

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social interest score was significantly related to the client's scores on satisfaction, self-acceptance, and sociability.

Johnson (1971) notes that a counselor's emotional maturity and sense of balance can be thrown off by anxiety and indecision. He or she may, as a result, use manipulative techniques in order to alleviate this anxiety. Johnson refers to studies which have found that open-mindedness and lack of manipulation served to differentiate between the counselors viewed as most and least effective (Johnson, 1971). It was Johnson's contention that "less manipulative individuals" were more adept as counselors due to having a presumably more positive opinion of not only themselves and others, but also of the role of the counselor itself. Johnson additionally notes the necessity of counselors realizing the impact of their own personal values on the work that they do, especially if they want to come across as open and genuine. Johnson believed that unless the counselor was cognizant of his or her own value system, their sensitivity to the client's values would be impaired, and he or she would be unable to "develop a viable sense of personal identity (p. 6)."

Finally, Johnson notes that in order to be effective, a counselor tends to be

> "sensitive to and concerned with how things looked to others; he was oriented to people rather than things, perceived others as able rather than unable, dependable rather than undependable, friendly rather than unfriendly, worthy rather than unworthy, he perceived himself as being identified with people rather than apart from people, as personally adequate rather than wanting, and as self-revealing rather than self-concealing; he perceived his purposes as freeing rather than controlling, altruism rather than narcissism, and concerned with larger rather than smaller meanings " (p. 24).

Personality Assessment and Altruism

An extensive literature review reveals that personality assessments have never been used as a measure of altruism in Counselor Education. The lack of research on the topic of altruism as it relates to Counselor Education overall has been noted by several prominent researchers (Shapiro & Gabbard, 1994; Clary & Miller, 1986). Some studies on the periphery of the topic are noted below.

Johnson (1971) investigated counselor trainee introversion-extroversion and altruism-manipulation versus his or her level of empathy, respect and genuineness as rated on an initial interview. In this study, no relationship was found between a counselor trainee's introversion-extroversion level and degree of empathy, respect or genuineness. Furthermore, no relationship between empathy, respect and genuineness and altruism-manipulation was noted either. Johnson concludes by recommending using different instruments in order to find correlations between counselor empathy, respect and genuineness and to consider a pre-post test study design in order to produce more detailed results for future analysis.

Churchill & Bayne (2001) describe qualitative research on conceptions of empathy in counselors. The researchers note the differences in counselors' conceptions of empathy based on Myers-Briggs Type Indicator results. Those counselors who prefer sensing to intuition reportedly view empathy as a state rather than a process. Furthermore, those counselors who were sensing types required far more prompts in order to elaborate on questions than did their intuitive counterparts. Those who prefer intuition, on the other hand, discussed tendencies to put together their clients' content with their non-verbal behavior, use their own emotional responses to guide them, and to emphasize giving clients a sense that they are being understood.

In regards to the thinking/feeling sub-scale, the researchers again found differences between the two groups. Those who prefer a thinking function had more to say about the concept of empathy and tended to focus on the cognitive side of empathy. Those who preferred thinking also tended to make reference to theoretical orientation. These individuals also mentioned a tendency to summarize their clients' stories frequently, that is to say that they perhaps focused on content more so than feeling, surmise Churchill & Bayne (2001). In contrast, those counselors who prefer feeling consistently described their own feelings when describing empathy. They were more likely to emphasize listening to the client, understanding the client, and seeking to give the client the sense that he or she is understood. They were also more likely to mention a sense of 'being with' the client (Churchill & Bayne, 2001). The authors suggest that future studies should be larger, more heterogeneous and

should also explore the connection between the subjects' views of empathy and their actual behaviors.

A study by Jordan-Pritchett (1991) sought to determine whether psychological types and preference patterns were the same for school counselors when compared to counselors in other specialties. This study also compared the psychological types and preference patterns of school counselor trainees with counselor trainees from other specialties. It was hypothesized that psychological types and preference patterns would not differ by counselor specialization for both professional counselors and counselor trainees. The design of the study was ex post facto. Two hundred counselors and counselor trainees participated in the study. Chi-Square and Fisher's exact probability were used to assess differences in psychological types and preference patterns. Significant differences were found in two areas. Professional school counselors were typed as ENFP more frequently than professional counselors from other specialties. Professional school counselors were typed as ENTP at lower frequencies than were professional counselors from other specialties. No differences in psychological types and personality preferences were observed for counselor trainees. In this study, counselors were more alike than they were different, regardless of specialization. Recommendations for additional research included (a) using larger sample sizes, (b) sampling counselors in different geographic locations, and (c) comparing the psychological types and preference patterns of professional counselors with counselor trainees.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

This study focused on the relationship among three assessments completed by counseling students in orientation. This chapter is divided into the following sections: (1) statement of the problem, (2) population, (3) data collection and instrumentation, (4) standardized instruments, (5) data analysis, and (6) a brief summary.

Statement of the Problem

The primary focus of this study was to examine correlations between three instruments completed by counselor education students at orientation.

Population

The population for this study consisted of graduate counselor education students at a large public university in the southeastern United States. All assessments were completed at program orientation. In general, students attend orientation without having completed any coursework in the program. However, students may complete two courses from the program as students-at-large, prior to acceptance in the program.

Sampling Procedures

The sampling procedure used in this study was a convenience sample. All students who attended orientation and completed the packet of assessments were used in this study. The sample size for the current research is eighty-seven.

Instrumentation

In order to collect comprehensive information on personality traits, the researcher collected data from two norm-referenced instruments, the MBTI and the FIRO-B, and one unpublished inventory; the Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory (Appendix A).

Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory

The Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory is an unpublished assessment designed for administration with counseling students. The inventory solicits data regarding a students' motivations for entering the counseling profession. It examines the extent to which a counselor or counseling student is attempting to meet their own needs versus the needs of clients or potential clients. By inquiring into these motives, data regarding the student's altruism vs. self-interest is collected. The inventory consists of 5 root statements, each followed by five sets of three possible choices about the statement. Students are instructed to

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circle the choice that best describes them. They are further instructed to select only one choice, even if more than one item might be true of them. The RHI is written at about an 8th-grade reading level, and takes approximately 15 minutes to complete.

Reliability

Reliability measures for the RHI in this study included both Cronbach's alpha and split-half reliability. Cronbach's alpha evaluates the internal consistency of an instrument based on the correlation among the variables comprising the set. In this case, the reliability coefficient was -.403. The F-value was .947. This was not significant at the .05 level, for 33 degrees of freedom. Split-half reliability was next considered for the RHI. Split-half provides an estimation of reliability based on the correlation of two equivalent forms of the scale. In this case, the Spearman-Brown coefficient was .026, with an F-value of 1.67. This was not significant at the .05 level, for 100 and 2400 degrees of freedom.

Validity

Validity for the RHI was assessed via criterion validity. Criterion validity refers to the degree to which an instrument's data correlates with the data of an instrument known to be valid. However, no currently available instrument measures altruism, especially as it relates to counselors or counseling. With this in mind, the Personal Orientation Inventory

(Shostrom, 1964) was selected to assess validity of the RHI. The POI contains a total of 150

items in 12 non-discrete scales designed to measure variables that describe self-actualized

people. The 12 scales are Time Competence (TC), Inner Directed (I), Self-Actualizing Value

(SAV), Existentiality (Ex), Feeling Reactivity (Fr), Spontaneity (S), (S), Self-Regard (Sr),

Self-Acceptance (Sa), Nature of Man (Nc), Synergy (Sy), Acceptance of Aggression (A), and

Capacity for Intimate Contact (C).

   Overall, the correlation was -.102. No scale on the POI correlated with the RHI at a level

of statistical significance. The RHI correlated most closely with the Acceptance of

Aggression (A) scale and least with the Spontaneity scale (S).

Myers/Briggs Type Indicator

   The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) is an instrument which is based upon C.G.

Jung's theory of psychological type. It was designed explicitly for the purpose of making

Jung's theory of psychological type both useful and understandable; the main objective of the

instrument is to identify the four basic preferences for each individual (Myers & McCaulley,

1985). Jung's theory focused on the functions of perception and judgement and the ways in

which these functions impact our lives. Jung believed that much seemingly random variation

in human behavior is actually quite orderly and consistent and is a result of basic differences in the way people prefer to use the functions of perception and judgment.

More than 50 years of research has been conducted on the MBTI (Myers, 1993). The instrument was developed by a mother-daughter team who studied Jung's model extensively and ultimately created the MBTI. Today, the MBTI is used worldwide to promote understanding and appreciation of differences in corporate, government and educational settings.

The MBTI reports four preferred personality types, which are based upon eight bipolar dimensions (Myers & McCaulley, 1985). The first scale is that of Extraversion and Introversion. Extraversion is represented by the letter (E), and refers to a focus on the external world of people and objects. Conversely, Introversion refers to an inner focus on ideas and perspectives, and is designated by the letter (I).

The second of the four scales is that of Sensing and Intuition, and describes the manner by which individuals take in information. Sensing, represented by the letter (S), describes individuals who prefer to take in information by what they can see, hear, touch, smell or feel. Those who prefer to use Intuition (N) to take in information do not rely on what is concrete as much as those who prefer (S). Those who prefer (N) tend to instead trust their hunches and what is possible in a situation.

The third scale is that of Thinking and Feeling, and describes the way that individuals prefer to make decisions. For those who rely on using Thinking (T), decisions are reached by logic. These individuals prefer to engage in cause and effect analysis and objectivity. A preference for Feeling (F) in terms of decision-making describes those people who prefer to make decisions based upon values on how their decisions will affect others.

The final scale refers to how an individual orientates him or herself to the outside world, and the corresponding codes are Judging (J) and Perceiving (P). Those who prefer a Judging orientation are people who prefer an orderly, scheduled, planned existence. This is in contrast to those who prefer Perceiving; which describes a tendency to wait until all information is available and to make decisions in a flexible, spontaneous manner.

Reliability and validity measures for the MBTI are well-established. With respect to test-retest reliabilities, changes are usually only noted in one scale and typically in scales in which only a slight preference was reported (Myers & MacCaulley, 1985). For instance, for those with a minimum total 0-15 points on a particular scale, 70% retained the original preferred letter, 85% of those reporting 16-29 points on any given scale retained the original letter, and 95% of those with preference strengths of 31 points or above maintained the original preference (Kroeger & Thuesen, 1989). Hence, clearer and more stable preferences are reflected in stronger preference scores. Reliability can vary in part as a function of the characteristics of certain populations; older samples and those with higher levels of

intelligence report stronger reliabilities due to achievement of higher levels of type development resulting from clearer preferences (McCaulley, 1981).

While the four dimensions of the MBTI are independent of one another, correlations of the S-N and J-P scales have been found to be upwards of .30 (Hood & Johnson, 2002). This is an important finding in that Jung's theory only encompassed the first three scales, although the fourth scale was based on his writings. The remaining scales, however, are statistically independent of one another.

Since the MBTI was designed specifically to implement Jung's theory of psychological types, the establishment of construct validity is most relevant to the validity of the instrument (McCaulley, 1981). Tables correlating MBTI continuous scores with other vocational, interest and personality instruments are readily available in the Manual (Myers & McCaulley, 1985) and attest to the generally strong validity of the instrument. Anticipated behaviors characteristic of each of the four pairs of preferences as well as those typical of each of the sixteen types covers a broad range through which validity studies can be conducted.

An absence of research involving the MBTI in peer reviewed Counselor Education literature was noted by Diley (1987), who also suggested that although all MBTI types can be found in practically every workplace and career across the globe, there are certain careers that tend to employ more individuals who fall under a particular MBTI subtype. An example

of this would be individuals entering into the field of counseling itself, where the sensing/intuition dimension seems to be the foci of career specificity. These individuals, it is noted, most frequently endorse the intuitive orientation, which is focused on future possibilities that could arise from current situations, and the underlying meanings of people, places, and events (Dunning, 2001). When the intuitive orientation is coupled with the feeling orientation, as Myers (1993) notes, a desire to respond to a human need often follows. This desire often applies to career choice, such as selecting a career as a counselor. Myers' (1993) assertion supports the hypothesis that the higher levels of altruism would be expected among individuals with the NF preference.

Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientations-Behavior

The FIRO-B instrument was created by William B. Schutz in 1958 as a preliminary tool to qualify the cohesiveness of military units prior to their being placed in combat situations (Hammer & Schnell, 2000). Schutz's goal was to better understand what factors contribute to or detract from the functioning of a teamwork-based unit and to make predictions based on the interpersonal needs of its members. Schutz's use of the term "need" is similar to the biological definition of the term, in that a need is defined as a physiological or psychological condition that leads to anxiety or discomfort should the need not be fulfilled (Hammer & Schnell, 2003). The avoidance of this impending discomfort is the primary motivation in individuals to fulfill their needs, although it should be noted that individuals vary as to the extent of how they experience these needs.

Schutz felt that interpersonal needs fell into three broad categories: inclusion, control, and affection. The need for inclusion is defined by Schutz as the need to establish and maintain satisfactory interactions and associations with others. In other words, inclusion is the need for someone to feel a sense of belonging with a social group, no matter how large or small. The need dimension of control is the degree to which a person assumes responsibility, power, or assumes a dominant role in interpersonal relationships such as those involving direction or guidance. Finally, affection refers to the extent to which a person becomes involved with others on not just a romantic level of love, but also more secure and lasting attachments.

Each of the FIRO-B subscales assess these dimensions in terms of both expressed and wanted behaviors, yielding six subscores: Wanted Inclusion, Expressed Inclusion, Wanted Affection, Expressed Affection, Wanted Control, and Expressed Control. The Expressed aspect of each dimension indicates the level of behavior you are most comfortable using when interacting with other people to bring them together (Expressed Inclusion), to ensure your point of view is taken (Expressed Control), and to feel a sense of closeness with others (Expressed Affection). Consequently, the Wanted aspect of each dimension indicates the level of behavior you prefer others to use when interacting with you (Wanted Inclusion), to ensure their point of view is taken (Wanted Control), and to feel a sense of closeness with you (Wanted Affection) (Liedel, 1997, p. 39).

The FIRO-B is a self-report measure which relies on respondents answering the items based on how they perceive their actual behavior as opposed to how they feel about the behavior or how they believe their behavior should appear. As with most self-report assessment tools, the problem of intentionally "faking good" or "faking bad" is one that should be attended to, although the subtlety of doing so exposes correlations in subscales and the impression an individual may be attempting to portray. In a 1990 study, Furnham asked 64 people to intentionally "fake good" or "fake bad" on the FIRO-B, telling them to answer the test items in such a way that an overly positive or negative impression of themselves would be exhibited in the test results (Furnham, 1990). He further instructed the people that they "need not be honest in (their) answers" and that the overall goal was to present themselves "in the best (worst) possible light (Furnham, 1990).

Furnham compared the responses of his "fakers" to a control group who completed the FIRO-B under the standardized instructions. When analyzing the data of the experimental condition, Furnham found that the "fake good" group showed higher scores and the "fake bad" group showed lower scores on all scales except Expressed Control (eC), which showed no significant differences (Furnham, 1990). Furnham also pointed out that the subjects in the experimental group frequently complained about the difficulty of consistently responding in an intentionally false manner, particularly in the "fake bad" condition, and that regardless of the flaws that might allow such a test of the tool's validity, giving an intentionally negative or positive impression to influence one's scores was very difficult to achieve (Furnham, 1990).

Another study that examined the intercorrelations of FIRO-B scores with the *Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale* was conducted by Slaminen in 1988. Slaminen gave both the FIRO-B and the MCSDS (both translated into Finnish for the purposes of the study) to a group of 188 students taking an introductory course in Social Psychology. The results of the study indicated a correlation between the two instruments ranging from .06 for Wanted Intimacy (wI) to .20 for Expressed Affection (eA), with a median of .12 (Slaminen 1988). The correlation for Wanted Control (wC) was -.18, indicating that high scores on social desirability scales are related to a low need to be controlled by others. This is diametrically opposed to what would normally be expected, as individuals with low wC scores often exhibit rebellion (the opposite of socially desired behavior) (Slaminen 1988). Slaminen stated that Expressed Needs tended to be more closely associated with social desirability, but notes that the two constructs only have a shared variance of 4%.

The actual construction of the FIRO-B was guided by the measurement technique known as Guttman Scaling (Guttman, 1974). Guttman scaling procedures require that item content, in order to remain consistent, must reflect "increasing intensity or difficulty of acceptance" (Hammer & Schnell, 2000, p. 19). An individual who agrees with any of the more intense statements on a Guttman scale will ideally also agree with all of the lower-level/less intense statements listed below it. This relationship's inverse is also found to be valid in that once a person stops agreeing with a series of statements, he or she will likely not agree with any statements beyond the one that provoked the first disagreement (Hammer & Schnell, 2000).

Due to the construction of the FIRO-B using the Guttman scaling procedures, the appropriate index to measure internal consistency is reproducibility, which refers to the predictability of item responses based on knowledge of scale scores. Guttman (in Hammer & Schnell, 2000) expresses his belief that reproducibility is "a more stringent measure of criterion" that other measures of consistency, such as split half and inter-item reliability. Guttman believes this is the case because the items should measure not only the same dimension, but should also occur in a particular order to indicate consistency.

A revision of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator in 1997 involved a sample of approximately 3,000 adult citizens of the United States (Myers, McCaulley, Quenk & Hammer, 1998). The sampling itself was conducted using a stratified sampling procedure involving random digit dialing of telephone numbers. To increase the chances of a sample collected in this manner being representative of the general population, calls were made at different times during the course of the week, with unanswered calls being redialed twice more at different times of the day. Individuals who answered the call were informed of the nature of the call, a brief explanation of the study itself, and if consent was given, were told they would receive a research form containing items from not only the MBTI, but that also items included on the FIRO-B and over two dozen demographic questions. The generalizability of the study's demographic characteristics were confirmed when compared to U.S. Census data, and the sample is deemed valid for use as a norm group and base for many analyses that will follow.

The convergent and discriminant validity of the aforementioned Finnish translation of the FIRO-B was studied by Salminen in 1991, again using students from an introductory Social Psychology course (n = 139) as his sample . Following the administration of the FIRO-B, Salminen lectured on the meanings of the scales and asked the students to rate themselves using the numbers 1-10. The FIRO-B scores of the students were then correlated with both one another and with these 1-10 self ratings, and the results indicated correlations ranging from .40 on Expressed Control to .58 on Expressed Affection. These results suggest strong construct validity inherent in the FIRO-B (Salminen, 1991).

Benchmarks ratings were correlated with FIRO-B scores in a 1993 study by Fleenor and Van Velsor, who found that Expressed Inclusion was related to "leading subordinates, setting a development climate, and building and mending relationships" (Fleenor & Van Velsor, 1993). Additionally, the authors identified that Expressed Control was related to decisiveness, and Wanted Affection was positively related to "compassion, sensitivity and (placing others) at ease" (Flreenor & Van Velsor, 1993). These correlations suggest some validity between the FIRO-B scores and *Benchmarks* ratings.

Hammer and Schnell (2002) examined correlations between the FIRO-B scales and *California Psychological Inventory* scales and found that Expressed Inclusion is related to the CPI scales of Social Presence and Externality, but not to the Affection scales. The authors also found that the CPI scales of Sociability and Empathy were related to the FIRO-B Inclusion scales, but unrelated to the Wanted Affection scale.

In a national sample of 2,996 respondents collected by Myers, McCaulley, Quenk and Hammer (in Hammer & Schnell, 2000), most correlations between the FIRO-B and MBTI were observed in the Introversion-Extraversion dimension of the MBTI. A preference for Extraversion on the MBTI was correlated with higher interpersonal needs on all FIRO-B categories with the exception of Wanted Control (wC). Additional significant correlational patterns were found with the MBTI Thinking-Feeling scale, indicating that those who prefer Feeling to Thinking tend to exhibit higher interpersonal needs as measured by the MBTI, particularly among the Affection dimension (Hammer & Schnell, 2000). By contrast, those who prefer Thinking to Feeling tended to express a higher need for Expressed Control. Additionally, correlations shown between FIRO-B scores and the MBTI Sensing-Intuition scales are low with correlations between the FIRO-B and the MBTI Judging-Perceiving scales being "virtually zero" according to Hammer & Schnell (2000).

The 20 subscales of the MBTI (five associated with each of the four primary MBTI preference scales) were utilized in another study investigating the relationship between the MBTI and the FIRO-B, conducted by Mitchell, Quenk & Kummerow (1997). This study, consisting of 7,949 participants, examined the breakdown among the subscales in relation to FIRO-B items and found that high Expressed Inclusion scores on the FIRO-B tended to initiate contact with other individuals, were more involved in social activities, readily expressed their feelings and interest to others, and were described, overall, as being "gregarious and enthusiastic" (Mitchell, Quenk & Kummerow, 1997, p. 50). The largest

correlation for the Expressed Inclusion scale was with the MBTI's Initiating-Receiving subscale,with those at the Initiating pole being individuals who enjoy the establishment of connections with a larger group (p. 50).

Other correlations identified in this study included a significantly high relationship between the FIRO-B Expressed Affection scale with the Expressive pole on the MBTI Extroverted-Introverted scale, with these individuals being described as comfortable and "ready" to both communicate and share their personal feelings with other people, a "perfect consistency" with the need for Expressed Affection (Mitchell, Quenk & Kummerow, 1997, p. 50). Elevated scores on the Wanted Inclusion scale share this same pattern, although the correlations are less significant than those for the Expressed Inclusion dimension. Finally, the same pattern applies to those individuals with high scores on the Wanted Affection dimension of the FIRO-B, although the correlations are, again, slightly lower for Wanted Affection than for Expressed Affection. Affection scale scores indicated a correlation with the Feeling pole of each of the subscales, with the exception of Expressed Affection. Individuals with high scores on the Expressed Control dimension were observed to show an affinity for questioning other people's statements and tended to take a somewhat stubborn stance in defending their points of view (Mitchell, Quenk & Kummerow, 1997).

The Institutional Review Board at the University of Central Florida (Appendix B) approved all research instruments and procedures. The Master's program in Counselor Education administers assessments to students at various stages of the program in order to

collect outcome assessment data. Assessments are anonymous and identifying information is never used. This is explained in the Counselor Education Student Handbook (Appendix C).

Data Analysis

Altruism was the dependent variable in the data analysis. The Robinson-Heintzelman Inventory consists of 25 items, and each item is worth a maximum of two points ("most altruistic" answer). Zero points are scored for "least altruistic" answer, and one point is scored for the mid-point answer. The instrument yields a maximum raw score of 50 points. The score from the RHI served as the continuous dependent variable. The five items from the two personality inventories (the Sensing-iNtuitive scale and the Thinking-Feeling scale of the MBTI; and the expressed Control, wanted Inclusion and wanted Affection scales of the FIRO-B) were the continuous independent variables. Because the MBTI utilizes nominal data, the statistic eta will be used to apply the two MBTI sub-scales to the scores on the RHI altruism scale. The FIRO-B implements interval data, thus, a Pearson correlation is appropriate for assessing the relationship between the three FIRO-B sub-scales and RHI scores.

Summary

This chapter presented the statement of the problem, the population of the study and data collection and instrumentation procedures. Validity and reliability information for the standardized scales was explained, along with the scales of the instruments. Chapter Four discusses the data analysis and results.

CHAPTER FOUR: FINDINGS

The statistical procedures used in analyzing the data and obtaining the results are presented in this chapter, The first section describes the demographics of the sample. The second section of the chapter addresses the statistical findings regarding the research question and the hypotheses of the study.

Demographics of the Sample

The sample consisted of 93 students admitted to the Master's program in Counselor Education at the University of Central Florida. All students in the sample attended the mandatory orientation prior to attending classes in either Fall 2005 or Spring 2006. Of the original 93 cases, 6 were dropped from the analysis because of missing data. Usually, this meant that the student had failed to complete one of the assessments or had left a substantial part of the assessment incomplete. Missing data appeared to be randomly scattered throughout groups and predictors. Eighty-seven complete cases remained for further analysis.

The age of the respondents ranged from 21 to 51. The mean age was 26.91, with a standard deviation of 6.7. Table 1 represents the rest of the salient demographic categories, which include ethnicity, gender and undergraduate major.

Table 1 Categorical Demographic Characteristics of the Participating Respondents (N=87)

Variable	Subgroup	N	% of Total
Gender			
	Male	10	11.4%
	Female	77	87.5%
Race/Ethnicity			
	White	62	70.5%
	Hispanic	8	9.1%
	African-American	7	8.0%
	Asian	1	1.1%
	Native American	1	1.1%
	Bi-racial	8	9.1%
Undegraduate Major			
	Psychology/Social Work/Human Services	49	55.7%
	Education	15	17.0%
	Sociology/Social Services	6	6.8%
	Biology/Life Sciences	2	2.3%
	Other Sciences	1	1.1%
	Business	5	5.7%
	Other	9	10.2%

Table 1 indicates that 87.5% of the respondents were female and 10% were male. Seventy percent of the respondents were white, 9.1% of the respondents were Hispanic, 9.1% identified as bi-racial, eight percent were African-American, and 1.1% were Native American or Asian.

The sample represented students who came from several different undergraduate majors. The majority (55.7%) of the sample reported earning an undergraduate degree in Psychology, Social Work or Human Services; followed by Education (17% of the sample). Sociology or social science majors accounted for 6.8% of the sample, Business accounted for 5.7% of the sample; 2.3% had undergraduate degrees in Biology or the life sciences; 1.1% earned degrees in some other area of science; and 10.2% reported some other major. All students in the sample were accepted into the Master's degree program in Counselor Education at the University of Central Florida, a large, state-supported public institution in an urban area in the southeastern United States.

Descriptive Statistics

Table 2 presents the descriptive statistics of RHI, wI, wA and eC scores for the sample

participants. There were 87 total sample participants (N=87) whose RHI, MBTI_1, MBTI_2and FIRO-B scores (wI, wA and eC) were statistically analyzed. The mean of RHI scores was M=33.5 with scores ranging from a low of 22.5 to a high of 43.5. The sample participants' RHI scores displayed an SD=4.10. For wI scores, the M=4.2 with a range of 0 to 10. The sample participants' wI scores showed an SD=3.56. The wA scores showed a M=5.6 with a range of 0 to 10. The sample participants' wA scores had an SD=2.21. For eC scores, the M=1.7 with a range of 0 to 10. The sample participants' eC scores showed an SD=2.10.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics for RHI, wI, wA and ec

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Std. Deviation
RHI	87	22.5	42.5	33.5	4.10
wI	87	0	10	4.2	3.56
wA	87	0	10	5.6	2.21
eC	87	0	10	1.7	2.10

A graphic representation of the descriptive analysis of RHI, wI, wA and eC scores are presented in Figure 1 (RHI), Figure 2 (wI), Figure 3 (wA) and Figure 4 (eC).
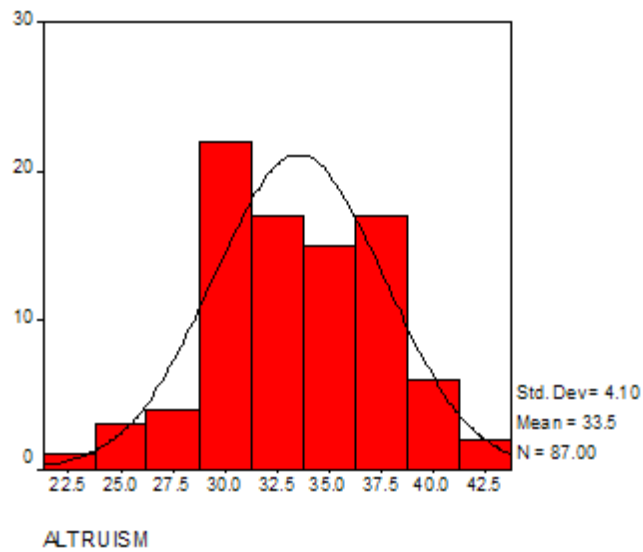
Figure 1 RHI Score Distribution

Figure 1 provides a bar graph depicting the distribution of RHI scores among the sample participants, and Figure 2 presents a bar graph of the wI ratings.
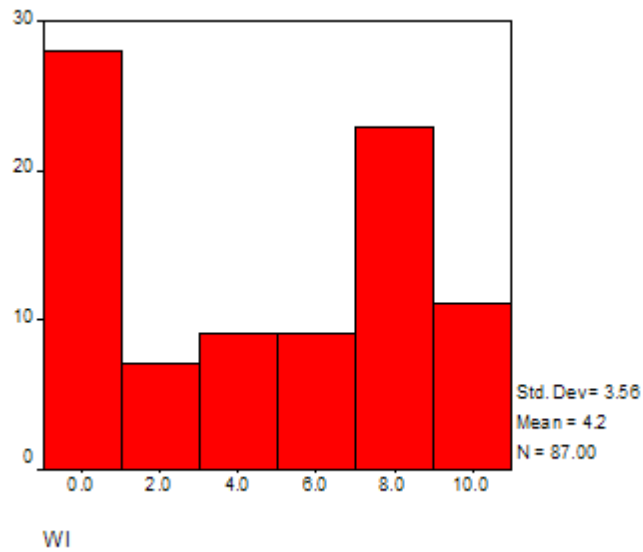
Figure 2 wI Score Distribution

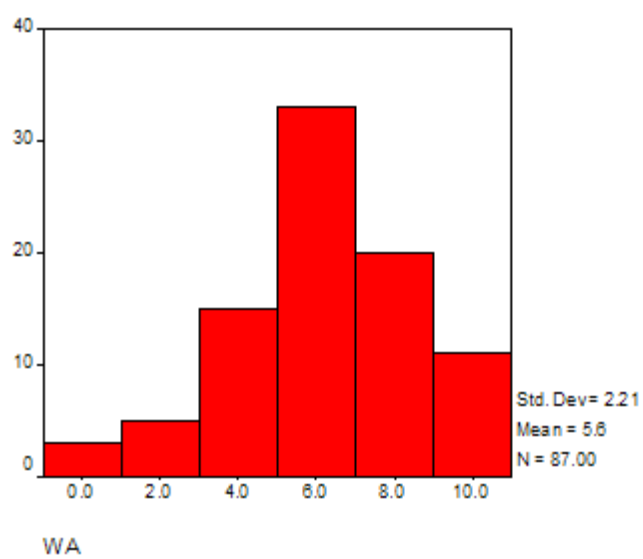Figures 3 and 4 provide bar graphs depicting the score distribution for wA and eC scores, respectively.

Figure 3 wA Score Distribution
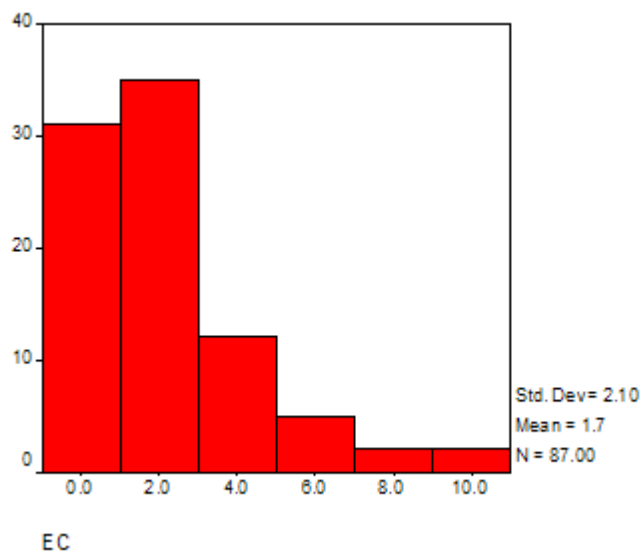
Figure 4 eC Scores Distribution

Table 2 provides descriptive statistics of MBTI intuitive/sensing and thinking/feeling

scores.

Table 3 Descriptive Statistics for MBTI Distribution

Number	Cumulative Percentage
iNtuitive	51.1%
Sensing	47.7%
Feeling	78.4%
Thinking	20.5%

Scores for the MBTI factor Intuitive/Sensing were distributed as follows: 45 respondents (51%) scored on the Intuitive dimension while 42 (47.7%) scored as Sensing. On the Feeling/Thinking dimension, a total of 69 respondents (78.4%) scored as Feeling and the remaining 18 respondents (20.5%) scored in the Thinking domain.

Eta

The statistic Eta will be used to analyze the relationship between the RHI and the MBTI. Eta is a coefficient of nonlinear association .This interpretation requires that the dependent variable be interval in level, and the independent variable be categorical (nominal, ordinal, or grouped interval). Eta is a measure of strength of relationship based on sums of squares computed in analysis of variance.

Pearson Product-Moment Correlation

A Pearson correlation will be used to measure the significance of the relationship between the RHI and the FIRO-B. The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is a measure of the strength of the linear relationship between two variables.

Summary of Results: Hypotheses

Research Question: What is the relationship between altruism and personality traits in beginning counseling students?

Null Hypothesis One

This null hypothesis stated that there would no relationship between level of altruism among beginning counseling students and Sensing-iNtuition or Thinking-Feeling sub-scales of the MBTI. For the 2 nominal variables, it is appropriate to use the statistic eta to gage the relationship of each with the interval-level Altruism. Eta ranges between 0 (no relationship) and 1 and for MBTI1 and Altruism equals .077. Using the significance level p from the related Pearson r statistic to gage the level of significance, since this p=.48 and invoking the usual alpha criterion of a cutoff at .05, we find that the relationship between Altruism and MBTI1 is not statistically significant (Table 4).

Table 4 Directional Measures and Correlations for the MBTI_1

	MBTI_1	Altruism
MBTI_1		
Pearson Correlation	1	0.077
Sig. (2-tailed)	---	0.477
N		87
Altruism		
Pearson Correlation	0.077	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	0.477	---
N	87	

Similarly, the relationship between Altruism and MBTI2 (Thinking-Feeling) was gaged using the statistic eta, as depicted in Table 4. The relationship between Altruism and MBTI2 is estimated as eta = .28 (p=.01). This degree of relationship is statistically significant.

Table 5 Directional Measures and Correlations for the MBTI_2

	MBTI_1	Altruism
MBTI_1		
Pearson Correlation	1	0.283
Sig. (2-tailed)	---	0008
N		87
Altruism		
Pearson Correlation	0.283	1
Sig. (2-tailed)	0008	---
N	87	

Null Hypothesis Two

This null hypothesis predicted no relationship between expressed interpersonal needs (eC) and level of altruism among beginning counseling students. For this interval variable,

curve fitting techniques were used to assess the appropriateness of expecting a linear

association between each and Altruism vs. some other non-linear relationship. For the most

part, the fit of common non-linear forms is not appreciably better than linear. Thus, the

relationship of each pair is appropriately estimated using the Pearson correlation statistic r.

Those r values and associated p values are provided in the table below. As Table 5 shows, no

p values were below the usual alpha=.05 criterion and thus the variable of expressed Control

was not found to have a statistically significant relationship with Altruism.

Table 6 Directional Measures and Correlations for the FIRO-B

	wI	eC	wA
Altruism	r = 0.04	r = -0.10	r = -0.03
	p = 0.73	p = 0.34	p = 0.76

Null Hypothesis Three

This null hypothesis predicted no relationship between preferred interpersonal needs (wI and wA) and level of altruism among beginning counseling students. For these interval variables, curve fitting techniques were used to assess the appropriateness of expecting a linear association between each and Altruism vs. some other non-linear relationship. For the most part, the fit is not appreciably better than linear. Thus, the relationship of each pair is appropriately estimated using the Pearson correlation statistic r. Those r values and associated p values are provided in the table below. As the table shows, no p values were below the usual alpha=.05 criterion and thus the variables of wanted Inclusion and wanted Affection were not found to have a statistically significant relationship with Altruism.

Finally, the 5 variables were entered into an ordinary least squares (OLS) multiple regression model for predicting Altruism, in order to estimate all the relationships with Altruism simultaneously. Before doing this, it is best (for interpretation of final coefficients) to transform each of the 2 nominal level variables to dummy coding. To accomplish this, for each the value of 2 was changed to a 0 and the 1 was left as a 1. A backward elimination process was invoked wherein all 5 independent variables were first entered and then the

independent variable with the worst p value was eliminated until no p value was greater than

the fairly liberal value of .20.

The initial model from this process is given in the following table (Table 6).

Table 7 Coefficients of all Five Predictor Variables

	Unstandardized Coefficient	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficient	t	Sig.
Constant	37.073	2.105	---	18.35	0.000
MBTI_1	0.384	0.985	0.047	0.390	0.698
MBTI_2	-3.087	1.200	-0.307	-2.573	0.012
wI	0.156	0.160	0.135	0.975	0.333
eC	-0.166	0.210	-0.085	-0.790	0.432
wA	-0.134	0.258	-0.072	-0.520	0.604

The table above shows that MBTI1 had the worst p value and it was not below .20; thus MBTI1 was selected for removal in the next step.

This process iterated through 4 removal steps leaving only one variable, MBTI2, with a p value less than .20. The final regression model has an r-square value of .08 and is given below (Table 8).

Table 8 Final Regression for MBTI_2

	Unstandardized Coefficient	Std. Error	Standardized Coefficient	t	Sig.
Constant	36.983	1.333	---	27.754	0.000
MBTI_2	-2.853	1.047	-2.83	-2.725	0.008

The above model states that Altruism can be predicted by the equation:

Altruism = 37.0 -2.85*MBTI2_DU,

Which is to say by 37.0 – 0.0 = 37 when MBTI2_DU equals zero (Thinking) and by 37.0 –

2.9 = 34.1 when MBTI2_DU equals one (Feeling). An R-square value of .08 is considered a

moderately low fit, R-square ranging between 0 and 1.

In short, among the 5 independent variables studied, Altruism appears to be related to only

one, the Myers-Brigg Type Indicator 2 of Feeling vs. Thinking, with higher altruism being

associated more with thinking (than feeling).

Summary of Findings

Demographics of the population, descriptive statistics and data analysis of the study were presented in the preceding chapter. Data analysis of the relationship between scores on the RHI and personality data were presented in the preceding chapter. The RHI had a statistically significant correlation to only one interpersonal variable, the Thinking dimension of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. No statistically significant relationship was found between the RHI and the Wanted Inclusion, Wanted Affection or Expressed Control dimensions of the FIRO-B. Likewise, a statistically significant relationship between the RHI and the Sensing-Intuition dimension of the MBTI was not found. In summary, among the five independent variables considered in the present study, Altruism appears to be related to only one, the Myers-Brigg Type Indicator dimension of Feeling vs. Thinking, with higher altruism being associated more with thinking (than feeling).

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION

This chapter summarizes and discusses the results, along with relevant existing literature, regarding the use and assessment of personality traits as they relate to altruism among beginning counselor education students. In addition, this section considers implications for counselor educators, limitations of the findings and recommendations for current research.

Discussion of Descriptive Statistics

The age of subjects in the study ranged from twenty-one to fifty-one. The mean age was twenty-six and the median age was twenty-four. Fifty-six percent of the respondents were between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-four, a three year range, while the remaining forty-four percent were between the ages of twenty-five and fifty-one, a twenty-six year range. It appears that over half of the population in this study were enrolling in graduate school as traditional students while less than half enrolled with potentially more life experience. This tendency towards a bimodal age distribution in counselor education has been noted in previous research (Freeman, 2003; Granello, 2002).

In this study, the overwhelming majority of participants self-reported as female (87.5%), with a minority self-reporting as male (11.4%). This imbalance in gender has also been noted in other studies of counselor education programs (Freeman, 2003; Granello, 2002).

Racial distribution in this study also mirrors that of these researchers in that the overwhelming majority of respondents were white (70.5%) and the remaining respondents were divided into the following groups: Hispanic (9.1%), African-American (8.0%), Asian (1.1%), Native American (1.1%), and Bi-racial (8%).

Discussion Summary of Results for the Hypotheses

The primary research question asked whether personality and interpersonal variables correlated with altruism among beginning counselor education students. The intent of the study was to examine the degree to which altruism could be predicted by a student's MBTI score on the the intuition/sensing and thinking/feeling dimensions and the expressed control, wanted affection and wanted inclusion scales of the FIRO-B.

In inquiring as to whether preference scores on the MBTI relate to empathetic response among introductory counseling students, Jenkins, Stephens, Chew & Downs (1992) primary finding was that only the MBTI thinking-feeling dimension related significantly to empathetic responding. Similarly, in the current investigation, only the thinking-feeling continuum corresponded with altruism. However, Jenkins et al found that a preference towards Feeling on the MBTI corresponded with greater degrees of empathy. Jenkins et al indicates that other MBTI sub-scales may very well contain essential ingredients to successful empathetic responding. For example, these researchers note that within the Sensing-Intuition scale, it can be noted that sensing involves an "awareness and focus on the immediate and an acute observation of nonverbal details.... At the same time, the intuition

preference is associated with insight, imagination and possibility" (Jenkins, Stephens Chew & Downs, 1992, p. 1006). As these qualities from both preferences describe the elements required of empathetic responding, the unexpected result of the Thinking dimension significantly correlating with altruism requires some consideration.

Discussion Summary of Results for Hypothesis One

This null hypothesis stated that there would no relationship between level of altruism among beginning counseling students and Sensing-iNtuition or Thinking-Feeling sub-scales of the MBTI. The relationship between Altruism and MBTI2 is estimated as eta = .28 (p=.01). This degree of relationship is statistically significant.

Altruism appears to be related only to the MBTI sub-scale of Feeling vs. Thinking, with higher altruism being associated more with thinking (than feeling). As the thinking preference describes an individual who likes to find the basic truth or principle that should be applied, regardless of the specifics of the current situation. Because this preference relies on an attempt to be impersonal in decision-making, a deliberate desire to aspire to the "altruistic" role of counselor may explain this finding. In other words, the Thinking type may have discerned RHI items from a detached or logical standpoint-- answering about what he or she believed about the counseling profession, free from any influence of his or her personal aspirations concerning the career.

Jenkins, Stephens, Chew & Downs (1992) further suggest that the bipolar nature of the MBTI sub-scales overlooks the fact that individuals have access to all dimensions, regardless

of their preferences. In other words, as altruism is a unipolar personality trait and thinking-feeling is bipolar, it can be assumed that individuals use both poles of the continuum. While individuals might be described as either high- or low- in terms of altruism, to describe them as thinking or feeling overlooks the fact that this refers to a preference. They continue to have access to the opposite dimension. Thus, the unexpected result of the thinking preference correlating significantly to altruism may be due to the construct of the MBTI rather than an actual relationship between the two.

Berry and Sipps (1991) indicate another possible limiting factor is the use of the MBTI as an independent variable. Recent debate has addressed whether the MBTI should be used incounseling and counseling research. Sipps & DiCaudo (1988) maintain that what constructs are being assessed with the MBTI remains unclear, and therefore, the assessment should not be used in counseling research.   In addition, Walter (1990) argues against the use of nominally based scales to produce continuous scores, describing it as "suspect and psychometrically ill-advised" (Walter, 1990, p. 43). Future research might replicate this study with alternate measures of Jung's typology.

Discussion Summary of Results for Hypothesis Two & Three

These null hypotheses predicted no relationship between expressed and preferred interpersonal needs and Altruism. Hypothesis two specifically predicted no relationship between expressed interpersonal needs (eC) and level of altruism among beginning counseling students. The variable of expressed Control was not found to have a statistically

significant relationship with Altruism. Hypothesis three predicted no relationship between preferred interpersonal needs (wI and wA) and level of altruism among beginning counseling students. The variables of wanted Inclusion and wanted Affection were not found to have a statistically significant relationship with Altruism.

Some inferences regarding the use of the FIRO-B in the present study can be inferred from Ruzicka and Palisi's (1976). Their study was an examination of the effect of counselor trainees' reports of their philosophy of human nature and their interpersonal behavior in a variety of settings on their observed verbal behavior in a role-played initial counseling interviews. The study utilized the Philosophies of Human Nature(PHN) inventory to assess the students' assumptions about the nature of humans and human behavior. The FIRO-B was also used to examine the amount of expressed control (EC) that the students feel they exert in interpersonal behaviors. The researchers reported an inverse relationship between the students' philosophy of human nature and their interpersonal need to control, underscoring the hypotheses that the more positively one views humanity, the less one will need to control others; and, conversely, the more negatively one sees humanity, the more one will need to exercise influence over others. However, these findings did not translate to actual behaviors displayed in an actual role-played initial interview.

Ruzicka and Palisi (1976) suggest that an explanation for this discrepancy may lie in the instruments selected for use in the study; e.g., using self-report to gather data on views of one's own philosophies and interpersonal needs while using observation to quantify verbal

behavior.   Furthermore, they assert that measures of self-report are especially susceptible to the social-desirability phenomenon (Ruzicka & Palisi, 1976). Respondents may wish to project the image they believe will gain approval under certain circumstances-- perhaps particularly during the orientation to a graduate program, as was the case in the previous study.

Ruzicka and Palisi (1976) further endeavor that data collected from self-reports may not correlate well with actual behavior. This may particularly be the case for counseling students, who have yet to reconcile the discrepancy between their idealized selves and their actual feelings and behaviors. While observed behavior was absent from the current study, Ruzicka and Palisi's study confirmed the difficulties associated with self-report instrumentation with beginning counselor education students, and the questionable congruence between self-report and actual behavior among this population. The authors conclude by noting that "..trainees need help developing cognitive concepts to link personal value to their actions" (Ruzicka and Palisi, 1976, p. 39).

Using FIRO-B scores as categorical, rather than continuous data may have provided different results. In the present study, the higher the score on the applicable FIRO-B categories, the more the individual was viewed as possessing negative manifestations of the trait. Fox, Kanitz and Fogler (1991) instead observed mid-range scores as the most functional, with highs and lows applying to dysfunctional manifestations of the behavior. For example, the present study assumed the lower the score on expressed control, the more

autonomy a counselor would allow his or her client to assume, and the more altruistic said

counselor would be said to be. In the Fox, Kanitz and Fogler (1991) study, however,

individuals with lower scores (between 0 and 3) on expressed control were viewed not as

autonomous but as under-confident and likely to avoid responsibility. Similarly, the current

research viewed low scores on the wanted inclusion and wanted affection dimensions to

correspond to altruistic behavior in that the counselor was not seeking personal gain from the

counseling relationship. Fox, Kanitz and Fogler (1991) viewed similar scores as describing

individuals who are highly selective about associations. As both studies included FIRO-B

data to make inferences to behavior in professional relationships, it seems valid to question

the use of raw FIRO-B data in the present study.

Finally, Hurley (1990) cautions use of the FIRO-B in any descriptions of overt

behavior, describing a 25:5 imbalance between the FIRO-B's significant linkages of ratings

by self and peers. He notes that this is incongruent with Schutz's claims of the FIRO-B's

function of appraising overt behavior.

This consistent evidence of weak linkage between the FIRO-B and overt behavior, in
the company of evidence that FIRO-B scales are generally dissociated from central
    dimensions of interpersonal conduct suggest severe limits to it's predictive power.
    (Hurley, 1990, p. 459)

Limitations Related to Findings

Limitations of the current research must also be considered. The first of these relates to the reliability and validity of the RHI. The RHI showed questionable alpha and split-half reliability and did not correlate to an established instrument, the POI. However, reliability analysis occurred after the fact. Test-retest reliability may have shown the RHI to have a greater degree of reliability, however, the nature of the RHI makes gleaning such data difficult. That is to say that the RHI examines attitudes towards counseling prior to exposure to counselor education classes. For this reason, it is administered during orientation for new students. To use test-retest reliability, the instrument would need to be administered twice prior to beginning coursework. As orientation occurs immediately before classes commence, students would need to complete the assessment first before orientation. Although administering the test in this manner would present logistical difficulties, it may be worthwhile in order to evaluate the RHI's reliability more accurately.

Similarly, the validity of the RHI was determined by correlating it to the POI. The POI is a measure of the constructs of self-actualization. While altruism seems to correspond to the features of self-actualization, the POI does not have a scale that looks specifically at altruism. Measures of altruism are nearly non-existent (with the exception of a scale designed to study altruism in children), particularly as related to altruism among counselors or beginning counseling students.

A further limitation of the present research concerns the use of self-report in gathering personality data. As described earlier in this chapter, self-report measures may not describe actual behavior, and are subject to a social desirability bias. This may especially be the case with students entering a graduate program, who may feel pressure to exude a particular impression, regardless of the confidentiality and anonymity of the assessments.

A second major limitation of this study concerns the number of respondents (87). This sample size is not large enough to infer generalizations to the larger population of counselor education students. A larger sample size might have warranted the use of discriminant function analysis rather than the statistic eta and a Pearson correlation. Discriminant function analysis may have been better predicted the variables correlating to altruism.

The study was completed at a large, public university in the southeastern United States; students at this university may differ somehow from peers in other areas. Within this sample, students were in either a mental health or school counseling track, which suggests differences within the population being studied.

Additionally, while most of the assessments were collected at the same time, some students missed orientation and completed the testing materials at a later date. Other students had taken a class or two prior to enrolling in the program and may have gleaned a better sense of the counseling profession. Both of these observations suggest threats to the internal validity of the study.

In terms of the design of the study, it is possible that altruism, as measured by the RHI simply could not be predicted by the MBTI and the FIRO-B. It may be the case that some other assessments would better discriminate the traits that correspond to altruism.

Finally, Type I and Type II errors may exist in this study. It is possible that a true research hypothesis was rejected when it should have been accepted and vice-versa.

Implications for Counselor Educators

References to studies using the MBTI are limited in counselor education literature, according to Dilley (1987). Such studies, however, could offer definitive answers to "questions concerning effective counselor characteristics, interaction of counselors and counseling theory, and matching of counselor and client" (Dilley, 1987, p. 50).

Dilley (1987) concedes that the MBTI can be useful in selection and retention of students in graduate Counselor Educations programs. According to Dilley, the MBTI can also be used to make inferences about the types of students who are successful in counselor education programs as well as the relationship between types of counselors and how relatively successful they are with various types of clients. Dilley further calls for the undertaking of such research, as it will provide counselor education programs with insight into the correlates of their students success, from selection to retention.

Myers and McCaulley (1985) note that Ns tend to be overrepresented in college and graduate school. Although NF types make up about 12% of those in elementary schools, they constitute about 50% of adult and student helpers. Dilley (1987) indicates a need for caution concerning this imbalance between NF's in counselor education and those in the general public. Because counselor education students are overwhelmingly NF's, counselor educators should be aware that they are likely to work with clients who differ from them in terms of MBTI type. As Dilley (1987) notes that "concern for growth and personal relationships tend to form the backbone of feeling types" (p. 51), the question remains as how to train counselor education students to work effectively with those who perceive the world and make decisions differently. Instructing counselor education students in to do so relates to the present study—that is to say that a student must learn to usurp personal views to that of his or her clients. Possessing an altruistic view of the counseling relationship will lend itself well to such an endeavor.

Gallagher and Hargie (1992) question the viability of teaching counselor education students the core values of empathy, acceptance and genuineness. As these attitudes are emphasized as vital to effective counseling, the question of whether they can be taught and how to do so must be evaluated. Gallagher and Hargie (1992) propose that future research should

attempt to develop methods of assessing counselor skill which take the appropriateness and timing of counselor behavior into consideration, in addition to examining the contribution of interactive sequence of a number of behaviors (p. 16).

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An alternative viewpoint may be that it is difficult to enhance training by focusing on

behaviors in isolation, as student responses may be better understood if examined in relation

to "both (the) cognitive and unconscious dimensions of the counseling process" (p. 12).

Thus, the question of teaching and encouraging the core conditions may best be met through

criteria at admission time, as well as microskills training so a student learns to appropriate

communicate such values.

Wheeler (2002) further considers whether or not good counseling is a product of

inherent, distinct personality variables or whether it can be broken down to a discrete set of

of skills which can be trained or taught. She notes

"The question that most needs to be addressed when assessing applicants' suitability
for counsellor [sic] training is what the the essential requisites at the start of training or for
training to be started are, and what qualities, attitudes, beliefs and abilities can be
developed through training" (p. 432).

She goes on to state that

"Therapy is about change, a fundamental belief that fuels all therapeutic work, and
trainees are expected to learn not only from the training, but also from the experience of
the training itself; yet, in the selection process, an assessment must be made as to how
much change it is reasonable to expect in the time available" (p.432)

Wheeler (2002) expresses the importance of faculty members as gatekeepers in the selection

of

counseling students, yet concedes that the gatekeeping function must also occur as the

student completes the program. "Selected candidates for counsellor [sic] training do not have

to be perfect when they start a course, but they do need to be open to change through the therapeutic process" (p. 433). In regards to whether a stance of altruism (via empathy) can be taught, Wheeler underscores the value of personal counseling for students enrolled in counselor education programs. Being on the receiving end of empathetic support may elicit such responses towards one's clients, in Wheeler's estimation.

Suggestions for Future Research

Future research concerning the concept of altruism among beginning counselor education students may be better viewed from the stance of motivation. In other words, gaining insight into a counselor education applicant's motives for being a counselor, prior to admission, may provide insight into the ultimate question of altruism. Administering an altruism scale such as the RHI to counselor education applicants, and later correlating these scores with behaviors in mock or real counseling sessions would potentially answer the question sought in this investigation. Studying altruism via actual student behavior in mock or real counseling sessions by multiple observers would allow for further understanding and definition of altruistic acts within counseling sessions. Operationally defining altruism based on actual behaviors could allow researchers a sense of what other interpersonal and personal traits correspond with altruism. Finally, inquiring into a beginning counseling students' experience with personal counseling and correlating this to RHI scores would shed insight into the question of whether motivation (self- or other-interest) is effected by personal counseling, as suggested by Wheeler (2002).

APPENDIX A

ROBINSON-HEINTZELMAN INVENTORY

Following are four root statements about you as a counselor. Below each statement are five sets of three possible choices about the statement. For each number, please circle thechoice that most describes you. Circle only one choice, even if you would consider more than one to be true of yourself. Pick the one that you feel MOST describes you of the three possible choices.

In your decision to become a counselor, how important were the following considerations:

A. Personal growth	B. Sense of achievement	C. The joy of helping others
A. Pursuing a profession in which I could learn to help others	B. Finding a greater sense of personal identity	C. The opportunity to help others with problems similar to my own
A. Helping people find their own answers	B. Knowing what intense issues my clients will bring to counseling	C. Gaining a greater sense of humanity
A. Entering an exciting profession	B. A chance to continue working on my own healing	C. Learning about how to help others
A. Giving something back to society	B. An exciting and interesting job	C. Learning about other people.

The most satisfying thing about becoming a counselor is:

A. It helps me with my own issues	B. I really enjoy being with other people	C. I have a lot to offer others
A. I find other peoples' problems interesting	B. I can help others and myself	C. I like to work with people.
A. I enjoy helping those less able to do for themselves	B. Seeing others achieve gives me a sense of satisfaction	C. The self-disclosure of others puts my life in perspective
A. Helping change other peoples' dysfunctional behavior	B. Delving into my clients' interesting problems	C. Learning more about life through the counseling process
A. Working with others helps me find meaning	B. My life has meaning because I work with	C. Without the chance to help others, my life would

| in life | others | be meaningless |

As a beginning counselor,

A. I worry that I may do harm to my clients	B. I worry that I may be embarrassed in front of my peers	C. I worry that I won't have the necessary skills to do what I want to do
A. I look forward to hearing about my clients' lives	B. I look forward to helping my clients meet their goals	C. I look forward to building skills as a counselor
A. I look forward to putting techniques I have learned into practice	B. I look for evidence that I have helped my clients	C. I look forward to seeing my clients improve their coping skills
A. I am concerned about my level of anxiety in working with clients	B. I am concerned that I won't know what to say	C. I am concerned that I won't be able to help my clients
A. I am concerned that my issues my hinder my counseling practice	B. I am concerned that of my clients' issues may make me uncomfortable	C. I am concerned I won't know how to ensure my clients' comfort

Ten years from now:

A. I will still find joy in helping others	B. Problems that clients have might get to me	C. I see myself getting the same level of satisfaction in being a counselor
A. I will have moved well beyond entry-level positions	B. I will be proud of my accomplishments with clients	C. Counseling will still be a great learning experience for my clients and myself
A. I will continue to empathize with my clients' experiences	B. I will employ highly creative strategies during counseling sessions	C. My clients' experiences might be too stressful for me to empathize with
A. I will continue to connect with my clients	B. I could almost live vicariously through my clients	C. My practice will take energy away from other activities

I know I will be successful when:

A. I feel integrated	B. I see joy in a client	C. I know I helped a client meet a goal
A. A client thanks me for my help	B. I am promoted to a higher position	C. My client and I grow together
A. A supervisor feels good about my practice	B. I see improvements in my clients' outcomes	C. Some of my issues are taken care of
A. My personal growth continues	B. Client relapse decreases	C. Peak experiences with clients tell me that I am helping
A. I am accepted for advanced graduate studies	B. My clients and I both grow from counseling	C. Clients change destructive behaviors

APPENDIX B

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD APPROVAL

University of
**Central
Florida**

Office of Research & Commercialization

December 2, 2005

Laura M. Schmuldt
486 Montrose Road
Monroe, VA 24574

Dear Ms. Schmuldt:

The University of Central Florida's Institutional Review Board (IRB) received your protocol IRB #05-3086 entitled, "**An Investigation of Personal Characteristics of Beginning Counselor Education Students**." The IRB Chair did not have any concerns with the proposed project and has indicated that under federal regulations, Category #4, research involving the use of existing data if the information is recorded by the investigator in such a manner that the subjects cannot be identified, this research is **exempt** from further review by our IRB, so an approval is not applicable and a renewal within one year is not required. The data is public information.

Please accept our best wishes for the success of your endeavors. Should you have any questions, please do not hesitate to call me at 407-823-2901.

Cordially,

Barbara Ward

Barbara Ward, CIM
IRB Coordinator

Copies: IRB File
E.H. Mike Robinson, Ph.D.

BW:jm

12443 Research Parkway • Suite 302 • Orlando, FL 32826-3252 • 407-823-3778 • Fax 407-823-3299
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