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COUNSELOR CHARACTERISTICS AND SITUATIONAL FACTORS AS RELATED TO RATED IMPORTANCE AND PRACTICE OF COUNSELING AND CONSULTING PROCESSES BY ELEMENTARY COUNSELORS IN NORTH CAROLINA

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro ED.D. 1979

COUNSELOR CHARACTERISTICS AND SITUATIONAL FACTORS AS RELATED TO RATED IMPORTANCE AND PRACTICE OF COUNSELING AND CONSULTING PROCESSES BY ELEMENTARY COUNSELORS IN NORTH CAROLINA

by

John J. Schmidt

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
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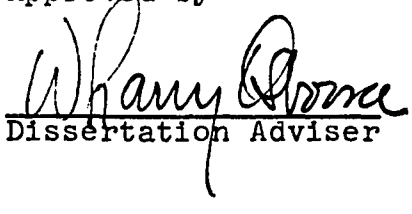

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APPROVAL PAGE

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SCHMIDT, JOHN J. Counselor Characteristics and Situational Factors as Related to Rated Importance and Practice of Counseling and Consulting Processes by Elementary Counselors in North Carolina. (1979)
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The purpose of this study was to identify and describe counselor characteristics and situational factors which demonstrate a relationship to the types of counselors who value and use consultation and counseling processes in their elementary guidance programs. These questions were posed:

1) Which counselors prefer counseling and which prefer consulting processes?

2) Who actually uses counseling and who uses consulting activities?

A random sample of 100 elementary counselors in North Carolina were mailed a survey package consisting of five questionnaires. The Subject Information Sheet, Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), and Fear of Negative Evaluation scale (FNE), collected biographic and situational information, and assessed counselor personality characteristics. Two instruments, the Frequency and Preference Questionnaires, were developed to measure counselor preference for counseling and consulting processes and counselor frequency of performing those two functions. A total of 88 counselors returned surveys which were complete enough to use in this study.

Five subprograms of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) were used to analyze the data. The Frequency and Breakdown procedures were used to describe and categorize data. The Pearson correlation and multiple regression subprograms identified significant correlates between the dependent and independent variables. The dependent variables were the six scores derived from the Frequency and Preference Questionnaires: Counseling Frequency Index (CFI); Consulting Frequency Index (CtFI); Frequency Difference Score (F-Diff.); Counseling Preference Scale (CPS); Consulting Preference Scale (CtPS); and the Preference Difference Score (P-Diff.). The independent variables were: counselor age, sex, number of years' teaching and counseling, number of graduate credits completed, number of schools served, number of students served, highest grade level served, number of grade levels served, anxiety level (FNE), and personality types (MBTI). The t-test procedure of SPSS was used to analyze items on the Frequency and Preference Questionnaires.

The sample of elementary counselors consisted of 67 females and 21 males with a mean age of 33.86 years. Number of years' teaching experience for the group ranged from 0 to 21 with a mean of 4.11 years, and the number of years' counseling experience ranged from 1 to 18 with a mean of 4.39 years. The average number of completed graduate credits was 46.12. Most of the counselors served one

(55.7%) or two (13.2%) schools. The average number of students served by these counselors was 884 students with the highest grade level ranging from second grade to twelfth grade. However, the majority of counselors served no higher than the seventh grade. The counselors reported serving an average number of 6.54 grade levels, and the largest percentage of counselors (62.5%) were responsible for as few as five and as many as eight grade levels.

Counselor anxiety, as measured by the FNE, was shown to be lower for this group of counselors than for the college samples on which the instrument was developed (Watson & Friend, 1969). Personality types, assessed by the MBTI provided average group scores which presented a profile of an Extroverted-Intuitive-Feeling-Judging type.

The statistical findings in this study were:

1. Few significant ($p < .05$) correlates were found between any of the independent and dependent variables which could support the supposed theoretical differences between counseling and consulting processes. In fact most of the correlations gave support to those authors who contend that the two processes are essentially the same. There was limited support for the belief that the size of the student enrollment and the grade levels served by counselors may be related to how frequently counseling and consulting activities are used.

2. Counseling activities were used significantly ($p < .05$) more than consulting activities by the group of

counselors. However, there was no significant difference in their belief in the importance of either process.

3. No significant differences on the Frequency Indexes or Preference Scales were found between groups of counselors when they indicated adherence to different counseling theories.

4. Analyses of the Frequency and Preference Questionnaires showed that generally the counselors used those activities they believed to be most important. There were a few exceptions, and patterns were noted which question the methods of studying counselor roles as broad general processes rather than investigating the specifics of counseling and consulting activities.

Several recommendations are provided for future research of the elementary counselor role and the possible contribution of such research to the theoretical development and practical application of counseling and consulting activities.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This dissertation is dedicated to the memory of Dr. Wallace Phillips who, as a counselor and educator, contributed so much to the development and growth of elementary counseling in North Carolina. Without his interest and friendship, the opportunity to participate in this doctoral effort may not have been realized.

Sincerest gratitude is extended to Dr. Larry Osborne for his guidance through the program and his excellent direction in this dissertation. Special thanks are given to Dr. Chris Busch for his assistance with the design, programming, and statistical analyses used in this study. I am deeply grateful to Dr. Scott Lawrence and Dr. Richard Weller for their genuine interest and helpful suggestions, and to Dr. William Purkey for the many personal and professional invitations he has extended to me. Also, I appreciate Dr. Ron Anderson, North Carolina Consultant for Elementary Guidance, for endorsing the cover letter which was used in this study.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The initial movement of counseling into elementary education began in the 1920's. During the following four decades little was written or developed to help elementary counselors define and describe their role and functions in the schools. Traditional secondary school guidance views and approaches were borrowed until the late 1950's and early 1960's when the modern elementary school counselor began to appear (Faust, 1968b).

During the past ten to fifteen years certain distinctions have gradually developed which clarify the role of the elementary counselor. One of the most influential forces contributing to these distinctions has been the preliminary statement issued by the Joint Committee on the Elementary School Counselor (ACES-ASCA, 1966) which outlined the role and functions under the headings--counseling, consulting, and coordinating.

In recent years journal articles, as well as major texts, have thoroughly described and differentiated these three areas (Brown & Srebalus, 1972; Danskin, Kennedy, & Friesen, 1965; Dinkmeyer, 1968, 1971b; Fullmer & Bernard, 1972; Hansen & Stevic, 1969; Hill & Luckey, 1969;

McGehearty, 1968). While the major emphasis of school counselors has been on the counseling process, the past few years have witnessed a noticeable increase in articles about the consulting process.

Danskin, Kennedy, and Friesen (1965) were among the first to begin exploring a counselor/consultant role which would demonstrate an interest in helping parents and teachers understand the total concept of human development. Recently two special issues of the Personnel and Guidance Journal (Consultation I & II, 1978a, 1978b) focused on theoretical and research developments in the area of consultation. Elementary counseling, however, has emphasized the consultant role for some time as indicated by the special consultation issue of the Elementary School Guidance and Counseling Journal (1972).

Reasons for consultation becoming an important function of elementary counselors are many (Aubrey, 1978). The consultation process is a valuable skill in helping those significant adults in the child's life--parents and teachers--learn ways to help children develop. These skills are also useful in dealing with other people, institutions and agencies which serve children. As Fullmer and Bernard (1972) have indicated, consulting offers an alternative process for counselors to assist parents, teachers, students and others. Counseling processes do not attempt to bring third parties into the problem-solving discussions

as does consulting, and counseling has its limitations with very young children. The consultation process offers a format to involve people who can influence the child and provide assistance.

Another rationale for using consultation is the large case loads that elementary counselors usually handle (Aubrey, 1978) and the fact that they often serve more than one school (Greene, 1967). Students can be provided more guidance services through their parents and teachers than they can through the efforts of one school counselor. Using the consulting process, the counselor can provide information and inservice for parents and teachers to help them build their guidance skills with children. These aspects have influenced the emphasis on the consultation process which is currently found in the elementary counseling literature.

Statement of the Problem

When the recent literature is reviewed, it is apparent that in a brief period the consulting function has developed a theoretical base as diverse as the counseling function. As in the counseling literature, much effort has been spent researching the usefulness and effectiveness of the consulting process (Kranzler, 1969; Palmo & Kuzniar, 1972; Randolph & Hardage, 1973; Splete, 1971). There is one area of consultation, however, that has not been investigated as extensively as it has been in counseling.

That area concerns the characteristics of those counselors who do consulting. Many authors (Arbuckle, 1967; Faust, 1968a; McGehearty, 1968; Munson, 1970) have discussed and outlined theoretical differences between the counseling and consulting processes, and many questions are raised from those discussions. Are there personal, demographic and situational variables that relate to counselors who prefer and use consulting activities as an integral part of their program? If so, can those characteristics be identified, and do they differ from characteristics that relate to a preference for counseling activities? If they do not differ, what are the implications for the debate which has theoretically compared and contrasted the counseling and consulting processes? This is the problem researched in the present study.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to examine factors which may relate to an elementary counselor's preference for using consulting processes rather than counseling. This area of research has not been previously explored. Though theorists have conceptualized and developed consultation models, and have investigated various aspects of these paradigms, none have asked--which elementary school counselors value consulting, and who among them do it? This study examines these questions. In particular, it attempts to identify and describe counselor characteristics and

situational factors which demonstrate a relationship to the types of counselors who value and use consultation and counseling functions in their elementary counseling and guidance programs.

This descriptive study examines two basic questions about elementary counselors and the counseling-consulting processes:

1. Which counselors prefer counseling and which prefer consulting processes? That is, are there counselor and situational variables which correlate with a preference for either function?

2. Who actually uses counseling and who uses consulting activities? Are the variables which correlate with a preference for one process, the same variables which relate to the frequency of using that process?

While a belief in the importance of counseling and consulting functions may contribute to the frequency of their performance, other variables may have an even stronger relationship. For example, it may be that the size of the school (student enrollment) is a stronger correlate with performance of consulting activities than is the counselor's preference for that process. If so, counselors may adopt the consulting process due to the situations in which they are working rather than their belief in its value or importance.

Relationships between counselor characteristics, situational variables and the counseling-consulting processes may provide information about these functions and the types of professional who uses them.

Significance

There are several reasons for proposing this study. No research directed specifically at these questions has been done. The role and functions of elementary counselors have been surveyed, and volumes of studies of counselor characteristics have been published, but no research has been identified which relates counselor characteristics with counselor preferences for consulting or counseling activities. Since the theoretical literature implies that differences in counselor characteristics may account for some of the differences between the nature of the counseling and the consulting approaches, this proposed study could provide results which contribute to the theoretical discussion about these two processes.

The results may also provide information for future investigations of the effectiveness and practicality of the consulting model. Since the consulting process is emphasized on the elementary level, research into characteristics of counselors who have a preference for consulting may have some value in identifying counselors who could provide the elementary schools with a strong consulting effort.

It is possible that the results of the study may be inconsistent with the literature. The results may demonstrate that the consulting role is essentially not used--at least by this sample of counselors. In this case a difference between the theoretical importance of consulting, stressed by many authors, and the application of the process would be noted. Future research could examine factors which might hamper the use of consulting functions.

A final significance of this study is the possibility that no differences in situational or counselor variables will be found between the two preference groups. Such a finding would lend support to those writers who claim that the similarities between counseling and consulting outweigh the differences. If counselors with varying personality traits and different demographic backgrounds as well as different work settings do not differentiate between the counseling and consulting processes, it could mean that either some important variables have been overlooked, or the specific dynamics and skills used in the two processes are so similar that it is difficult to detect a preferential difference between counselors and settings. The latter conclusion would lend support to those authors (Arbuckle, 1967; McGehearty, 1968; Munson, 1970) who believe that the similar skills and goals associated with both counseling and consulting are evidence for the similarity between the two processes. Such a finding in

this present study would contribute to the understanding of the relationships that exist between the counseling and consulting functions.

Assumptions and Limitations

A basic assumption of this study is that the responding counselors will be familiar with the theoretical discussions pertaining to the counseling and consulting processes. Even though a definition of each process will be provided with the survey questionnaires, familiarity with the literature would help to provide more consistent and valid responses.

A second assumption is that while the counselors are only responding to descriptions of activities using the two different terms--counseling or consulting--they will actually be indicating a preference for using one process over the other.

It is further assumed that all those sampled in this study will be competent and effective counselors, and therefore choose appropriate activities in their counseling programs.

The limitations of this study include the fact that it is designed as a self-report and therefore some responses may not be valid. This limitation exists because trained field observers will not be used to assure that each respondent is doing what they report on the surveys. Also, the study only questions the frequency of performing an

activity, and is not intended to examine the quality of the counseling and consulting activities being used. As a result, counselor characteristics may be identified as high predictors for counselor preference for consulting or counseling functions, and yet have no relation to how effectively they are conducted.

This study will investigate selected variables, and since the research is new to the specific questions being asked, some important variables may be unknowingly neglected. A final limitation is that only elementary counselors in North Carolina will be sampled, so caution must be taken in generalizing the results to other populations.

Independent Variables

Although the relationship between counselor characteristics and the counseling/consulting processes has not been previously researched, the broad area of counselor personality and other characteristics has been studied. There are some problems, however, in sorting out the variables from past research to use in this investigation. The research literature has generally compared counselor characteristics to effective performance rather than to counselor role and activity preferences. In his brief review of personality studies, Polmantier (1966) stated that future research was needed to relate counselor characteristics to "success in counseling" (p. 95). But he did not mention needed research in the area of counselor

role preference. Some studies of counselor effectiveness are reviewed in this paper to provide tangential support for including certain biographic and demographic variables.

The question of accurately identifying and measuring certain characteristics has been a concern of some researchers. A few studies and reviews of research (Kurtz & Grummon, 1972; Stripling & Lister, 1963) have discussed the issue of reliably and validly measuring personal characteristics of counselors. Questions have been raised, for example, whether or not the methods used to measure particular traits are possibly tapping other areas of counselor behaviors (Kurtz & Grummon, 1972).

Several early writings (Hamrin & Paulson, 1950; Kamm, 1954) have attempted to formulate a list of traits and characteristics of counselors. Cottle (1953) indicated that such lists were unsatisfactory because traits of successful counselors seem to be variable making it difficult to describe specific characteristics which could be associated with successful counseling. He continued to say that the investigations which attempt to identify personal characteristics of counselors need "to consider those characteristics which are essential for effective service at each level of counseling and in each kind of counseling" (p. 445). This remark is of particular interest considering this proposed study. It highlights the concern that past studies of counselor traits occurred at a time

when few elementary counselors were employed or available as research subjects, and the debate differentiating counseling and consulting as two distinct processes had not yet begun. With the increase of elementary counselors and the theoretical development of consulting it is now possible to investigate counselor characteristics and their relationship with counseling-consulting processes at the elementary level and the relationship of counselor characteristics to different counselor functions.

Personality. The research of counselor characteristics has produced volumes of literature about personality traits of counselors. In general, there have been three ways of researching counselor personality--assessment of traits; relating personality to counselor effectiveness; and relating personality to counselor functions and processes.

With the first method researchers have assessed counselor traits on standardized instruments and compared the results with other non-counselor groups. Studies and reviews of counselor research (Brams, 1961; Cottle & Lewis, 1954; Heikkinen & Wegner, 1973) have generally characterized school counselors as outgoing and sensitive in their interactions with others, more extroverted, more self-confident, having stronger leadership capabilities; and of higher social status.

The second type of investigation into the personality of counselors has been to determine the relationships with effective counseling. Although much has been done in this area, the results have been conflicting with few specific relationships indicated. At present Shertzer and Stone's (1966) comments over a decade ago are still applicable today:

> An overriding conclusion to be drawn from a review of the literature pertaining to interests and personality characteristics and counseling effectiveness is that the findings so far have been inconclusive and often conflicting and that additional research is needed. (p. 118)

A third way that counselor personality has been studied is by comparison with counselor role and functions. It is this area of research which is closest to the questions asked in the proposed study. Few research studies have looked at the relationship between counselor role and personality characteristics.

Gruberg (1969) studied tolerance of ambiguity and found it was significantly related to counselor orientations. Counselors who used client-centered approaches were more tolerant than counselors who were more directive in their counseling sessions.

Mazer (1968) compared the personality variables and specific counseling behaviors of 120 graduate students. The Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (SPFQ) was used to measure personality traits, and the Inventory of

Counseling Practices, a description of 75 counseling behaviors, was used to report counselor methods. Analysis of the results yielded four factors, common to both instruments, which depict four prototype counselors:

--a self-sufficient counselor who directs the course of the interview;

--an individual motivated by a need for production (task oriented);

--an evaluating analytic type;

--an indecisive counselor who forces responsibility.

These prototypes are examples of how counselor traits may influence the counselor behaviors chosen in any given situation. The choice of different counseling and interview styles that confronts the school counselor is similar to the choice of leadership styles faced by all people in positions of influence. Perhaps the decision to choose consulting or counseling is influenced by the leadership styles and behaviors related to each process. For example, counselors who demonstrate a willingness and ability to exert leadership may prefer to do consulting which demands more direct and "expert" leadership skills (Schein, 1969). If the difference between counseling and consulting can be viewed as different leadership approaches, it would seem important to examine personality characteristics of counselors within the context of their relationship to leadership research.

Several authors have written of the elementary counselor's leadership role in the school (Hansen & Stevic, 1969; Hill & Luckey, 1969), and the different definitions of leadership as outlined by Stogdill (1974) can be related to the role and functions of counselors. Hollander and Julian (1969) said that leadership ". . . in the broadest sense implies the presence of a particular influence relationship between two or more persons" (p. 890). Certainly consulting and counseling processes have that influential presence.

Little research exists relating leadership role to the characteristics and qualities of school counselors. Many of the skills used in counseling are also associated with leadership, but beyond that little is known. In discussing group leadership skills and methods, Bates (1972) wrote, "What you do is who you are. You are your technique" (p. 42). This is an interesting statement, but there has been little research to confirm it. Though much has been written and researched about leadership, (Stogdill's (1974) review concludes that many future possibilities for research still exist. "In fact only a beginning has been made" (p. 429).

In areas outside of counseling and education, there has been some speculation of what influences a person to choose one leadership style over another. Fiedler (1967) postulated that leadership style is determined by both the

needs the leader seeks to satisfy and the situation in which he is functioning. Situational variables of the counselor have been mentioned earlier in this proposal as possible correlates with counseling and consulting processes, and these are discussed further in another section. The needs which a counselor seeks to satisfy in the leadership role may be related to personality traits. Mann (1959) identified six major personality factors which demonstrated a positive relationship with leadership: intelligence, adjustment, extroversion, dominance, masculinity, and interpersonal sensitivity. Some of these traits have been associated with counselors in the literature (Hamrin & Paulson, 1950; Kamm, 1954).

The theory of personality types formulated by Carl Jung (1923) is of particular interest in the present study, because of its closeness to counseling theory and use in the development of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (Myers, 1962). Hellriegel and Slocum (1975) have related these personality types to leadership styles. Though their article theorizes the relationship of personality to managerial behaviors, they do concurrently discuss problem-solving styles. The theoretical differences between consulting and counseling processes can be viewed as differences in problem-solving styles. Specifically, Hellriegel and Slocum (1975) theoretically associate different personality types with different problem-solving

styles. What they have done in theory is analogous to part of what this study proposes to investigate--the relationship between personality traits (and other variables) and the preference for consulting or counseling activities (problem-solving styles).

Personality types of counselors sampled in this study were assessed by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, an instrument based on Jung's personality theory. The personality types which he formulated are not strict descriptors which lock a person into one category or another, but rather are a complex system of basic attitudes and psychological functions which are receptive to inputs from the external environment and influences from other people. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator is an attempt to measure an individual's basic attitudes and psychological functions. A second reason the MBTI was chosen for this study is because only one study has been found in the literature which relates counselor personality with role preference (Terrill, 1969), and the MBTI was used in that research. Further explanation of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, and a rationale for its use are provided in Chapter III.

A final aspect of counselor personality examined in this study concerns the amount of personal risk that may exist in doing either counseling or consulting. Do the expert skills and leadership behaviors required in consulting

(Aubrey, 1978; Dinkmeyer & Dinkmeyer, 1978) result in the consultant being more vulnerable to evaluation and criticism than the counselor who operates privately in individual and small group settings? If consulting and counseling are perceived as processes with different levels of personal risk, then those perceptions, and consequent behaviors, may be variables which influence a counselor's choice between the two functions.

One personality factor which demonstrates a correlation with risk taking is anxiety. In their study of 217 college students, Kogan and Wallach (1964) found positive relationships between manifest anxiety and conservatism in decision-making tasks. Students who rated lower in risk taking scored higher on the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale.

If consulting involves more personal risk, then that risk may be related to counselors' feelings about others' evaluations of themselves. Such feelings and concerns may raise an individual's anxiety when placed in positions of leadership. Some authors have looked at the fear of appearing incompetent as well as the need to save face, and have related anxiety to specific social situations (Brown, 1970; Brown & Garland, 1971; Goldman & Olczak, 1975; Good & Good, 1973; Watson & Friend, 1969).

Brown (1970) stated that people in our culture have a need to save face and avoid situations in which they are embarrassed or appear incapable to significant others. One

study of face saving and incompetency (Brown & Garland, 1971) indicated that feelings of incompetency led to withdrawal from public view even at the sacrifice of rewards. A tendency not to choose to do consulting might be an avoidance behavior resulting from anxiousness related to specific feelings of incompetency and what others may think of one's attempts to be a consultant.

Anxiety is a multi-dimensional factor and, as a result, can be assessed physiologically, cognitively, and by observing motor behaviors in various situations. A few objective scales which attempt to measure anxiety that is specifically related to social situations and a fear of appearing incompetent have been developed (Good & Good, 1973; Watson & Friend, 1969). In the present study, Watson & Friend's scale (1969), Fear of Negative Evaluation, will be used to collect an anxiety index on the sampled counselors. This self-report instrument is described further in Chapter III.

Biographic data. The remaining variables relating to counselor characteristics chosen for this study have been commonly used in research of counselor role and functions as well as counselor effectiveness. These variables attempt to provide a biographic and demographic profile of the subjects included in this study.

Counselor's sex is one variable. Smith and Eckerson's (1966) survey of over 5,000 elementary school principals

indicated that in the early 1960's, female Child Development Consultants (CDC's) outnumbered males almost two to one. CDC's included counselors, psychologists, and social workers. Though this difference may not be as great today, there are probably still more women than men at the elementary level, and some studies have shown significant differences between male and female counselors in terms of personality traits. Differences in effectiveness have not been strongly noted, as indicated by Levell's (1965) study of 117 counselors.

Some studies have demonstrated that men and women counselors share certain personality characteristics (Heikkinen & Wegner, 1973; Walker & Latham, 1977). Others, however, have shown differences in traits such as self-assertion, boldness and timidity, and modes of problem solving (Keith, 1969; Terrill, 1969).

Terrill's (1969) study of 58 counselors found that on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator female counselors preferred Feeling rather than Thinking modes while males preferred the Thinking modes. His research also indicated that males preferred the Sensing process while females favored Intuition. The question pertinent to this research study is, do these differences in personality traits between men and women correlate with preferences for and frequency of performing counseling and consulting activities? If so,

then the sex variable may be an important correlate to examine.

Age as a variable has been studied in both general surveys and investigations of counselor effectiveness. Danielson's (1966) study of prospective elementary counselors indicated that counselors at that level tended to be older than other counselors. One reason for this finding might be that in the middle to late 1960's elementary counseling was still relatively new, and most of the people filling those positions or preparing for that role were experienced elementary teachers who were offered the opportunity by their administration.

Though some results are conflicting, studies have demonstrated that age correlates positively with increased dogmatism and closed-mindedness (Heikkinen, 1975; Wittmer & Webster, 1969). Jansen, Robb, and Bonk (1970) studied counselor effectiveness and found that the group rated "least effective" had a higher mean age than the "most effective group." The present study will investigate the relationship between age and the preference and performance of counseling and consulting functions. If age is truly related to closed-mindedness, would older counselors be less receptive to the consulting function since its theoretical development is more recent than counseling theory? Current literature advocates the counselor/ consultant role as the most effective mode for elementary

counselors. If counselor effectiveness is negatively correlated with age, will younger counselors demonstrate an equal preference for both consulting and counseling activities? These are some questions investigated in this study.

One of the most widely debated issues in the preparation and hiring of counselors has been the importance of teaching experience. In 1966, Rochester and Cottingham surveyed 397 counselor educators and found opinions on both sides of the issue. They called for future research to empirically determine the significance of teaching experience in preparing effective counselors.

Since that time the majority of research has indicated that teaching experience does not necessarily correlate positively with counselor effectiveness. However, some studies have shown relationships between teaching experience and counselor views and attitudes. Levell (1965) demonstrated some support for the belief that teaching experience may hinder the prospective counselor's movement toward the counseling point of view. Counselors with more than seven years of teaching have also been shown to perceive higher administrative expectations than counselors with fewer years (Terrill, 1969).

As with the age variable, a few studies (Heikkinen, 1975; Wittmer & Webster, 1969) have indicated a positive correlation between increased dogmatism and teaching

experience. Keith (1969) also reported differences in personality traits related to teaching experience. Counselors with less than 12 years' teaching were found to have a greater need to achieve personal power and socio-political recognition; to be more outgoing, spontaneous, impulsive and uninhibited; and to be more interested in intellectual pursuits.

These attitudes and personality differences, particularly those discussed by Keith (1969), may have implications for the choice counselors might make between the counseling and consulting processes. As defined and described in the current literature (Consultation I and II, 1978a, 1978b) consultation appears to be a more open process, where the counselor takes a direct role as a leader to help clients facilitate change. If this is so, would those counselors, identified by Keith (1969) as achieving, outgoing, and uninhibited, be more likely to prefer consulting roles, and is teaching experience one variable that correlates with those types of counselors?

Theoretical training may be another important variable related to the consulting process. This consideration is prompted by the emphasis some theoretical fields--particularly Adlerian and behavioral psychology--have placed on the consulting role (Abidin, 1972; Dinkmeyer, 1968, 1971a; Mayer, 1972; Russel, 1978).

However, Fiedler's (1950a, 1950b) work, which Shertzer and Stone (1966) consider "classic studies" (p. 105), suggests that it is the characteristics of the counselors, and not theoretical beliefs, which are the important factors in building a therapeutic relationship. His studies developed from the belief that all therapists attempt an ideal relationship with the client. The question asked was whether this relationship is a function of theoretical training and adherence, or a function of the therapist's expertness.

Although there were many limitations in the study (Fiedler, 1950a), there was demonstrated some indication of a poor relationship between theoretical training and the process of building a counseling relationship. However, since the literature does demonstrate that some theoretical fields promote the consulting role, information will be gathered in this investigation for categorizing some of the data. Trends observed across theoretical preferences may be useful in future research.

Since Fiedler's (1950a, 1950b) studies demonstrated a significant difference ($p < .01$) between "expert" and "non-expert" therapists' views about how to build therapeutic relationships, the results may have implications for the school counselor's level of expertise and the client-counselor relationship. Assuming the choice between consulting and counseling processes is related to the

concept of "building a counseling relationship," these findings may have some bearing on this present study and the use of training level of counselors as a variable to study. What relationship, if any, is there between the amount of counselor training (as a measure of expertise) and preference for counseling and consulting functions?

Shertzer and Stone (1966) found a significant difference ($p < .001$) in the attitudes of counselors by their level of training. The higher the level of training the stronger counselor attitudes were towards being specialists, with an emphasis on the counseling role, rather than generalists who would use a variety of activities and functions in their counseling programs. The present study asks whether a counselor's level of training will correlate with his or her preference for counseling and consulting activities? Do counselors who assume more of a counselor/consultant role consider themselves to be generalists, and will this be reflected in the correlation between their preferences for either counseling or consulting functions and their level of training? Length of graduate training and number of years' counseling experience are used as measures of expertise and level of training in this survey.

Situational variables. Much of the literature promoting the use of the consulting process in elementary schools has supported that position with the rationale that consulting is a more efficient model to reach more people

and effect change at that level (Aubrey, 1978; Brown & Srebalus, 1972; Dinkmeyer, 1968; Faust, 1968a). However, although the question of efficiency has not been specifically studied, research comparing the effectiveness of counseling and consulting has been inconclusive (Kranzler, 1969).

The early survey of Smith and Eckerson (1966) gave some indication that Child Development Consultants (CDC's) in larger schools used consulting activities more than CDC's in smaller schools. No analysis was done, however, to determine if the differences were significant.

In a study of guidance directors (Biggers, 1976), there was no relationship between their perception of role and the size of the school district. Though the director's role is quite different from the school-based counselor's role, the lack of correlation could also occur between the counselor's perception of role and the size of the school served.

Greene (1967) found some relationship between the level of the elementary school in which the counselor worked and the counselor's use of consulting and counseling activities. Counselors at the intermediate grades used more direct contact with students in counseling activities while counselors at the primary level did more consultation with parents and teachers.

The inclusion of situational variables in this study is done mainly on the basis of the theoretical arguments

used by those authors (Aubrey, 1978; Dinkmeyer, 1968; Faust, 1968a) favoring the consultant model because they say it is more efficient. Situational variables used in this investigation are: number of schools served, total student enrollment, and the age range of the students.

In summation, the independent variables to be correlated with counselor preferences for consulting and counseling activities are: sex, age, number of years' teaching experience, number of years' counseling experience, total number of graduate hours, size of student enrollment, number of schools served, age range of the students, anxiety as measured by the Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale (FNE), and personality types as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)--Extroversion-Introversion, Sensing-Intuition, Feeling-Thinking, and Judgement-Perception modes.

Dependent Variables

The dependent variables consist of six factors pertaining to each counselor's preference for both consulting and counseling and also each counselor's frequency of performing counseling and consulting activities. Each subject will receive six scores from self-report instruments designed for this study to collect the preference and frequency data. The instruments (Counseling-Consulting Surveys #1 and #2) will be described in detail in Chapter III. The six scores are defined in the next section.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions of counseling and consulting were taken from the ACES-ASCA (1966) statement, and they appear on the survey questionnaires.

Counseling. Individual counseling is the process by which the counselor establishes with a person a relationship which enables that person to have better self-understanding, to set goals and develop self-direction in moving toward those goals.

Group counseling is the process by which the counselor establishes relationships with a small group of people enabling them to communicate with each other, to learn about themselves, to set goals and develop self-direction in moving toward those goals.

Consulting. Consultation is the procedure through which the counselor talks with parents, teachers, principals and other adults significant in the life of the child to effect change in home and school situations which influence the child's development. It is the process of sharing with another person or group of persons information and ideas, of combining knowledge into new patterns, of making mutually agreed upon decisions which will benefit the child, the family and the educational community.

The remaining definitions identify the elements of the survey questionnaires that were developed for this study.

Counseling Frequency Index (CFI). This score is tabulated on the Frequency Questionnaire (Survey #1), and reports how frequently a counselor uses counseling type activities.

Consulting Frequency Index (CtFI). This score is tabulated on the Frequency Questionnaire (Survey #1) and reports how frequently a counselor uses consulting activities.

Frequency Difference (F-Diff.). This is a weighted score which represents the difference between a counselor's frequency of doing counseling and frequency of doing consulting activities.

Counseling Preference Scale (CPS). This score on the Preference Questionnaire (Survey #2) reports the importance a counselor perceives in the list of counseling activities.

Consulting Preference Scale (CtPS). This score is tabulated from the Preference Questionnaire (Survey #2), and reports the counselor's preferences for consulting activities.

Preference Difference (P-Diff.). This is a weighted score which represents the difference between a counselor's preference for counseling and preference for doing consulting activities.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE AND RELATED RESEARCH

There are four major areas of literature and research pertinent to this study. First, a review of counselor role and functions is given, then a correlational study (Terrill, 1969) of counselor characteristics and role preference is presented. The third section describes, defines, and outlines the consultation process. Finally, consulting and counseling processes are compared, and their relation to leadership is discussed.

Role of the Elementary Counselor

The elementary counselor's role revolves around the three major functions of counseling, consulting, and coordinating. The exact emphasis that is placed on each function has been discussed in the literature (Eckerson & Smith, 1962; Hill & Luckey, 1969; Martinson & Smallenburg, 1958), and there has been some research directed at identifying factors and activities associated with the role of the elementary counselor.

Many studies have surveyed the role and functions of school counselors as perceived by other groups--administrators, teachers, parents and students. These studies indicate that while there is agreement on the general activities which should be implemented by an elementary

counselor, there is not always agreement on the order of priority for each function (Brown & Pruett, 1967; Fortier, 1967; McDougall & Reitan, 1963; Sweeney, 1966).

It appears that counseling is listed as the most important function of school counselors with consulting usually next (Hill & Luckey, 1969). Smith and Eckerson (1966) accumulated data which showed conflicting attitudes concerning the counseling and consulting activities of Child Development Consultants as perceived by building principals. In this survey of more than 5,000 principals a higher percentage of respondents indicated that CDC's in their school(s) used consulting activities than used counseling. Consulting with parents was used by 83.3% of the CDC's and teacher consultation was indicated by 78.9%. Child counseling was done by 78.2%; group guidance received 36.16% and play therapy, 6.51%. Conflicting with those results, however, is the data reported about the amount of time devoted to each activity. In this instance the principals reported that CDC's spent 76.8% of their time in counseling and only 3.1% and 1.6% of the time in teacher and parent consultation respectively. So while they said consultation as an activity was done by more CDC's, the actual amount of time was overwhelmingly spent in counseling as opposed to consulting functions. No explanation is provided in the report which accounts for this difference. However, the Child Development Consultants

were comprised of counselors, social workers and psychologists, and it is possible that the roles of the latter two groups may include more direct family and teacher contact which would help to increase the percentage of consultation activities, while the counselors probably spent more time in the schools working directly with children. So when principals responded to the survey they recognized that all three groups did consultation, but the activity they observed most often in their schools was child counseling.

Hill and Luckey (1969) provided a thorough review of published and unpublished surveys which explored the role and functions of elementary counselors. One study they discussed was done in Ohio in 1964 (p. 124). Identification of 31 full-time counselors in this study showed that group testing was considered a significant activity by the highest percentage of counselors, followed by parent conferences and referral services. The functions receiving the lowest percentages were guidance and research activities.

A national survey (McKellar, 1963) of 183 counselors showed that over 75% of that group reported they performed the following activities:

--counseling with individual children,

--teacher conferences and educational activities for understanding children's needs and developmental characteristics,

--parent conferencing,

--agency referrals (Hill & Luckey, p. 125).

In 1967, Greene surveyed elementary counselors across the nation using an inventory of 104 counselor functions. A total of 1188 counselors completed his questionnaire. Of this group 65% were full-time, certified counselors, 500 of whom were women. Over half of the subjects served one school while the remaining counselors worked with two to five schools. Over 75% of this group served more than 750 students, and 24% had a case load of between 250 and 749.

Greene (1967) noticed a large difference between functions performed at the upper and lower grades in the elementary schools. More direct contacts with children were found in the intermediate grades, and in the primary grades counselors spent a higher percentage of time consulting with parents and teachers. Hill and Luckey (1969) listed 25 functions reported by Greene (1967) which were performed by more than half the sample in his study. In some instances Greene avoided using either the term consulting or counseling in his questionnaire, and used other descriptors such as "conference with . . ." or "help the teacher . . ." (Hill & Luckey, p. 127). In those items, either counseling or consulting processes could be substituted and thus there is some ambiguity about Greene's survey as it relates to counseling,

consulting, and coordination functions. The few items which used either the term counseling or consulting provided confirmation for these functions. Over 70% of the counselors in both primary and intermediate schools said they provide individual counseling for children. Counseling with parents was performed by 53% of the counselors at both levels. Consulting with parents received 66% from primary and intermediate counselors, and teacher consultation was listed by 88% of both groups. Greene's (1967) results demonstrated that the most common functions (in both primary and intermediate grades)were referral services.

In one of the most comprehensive published studies, Foster (1967) surveyed the role and functions of elementary counselors as perceived by teachers, principals, counselors, and counselor educators. He developed the Elementary School Counselor Questionnaire which consisted of 84 items denoting counselor functions, and administered it to a sample of five groups of educators: 100 elementary teachers, 90 elementary administrators, 100 secondary counselors, 80 elementary counselors, and 88 counselor educators. Results indicated that all five groups ranked counseling activities as the most important function that an elementary counselor performs. Surprisingly, the group of elementary counselors ranked consulting activity much lower than did either administrators, secondary counselors or counselor educators. One reason for this may be found

in the questionnaire itself. As with Greene's (1967) instrument, there is not a clear distinction between counseling and consulting items. While the term "counseling" is used in a few items, the "consulting" term is not used at all. Several items which were probably intended by the author to represent the consulting function use the phrase, "Conduct . . ." which may have been misunderstood by respondents. Braden et al. (1966) used this questionnaire with elementary counselors, principals, counselor educators, and state supervisors, and found results similar to Foster's (1967). Elementary counselors rated "teacher type" activities second to counseling activities while the other three groups chose counseling first and then consulting. It is possible that these discrepancies occurred because the elementary counselors were reporting what they do, while other groups were reporting what "ideally" should be done. Some studies have shown that when counselors complete surveys reporting both their ideal and actual responses to certain function, there is a significant difference between the two sets of responses (Hitchcock, 1953; Terrill, 1969). This says that counselors are not necessarily doing what they think is important. There has not been any research yet which has asked why counselors do not always perform what they believe to be important functions. Those factors which may hamper or hinder counselors in choosing certain functions need to be

studied. The personality, biographic and situational variables investigated in this present study may be a beginning to finding some of the answers.

A study (Leonard, 1975) of North Carolina elementary counselors reported results similar to these earlier findings. Leonard (1975) used a modification of Raines' (1964) questionnaire in his survey of educational professionals which included 168 full-time elementary counselors. The questionnaire focused on eight major areas:

--testing,

--maintaining student records,

--orientation for students,

--case studies,

--home visitations,

--responsibilities in the instructional program,

--coordinating and providing referral services,

--counseling and consulting services to students, parents and teachers.

Seventy specific activities were used to describe the eight areas.

The results of the survey showed counselors preferring to do referral types of activities first (70.6%) and counseling and consulting activities second (69.4%). When the data of the counselor group were combined with principals' and teachers' responses, however, counseling and consulting were shown to be the most important areas.

Unfortunately, this study did not provide a breakdown between counseling and consulting functions. On Leonard's (1975) questionnaire, the section pertaining to counseling and consulting contains 14 items. The term counseling is used in two items and the word consulting is not found at all. So while the information supports the belief that counseling and consulting together are important functions, it does not indicate whether one process is favored over the other.

A common concern inherent in the surveys reviewed for this study is the lack of descriptors which show either the differences or similarities between the counseling and consulting processes. This void helps to support the need for research which will study counselor preferences for either of these functions. Such research would contribute to the clarification of theoretical differences between the two processes and to the understanding that either process could be used in activities with similar goals and objectives.

Counselor Role Perception and Counselor Characteristics

Though the few surveys reviewed in the previous section are indications of an effort to describe the elementary counselor's role and functions, few studies seem to exist which identify specific counselor functions and relate them to counselor traits and characteristics.

Terrill's (1969) study was one attempt to examine correlates of counselor role perceptions. The intent was to study factors which relate to a counselor's ability to function the way that person wanted to function. While this intent seems quite similar to the questions posed in this study, it is important to note that Terrill did not examine counselor preferences for specific processes, such as counseling and consulting, but rather generally measured counselor role perception by administering the Counselor Job Function Questionnaire. This instrument suffers from the same weaknesses as other survey instruments reviewed previously. There are no clear indications of the similarities and differences between counseling and consulting processes which have been discussed in the literature.

Despite this concern, Terrill's (1969) study is worth reviewing because of the relationships demonstrated between some of the variables and counselor role perception. The assumption is made that if these relationships exist, then perhaps there may be relationships with more specific preferences that can be examined.

Terrill (1969) used subjects from 20 secondary schools (10 junior and 10 senior high). They consisted of 20 principals and 58 counselors. Each subject completed the Counselor Job Function Questionnaire, a Personal Data Sheet, and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Counselors

also completed a Perceived Administrator Expectation Response. The Counselor Job Function Questionnaire was answered twice by each participant. They were asked to give both an Actual and Ideal response.

Although this study provided much analysis of the differences between counselor and principal responses, only the results pertaining to counselor characteristics as correlates to counselor role perceptions are listed here:

1. There was a significant difference between the Actual and Ideal responses of counselors.

2. Counselors with more than seven years' counseling experience tended to perform more like their Ideal role than counselors with less experience.

3. Counselors with seven or more years' teaching experience had higher administrative expectations.

4. More training in guidance (college credits) correlated positively with similarity between Actual and Ideal role perceptions. Also, guidance training showed a trend that was negatively correlated with perceived administrator expectations.

Terrill's (1969) findings included interesting results of personality characteristics as correlates of role perception. Though his findings on the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator indicate a pattern for the EFNP (Extrovert-Feeling-Intuitive-Perceiving) type in the sample of

secondary counselors, it is important to note that the other psychological processes were also frequently chosen. In fact, by looking at a frequency distribution of counselor preferences across the eight psychological processes included in the MBTI, only the Thinking and Feeling modes show a great difference between each other, and considering the instability of the T-F scale (Carskadon, 1977; Stricker & Ross, 1964) some question of that difference may be warranted. In the frequency distribution reported by Terrill (1969), Extroversion was 35 and Introversion, 23, which was a 12-point difference; the Intuitive mode was 14 points higher than Sensing; Perceiving was only 4 points greater than Judging; and Feeling was 30 more than Thinking.

The following differences, as they relate to role perception, were noted:

1. Preference by counselors for the intuitive process related to a perception of ideal roles that were higher than those counselors who preferred sensing processes.

2. Counselors who desired administrative positions preferred judging processes significantly more than perceiving processes.

3. Counselors who completed more than four graduate credits in administration demonstrated a preference for sensing over intuition.

Female counselors preferred feeling processes at a significantly higher level than males, and males tended towards sensing while females preferred intuition processes.

These findings may have implications for the present study. If, as the literature suggests (Aubrey, 1978), the consulting process is a more direct method of providing information, exploring new alternatives to problem-solving, negotiating within the system, collaborating with other professionals, and educating others to use human relation skills, then a preference for consulting might mean a more realistic perception of role. If so, that preference could be demonstrated by choosing the Sensing mode, as Terrill's (1969) results suggest. Or, a preference for a more directive process might correlate with administrative desires and abilities, and thereby show a tendency towards Judging modes rather than Perceiving. Therefore, if there is a difference between counselors in their preferences for consulting and counseling processes, it could be reflected in their psychological processes as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator.

Consulting: Definition and Historical Development

While the counseling function has been described and researched in many studies, this has not been true of consultation. Research has barely begun, and the literature only recently has focused attention on the consulting process (Kurpius, 1978).

The passage of the Community Mental Health Act in 1963 helped to promote interest in the consultation process, and recognize it as a viable process for influencing change in our social institutions. As more professionals have become involved with the consulting process, its meaning and uses have been broadened. In the early 1950's, consultation was seen as a process which provided direct service to a person or group of people (Susselman, 1950). Caplan's (1970) work is considered the major influence in broadening the consultant's role and involving the consultee in the process (Rogawski, 1978). Though Caplan's model of consultation was directed at mental health centers, it initiated interest which expanded its usefulness to many organizations, including the schools.

This expanded interest has generated many new ideas and theories about the consulting process and the consultant's role. For example, Kurpius and Robinson (1978) have outlined five different views of the consultant's role. The first is that of problem solver. This is referred to as the expert mode of consultation (Schein, 1969). In this role the consultant takes responsibility for solving the problem and provides expert answers for the consultee. Similar to this first role is the prescriptive mode (Kurpius & Brubaker, 1976) in which the consultant reviews the problems, finds the answers, and then recommends solutions to the consultee. However, the consultant does

not assume responsibility for solving the problem. A third role can be as a trainer or educator. Consulting with teachers about child management techniques is an example of this mode. Another role filled by a consultant is that of negotiator or mediator. And, finally, Kurpius and Robinson (1978) discuss the consultant's role as a "collaborator who forms egalitarian relationships with the consultees to bring about change" (p. 322). The collaborator is viewed as a facilitator of the consulting process.

Most of the functions outlined above are considered to be important ones for elementary counselors. Aubrey (1978) recently stressed the collaborator and educator/trainer roles. The push for the consulting model has been particularly strong at the elementary level, because although child counseling continues to be advocated, a greater emphasis is being placed on parent and teacher consultation in order to involve those adults who are significant in the child's daily life.

The consulting process is designed to meet the needs of a wider group rather than limiting the counselor to a traditional one-to-one relationship. This view places the child into the total learning environment, which in turn becomes the client (Dinkmeyer, 1973a). The counselor is therefore responsible for a developmental guidance program that personalizes and humanizes the learning process for all children. Consulting with parents, teachers, and

administrators assists children in understanding themselves, their peers, their responsibilities and obligations to the social group.

Not all authors and workers in elementary counseling share the enthusiasm for the consulting process. The debate may have its origin in a major philosophical question (Faust, 1968a). There has always been great concern among counselors about the concept of personal integrity and autonomy for the client. That the student needs to be helped, guided and accepted is the view of many counselors who adopt the existential, client-centered, and humanistic philosophies. Patterson (1967) is one author who has questioned the emphasis on the consulting role. He believes that the importance of the intimate contact involved in counseling needs to be stressed. The belief that other professionals, such as sociologists, should be employed to do consulting, so that the counselor can counsel, has been voiced by some authors (Boy & Pine, 1969). Mayer (1967) favors the counseling mode because he believes it is the best way to know the child. Counseling provides first-hand information as opposed to the consultant-consultee-client process. Mayer also disclaims the opinion that counseling is not as appropriate for very young children, and he cites research studies which have demonstrated the effectiveness of counseling with children.

At the other extreme is the belief in direct intervention, advising, and possibly manipulating the situation to change child behavior. The consulting model tends to be favored more by those who belong to this school of thought. However, to associate consultation entirely with the tenets of behaviorism and operant conditioning may unjustly limit its meaning and usefulness. Some schools of psychology and counseling theory, such as Adlerian, advocate the consulting process as a means of educating parents and teachers about the psychodynamics involved in their relationships with children. From the process of education these adults can then be trained in specific techniques of relating to and raising children.

Dinkmeyer (1968) and Faust (1968a) are two authors who have emphasized consulting as an efficient use of the school counselor's time. By consulting with teachers and parents, the counselor can productively change the learning environment in ways that will help all the children. Also, training teachers to work with large numbers of children helps to ease the demands for counseling services in crisis situations. The choice between the consulting and counseling processes may not be only a philosophical one, but also a practical one that is dependent on the setting in which the counselor is functioning.

Defining consultation. In their article introducing the special consultation issues of Personnel and Guidance

Journal, Kurpius and Robinson (1978) state, "There is no one broad, universally accepted definition of consultation" (p. 321). While this may be true for the consultation process in general, there is an understanding of what consulting means in the field of elementary counseling. Perhaps that's because, as Aubrey (1978) suggested, consulting is not new in the elementary schools. Teachers at that level have, for many years, consulted with curriculum, reading, or other experts.

Although some authors have avoided the term consultant due to the implication of "expertise," others readily admit that the consulting process is one in which a counselor accepts the responsibility of being an "expert" and of dispensing information (Faust, 1968a). Often this role is performed in collaboration with two or more persons such as a parent, teacher, or administrator for the benefit of the child. Brown and Srebalus (1972) cited Dinkmeyer's (1968) definition as perhaps one of the more comprehensive interpretations of the consulting process:

> Consulting is the procedure through which teachers, parents, principals and other adults significant in the life of the child communicate. Consultation involves sharing information and ideas, coordinating, comparing observations, providing a sounding board and developing tentative hypotheses for action. In contrast to the superior-inferior relationship involved in some consultation with specialists, emphasis is placed on joint planning and collaboration. The purpose is to develop tentative recommendations which fit the uniqueness of the child, the teacher, and the setting. (p. 167)

It is generally believed that although, as Dinkmeyer indicated, the consulting process is not a superior-inferior relationship, it is one to which the counselor brings a degree of expertise (Brown & Srebalus, 1972). The counselor as consultant has knowledge which helps in assisting parents, teachers and administrators develop an atmosphere in the school and at home which enhances the child's growth.

The ACES-ASCA joint committee (1966) outlined the three major processes used by elementary counselors and described consulting as follows:

> Consultation is the process of sharing with another person or group of persons information and ideas, of combining knowledge into new patterns, and of making mutually agreed upon decisions about the next steps needed. The Child Development Consultant, as a professional person with background in child growth and development and the behavioral sciences, helps parents to grow in understanding of their children in the school situation. He may provide insight for the parent about the child's potential, his motivation, and his unmet needs. In turn the Child Development Consultant learns from parents about their children and offers them a chance to express their feelings about the child and the school. (Hill & Luckey, 1969, p. 137)

As mentioned in both of the above definitions, the elementary counselor uses consulting processes with many different people. Dinkmeyer (1968) extends his definition beyond the parents and includes teachers and administrators in the consulting process. As with counseling, consulting is done individually or in groups. Generally, consulting takes place over a shorter period of time or with fewer

number of sessions than counseling does (Faust, 1968a). This distinction, however, is not always clear since consulting can sometimes also last for several sessions or for a longer period of time.

Aubrey (1978) stated that if the process of consultation is to play an important part in the functioning of elementary counselors, then specific models need to be designed and implemented. He presented four possible models. The first is the consultant as a resource obtainer. An example of this model would be the role of chairperson for the pupil personnel team. This person would be instrumental in obtaining and distributing resources for teachers, parents, and students.

The second model is the consultant as a systems negotiator. In this role the counselor is motivated to see that the system works for the child and parents. Parents often need this assistance in dealing with teachers and administrators.

The teacher collaborator model has been mentioned earlier in this paper. It is a consulting model many elementary counselors are already using. Aubrey (1978) claimed that increased problems and frustrations, as well as added responsibilities brought on by Public Law 94-142, heightened the importance of this model.

Consultant as developmental educator is the fourth model Aubrey (1978) discusses. It emphasizes the

counselor's role as a change agent within the curriculum of the school. In this role the counselor will educate teachers and administrators about the normal development of children and what curriculum and policy changes might best enhance that development. The consultant as developmental educator is therefore seen as being directly involved in educational changes which require a strong leadership role.

Several authors have discussed various consulting models that are useful in elementary programs (Dinkmeyer, 1971, 1973; Dustin & Burden, 1972; Faust, 1968a; Mickelson & Davis, 1977). As discussed previously these models are designed to involve teachers, administrators, parents and children in the process of finding alternatives and solutions to academic, behavioral, and general developmental concerns. The models describe the consultant as an active and directive participant in the change process.

> Consulting adds the new dimension of optimizing those conditions in the individual's environment that contribute to the person's effectiveness and development. As a behavioral consultant, it becomes possible for the counselor . . . to optimize the effectiveness of every teacher in the building. (Dustin & Burden, 1972, p. 14)

Other authors (Carlson, 1969; Dinkmeyer, 1971b, 1973) would add the ability to optimize parent effectiveness to the above quotation. Consultation with these people can be done individually or in groups just as counseling is done. In fact, the consulting and counseling processes have

much in common. The ultimate goal of both is the same--to help people in their total development. Naturally, many of the communication skills and techniques that are used in consulting are also applicable in counseling. Communication and listening skills are some examples of the similarity (Munson, 1970) between these two processes. It is because of the communication skills needed in the consulting process, that Fullmer and Bernard (1972) believe consultation is a natural role for trained counselors. Their skills in facilitating communication and their understanding of the dynamics of interpersonal relations provide counselors with the background to do consultation.

With few exceptions, consulting and counseling take place with the same people. Examination of the literature and activity lists used by researchers to survey counselor functions (Foster, 1967; Greene, 1967; Nelson & Muro, 1971) indicate that there is some overlapping in the consulting and counseling processes. All of these aspects considered, it would seem that counselors would be comfortable with both processes. However, there may be other factors that inhibit some counselors from genuinely accepting and performing both functions. For example, the consulting models suggested by Aubrey (1978) demand strong leadership traits and abilities as well as counseling/consulting skills and techniques. This leadership factor may not automatically come with the training received in

counseling education. Also, leadership qualities may be related to factors such as personality and situational variables which are not related to the training a counselor has received.

Considering the communication skills used in both the consulting and counseling functions and the implied leadership role of each function that is found in the literature, it may be useful to compare the two within a leadership framework.

Counseling, Consulting and Leadership

The debate over the differences and similarities of counseling and consulting resembles the historic efforts to distinguish counseling from psychotherapy. For years, authors have discussed the goals, methods and clients related to each of these processes with the same fervor that writers attack the counseling-consulting issue (Stefflre & Grant, 1972). Generally, proponents on both sides agree with the position that elementary school counseling should be developmental rather than crisis oriented (Lewis, 1970). The basic question is which process should be used to facilitate the child's development?

In trying to answer that question many authors have speculated about the differences that may exist between counseling and consulting functions. Munson (1970) has described counseling as more of a remedial function than consulting, which is more preventative. This distinction

has also been made between counseling and psychotherapy. Hahn and MacLean (1955) said that counseling is a preventative method, whereas psychotherapy emphasizes remediation. However, it is generally believed that while consultation is used more as a means of problem solving before crisis intervention is needed, counseling is often used to remediate problems which have impeded the acquiring of normal coping skills and the occurrence of developmental processes.

Faust (1968a) outlined two primary differences between counseling and consulting. These differences are in the (1) focus, and (2) relationships that are developed within the school (p. 32). In consultation, the focus is on some unit external to the consultee. For example, in consulting with a teacher the external unit may be the instructional method which would be best for a particular child. Usually the focus is on a problem-solving task rather than on a person.

A second major difference between the two processes theorized by Faust (1968a) is the kind of relationships formed outside the counseling and consulting settings. He contended that, because there is focus on external objects and events in consulting, the consultee does not take much risk and need not invest as much trust as is necessary in counseling relationships. However, no significant research has been found to substantiate this belief. In fact, there

is some disagreement about this point in the literature as indicated by Kurpius and Robinson's (1978) discussion of the various skills a consultant needs.

> Initially a consultant must be a skilled relationship builder, earning the consultee's trust and confidence. The basic counseling skills of listening, attending, reflecting accurately, and probing objectively help to create this open consultant-consultee relationship. (p. 322)

Faust (1968a) further claims that since the personal investment and development of trust is not as great in a consulting process, the counselor as consultant can develop quite different relationships within the school.

> The consultant is freer to move in many of the normal day-to-day competitive environments of school personnel. He can attend faculty meetings and school social events, take part in conversation in the teacher's lounge, etc. If on the other hand, a counseling relationship may be necessary in the future, the counselor will not enter into these school settings. Teachers, for example, must know that what they say in counseling cannot be used against them later, in the normal day-to-day competitive relationships of the school. (p. 33)

Again, Faust (1968a) cited no research which supports his belief about this difference between consulting and counseling. It may therefore be assumed that the freedom he describes for the consultant is based on his perceptions of the supposed theoretical differences between the two processes. It would also follow that it is the individual counselor perceptions of counseling and consulting processes which account for some of the theoretical differences that are said to exist between these functions. Such counselor

perceptions may be related to counselor characteristics, personality traits and situational variables.

McGehearty (1968) contends that philosophically the two processes are the same--". . . both processes move toward helping a person to help himself" (p. 259). However, although the ultimate goals are similar there are differences in the way the two processes are initiated (McGehearty, 1969). Unlike counseling, which is usually started by the client bringing some important concerns to the counselor, consultation is most often begun by someone other than the client. In many cases the client may never become aware of the consultation that has taken place. A child may never know that his parents attended a series of parenting education programs at the school, but hopefully he would be affected by their participation in the way that they learned to relate to him. In counseling sessions the child would receive direct emotional support and behavioral skills to strengthen his relationships with his parents and siblings.

In attempting to distinguish between counseling and consulting processes, some authors have related differences between the two as possible differences between counselors. McGehearty (1969) discussed aspects which may, in fact, be more descriptive of differences between counselors than between counseling and consulting functions:

> In reality, the counselor is also attempting to change the way the client views himself and his functions in life. Some counselors will deny that they are setting out to change or even to help others, but this is a question of semantics, not actuality. Most counselors who deny that they are attempting to change others are leaning over backwards to assure themselves that they are not being authoritarian, advice-giving or disrespectful of the rights of others. The consultant, on the other hand, is more open in stating that he is an expert. He is willing to accept the responsibility that goes with decisions. The counselor who denies the responsibility for influencing decision making is evading the fact that--although the final decision is made by the client--he is part of the process. (p. 156)

If counselor/consultants have to contend with the semantic difference, as McGehearty (1969) suggested, the decision appears to be one of leadership choice influenced by counselor perceptions of counseling and consulting activities. In concluding his discussion of different kinds of counseling, Arbuckle (1967) said that what seems to be different kinds of counseling may actually be differences in counselors. He explored the similarities between counseling and consulting processes and concluded that maybe what we have is two types of counselors instead of two different processes.

If the choice between counseling and consulting is a reflection of counselor differences, then the question raised is, how and why do counselors choose between the two? Brown and Srebalus (1972), in their comparison of counseling and consulting, attempted an answer to that question:

> His [counselor] determination of what to emphasize will be influenced by his own knowledge and skill, by the time available to him, and by the goals which he establishes for the program. (p. 128)

This is an interesting statement, which provides speculation about what factors may relate to a counselor's decision concerning the activities to be used in the counseling program. It is speculation because there has been no research into the question of what type of counselor has a preference for particular counseling or consulting activities. Brown and Srebalus (1972) mention some variables related to counselor characteristics (knowledge and skill) and situational factors (time available), but they neglect other traits, such as personality, which need to be considered if the choice between counseling and consulting is to be viewed as a difference in leadership roles.

Counseling and consulting activities can be related to leadership roles. Several authors (Nash, 1969; Stogdill, 1950; Tead, 1935) have written of leadership as a process of influencing people toward behavior changes, and both counseling and consulting have that as an ultimate goal.

Stogdill's (1974) exhaustive review of leadership literature and research cites many authors who have identified and described different types of leadership. These types have been defined using various traits and characteristics of leaders, situational factors, and

functions that are performed. All of these variables are considered in the present study in an attempt to isolate specific factors which demonstrate consistent positive relationships with a kind of leadership (Stogdill, 1974). Hollander (1978), for example, has stated that traits are dynamic rather than static variables, and as such need to be considered in relation to the leader's role and existing situation (p. 23).

In essence, to understand why leaders choose certain roles and behaviors, research needs to examine several factors together. This is the intent of the proposed study. It investigates counselor (leader) preference for counseling-consulting activities (leadership behaviors or styles) and relates those preferences to counselor characteristics, personality types, anxiety traits, and situational factors.

Summary

This section reviewed four areas of research and literature which relate to the questions raised in this study.

Studies of the role of elementary counselors indicate that the counseling process is generally considered the most important with consulting close behind. Some results demonstrate that the consulting process may be used more at the primary level than at the intermediate level of elementary schools. It was noted that the instruments

used in past surveys did not provide descriptors which identified the similarities and/or differences between counseling and consulting.

Research has demonstrated some relationships between counselor characteristics and a general perception of counselor role. The assumption was made that if there is a relationship between role perception and counselor characteristics, then similar relationships may exist with preferences for specific counseling and consulting activities.

The development of the consultation process was reviewed as well as its integration into models for elementary counseling programs. Finally, definitions of consulting were outlined and comparisons with the counseling process were made. Supposed theoretical differences between the two processes were discussed as were the similarities that exist between counseling and consulting activities. Those similarities include the same communication and listening skills used in both processes and comparable goals and objectives which exist for both counseling and consulting. Speculation is raised that the choice between counseling and consulting may be a preference for a leadership style. Literature sources, which indicate that individual characteristics and situational factors are combined influences of leadership style, are noted.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the methods and procedures used in this study. The sections discuss subject selection, the instruments developed and administered, and a description of the statistical computer programs used in the data analysis.

Subjects

The subjects in this study were sampled from the total number of elementary counselors in North Carolina who were employed during the 1978-1979 school year. A list of the counselors was secured from the North Carolina State Department of Public Instruction in Raleigh. The total population of counselors who served at least one elementary grade (kindergarten through sixth grade) consisted of more than 350 counselors. Random sampling using the table of random digits in Glass and Stanley (1970, p. 510) was done to select 100 subjects from the total list of counselors. Of the 100 counselors who were selected to participate in the survey, 94 returned the questionnaires. A total of 88 returns were complete enough to be included in the study. Six returns had incomplete data or were returned blank by counselors who chose not to participate.

Procedure

Each randomly selected subject was mailed a package of survey questionnaires in April, 1979. A cover letter from the North Carolina Department of Public Instruction Consultant for Elementary Guidance and Counseling was included in the package to encourage participants to complete and return the questionnaires (Appendix A). Also included was a letter of instructions and definitions of counseling and consulting processes (Appendix B). The subjects were told that their responses to this survey would remain anonymous. Their names, addresses or school locations are not used in this final report of the study. Each participant was offered feedback in the form of a brief summary and explanation of their responses. Respondents were asked to answer all the items on each questionnaire.

Each questionnaire was coded for the purpose of providing feedback to respondents and also for follow-up activities which included one postcard mailing to remind participants about completing the questionnaires and one phone call to those counselors who were late returning the surveys. By the middle of June, 1979, a return of 94% had been received and 88 counselors provided sufficient information to be included in the data analysis.

Instruments

Five questionnaires were used to collect data in this study. One instrument was the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator,

a self-report measurement of personality types. A second instrument, the Fear of Negative Evaluation scale (FNE), was used to obtain an anxiety score. The other three questionnaires were developed by this researcher for the study. These instruments were: the Subject Information Sheet; the Frequency Questionnaire (Survey #1); and the Preference Questionnaire (Survey #2).

Subject Information Sheet. This questionnaire asked each subject about biographic and situational information. It was used to collect data on the independent variables--sex, age, number of years' teaching experience, number of years' counseling experience, number of graduate hours completed, number of schools served, number of students served, the highest grade level served by counselors, and the number of grades they served. The number of grades was coded with the numerals one (1) through thirteen (13). This covered the possibility of a counselor serving all seven elementary grades (K-6) as well as junior and senior high grade levels. Sex was coded as a dummy variable (male = 1; female = 2) while the other variables were assigned those values reported by the respondents. A sample of the Subject Information Sheet is in Appendix C.

Counseling-Consulting Frequency Indexes and Preference Scales. Since the review of literature in Chapter II indicated that few survey instruments found in past research have used the terms counseling or consulting to describe

distinct processes, it was necessary to develop such an instrument. Two survey questionnaires were designed for this study. The purpose behind the development of these instruments was to present to the sampled counselors several counseling and consulting activities which they could evaluate and indicate how important each process was and how frequently they used counseling or consulting function. It was assumed that as respondents chose various activities, they would be indicating a preference for one process over the other or an equal preference for both.

In order to find appropriate activities, a review of several articles and studies which had compiled lists of counselor functions was done (Braden, et al., 1966; Brown & Pruett, 1967; Farrah, 1966; Hill & Luckey, 1969; Johnson, 1970; May, 1976; Muro & Oelke, 1968; Nelson & Muro, 1971; Roemmich, 1967). A total of 24 counseling and consulting activities were initially compiled from this review of research surveys. These activities were used with children, parents, and teachers in both individual and group settings. There were twelve counseling and twelve consulting functions with much overlapping and similarity. Each of the 24 items began with either the label "counseling" or the term "consulting." The 24 activities listed on the Frequency Questionnaire (frequency of doing counseling and consulting) were exactly the same as those on the Preference Questionnaire (importance of counseling and consulting).

First pilot study. Three separate pilot studies were run in the process of developing the Frequency and Preference Questionnaires. The first pilot study was done with 22 elementary counselors in the Greensboro City Schools, Greensboro, North Carolina. The purpose of this pilot study was to have practicing counselors react to the activities listed on the questionnaires. Counselors were asked to give feedback and comments concerning the wording and content of the listed activities and the format used in responding to those activities. The second purpose of this pilot study was to check the reliability of the instruments using a test-retest procedure. A four-week waiting period was used between administrations.

On the Frequency Questionnaire the elementary counselors were instructed to indicate how often they used each counseling and consulting activity in their counseling programs. They were asked to rate each activity using a scale from zero to four where 0 = Never, and 4 = Very Often. On the Preference Questionnaire the counselors were instructed to read each activity and pick the ten most important activities ranking them from the most important (#1) through the tenth most important activity.

Counselor ratings on the Frequency Questionnaire were added up on the counseling activities and on the consulting activities. This formed two separate scores: the Counseling Frequency Index (CFI) and the Consulting Frequency Index

(CtFI). On the Preference Questionnaire the activities ranked by the counselors were assigned values in reverse order of the rankings, using the formula: $R_i = n - r_i + 1$ (Guilford, 1954). Ranked counseling activities were summed to form a score titled: Counseling Preference Scale (CPS). The ranked consulting activities were totaled which provided a score called the Consulting Preference Scale (CtPS). Table 1 shows the test-retest reliability coefficients for the Frequency Indexes and Preference Scales found in the first pilot study.

Table 1

Test-Retest Reliability Coefficients for the First Pilot Study

Index or Scale	r_{xy}
Counseling Frequency Index (CFI)	.70
Consulting Frequency Index (CtFI)	.65
Counseling Preference Scale (CPS)	.77
Consulting Preference Scale (CtPS)	.77

There were two concerns about the instruments following the first pilot study. The first concern was with the use of forced-choice rankings on the Preference Scales which created two dependent scores (CPS and CtPS) that were perfectly correlated. Since the statistical analyses to be

used in this study included correlational procedures, and the purpose of the study was to investigate differences between counseling and consulting processes, consideration was given to a scale similar to the rating method used on the Frequency Questionnaire which allowed respondents to evaluate every item on the instrument instead of ranking only the 10 most important.

A second concern with the first pilot study was the high correlation found ($r = .69$) between the frequency of doing counseling activities and how often the counselors said they used consulting activities. The question was whether the two indexes were actually that highly correlated or that counselors tended to rate themselves with consistent values on both the counseling and consulting processes. That is, counselors who used high values when indicating a frequency of doing counseling also showed a tendency to use high values on the consulting activities. To investigate the nature of this correlation, a third score was developed for the Frequency and Preference Scales. The two scores created were Difference Scores. For example, the Frequency Difference Score (F-Diff.) was the difference between the Counseling Frequency Index (CFI) and the Consulting Frequency Index (CtFI). To eliminate negative integers, the Frequency Difference Scores and the Preference Difference Scores were weighted by adding the total number of possible points on either the counseling or consulting scores. Since

there were 12 counseling and 12 consulting activities and the highest possible rating that could be assigned to any activity was 4, then the total possible points for any counseling or consulting score was 48 (12 X 4 = 48). Therefore the formula for computing the Frequency Difference Score was: F-Diff. = CFI - CtFI + 48, and the formula for the Preference Difference score was: P-Diff. = CPS + CtPS + 48.

Second pilot study. A second pilot study was run to check on the test-retest reliability of the Preference Scales using a rating method of responding to every item. Seventeen graduate students in a counselor education course at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro participated in this pilot study, and the test-retest was done over a four-week period. The three Preference scores attained the following reliability coefficients: Counseling Preference Scale, .90; Consulting Preference Scale, .83; Preference Difference Score, .31.

Generally, the counselor and graduate student reactions to the Frequency Questionnaire and the Preference Questionnaire were positive. Some minor suggestions were made pertaining to the wording and clarity of a few items. However, major concern was raised by counselor educators who reviewed the instruments about the similarity between some of the counseling and consulting activities. Although this

similarity was done intentionally, it was believed that since the purpose of the study was to investigate theoretical differences between counseling and consulting processes, the resemblances between activities could be confusing to respondents, and that confusion could contaminate the results making it difficult to determine any differences. This rationale was given support by the low reliability coefficient found in the second pilot study for the Preference Difference Score ($r = .31$).

As a result of this concern, the 24 listed activities were reviewed. Since most of the literature which has defined and described the consulting process maintains that the main thrust of consulting is with parents, teachers, and other significant adults, those activities which listed consulting with children were eliminated from the questionnaires. A few other items which were also duplications and tended to confuse the possible theoretical differences between counseling and consulting processes were eliminated or revised to clarify the differences between the two functions. After this review, fourteen items remained. There were seven counseling and seven consulting activities.

Third pilot study. A third pilot study was run on these revised instruments with another graduate class in counselor education. Twenty-one students in a counseling theories course participated in a test-retest procedure. They were instructed to respond to the questionnaires as if they

were employed as full-time school counselors. A four-week interval was used between the administrations of the instruments. Table 2 gives the reliability coefficients found in this pilot study.

Table 2

Test-Retest Reliability Coefficients for the Revised Frequency Indexes and Preference Scales

Indexes and Scales	r_{xy}
Counseling Frequency Index (CFI)	.79
Consulting Frequency Index (CtFI)	.65
Frequency Difference Score (F-Diff.)	.52
Counseling Preference Scale (CPS)	.60
Consulting Preference Scale (CtPS)	.71
Preference Difference Score (P-Diff.)	.63

It is possible that these reliability coefficients may be low estimates of the instruments' reliability because the subjects were not practicing school counselors, but instead were counseling graduate students who may not have been familiar with either the theoretical or practical uses of the counseling and consulting processes. However, the coefficients found in this third pilot study appeared sufficiently strong to use these revised Frequency and Preference questionnaires in the proposed study. The list of

seven counseling and seven consulting activities were used on the final questionnaires.

The elementary counselors randomly sampled for this study were instructed to indicate on the Frequency Indexes how often they performed each listed activity. The following scale was used by the subjects to record responses:

0 = Never

1 = Seldom (once a month or less)

2 = Occasionally (a few times a month)

3 = Often (daily)

4 = Very Often (more than once a day)

The numerical responses on the Frequency Questionnaire were totaled for each counselor on the seven counseling activities and then on the seven consulting activities. The score for each process was labeled as follows: Counseling Frequency Index (CFI) and Consulting Frequency Index (CtFI). The highest possible score for either process was 28 (7 X 4 = 28), and the lowest possible score was 0 (7 X 0 = 0). Either Index could receive a score from 0 to 28. The Frequency Difference Score (F-Diff.) was computed with the formula: F-Diff. = CFI - CtFI + 28.

Subjects were instructed to read the list of activities on the Preference Scales and indicate how important each activity was to them by using the following numerical scales:

0 = Not Important

1 = Very Little Importance

2 = Some Importance

3 = Important

4 = Very Important

The numerical responses on the Preference Questionnaire were totaled for each elementary counselor on the seven counseling activities and also on the seven consulting activities. The score for each process was labeled as follows: Counseling Preference Scale (CPS) and Consulting Preference Scale (CtPS). As on the Frequency Indexes, the highest possible score for either counseling preference or consulting preference was 28, and the lowest possible score for either was 0. The Preference Difference Score (P-Diff.) was computed with the formula: P-Diff. = CPS - CtPS + 28.

Both of the questionnaires, therefore, instructed the respondents to use a five-point scale in evaluating each of the 14 listed activities, and three separate and independent scores were computed on each questionnaire. There is some research which indicates that, on survey instruments like the questionnaires designed for this study, five steps (0-4) for untrained raters is an appropriate maximum number (Guilford, 1954).

In summary, there were two questionnaires developed for this study for the purpose of collecting data which could measure the frequency with which counselors used counseling

and consulting processes and to assess how important the counselors believed those processes were.

The final revised questionnaires are shown in Appendices D and E.

Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. One aspect of counselor personality types in this study was measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI, Myers, 1962). This instrument attempts a measurement representation of Jung's (1923) theory of personality types. This theory states that even though human behavior appears varied and inconsistent, it is actually very orderly because of the basic differences in ways that people view and approach the world around them. Jung assumed ". . . that every person has a natural preference for one or the other pole on each of four indices, analogous to a natural preference for right- or left-handedness" (Carlyn, 1977, p. 461).

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator represents the "four indices" as four scales which theoretically measure these dichotomous types: Extroversion-Introversion (D-I); Sensing-Intuition (S-N); Thinking-Feeling (T-F); and Judging-Perceiving (J-P). The Extroversion-Introversion scale presumes to measure an orientation towards people and the surrounding environment, or towards ideas and concepts. The S-N scale indicates either the use of sensory processes or indirect perception through unconscious processes. The Thinking-Feeling scale measures tendencies to

either view problems rationally and impersonally or subjectively and personally. The Judging-Perceiving scale distinguishes between the processes of drawing conclusions and becoming aware of something.

The MBTI is a self-report inventory. Myers (1962) began developing the instrument in the early 1940's, and since that time it has undergone many revisions. Research on the inventory has been extensive, and it is generally considered a useful research and counseling instrument (Mendelsohn, 1965).

The items of the MBTI offer a forced-choice format which is used to determine habitual choices between preferential opposites. Each item has one answer that is weighted for one preference and another answer weighted for the opposite preference. To determine a subject's type, the points for each preference are totalled, providing eight numerical scores which are paired into four types. Each pair is interpreted by identifying the larger of the two scores. For example, a subject with an Extroversion score of 20 and an Introversion score of 15 is typed an extrovert.

Though the results indicate a dichotomous preference, continuous scores can be derived to demonstrate both the direction and power of the preferred type on each scale. From the raw scores on each scale a preference score is

derived using the process described in the MBTI Manual (Myers, 1962, pp. 8-10). To form continuous scores for I, N, F or P the preference score is increased by 100. For E, S, T, or J scores, the continuous score is 100 minus the preference score. Continuous scores are all odd numbers ranging from 33 to 161 with 100 the dividing point between the opposing preferences (Carlyn, 1977, p. 462).

While research of reliability on both dichotomous and continuous scores demonstrates favorable results for both, the studies of continuous scores have generally shown higher reliability coefficients. Stricker and Ross (1964) used a 14-month interval in a test-retest study of 41 male college students, and most scales ranged between .69 and .73 coefficients. The T-F scale had a .48, which was the lowest coefficient. A shorter time interval was recently reported by Carskadon (1977), and the correlation coefficients ranged from .56 for males on the T-F scale to .87 for females on the J-P scale. The Thinking-Feeling scale appears to be the least stable of all the dimensions measured. However, the inventory as a whole has satisfactory test-retest reliability ranging in various studies from .48 to .87 coefficients.

Stricker and Ross (1963) examined internal consistency using both the dichotomous scores and continuous scores, and they found that continuous scores yielded higher coefficients, with a range of .64 to .84. Again the T-F scale

across both sexes was the least reliable regardless of the types of scores used. The reliability studies of the MBTI provide results comparable with reliability coefficients of other leading personality inventories (Stricker & Ross, 1963; Sundberg, 1965).

Intercorrelational studies reviewed by Carlyn (1977) demonstrate that results using both dichotomous scores and continuous scores indicate that the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator measures three dimensions of personality which are independent of each other: Extroversion-Introversion, Sensing-Intuition, and Thinking-Feeling. A fourth dimension, Judging-Perceiving, appears related to one or more of the other scales.

Some researchers have questioned the validity of the MBTI as it purports to measure Jungian typologies (Mendelsohn, 1965). One method of researching the validity question has been to compare the Myers-Briggs with other personality instruments. Steele and Kelly (1976) investigated the Extroversion-Introversion scale on the MBTI and the Eysenck Personality Questionnaire (EPQ; (Eysenck & Eysenck, 1968), which was developed from a behavioral orientation. The authors hypothesized that if these two instruments demonstrated a strong positive correlation on the E-I scale, it would indicate convergent validity, and negative or lower correlations with the other scales on each instrument would be a demonstration of discriminant

validity. Results of the study were similar to previous correlational studies for both instruments. Furthermore, the MBTI Extroversion-Introversion scale correlated with Eysenck's E-I scale at .74 ($p < .001$). This correlation was higher than any of the other inter-scale correlations which ranged from -.27 to .13.

Steele and Kelly (1976) concluded that the significant positive correlations on the E-I scales of the EPQ and MBTI demonstrated that both instruments measure an equivalent area in spite of the different theoretical orientations on which each questionnaire was constructed.

Carlyn's (1977) extensive review of studies relating to the content, predictive, and construct validity of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator concludes that the individual scales of the instrument appear to measure important personality dimensions which are similar to the personality types theorized by Jung. Generally, the MBTI is viewed as a relatively valid and reliable instrument which may be useful in empirical research.

Besides the strength of its reliability and validity, other reasons for using the Myers-Briggs are the theoretical associations some authors have made between psychological types and problem-solving styles (Hellreigel & Slocum, 1975). If there are in fact different problem-solving styles relative to either counseling or consulting processes, such differences may be demonstrated in an individual's

responses and resulting profile of the MBTI. If such a relationship is found, it may provide some evidence for the association between problem solving and personality type, which at this point is only a theoretical issue.

Fear of Negative Evaluation Scale. The Fear of Negative Evaluation (FNE) scale was developed by Watson and Friend (1969) as an attempt to measure one aspect of social-evaluative anxiety. They defined fear of negative evaluation as ". . . apprehension about other's evaluations, distress over their negative evaluations, avoidance of evaluative situations, and the expectation that others would evaluate oneself negatively" (p. 449). Development of the Fear of Negative Evaluation scale resulted in a 30-item true-false questionnaire.

Test-retest data were gathered with a sample of 154 college students. A time interval of one month between administrations was used, and a .78 product-moment correlation was found. A second sample of 29 subjects resulted in a .94 correlation.

Watson and Friend (1969) reported on experimental and correlational data (pp. 452-455) which lend validity to the FNE. Subjects who scored high on the FNE tended to become anxious in evaluative situations, and appeared to avoid situations of disapproval. A study by Arkowitz et al. (1975) gives support to the validity of the FNE by the moderate to high correlation coefficients they reported with

other anxiety scales and the Fear of Negative Evaluation scale. Coefficients ranged from .58 to .71. The Fear of Negative Evaluation scale is contained in Appendix F.

Statistical Reporting and Analysis

The data collected in this study were analyzed using several subprograms of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, Nie, et al., 1975). A .05 level was used in the analysis to determine statistical significance.

The frequencies subprogram was used to describe the group of elementary counselors by compiling their responses to the survey questions, giving frequency distributions of those responses, mean scores, standard deviations and other descriptive data.

The breakdown subprogram was used to describe groups of counselors who indicated a preference for a particular counseling theory. The breakdown was done for each counseling theory group across all the independent and dependent variables, and provided mean scores, standard deviations, and significant F-values which indicated any differences between counseling theory groups.

The t-test procedure of SPSS was used to analyze all the items on the Frequency Indexes and Preference Scales. This subprogram compared all the counseling and consulting activities and the counselor responses to those activities. Comparisons were also made on activities across the Frequency and Preference Questionnaires. Activities on which counselors

indicated their frequency of performance were compared with activities that counselors rated according to their importance. Item mean scores, correlation coefficients, t-values, and levels of significance were given in the t-test procedure.

Two correlational subprograms were used in this study. The Pearson correlation procedure and the multiple regression subprogram of SPSS were used to identify single correlates and the strongest set of six correlates for each of the scores on the Frequency and Preference Questionnaires. The Pearson correlation provided coefficients for all the independent and dependent variables in the study. The multiple regression identified sets of six independent variables which accounted for the most variance in each of the dependent variables: Counseling Frequency Index (CFI); Consulting Frequency Index (CtFI); Frequency Difference (F-Diff.); Counseling Preference Scale (CPS); Consulting Preference Scale (CtPS); and Preference Difference (P-Diff.).

In summary, five subprograms of SPSS were used to analyze data compiled in this survey. The frequency and breakdown procedures were used to describe and categorize data. The Pearson correlation and multiple regression subprograms identified significant correlates between the dependent and independent variables. Finally the t-test procedure was used to analyze and compare responses on the Frequency and Preference Questionnaires which were used to

survey counselor perceptions and counselor use of counseling and consulting processes.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Findings from the statistical procedures used in the study are described in this chapter. The first section contains a description of the sample group of counselors who responded to the survey. These data are from the biographic responses on the Subject Information Sheet as well as from the Fear of Negative Evaluation scale and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator. Also in this section, the responses given by counselors regarding their preferences for a particular counseling theory are used to further describe the sample and also compare groups who preferred different counseling theories.

The second section provides correlational data related to the questions proposed in the study. These data were derived from the Pearson correlation procedure and the multiple regression subprogram of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, Nie et al., 1975).

The final section provides an item analysis and comparison of the Counseling-Consulting Frequency and Preference Questionnaires which were designed and used for this study. The t-test procedure of SPSS was used to compare the fourteen activities listed on the scales, and test for significant differences between the mean scores of each item as well as determine the correlation coefficients between items.

Counselor Characteristics and Situational Factors

In this study, 100 surveys were mailed to a random sample of elementary counselors across the state of North Carolina. A total of 94 (94%) questionnaires were returned and, of those, 88 (88%) were usable in the study. Six returns were not used either because of insufficient data or because the counselor would not participate and returned a blank questionnaire.

Table 3 provides the frequency distributions, mean scores and standard deviations for each counselor characteristic, situation factor, Preference Scale and Frequency Index collected by the questionnaires used in this study.

There were 21 males (23.9%) and 67 females (76.1%) in this sample. The ratio of females to males is greater than that reported in Smith and Eckerson's (1966) early study of Child Development Consultants. However, the percentage of males and females in the present study is similar to what Biggers (1977) found in his sample of 309 elementary counselors in Texas. He reported 19.7% males and 80.3% females (p. 16).

The age range of the sample was from 23 to 65 years with a mean of 33.86 years. This group of counselors is younger than elementary counselors surveyed in earlier studies (Greene, 1967). Almost half of the 88 counselors in this study were under 31 years of age whereas in Greene's sample about 50% of the counselors were between 30 and 45

Table 3

Frequency Distributions, Mean Scores and Standard Deviations for Counselor Characteristics, Situational Factors, Frequency Indexes and Preference Scales

Category	Interval	f	%	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Age	(23-31)	42	47.7		
	(32-39)	31	35.2		
	(40-47)	9	10.2		
	(48-55)	2	2.3		
	(56-65)	4	4.5	33.86	8.28
Years Teaching Experience	(0- 7)	73	83.0		
	(8-14)	11	12.5		
	(15-21)	4	4.5	4.11	4.56
Years Counseling Experience	(1- 6)	75	85.2		
	(7-12)	9	10.2		
	(13-18)	4	4.5	4.39	3.33
Graduate[a] Credit	(24-40)	38	45.2		
	(41-60)	35	41.6		
	(61-80)	9	10.7		
	(81-100)	1	1.1		
	(101-120)	1	1.1	46.12	16.05

Table 3 (continued)

Category	Interval	f	%	$\overline{X}$	S.D.
Number of Schools	(1)	49	55.7		
	(2)	31	35.2		
	(3)	5	5.7		
	(4)	2	2.3		
	(10)	1	1.1	1.63	1.14
Number of Students	(180- 560)	21	23.9		
	(561- 920)	38	43.2		
	(921-1280)	16	18.2		
	(1281-1640	9	10.2		
	(1641-4500)	4	4.5	883.97	542.34
Highest Grade Level	(2- 4)	9	10.2		
	(5- 7)	49	55.7		
	(8-12)	30	34.1	6.62	2.08
Number of Grade Levels	(1- 4)	17	19.3		
	(5- 8)	55	62.5		
	(9-13)	14	15.9	6.54	2.
FNE Scale	(0- 5)	28	31.8		
	(6-10)	37	42.0		
	(11-15)	16	18.2		
	(16-20)	4	4.5		
	(21-25)	3	3.4	8.03	4.84

Table 3 (continued)

Category	Interval	f	%	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Extroversion-Introversion	(33- 00)	62	70.4		
	(100-161)	26	29.5	90.7	22.52
Sensing-Intuition	(33- 99)	41	46.5		
	(100-161)	47	53.4	101.29	27.28
Thinking-Feeling	(33- 99)	24	27.2		
	(100-161)	64	72.7	111.98	17.98
Judging-Perceiving	(33- 99)	60	68.1		
	(100-161)	28	31.8	89.07	26.55
Counseling Frequency Index	(10-15)	36	40.9		
	(16-20)	44	50.0		
	(21-26)	8	9.1	16.17	3.34
Consulting Frequency Index	(6-11)	24	27.3		
	(12-16)	51	58.0		
	(17-22)	13	14.8	13.42	3.19
Frequency Difference Score	(24-28)	20	22.7		
	(29-31)	30	34.1		
	(32-36)	38	43.1	30.76	2.97

Table 3 (continued)

Category	Interval	f	%	$\bar{X}$	S.D.
Counseling Preference Scale	(13-18)	16	18.2		
	(19-23)	41	46.6		
	(24-28)	31	35.2	21.84	3.65
Consulting Preference Scale	(15-19)	12	13.6		
	(20-21)	43	48.9		
	(24-28)	33	37.5	22.6	3.07
Preference Difference Scale	(13-21)	5	5.7		
	(22-29)	60	68.2		
	(30-37)	23	26.1	27.25	4.03

[a]Four subjects with missing values not included in this category.

years of age (Hill & Luckey, 1969, p. 98). Biggers (1977) reported an average of 39.5 for his sample of counselors, but Wittmer and Loesch (1975) surveyed a group of elementary counselors whose average age was 28 years. The present sample appears to fall in between the mean ages of these two recent studies.

The average for Years of Teaching Experience was 4.11 with a range of 0 to 21 years, and the average for Years of Counseling Experience was 4.39 with a 1 to 18 year range. Another measure of experience and training, Graduate Credit, ranged from 24 to 120 semester hours with a mean of 46.11.

Although the importance of teaching experience in the selection of counselors has been widely debated (Rochester & Cottingham, 1966), the present study demonstrated that a high percentage of elementary counselors (44%) had fewer than 3 years' teaching experience and almost 30% had no teaching experience at all. Therefore, although some administrators and guidance directors may still believe that teaching experience is important, many of the elementary counselors in this study have little or no experience in the classroom.

Also, the variable of the number of years of counseling experience demonstrated that this group of counselors is relatively inexperienced. More than 85% of the group had less than 7 years' counseling experience, and 33% of the group had fewer than 3 years' experience. This is possibly due to

the fact that elementary counseling is relatively new across North Carolina school systems.

Situational factors. This group of elementary counselors reported serving anywhere from 1 to 10 schools. Only one counselor reported 10 schools while 49 served only one school. Over 90% of the respondents served in either one or two schools. The findings correspond with Greene's 1966 survey (Hill & Luckey, 1969, p. 98) and even show a slight trend towards counselors serving fewer schools. Greene (1967) reported that 74% of his sample served either one or two schools.

The average number of students being served by one counselor in the present study was 884 with a range of 180 to 4500 enrolled students being reported. Less than 15% (13 counselors) served more than 1280 students and about 24% (21 counselors) were responsible to fewer than 560 students. A majority of 61% (54 counselors) served between 560 and 1280 students. These results are quite different from Greene's national survey (1967) which indicated that a majority of his sample (51%) served over 1000 students. The difference seems to indicate that elementary counselors in North Carolina presently have lower case loads than those reported by elementary counselors across the country in earlier surveys.

The highest grade level served by this sample ranged between 3rd grade and 12th grade, and the total number of

grade levels ranged from 2 to 13 grade levels with a mean of 6.54. The highest percentage of counselors (62.5%) served between 5 to 8 grade levels.

Counselor personality characteristics. The mean score on the Fear of Negative Evaluation scale (FNE) was 8.03 with a range of 0 to 24. While the highest possible score on the FNE is 30, over 73% of the subjects in this study scored 10 or less on this questionnaire. This indicates that the present sample of elementary counselors reported lower levels of situational anxiety than those reported by Watson and Friend (1969) for their sample of male (n = 60) and female (n = 145) college students. Those mean scores were: males, 13.97; females, 16.10 (p. 452).

On the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) all the 16 possible type combinations were indicated by at least one counselor. Table 4 lists the five MBTI types preferred most frequently by this group of elementary counselors.

The highest frequency of responses to individual preference types was for the Feeling mode (72.7%). The percentage of counselors who were Extroverted was 70.4%, and 68.1% indicated a preference for the Judging mode. Sensing and Intuition were 46.5% and 53.4% respectively. The mean scores for each preference pair using the continuous scoring method (Myers, 1962) were: Extroversion-Introversion = 90.7; Sensing-Intuition = 101.29; Thinking-Feeling = 111.98; and Judging-Perceiving = 89.07. An overall

description of the sample based on these mean scores indicates an Extroverted-Intuitive-Feeling-Judging type. When describing the ENFJ type, Myers (1976) stated:

> Likely to have a gift of expression, but may use it in speaking to audiences rather than in writing. Interest in possibilities for people attracts them often to counseling in the fields of career choice or personal development. (p. 11)

Table 4

The Five MBTI Types with the Highest Frequencies

Type	f	%
Extroverted-Intuitive-Feeling-Judging (ENFJ)	15	17.0
Extroverted-Sensing-Feeling-Judging (ESFJ)	14	15.9
Extroverted-Intuitive-Feeling-Perceiving (ENFP)	13	14.7
Introverted-Sensing-Feeling-Judging (ISFJ)	9	10.2
Extroverted-Intuitive-Thinking-Judging (ENTJ)	8	9.1
Total	59	66.9

Theoretical preference. Responses to the question on the Subject Information Sheet regarding a preference for one counseling theory demonstrated that almost half of the counselors in this sample favored the Rogerian approach (47.7%). Twenty-one percent said behavioral theories were preferred while 9.1% indicated an Adlerian preference and

6.8% said Transactional Analysis. Remaining preferences, which included Freudian, Rational Emotive, Reality Therapy, and Social Modeling theories, contained 14.8% of the responses. A comparison between counselor groups who preferred one theory with counselors who preferred another theory was done across all the independent and dependent variables. The Breakdown subprogram of SPSS compared the mean scores of each variable across these five counseling theory groups: Rogerian, Behavioral, Adlerian, Transactional Analysis, and other. By this procedure counselors in the Rogerian group, for example, could be compared with counselors in the Behavioral, Adlerian or other groups on all the independent and dependent variables investigated in this study.

Appendix G shows the mean scores and F-values for all the variables, except Sex, across the counseling theory groupings. Frequency distributions of the Sex variable in Table 5 show that the percentages of males and females in each counseling theory group were similar.

Table 5

Frequency Distribution of Sex Variable Across Counseling Theory Groups

	Counseling Theory Groups									
	Behavioral		Rogerian		Adlerian		Trans. Analys.		Other	
Sex:	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
Males	4	21	10	23.8	2	25	1	16.6	4	30.7
Females	15	79	32	76.2	6	75	5	83.3	9	69.2
Total	19		42		8		6		13	

As indicated in Appendix G, the only statistically significant difference between groups was found with the variables--Number of Schools Served ($p < .05$) and Number of Students Served ($p < .001$). The data indicate that the Adlerian group served significantly more schools and also more students than the counselors in the other counseling theory groups. However, this finding is biased due to the fact that one Adlerian counselor (Appendix K, Subject #59) indicated she served 10 schools and 4500 students. Her responses were much higher than the rest of the counselors on these two items--Number of Schools Served, and Number of Students Served.

No other significant differences were noted on any of the independent or dependent variables between the counseling theory groups. The counselors' mean ages, years' experience, and personality characteristics were not significantly different between groups of counselors with preferences for either Rogerian, Behavioral, Adlerian, or other counseling theory.

Also, there were no significant differences between counselors' choices of activities from one counseling theory group to another. There were no significant differences between groups on the counselors' ratings of the importance of consulting and counseling processes. The same is true for the scores which measured the differences between how often counseling activities were used and how often consulting

activities were used as well as the scores which indicated differences between how important either process was.

Pearson Correlations and Multiple Regressions

The SPSS Pearson correlation procedure was used and each independent variable was correlated with the six dependent variables--Counseling Frequency Index (CFI), Consulting Frequency Index (CtFI), Frequency Difference Score (F-Diff.), Counseling Preference Scale (CPS), Consulting Preference Scale (CtPS), and the Preference Difference Score (P-Diff.). This was done to find the strongest single correlate or predictor for each dependent variable.

The correlation coefficients are given in Table 6. The results show that none of the independent variables were strong predictors of any counseling or consulting indexes. A few of the correlations, though weak, were significant at the .05 level. Some caution is warranted in interpreting the significance of these coefficients due to the large number of correlations that were run. With this many correlations, some significant coefficients may occur as a function of chance, and using the .05 level of significance the conclusion given may be in error approximately five percent of the time.

A counselor's number of years' teaching experience was significantly correlated positively with both Counseling Frequency ($r = .20$) and Consulting Frequency ($r = .19$). This indicates that as years' teaching experience increased,

Table 6

Pearson Correlation Coefficients for All Independent Variables Correlated with the Dependent Variables

Variable	CFI	CtFI	F-Dif.	CPS	CtPS	P-Dif.
Sex	.16	.11	.06	-.13	-.06	-.07
Age	.16	.00	.17	.08	.05	.04
Years Teaching	.20*	.19*	.02	.08	.05	.04
Years Counseling	.14	.03	.13	.09	.15	-.03
Graduate Credit	.06	.06	.00	-.24*	-.18	-.08
Number of Schools	-.07	.07	-.16	.11	.12	.00
Number of Students	-.17	.02	-.22*	.02	.07	-.03
Highest Grade Level	.16	-.07	.25*	.15	-.13	.24*
Number of Grades	.00	-.09	.09	-.03	-.15	.09
FNE	-.02	.05	-.08	-.13	-.15	.05
EI	-.05	-.02	-.04	-.16	.01	-.12
SN	-.13	-.13	-.02	-.09	-.04	-.04
TF	.00	.08	-.08	.05	.06	.00
JP	-.02	-.13	.11	-.10	-.12	-.00

* $p < .05$

the reported frequency of using both counseling and consulting processes also increased. The number of students a counselor served correlated negatively ($r = -.22$) and the highest grade level served by a counselor was positively correlated ($r = .25$) with the Frequency Difference score. This means that as the number of students served by a counselor increased and as the highest grade level served was lowered, the counselors tended to use less counseling activities and more consulting activities than those counselors who served fewer students and higher grade levels. These correlations give support to earlier findings which showed that consulting was used more than counseling in larger schools (Smith & Eckerson, 1966), and that counselors at higher elementary grades used more direct contact with students in counseling activities while counselors at the primary level did more consultation with parents and teachers (Greene, 1967).

Graduate credits completed by counselors was a significant negative correlate ($p < .05$) with the importance of counseling activities ($r = -.24$). As the graduate training of a counselor increased, a lower preference for counseling activities was noted. Consulting Preference scores were not significantly correlated with graduate credit obtained by counselors.

Graduate credit correlated negatively with Counseling Preference scores, and indicated that counselors with more

training tended to rate the counseling process with lower importance while counselors with less training would rate the same process higher in importance. This result may relate to research (Hitchcock, 1953; Terrill, 1969) which has indicated that counselors with more experience and training tend to be less idealistic in their perceptions of counselor roles than younger and less experienced counselors. If the Counseling Preference Scale can be viewed as a measurement of the idealistic importance of counseling functions, then the results in this study, showing a negative relation between a counselor's graduate training and preferences for counseling activities, lend limited support to the earlier findings of Hitchcock (1953) and Terrill (1969).

As with the Frequency Difference Score, the strongest correlate with the Preference Difference Score was the highest grade level served by counselors ($r = .24$). If a counselor serves higher grades, he or she would likely prefer counseling rather than consulting activities. This relationship between the counselors' Preference Difference Scores and the highest grade levels served is consistent with the relationship found between the Frequency Difference Scores and the highest grade levels served. Based on these correlations, it would be expected that counselors who served higher grade levels would believe counseling functions were generally more important than consulting and would use more counseling

activities. At the same time, counselors at the primary level would use more consulting and would give more importance to that function than counselors at the upper grade levels.

No other single significant correlations were found in this study for any of the counseling or consulting scores. Appendix I shows all of the intercorrelations for all variables.

Multiple regression. The SPSS subprogram for multiple regression was run to determine which set of six independent variables could be found as predictors for any of the dependent scales. The dependent variables were the importance of counseling and consulting processes, and the frequency with which those processes were used. A set of six independent variables was chosen for the regression in order to cover the possibility of including all four preference types of the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator as well as two extra variables.

Table 7 shows the six independent variables that, when entered into the regression formula, accounted for the most variance for each of the counseling-consulting scales. Correlational data and significant F-values ($p < .05$) are also given. Appendix J contains the values of each variable used in the regression equations.

As indicated in Table 7 none of the regression equations explained a large amount of variance in the dependent scales. However, the F-values for four of the regressions were significant at the .05 level. A set of six independent variables that predicted how important both counseling and consulting

Table 7

Multiple Regression Results for the Six Counseling-Consulting Scores

Score	Entered Variables	Multiple R	R Square	F-Values
Counseling Frequency Index	1. Years Teaching Experience	.209	.044	3.77
	2. Sex	.257	.066	2.86
	3. Highest Grade Level Served	.304	.092	2.72*
	4. Number of Students Served	.344	.118	2.65*
	5. Number of Schools Served	.387	.149	2.75*
	6. Number of Grades Served	.395	.156	2.38*
Consulting Frequency Index	1. Years Teaching Experience	.191	.036	3.13
	2. Age	.242	.058	2.53
	3. Number of Grades Served	.269	.072	2.08
	4. Sensing-Intuition	.287	.082	1.77
	5. Sex	.298	.088	1.52
	6. Graduate Credits	.313	.098	1.39
Frequency Difference Score	1. Highest Grade Level Served	.248	.061	5.38*
	2. Number of Students Served	.314	.099	4.45*
	3. Sex	.343	.117	3.56*
	4. Judging-Perceiving	.380	.144	3.33*
	5. Fear of Negative Evaluation	.398	.158	2.94*
	6. Number of Schools Served	.410	.168	2.60*
Counseling Preference Scale	1. Graduate Credit	.238	.056	4.93*
	2. Sex	.296	.088	3.91*
	3. Age	.357	.128	3.91*
	4. Extroversion-Introversion	.385	.148	3.44*
	5. Judging-Perceiving	.410	.168	3.15*
	6. Fear of Negative Evaluation	.420	.177	2.75*

Table 7 (continued)

Score	Entered Variables	Multiple R	R Square	F-Values
Consulting Preference Scale	1. Graduate Credit	.177	.031	2.65
	2. Years Counseling Experience	.276	.076	3.34*
	3. Highest Grade Level Served	.322	.104	3.09*
	4. Sex	.375	.141	3.25*
	5. Judging-Perceiving	.406	.165	3.09*
	6. Fear of Negative Evaluation	.419	.175	2.73*
Preference Difference Scores	1. Highest Grade Level Served	.229	.052	4.54*
	2. Number of Grades Served	.242	.058	2.52
	3. Years Counseling Experience	.263	.069	1.99
	4. Years Teaching Experience	.281	.079	1.69
	5. Extroversion-Introversion	.291	.084	1.44
	6. Graduate Credit	.300	.090	1.27

* $p < .05$

processes were to the elementary counselors (Counseling and Consulting Preference Scales) were significant, and each regression equation had a multiple R of .42 and accounted for over 17% of the variance in either Preference scale. Two other sets of predictors for how often a counselor used counseling activities (Counseling Frequency Index) and the use of consulting activities (Frequency Difference Score) also were significant. The regression equation for the Counseling Frequency Index explained 15% of the variance in that score, and the variables that correlated with the Frequency Difference Score accounted for 16% of the variance in that dependent variable.

Though the regression results did not show strong correlations, a few patterns can be noted. For example, the six variables that correlated with how frequently counselors used counseling activities were similar to the six correlates of how often consulting activities were performed. Years' teaching experience was the strongest predictor for how often consulting was used as well as how often counseling was used. The direction of both correlations was positive indicating that as a counselor has more years' teaching experience one would expect a higher frequency of performing both counseling and consulting functions. Two other independent variables, counselor's sex and the highest grade level served by the counselor, were also correlated with both the frequency of doing

counseling and the frequency of using consulting activities.

The variable showing how many graduate credits a counselor had completed was the strongest predictor for both Preference scales which indicated how important the counselor believed consulting and counseling activities were. Counselor's sex and anxiety score on the Fear of Negative Evaluation scale (FNE) were also included in the six entered variables as predictors for the importance of counseling and the importance of consulting activities.

The two dependent scales which measured the difference between counseling and consulting frequency and the difference between the importance of counseling and the importance of consulting activities also shared one common correlate. It was the highest grade level served by counselors, and it was the strongest single predictor for both the Frequency Difference Scores and the Preference Difference Scores. The indications, as mentioned earlier in this chapter, are that counselors who served lower grade levels said they used more consulting than counseling activities and also preferred consulting over counseling in comparison with their colleagues who served higher grade levels. This result supports the theoretical position (Aubrey, 1978; Dinkmeyer, 1973; Faust, 1968a) that consultation can be an important process to use in primary schools as a means of involving those adults who are significant in

the child's life. As counselors serve older children, they are able to use more counseling activities because the students have more autonomy in making day-to-day decisions for themselves. Activities preferred by secondary counselors in surveys, such as the Talent study (Wrenn, 1962), exemplify older students' involvement in decision-making processes. These activities included counseling for academic programs, college entrance, inadequate achievement, and occupational decisions.

No other independent variables entered in the regression equation correlated with both the Frequency Difference Score and the Preference Difference Score.

Analysis of the Counseling-Consulting Questionnaires

Each of the six scores on the two questionnaires, the counseling and consulting frequency and preference scores, were intercorrelated. Table 8 gives the coefficient matrix for the scores on both instruments. Eleven of the 15 coefficients were significant at the .05 level.

Though these coefficients were moderate to weak, their directions demonstrated that the frequency of doing counseling correlated positively with the frequency of performing consulting activities, and the importance of counseling activities correlated positively with the importance of consulting functions. This means that counselors who said they used many counseling activities

also said they did many consulting activities, and if counselors in this sample believed counseling was important, then chances are they believe consulting was important as well.

Table 8

Correlation Coefficients for the Counseling-Consulting Scores

	CFI	CtFI	F-Diff.	CPS	CtPS
Counseling Frequency Index (CFI)					
Consulting Frequency Index (CtFI)	.59*				
Frequency Difference Score (F-Diff.)	.48*	-.42*			
Counseling Preference Scale (CPS)	.20*	.04	.18*		
Consulting Preference Scale (CtPS)	.05	.23*	-.20*	.26*	
Preference Difference Score (P-Diff.)	.13	-.12	.28*	.66*	-.54*

* $p < .05$

The t-test procedure of SPSS was run to compare the mean counseling and consulting frequency scores and to compare counseling and consulting preference scores. Though the counseling scores correlated with the consulting scores, a significant difference between the mean scores

($p < .001$) was found between how often counseling was done and how frequently the consulting process was used. Table 9 contains the t-values for each pair of variables.

Table 9

t-Values for Comparison of Mean Scores on the Frequency and Preference Scales

t-Test	Mean	S.D.	t-Values
Counseling Frequency (CFI) with	16.17	3.34	
Consulting Frequency (CtFI)	13.43	3.19	8.71*
Counseling Preference (CPS) with	21.84	3.65	
Consulting Preference (CtPS)	22.61	3.07	1.75

* $p < .001$

The results show that counseling functions were used significantly more than consulting activities ($p < .001$). However, there was no significant difference between how important the counselors believed either function to be. This indicated that while counseling was performed significantly more than consulting activities, both processes were considered equal in importance by this group of elementary counselors. Though consulting activities were considered as important as counseling, they were not used as often as counseling processes. This finding lends further support to those conclusions, mentioned earlier in this chapter, which stated that counselors do not always do those

activities they would ideally like to be doing (Hitchcock, 1953; Terrill, 1969).

With the positive correlations between the frequency of doing counseling and frequency of doing consulting combined with the significant differences between the mean scores indicating how often counselors used each process, it is difficult to determine what actual differences, if any, exist between counseling and consulting in general. The positive correlations between the two processes seem to demonstrate possible similarities between counseling and consulting. Yet, the findings which indicate that counseling activities were used significantly more than consulting activities seem to denote differences. Perhaps those differences can be understood by studying the specific activities which the counselors evaluated rather than the general concepts of counseling and consulting processes.

Items on the two questionnaires that measured the frequency and importance of counseling and consulting processes, as perceived by the sample group of counselors, were analyzed to investigate possible differences between specific activities. This analysis moves away from the examination of theoretical differences between the general processes of counseling and consulting towards a study of the specific differences that may exist from one activity to another. It is noted that single items on a measurement may not have as high a reliability as the entire instrument

(Thorndike, 1971), and therefore caution is warranted in drawing firm conclusions from this analysis.

Tables 10 and 11 outline the frequency of responses on all values (0-4) for each individual activity, and also give the mean scores for each activity. Descriptions of each item with corresponding numbers are listed in Appendix H.

The top four activities which were used most frequently by the counselors (Table 10) were also considered the four most important activities by this sample (Table 11). This indicates that this group of elementary counselors reported that they are using activities which they believe to be most important. These four activities were:

#1 Counseling individual students about their personal concerns.

#13 Consult with individual teachers about specific behavioral and developmental concerns of students in their classes.

#3 Counseling groups of students about their personal concerns.

#2 Counseling individual students about their academic concerns.

Three of the top four activities, listed in Tables 10 and 11, involved counseling processes and one was a consulting activity. Also, only one of these top activities was a group process while the other three were individual counseling and consulting functions. This group of

Table 10

Number of Responses for Every Value on Each Activity Listed on the Frequency Indexes

Activity[a]	Values					Mean Score
	0	1	2	3	4	
#1	0	0	7	33	48	3.46
#2	0	6	22	41	19	2.81
#3	0	7	28	24	29	2.86
#4	6	20	38	16	8	2.01
#5	3	20	51	12	2	1.87
#6	27	41	19	1	0	.96
#7	3	21	36	20	8	2.15
#8	0	10	49	24	5	2.29
#9	0	16	55	14	3	2.05
#10	22	38	27	1	0	1.03
#11	3	29	46	4	2	1.88
#12	19	42	24	1	2	1.19
#13	0	2	13	47	26	3.11
#14	7	24	39	16	4	1.87

[a]Descriptions of each activity with corresponding numbers are given in Appendix H.

Table 11

Number of Responses for Every Value on Each Activity Listed on the Preference Scales

Activity[a]	Values					Mean Score
	0	1	2	3	4	
#1	0	0	3	13	72	3.77
#2	0	0	8	25	55	3.52
#3	0	0	2	27	59	3.67
#4	0	0	11	37	40	3.34
#5	2	7	32	30	17	2.6
#6	2	14	31	30	11	2.35
#7	2	8	30	27	21	2.62
#8	0	0	9	33	46	3.4
#9	0	1	11	28	48	3.38
#10	0	0	30	29	29	2.95
#11	0	1	13	34	40	3.26
#12	0	3	14	50	21	3.0
#13	0	2	13	47	26	3.69
#14	0	5	18	44	21	2.92

[a]Descriptions of each activity with corresponding numbers are given in Appendix H.

counselors used more individual than group activities. This finding is similar to results of earlier surveys (Hill & Luckey, 1969) and indicates that the use of individual and group processes at the elementary level may not have changed much in the past ten years. Although authors such as Dinkmeyer (1973 and Palmo and Kuzniar (1972) have encouraged the use of group counseling and consulting, the individual setting may still be preferred and used most frequently.

Table 12 shows a ranking of all the activities based on how often they were used (Frequency Mean) and a corresponding list of ranked items based on the importance of each activity (Preference Mean). Generally it appears that the two lists are consistent. That is, the counselors' indications of how frequently they performed an activity generally corresponds with how important they believed the activity was. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the correlational data and the comparisons between how often consulting and counseling activities were used and how important each process was, supports earlier research which indicated that counselors do not always use the activities and functions they believe to be important (Hitchcock, 1953; Terrill, 1969). However, the procedure of ranking each item or activity by how often it is used as well as how important it is, presents results which seem to conflict with those earlier conclusions.

Table 12

Ranking of All Activities by Mean Scores on the Frequency Indexes and Preference Scales

Ranking	Item	Frequency Mean	Item	Preference Mean
1	#1	3.46	#1	3.77
2	#13	3.11	#13	3.69
3	#3	2.86	#3	3.67[c]
4	#2	2.81[a]	#2	3.52
5	#8	2.29	#8	3.4
6	#7	2.15	#9	3.38
7	#9	2.05	#4	3.34
8	#4	2.01	#11	3.26
9	#11	1.88	#12	3.01
10	#5	1.87	#10	2.95
11	#14	1.87	#14	2.92
12	#12	1.19[b]	#7	2.62[d]
13	#10	1.03	#5	2.6
14	#6	.96	#6	2.35

[a]These top four activities received significantly higher frequency scores than all the other activities ($p < .001$).

[b]The bottom three activities in the Frequency column were significantly lower in how often they were used than all the other activities ($p < .001$).

[c]These top three activities were considered more important than all the other activities, except #2 ($p < .001$).

[d]Activities #7, #5, and #6 were considered less important than all the other activities ($p < .05$).

There are a few possible reasons for this conflict. One reason may be that the earlier studies sampled the attitudes of secondary counselors while the present study used elementary counselors. Some studies have indicated that elementary and secondary counselors may emphasize different activities and functions (Wrenn, 1962), and recent surveys (Wittmer & Loesch, 1975) of elementary and secondary teachers show that they have different perceptions of what school counselor roles should be. Wittmer and Loesch (1975) suggest that those differing perceptions may affect elementary and secondary counselors' own perceptions of their roles. If that is true, then the two groups of counselors may be two populations which are distinct enough to have varying views and attitudes about activities they use in their counseling programs.

A second possibility for the different conclusions could be found in the number and types of activities responded to by the earlier studies. Hitchcock (1953), for example, listed many activities including clerical, administrative and monitoring type functions which most of his counseling sample did not feel were appropriate duties, and yet many of them performed such tasks. The present study only listed counseling and consulting activities that were recommended in counseling literature. If additional noncounseling duties were included in the present study, this group of elementary counselors may have

demonstrated a significant difference between what activities they used and which they believed to be important. However, the addition of any extra activities in this study was not appropriate since the questions being examined pertained directly to the differences between counseling and consulting processes.

A third possible reason for the conflicting results, and one that relates to the issues raised in this study, may be found in the different ways that counselor role perception is studied. Terrill (1969) had his subjects complete the Counselor Job Function Questionnaire two different times. The first time that the counselors responded to the 50 items they were instructed to report how often they performed each activity. The second time they were asked to indicate how often they would like to do each activity. The total scores from each completion were then compared and a significant difference was found between what the counselors did and what they would like to do. This method of examining counselor functions takes a general or global view of the counselor's role by combining many possible activities (in this case 50 items). This method is similar to the present study's attempt to examine the counseling and consulting processes. This study found that when a group of counseling activities are combined for the purpose of investigating a global "counseling process," and consulting activities are combined to study general

"consulting processes," a significant difference is found between how often each process is used. Yet, both processes are rated equally important by responding counselors. This is similar to Terrill's (1969) findings.

However, when specific activities are examined and ranked according to frequency and importance, it appears that counselors are using those specific functions in the same order of their ranked importance. This result is consistent with earlier research (McCreary & Miller, 1966; Schmidt, 1962) which also used a ranking method. Schmidt (1962) found that when counselors were asked to use actual and ideal responses to 50 activities, a correlation of .76 was found.

The issue of how to study and investigate counselor roles and functions is important to the present study. One of the basic premises of this study was that the theoretical literature indicated counseling and consulting were two distinct processes, and some of the literature implied that different types of counselors might prefer one process over the other. However, the correlational data in this study failed to support that belief. The conflicting results discussed in the previous paragraphs, combined with the lack of support for the theoretical position which distinguishes between general counseling and consulting processes, raises the question of whether or not it is

more appropriate to examine counselor role and functions by investigating specific activities rather than general processes. If so, then the examination of specific items on the counseling-consulting questionnaires used in the present study may give some insight into possible counseling and consulting differences.

Although the comparison between the items ranked by frequency and the activities ranked by importance indicated that the elementary counselors in this study appeared to be using the activities with the highest preference, there were a few exceptions. Activity #7--"Counseling individual teachers about personal concerns"--ranked 6th in Frequency and only ranked 12th on the Preference list. Activity #5--"Counseling individual parents about their specific personal concerns"--ranked 10th on how often it was used, but was lowered to 13th on how important it was to the counselors.

Both of the preceding activities appear to be considered less important by the counselors, and yet the counselors are performing those activities more often than some others ranked higher on the Frequency Indexes.

Two activities ranked higher in importance than they did on the Frequency Indexes. These activities were:

#10--Consult with groups of parents about child development and the influence of parents and the family, and

#12--Consult and provide inservice with groups of teachers about child behavior and class guidance activities and strategies.

Both activities were preferred by the counselors, but were not being used as frequently as some other activities.

It is noted that items #7 and #5, which were used by counselors but not considered very important, were activities using individual counseling sessions, while #10 and #12, which were not used as often but were considered more important, were group consulting activities. By examining these specific activities rather than the general processes of counseling and consulting, some differences are noted. Those differences are not only related to the terms counseling and consulting, but also to individual and group processes. This group of elementary counselors used individual counseling and consulting activities more often than group functions, and also believed individual processes to be more important. Table 12 shows that five out of the top six activities on both the Frequency and Preference list are activities done with individual children, parents or teachers. Item #3--"Counseling with groups of students about their personal concerns"--was the only group activity in the top six. This is in spite of the fact that half of the activities on the questionnaires were group functions.

The last four items listed in Table 12 under the Frequency column have mean scores that are significantly ($p < .001$) different from the first seven most frequently used activities. Although they were separate consulting and counseling activities, these last four items had some

similar characteristics. They were all group activities performed with adults. These activities were:

#14--Consult with the principal and teachers about curriculum decisions which affect the students.

#12--Consult and provide inservice with groups of teachers about child behavior and class guidance activities and strategies.

#10--Consult with groups of parents about child development and the influence of parents and the family.

#6--Counseling groups of parents about their specific personal concerns.

Table 13 shows the correlation coefficients between items on the Frequency Indexes. All the significant ($p < .05$) correlations were positive. The strongest correlation ($r = .62$) was between items #6 and #10. Both activities involve working with groups of parents.

Table 14 contains the correlation between items on the Preference Scales. The majority of significant coefficients ($p < .05$) were positive. This means that as one activity in a significant pair increases in importance, the other activity would be expected to also increase. There was one significant negative correlation between items #1 and #12 ($r = -.24$) indicating that counselors who believed personal individual counseling with children was very important gave less importance to group consulting with teachers. This finding may relate to the theoretical argument concerning

Table 13

Correlation Coefficients for All Items on the Frequency Indexes

Items[a]	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10	#11	#12	#13
#2	.27**												
#3	.16	-.19											
#4	.04	.36**	.41**										
#5	.34**	.23*	.02	.11									
#6	-.01	-.12	.44**	.36**	.18								
#7	.36**	.17	-.05	.09	.50**	.13							
#8	.19	.21*	.02	.32**	.41**	.14	.30**						
#9	.15	.25*	.22*	.23*	.43**	.22*	.29**	.61**					
#10	.01	-.04	.44**	.28**	.00	.62**	-.07	.08	.28**				
#11	.06	.16	.19	.22*	.34**	.24*	.28**	.34**	.44**	.27**			
#12	.10	.06	.14	.15	.06	.25*	.05	.22*	.21*	.43**	.24*		
#13	.35**	.17	-.04	.01	.08	-.13	.22*	.20	.27**	-.14	.02	.09	
#14	.36**	.26*	.10	.25*	.27**	.16	.31**	.31**	.43**	.14	.21*	.11	.23*

*p < .05

**p < .001

[a]Descriptions of items are found in Appendix H.

Table 14

Correlation Coefficients for All Items on the Preference Scales

Items[2]	#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7	#8	#9	#10	#11	#12	#13
#2	.64**												
#3	.10	.07											
#4	.26*	.57**	.55**										
#5	.36**	.20	.10	.12									
#6	.26*	.17	.18	.14	.74**								
#7	.29**	.25*	.11	.10	.73**	.67**							
#8	-.02	.11	.02	.20	.22*	.14	.13						
#9	.00	-.04	.06	.10	.29**	.28*	.16	.54**					
#10	-.16	-.10	.01	.11	.09	.30**	.06	.22*	.53**				
#11	-.11	.04	.19	.22*	.12	.16	.17	.44**	.32**	.24*			
#12	-.24*	-.06	.07	.00	.02	.18	.03	.30**	.20	.30**	.32		
#13	.00	.13	.08	.26*	.05	.07	.12	.33**	.12	.20	.31**	.36**	
#14	-.07	.22*	-.06	.17	.13	.23*	.17	.16	.12	.18	.05	.23**	.33**

*p < .05

**p < .001

[a]Descriptions of items are found in Appendix H.

the most efficient way to help the child. Those counselors who favor child counseling tend to place less emphasis on consulting with teachers which can indirectly help the child. Mayer (1967) endorsed the child counseling mode because he believed it was the best way to know the child. Patterson (1976) stressed the importance of the intimate contact in counseling. In contrast, Dinkmeyer (1973) and others have advocated the use of teacher groups to be able to reach more children than individual counseling will allow.

Generally, the significant positive coefficients in Tables 13 and 14 indicate that as counselors said they used counseling activities often, they also reported using consulting activities relatively frequently. When counselors in this study reported using counseling activities less frequently, they also reported using fewer consulting activities. Examination of specific items demonstrated the same relationship that was found between the total counseling and consulting scores on the Frequency Indexes and the Preference Scales and reported previously in this chapter. As the frequency of doing counseling increased, so did the frequency of using consulting activities. At the same time, the importance of counseling and consulting activities were positively correlated. Counselors who believed counseling activities were important also believed consulting was important.

Intercorrelations between how often activities were used (Frequency) and how important those activities were (Preference) are given in Table 15. Some of the strongest coefficients are found between the same items across the two scales. For example, the frequency of consulting with the principal and teachers about curriculum matters (Item #14) correlated at .54 with the preference for that consulting activity ($p < .001$). The only activities which did not have significant positive correlations between their frequency of being used and their importance were counseling with individual parents (Item #6, $r = .09$) and consulting with groups of teachers (Item #12, $r = .15$).

Generally, the majority of these intercorrelations support the finding that this group of elementary counselors performed certain activities in accordance with their preferences for those functions.

Table 15

Intercorrelations for All Items on the Frequency Indexes and Preference Scales

		Preference Items						
		#1	#2	#3	#4	#5	#6	#7
Frequency Items	#1	.26*	.17	-.12	.05	.09	.04	.13
	#2	.16	.42**	-.10	.26*	-.05	-.07	.02
	#3	.00	-.17	.37**	.12	-.14	-.03	-.21*
	#4	-.01	.07	.28**	.32**	-.06	-.08	-.08
	#5	.10	.06	-.07	-.02	.41**	.25*	.29**
	#6	-.17	-.16	.29**	.06	-.01	.09	-.10
	#7	.19	.12	-.05	-.03	.33**	.25*	.49**
	#8	.22*	.18	.01	.17	.25*	.16	.17
	#9	.00	-.04	-.01	-.04	.19	.12	.15
	#10	.13	-.23*	.15	-.05	-.12	-.05	-.14
	#11	.10	.07	.07	.09	.21*	.11	.16
	#12	.05	-.17	.04	-.05	-.08	-.21*	-.15
	#13	.13	.16	-.02	.13	.00	.00	.09
	#14	.05	.04	-.08	.01	.14	.07	.07

Table 15 (continued)

Frequency Items	Preference Items #8	#9	#10	#11	#12	#13	#14
#1	.03	.02	.10	.00	-.10	.22*	.13
#2	.27*	-.04	-.06	.07	.00	.27*	.23
#3	-.23*	-.07	.09	-.02	-.04	-.08	-.13
#4	.01	-.06	.00	.11	-.01	.09	-.04
#5	.10	.12	.00	.05	.12	.04	.05
#6	-.11	.14	.29**	.05	.06	-.08	-.04
#7	.00	-.02	-.07	-.04	.01	.07	.07
#8	.28**	.23	-.05	.08	.08	.00	.04
#9	.28**	.32**	.15	.06	.16	.05	.19
#10	-.11	.08	.27*	-.11	-.08	-.02	-.08
#11	.17	.22*	.11	.25*	.12	.16	-.01
#12	-.03	.02	.04	-.02	.15	.10	-.07
#13	.21*	.08	.00	.11	.10	.39**	.11
#14	.04	.09	.03	-.01	.01	.08	.54**

*p < .05

**p < .001

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter discusses the findings reported in this study and presents conclusions and recommendations for future research. The first section compares the counselor characteristics and biographic information collected in the survey with past studies of elementary counselors. Section two discusses the questions posed in the study and the significant findings related to those questions. The last section summarizes the findings and provides recommendations for future research into the role of elementary counselors, particularly the functions of counseling and consulting.

The Survey of Elementary Counselors

A survey mailed to 100 randomly sampled elementary counselors in North Carolina produced a return of 94%. A total of 88 returns were usable for the study. Three instruments were used to collect biographic, personal, and job-setting information on this sample of counselors. Biographic and job setting information was gathered by using the Subject Information Sheet designed for this survey (Appendix C). Personality characteristics were assessed by two instruments. The Fear of Negative Evaluation scale (Watson & Friend, 1969) was used to survey counselor anxiety in social situations, and the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator

(Myers, 1962) was used to collect information about the counselors' psychological types.

The biographic and personal data collected from this sample of elementary counselors show many similarities with past surveys. As in Smith and Eckerson's (1966) early survey of Child Development Consultants, the present sample of counselors contains far more females than males. The ratio is over three to one, which is a greater ratio than they found. The indication is that though elementary counseling has grown in North Carolina the past few years, males have not entered that level of counseling as readily as females. It is possible that since elementary counseling in North Carolina is relatively young, new counselors are coming from the ranks of elementary teachers of whom the overwhelming majority are females. There are other possibilities for this male-female ratio, however, including the lower salaries of public school educators (Occupational Outlook Handbook, 1976) which make it difficult to keep males from leaving education and entering management positions in the business and industrial sector. It may also be that the female-male ratio found in this present study is simply a reflection of the greater number of women entering the job market in professional careers (Wrenn, 1973). However, it is noted that some recent research (Wittmer & Loesch, 1975) has shown that while the average elementary counselor is female, the average secondary counselor is male. This

finding is confirmed by the Occupational Outlook Handbook (1976) which indicated that according to surveys in 1974 only 15% of elementary teachers were male, but approximately 50% of secondary teachers were male.

If the ratio of males to females entering the elementary counseling field is as disproportionate as found in this study, then there may be additional reasons that either prevent or discourage men from joining this field. Research into this question is needed if schools desire to attract male counselors into their elementary programs.

The age factor of elementary counselors may be one trend that has shifted in the last ten years. In 1969, Danielson indicated that elementary counselors tended to be older than secondary counselors. However, Wittmer and Loesch (1975) showed a mean age of 46 for secondary counselors while elementary counselors averaged 18 years younger with an age of 28. The average age of the elementary counselors in the present study (33.86 years) is lower than the average of secondary counselors found in earlier studies (Armour, 1969, Wrenn, 1962). This lower age level is similar to the results reported by Biggers (1977). His study of elementary counselors in Texas showed that over a nine-year period the average age dropped almost five years.

The present group of elementary counselors is younger and has fewer years' teaching and counseling experience than groups surveyed earlier (Biggers, 1977; Greene, 1967). It is

difficult to assess what effect, if any, this trend may have had on the present survey. However, if Terrill's (1969) conclusion that younger counselors tend to be more idealistic than experienced counselors is correct, then perhaps younger counselors' responses to how often they used counseling and consulting and how important those processes were may be slightly inflated in this study. The scores on the Frequency Indexes and the Preference Scales, which were used to measure the counseling and consulting variables, may therefore give a slightly exaggerated picture of how often counseling and consulting activities were being used and how important each function was for this group of counselors in comparison with what counselors in previous studies might have indicated.

In terms of personality characteristics, the present effort supports some of the general findings of past research. This group of elementary counselors appeared to favor the Extroverted type as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI), and that is consistent with the descriptions provided by Cottle and Lewis (1954), Brams (1961), and Heikkinen and Wegner (1973). The Intuitive and Feeling preferences on the MBTI support Terrill's (1969) findings with a group of secondary counselors. However, his study demonstrated a counselor preference for the Perceiving mode, while the elementary counselors in this sample indicated a Judging preference. This result may be related to theoretical

discussions which associate different personality types with different problem-solving styles (Hellriegel & Slocum, 1957). The differences between counseling at the secondary level and counseling in elementary schools could be manifested in this preferential difference between Judging and Perceiving types. Myers (1976) indicated that the Extroverted-Intuitive-Feeling-Judging type (ENFJ), while being warm and sensitive, also likes to have issues settled and matters decided expediently The Extroverted-Intuitive-Feeling-Perceiving type (ENFP) on the other hand prefers to understand people and issues rather than judging them. While counseling at the elementary level demands warmth and sensitivity, because of the young age of the children, it could require that guidance and counseling decisions be more limited and direct. This mode of operation and problem-solving, if used by elementary counselors, might therefore be best associated with Judging types. As the children get older they are handed more decision-making power, and that may allow counselors to be more innovative, flexible, and nonjudgmental.

This relationship between problem solving and personality types is further supported in the present study by the differences between male and female counselors, as indicated by the negative correlations between the sex variable and the Judging-Perceiving preferences (Appendix I).

Male counselors tended to have scores in the direction of the Perceiving type while females were in the direction of Judging preferences. Referring to Myers' (1976) description of judging attitudes and perceptive attitudes, we might expect, based on the correlations in this study, male counselors to be more flexible, adaptive, and spontaneous, and female counselors to prefer a more ordered mode of problem solving. Terrill (1969) reported differences in modes of problem solving between male and female counselors in regard to their preferences for Thinking or Feeling and for Sensing or Intuition types. His findings, combined with the results of this study, indicate that there are differences between male and female counselors in their personality types which may be related to modes of problem-solving. Males tend to be more Thinking-Intuitive-Perceiving types, and females prefer the Feeling-Sensing-Judging processes.

Age also correlated with Judging-Perceiving preferences, indicating that older counselors preferred the Judging mode. Younger counselors' scores were toward the Perceiving style. This result may have some relationship with studies showing a positive correlation between age and closed-mindedness (Heikkinen, 1975; Wittmer & Webster, 1969). Judging types prefer a planned orderly way of dealing with the outer world while Perceiving types tend to be more flexible and willing to adapt (Myers, 1976, p. 6). This

finding combined with the dominant preference for the Judging mode that was found among this sample of elementary counselors may indicate that younger counselors might be more perceiving and flexible, even with elementary age children, than their older colleagues, but the Judging preference is still favored by the total group of elementary counselors. Which mode is most efficient or beneficial to the children cannot be answered by correlational data such as in this study. However, the relationship between counselor age and personality types needs to be considered in research which investigates the effectiveness of different problem-solving styles used with young children.

This same conclusion can be drawn for the significant correlations found between the Judging-Perceiving variable and a counselor's number of years' teaching experience. Counselors who had more teaching experience tended to favor the Judging mode. This corresponds with Keith's (1969) findings that the fewer years' teaching experience the more spontaneous, impulsive, and uninhibited a counselor tended to be. However, the number of years' counseling experience showed no significant relationship with any of the psychological types. Again, correlational studies do not provide reasons for the significant relationships involving teaching experience not the lack of relationships found with counseling experience. Further research needs to examine these correlations in an effort to determine causal factors

and assess whether those factors are beneficial or harmful to the effectiveness of school counseling programs.

The elementary counselors in this study were asked to indicate their preferences for particular counseling theories. These preferences were used to further describe the sample of counselors and to determine if there were any significant differences between those who prefer one counseling theory over another.

The results indicated that there were generally no significant differences between counseling theory groups on the counselor biographic information or personality characteristics. The Adlerian group was significantly different from the other theory groups in the situational variables Number of Schools Served and Number of Students Served. However, it was noted that one counselor in the Adlerian group indicated extremely high values for those two categories, and her responses may have distorted the statistical findings. Since the Adlerian group was comprised of a small sample of counselors (eight), the statistical differences found on the two situational variables must be viewed cautiously. It is possible that, given a larger sample of Adlerian counselors, one subject's inflated responses would not have as powerful an impact on the group mean scores.

No significant differences were found between counselors' choices of activities from one counseling theory group to

another. Counseling and consulting activities were performed as frequently by those who preferred one theory as by those who had other theoretical preferences. This was also true for the counselors' ratings of the importance of counseling and consulting processes. These findings lend support to Fiedler's (1950a, 1950b) conclusion that theoretical adherence demonstrates a poor relationship with therapeutic processes. Counselor use of and preference for either counseling or consulting processes in this study did not differ from one counseling theory group to another.

Correlates of Counseling and Consulting Processes

The statistical analyses used in this study to examine the relationships between counselor characteristics, situational factors, and counseling or consulting processes were the Pearson correlation and multiple regression procedures of the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS, Nie et al., 1975). The Pearson correlation was used to identify the best single predictors for a counselor's frequency of using counseling and consulting activities, and for a counselor's belief in the importance of counseling and consulting functions. The multiple regression was done to isolate a set of six variables which could account for the most variance in the frequency with which counseling and consulting activities were performed and the preference for counseling and consulting processes.

In addition to the analyses above, the two counseling-consulting questionnaires designed and used for this study (Frequency Indexes and Preference Scales) were analyzed. The Pearson correlation procedure was used to find the intercorrelations between the six different scores used on these two instruments: Counseling Frequency Index, Consulting Frequency Index, Frequency Difference Score, Counseling Preference Scale, Consulting Preference Scale, and Preference Difference Score. The results of this analysis showed that the frequency of doing counseling activities correlated with the frequency of performing consulting functions. Counselors who said they often used counseling activities also said they frequently used consulting activities. At the same time, the Preference Scales were positively correlated. If counselors said counseling was important, they also rated consultation as important.

The t-test procedure of SPSS was also used to examine the six scores on the counseling-consulting questionnaires as well as the individual items and activities that were listed on the instruments. The results of the t-tests provided conflicting information. The t-tests run between the counseling and consulting frequency scores and the counseling and consulting preference scores indicated that while counselors believed that the two processes were equally important, they reported performing counseling functions significantly more frequently than they used consulting activities ($p < .05$). This finding provides limited support

for earlier studies (Hitchcock, 1953; Terrill, 1969) which concluded that counselors don't always use those activities that they believe to be important. In these studies significant differences were noted between what counselors said they did, and what they said they would like to do in terms of activities and functions they performed in their counseling programs.

In this study, however, when the mean values of all the items on the Frequency Questionnaire were ranked and matched with the mean scores of all the items on the Preference Questionnaire, it showed that the counselors reported using those activities most frequently which they rated most important. The four most frequently used activities were also ranked the four most important activities. This finding supports research (McCreary & Miller, 1966; Schmidt, 1962) which has indicated that when using a ranking method, counselors do tend to use those functions they believe to be important. These conflicting results seem to demonstrate that when the question of whether or not counselors are doing what they believe is important is examined, the design and methodology used in the study need to be considered carefully. If general processes are studied and compared, significant differences may be found. However, if individual activities are examined and compared, the results may show that counselors are using those specific activities they believe to be important.

There were two basic questions posed in this study. The first question asked if there were counselor variables or situational variables which correlated with a counselor's belief in the importance of either counseling or consulting processes. Secondly, were there also correlates of how often a counselor used counseling activities and consulting functions? The purpose of investigating these two questions was to determine if relationships exist that provide support for the theoretical literature which differentiates between the counseling and consulting processes. It was believed that if the variables that correlated with counseling were different from those that correlated with consulting, or if the same variables correlated with counseling in the opposite direction that they correlated with consulting, the literature which theorized functional differences between the two processes would be supported.

The results of the analysis suggested that none of the independent variables, either alone or in a group, explained much of the variance in rated frequency or importance of counseling and consulting processes. Several of the regressions were significant, however the R Square values did not range above .177.

The lack of strong correlates which could be used to differentiate between counselors who prefer consulting failed to support the theoretical differences between

counseling and consulting processes that has been promoted by some authors (Dinkmeyer, 1968; Faust, 1968a; Munson, 1970). In particular, the correlational data collected in this study provides no support for theoretical positions which state or imply that there may be personality or behavioral differences between counselors who use counseling and counselors who perform consultation. Faust (1968a) theorized that due to the low need for trust development in a consulting relationship, counselors who used consulting would be freer to develop more normal open relationships within the school. Arbuckle (1967) disclaimed actual differences between counseling and consulting processes, but he indicated that if differences do exist they are probably between the types of counselors who prefer one process over the other. A few authors (Aubrey, 1978; McGehearty, 1969) have indicated that different problem-solving styles are needed in consulting, which implies there are different leadership behaviors and characteristics that may be found between counselors who favor counseling over consulting activities.

None of the personality variables as measured by the MBTI or the Fear of Negative Evaluation scale (FNE) provided significant correlations with the preference for or frequency of performing counseling or consulting that could support any of the above theoretical relationships. As assessed by the MBTI and the FNE, no personality differences were noted that could be related to differences between

counseling and consulting functions in either their relationship-building processes or in leadership and problem-solving styles. The low insignificant correlations found with these personality variables provides strong support for the theoretical positions which have stressed the similarities between counseling and consulting. While differentiating between the two processes, Munson (1970) indicated that one similarity between counseling and consulting lies in the similar types of communication and listening skills used in both processes. Arbuckle (1967) also noted the similarities in communication skills as well as the helping relationship aspect of both counseling and consulting. The ultimate goal of helping people change behaviors is the same for both processes and must outweigh any subtle differences that may exist between leadership behaviors and problem-solving styles that can be used in each.

Some of the correlations in this study provided minimal support for situational factors relating to differences between the use of counseling and consulting. When the score, which measured differences between how often counseling was used and how often consulting was used (Frequency Difference Score) was analyzed, two situational factors were found to be significant correlates. Number of students served by a counselor and the highest grade level served correlated with the difference between how often counseling methods were used and how frequently consultation was used. As the number

of students served by a counselor increased and the highest grade level served was lowered, the more equal was a counselor's frequency of using both consulting and counseling processes. A counselor who served fewer students and higher grade levels tended to indicate a higher frequency of using counseling activities and a correspondent lower frequency of consultation. These correlations give support to earlier findings which demonstrated that consulting was used more as the size of the school increased (Smith & Eckerson, 1966), and that counselors at higher grade levels used more counseling activities while counselors in primary schools did more consulting with parents and teachers (Greene, 1967).

These findings are important to the debate about which of the two processes--counseling or consulting--is more economical and efficient in helping children. Some authors (Dinkmeyer, 1968; Faust, 1968a) have argued that the consultative process used with teachers and parents is the most economical way to reach large numbers of children, and is also the most efficient way of helping very young children who may not command the language skills needed for counseling. Other writers (Nelson, 1967; Patterson, 1967) emphasized counseling because of the need to focus directly on the children in helping them work on their developmental needs. These authors stressed intimate contact with children as the best way to gain knowledge about the students, and that such knowledge is imperative to enable the counselor to

efficiently assist in the children's development. The correlation between certain situational factors and the Frequency Difference Score found in this study indicates that a counselor's use of the two processes may be related to the age of students and number of students being served. These results imply that, as Faust (1968a) and Dinkmeyer (1968) suggested, consultation was used more by counselors who served young children and had larger student enrollments in their schools.

Based on the results of this study, the answers to the two major research questions are that no strong correlates were found to indicate that different types of counselors believe that counseling and consulting are more or less important than each other, and no variables differentiate counselors who use one process more than the other. There is limited support for the belief that school size and grade levels served by counselors may be related to how frequently counseling and consulting activities are used.

In this study of elementary counselors, the important findings are not, however, the few significant coefficients that were found, but rather the similarities of those significant correlations across the counseling and consulting functions. For example, the number of years' teaching experience for a counselor correlated significantly in a positive direction with the frequency of doing counseling as well as the frequency of doing consulting activities. The fact that

the same variables correlated in the same direction with both counseling and consulting processes raises not only some doubt about the actual differences between the two functions, but also questions the appropriateness of studying the two functions as distinct, general and global processes.

Studies, such as Terrill's (1969), which have previously examined counselors' perceptions of what their roles in schools should be, have used general descriptions and definitions of the counselor's role. Even though the variables identified as correlates in this study are similar to variables found in earlier investigations (Terrill, 1969), this survey has not been able to differentiate between the counseling role and consulting role because of their similar correlations with the same variables. These similar correlations, combined with the fact that the sample indicated a significant difference between how often they used counseling processes and how frequently they used consulting processes, raises some confusion and question about studying counseling and consulting as broad general processes. That is, if the two processes are similar, as indicated by similar correlations with the same variables, the differences between how often counseling is used and how often consulting is used might be more appropriately investigated by examining counselor responses for each separate counseling and consulting activity.

An item analysis done on the Frequency Indexes and Preference Scales provides some indication that differences between counseling and consulting may best be studied by looking at the specific details of counseling and consulting activities. The specifics involve the client--whether it is a child, parent, teacher, or other person; the setting--group or individual; and the content--whether the activity is educational, information sharing, or therapeutic. Some patterns were noted with the counseling and consulting activities used in this survey. It appears that counselor preferences for particular counseling and consulting activities as well as the frequency of doing those activities may not be related to the general processes of counseling and consulting as much as they are related to the specific details of each activity. With whom is the function being done? What setting is being used--individual or group? What is the content indicated in the activity?

An example of these patterns is the similarities found between the four counseling and consulting activities that were least frequently performed by this group of elementary counselors. These consisted of three consulting activities and one counseling activity. In terms of who the client was, each of these activities had the counselor working directly with adults. Two of them were done with parents and two with teachers. Each of the four activities implied

or stated that a group setting was used as opposed to working with individuals. The content of each activity was varied. The three consulting activities contained aspects of information sharing and decision-making processes. The one counseling activity inferred a therapeutic relationship with parents in helping them deal with personal concerns.

Two of these activities were ranked higher by the counselors when they were asked to evaluate the importance of all the counseling and consulting items. These two activities were:

#10--Consult with groups of parents about child development and the influence of parents and the family

#12--Consult and provide inservice with groups of teachers about child behavior and class guidance activities and strategies.

The question raised is, were these two activities considered more important than other functions performed more frequently because they were labeled "consulting" processes, or because the counselors believed that the described activities were important? The lack of correlational evidence in the study, which failed to indicate that types of counselors differentiated between general counseling and consulting processes, provides reason to believe that this sample of elementary counselors reacted more to the specific details of a described activity than they did to the counseling and consulting labels. It is possible

that if the counseling and consulting terms were interchanged on all the activities to which the counselors in this survey responded, the results would not have changed. This conclusion has implications for future research into relationships between counselor characteristics and counselor functions. It may be more important to examine, for example, correlations between counselor personality traits and counselor attitudes about working with groups of adults than it is to continue studying broad general counseling and consulting processes. Future research may need to examine counselor attitudes towards individual and group counseling or consulting processes with adults, and relate those attitudes to variables such as counselor personality, age, training, case load and situational factors.

Limitations of the study. A few limitations of this study need to be mentioned. They relate to both the survey used to collect data and the significant statistical findings that were reported.

The data collected on the Frequency and Preference Questionnaires must be viewed with caution since they were gathered in a self-report survey. No field observers were used to verify that the respondents were actually doing the counseling and consulting activities they reported. Also, the sample consisted of elementary counselors in North Carolina only, and therefore, even if their responses to the

questionnaires were valid, the results may not reflect attitudes of elementary counselors in other parts of the country.

Regarding the statistical findings in this study, two limitations are emphasized. First, due to the large number of correlations and t-tests that were run, it is possible that some of the significant findings occurred by chance. Second, it is noted that although some significant statistical relationships were found, it is difficult in this survey study to determine the practical significance of those findings. The absolute differences in the means in some cases were small enough to question their practical significance.

The preceding limitations, while emphasizing that caution is needed when drawing firm conclusions from the statistical results in this study, add strength to the recommendations that call for further research into the use of counseling and consulting activities by elementary counselors. Clarification of counselor attitudes toward those two processes as well as the need for observational studies of counselor functions need to be done. The present study is a beginning contribution to this research area.

Conclusions and Recommendations

The general conclusion of this study is that when elementary counseling activities were viewed in terms of global counseling and consulting processes, no strong

correlates were identified with either how important the activities were considered or how frequently the functions were used. The lack of significant correlates fails to give support to the theoretical positions which promote differences between counseling and consulting processes. The study proposed that if such differences did exist, they would be manifested in the differences between counselor personality traits, biographic characteristics, or situational factors. The lack of strong significant correlates lends support to those theorists who say that there are no differences between the counseling and consulting processes. In essence, this study's results indicated that when counseling and consulting are compared as two general processes, the findings support, as McGehearty (1968) contended, the belief that philosophically the two processes are the same. This belief emphasizes that both functions utilize similar techniques and communication skills which help people with their problem-solving and decision-making abilities. The ultimate goals of counseling and consulting, therefore, are so similar that it is difficult to detect differences between the two when studying them as general processes.

However, the significant differences found in this study between how frequently counseling activities were used and how often consulting activities were performed raises questions about possible differences between the specific activities listed on the survey questionnaires.

An item analysis of the counselor responses to these activities indicated patterns which may be related to the specific details of a function rather than to the general counseling or consulting labels. These specific details are the client with whom the counselor is working in the activity, the setting--individual or group--being used by the counselor, and the process content of the activity--therapeutic, informational, or instructional. One pattern, for example, was noted about the four least often used activities. They were all group functions performed with adults. Two of those least frequently performed activities were ranked higher in importance by this sampled group of counselors. It may be that the specific details of what a counselor is doing correlate stronger with personality variables, leadership traits, and situational factors than do the general counseling and consulting descriptors.

The present study has raised many interesting questions. If the theoretical literature continues to debate and delineate the differences between counseling and consulting processes, further research will be needed to clarify and support those differing opinions. From the results of this study the following recommendations are made for future investigations of counseling, consulting, and other counselor role issues.

First, future research should continue to examine the relationships between counselor activities and situational

factors such as case load, number of grades served by a counselor, and number of schools served. The present study provided limited evidence which indicated that certain relationships may exist, and more research is needed. If these relationships do exist, that information could be helpful to counselors as they develop their counseling programs and decide which activities and functions would be best for attaining program objectives.

Second, researchers could investigate counselor reactions to the terms "counseling" and "consulting" when these labels are interchanged across similar activities. The present study raises some question of whether or not it makes any difference what label is used to describe specific functions when counselors are asked to complete counselor activity surveys. The correlational findings indicated that there may not be any perceived differences between the general processes of counseling and consulting.

Therefore, future research of counselor roles and functions should compare independent counselor variables with variables related to the specific content of activities, rather than to broad process labels. The item analysis done in this study provided indications that responding counselors may have reacted to specific details of individual activities more than they did to the counseling and consulting descriptors. More research is needed to examine counselor

preferences for different types of clients, settings, and types of helping relationships.

Finally, research needs to investigate reasons why some counseling and consulting activities are performed frequently but are not considered as important as other functions, and other activities are considered important but not used as frequently. The findings in this study showed that this group of elementary counselors performed some activities that were not considered very important, and they did not use as frequently other functions believed to be more important. The three preceding recommendations for research could provide preliminary findings that would help in setting up research to examine these differences between what counselors do and what they feel is most important to do. The possible reasons for such differences are many, and it is therefore imperative that future research move in this direction. If research could identify some of the obstacles that prevent counselors from using those activities believed to be important, that information could be used in counselor education programs to help counselors recognize the personal or situational factors which contribute to or hinder program development. At the same time, counselors could be trained in assessment and intervention skills which may help them in dealing with these factors.

The present study suggests the need for more research concerning the theoretical differences between counseling and consulting. The questions answered and raised by the present results give a firm basis for continuing research which may help to clarify the theoretical similarities and differences between counseling and consulting processes. This clarification may help counselors to have a better understanding of the dynamics involved in counseling and consulting activities, and thereby enable counselors to make more informed decisions about which functions are best suited for them personally as well as for the environment and people with whom they work.

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APPENDIX A

Cover letter for survey questionnaires

DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

STATE OF NORTH CAROLINA RALEIGH

February, 1979

Dear Elementary Counselor:

The questionnaires enclosed in this package are part of an important survey of elementary counselor characteristics, attitudes, and functions in North Carolina. The survey is being done by one of our colleagues, Jack Schmidt of Greensboro.

I have written this letter for Jack to include with the survey materials so that I could encourage each participant to complete the questionnaires and return them as soon as possible. If we, as professionals, expect to have a continued impact on the total counseling movement in North Carolina, we will need to support research efforts pertaining to our specialty.

You have been randomly selected from all the state elementary counselors to participate in this study. A considerable effort has been made to prepare these materials. It is very important that a high return be achieved for this study to provide useful results.

I believe research like this is important to our professional growth as elementary school counselors and to the total movement of elementary counseling in our state.

Sincere best wishes,

Ron Anderson, Ph.D.
Elementary Guidance Consultant

RA:bcj

APPENDIX B

Instructional letter that accompanied the survey questionnaires

SURVEY OF ELEMENTARY COUNSELORS
IN NORTH CAROLINA

April, 1979

Dear colleague:

You have been randomly selected from all the elementary counselors in North Carolina to participate in this survey. I sincerely ask that you complete the enclosed questionnaires as soon as possible and return all the materials in the addressed stamped envelope.

It is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned because partial responses cannot be included in this study. Please check that all instruments are completed according to their instructions. Also, be assured that your responses will be anonymous, and that data collected will be used to describe elementary counselors as a group and not as individuals. Do not put your name on any of the questionnaires. The instruments included in this survey are: the COUNSELOR INFORMATION SHEET; SURVEY #1; SURVEY #2; SURVEY #3; and the MYERS-BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR (use the answer sheet inside the booklet).

The following definitions of "Counseling" and "Consulting" are provided for you to use as references when you complete SURVEYS #1 and #2:

COUNSELING: Individual counseling is the process by which the counselor establishes with a person a relationship which enables that person to have better self-understanding, to set goals and develop self-direction in moving toward those goals.

Group counseling is the process by which the counselor establishes relationships with a small group of people enabling them to communicate with each other, to learn about themselves, to set goals and develop self-direction in moving toward those goals.

CONSULTING: Consultation is the procedure through which the counselor talks with parents, teachers, principals and other adults significant in the life of the child to effect change in home and school situations which influence the child's development. It is the process of sharing with another person or group of persons information and ideas, of combining knowledge into new patterns, of making mutually agreed upon decisions which will benefit the child, the family and the educational community.

Understanding how valuable your time is particularly with the end of the school year rapidly approaching, I genuinely appreciate your help with this project. For your participation in this study I would like to give you a brief summary and explanation of your individual responses to the questionnaires. If you would like this summary sent to you, please fill out the address form below:

To: Elementary School Counselor

_____

Street Address City Zip

Thank you again for your valuable assistance with this project. I hope that this year has been both professionally and personally rewarding, and that you continue to experience success in all your endeavors.

Warmest regards,

Jack Schmidt

APPENDIX C

SUBJECT INFORMATION SHEET

Instructions: Please answer every question to the best of your knowledge. Do not leave any items blank. Incomplete questionnaires cannot be included in the study.

1. Your age in years _____

2. Circle your sex: Female Male

3. If you were employed as a school teacher before you became a counselor, how many years did you teach?

   _____

4. How many years have you been employed as a counselor?

   _____

5. How many graduate semester hours (college credit only) do you have beyond your bachelor's degree?

   _____ credits

6. How many elementary schools do you serve presently?

   _____

7. How many students (approximately) are enrolled in your school(s)? _____

8. Circle the highest grade level of the students you serve:

   K 1st 2nd 3rd 4th 5th 6th 7th 8th

   9th 10th 11th 12th

9. How many grade levels do you serve? (For example, if you work in a school that has 1st and 2nd grade only, you would serve 2 levels).
   Circle ONE:

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13

10. Although you may use approaches from many different theoretical frameworks in your counseling program, please choose ONE theory with which you identify most of the time. Check only ONE:

___ Rogerian (cliented-centered, non-directive, phenomenological)

___ Psychoanalytic (Freudian, neo-Freudian)

___ Rational Emotive Therapy

___ Adlerian Psychology (Individual Psychology

___ Behavioral Psychology (Behavior Therapy, Behavior Modification)

___ Other (please name) _____

APPENDIX D

FREQUENCY QUESTIONNAIRE (SURVEY #1)

Instructions: Indicate how often you do each of the following activities as part of your counseling program. Use the numerical values listed below, and write the appropriate number on the line preceding each activity. Please be sure to mark a value for every activity.

0 = NEVER
1 = SELDOM (once a month or less)
2 = OCCASIONALLY (a few times a month)
3 = OFTEN (daily)
4 = VERY OFTEN (more than once a day)

Example: 4 Talking with groups of children. (The value of four means that this activity is done VERY OFTEN.)

___ Counseling individual students about their personal concerns.

___ Counseling individual students about their academic concerns.

___ Counseling groups of students about their personal concerns.

___ Counseling groups of students about their academic concerns.

___ Counseling parents about their specific personal concerns.

___ Counseling groups of parents about their specific personal concerns.

___ Counseling individual teachers or staff members about their personal concerns.

___ Consult with individual parents regarding theri child's academic and developmental needs.

___ Consult with individual parents about specific family concerns which are affecting their child's developmental and school adjustment.

___ Consult with groups of parents about child development and the influence of parents and the family.

___ Consult with parents and teachers together about problems and concerns affecting the child's growth and development.

___ Consult and provide inservice with groups of teachers about child behavior and class guidance activities and strategies.

___ Consult with individual teachers about specific behavioral and developmental concerns of students in their classes.

___ Consult with the principal and teachers about curriculum decisions which affect the students.

APPENDIX E

PREFERENCE QUESTIONNAIRE (SURVEY #2)

Instructions: Read the list of activities and indicate how important you believe each activity is. Use the following numerical values to mark the importance of each item:

0 = NOT IMPORTANT
1 = VERY LITTLE IMPORTANCE
2 = SOME IMPORTANCE
3 = IMPORTANT
4 = VERY IMPORTANT

PLEASE NOTE: Put a value for each item on the spaces in the left column. Read each item independently of the other items. You may use any value listed above for each of the activities. Although the activities in SURVEY #2 are the same as in SURVEY #1, the two instruments are independent of each other and should be responded to independently.

Example: 3 Talk with children about concerns. (A value of three means this item is IMPORTANT.)

___ Consult with the principal and teachers about curriculum decisions which affect the students.

___ Consult with individual teachers about specific behavioral and developmental concerns of students in their classes.

___ Consult and provide inservice with groups of teachers about child behavior and class guidance activities and strategies.

___ Consult with individual parents regarding their child's academic and developmental needs.

___ Consult with individual parents about specific family concerns which are affecting their child's development and school adjustment.

___ Consult with groups of parents about child development and the influence of parents and the family.

___ Consult with parents and teachers together about problems and concerns affecting the child's growth and development.

___ Counseling individual students about their personal concerns.

___ Counseling individual students about their academic concerns.

___ Counseling groups of students about their personal concerns.

___ Counseling groups of students about their academic concerns.

___ Counseling individual parents about their specific personal concerns.

___ Counseling groups of parents about their specific personal concerns.

___ Counseling individual teachers or staff members about their personal concerns.

APPENDIX F

FEAR OF NEGATIVE EVALUATION SCALE (SURVEY #3)*

Instructions: Read each of the statements below and mark whether they are TRUE or FALSE for you. Place a T or F for each item on the lines in the left column to indicate your responses.

---

1. (F) I rarely worry about seeming foolish to others.
2. (T) I worry about what people will think of me even when I know it doesn't make any difference.
3. (T) I become tense and jittery if I know someone is sizing me up.
4. (F) I am unconcerned even if I know people are forming an unfavorable impression of me.
5. (T) I feel very upset when I commit some social error.
6. (F) The opinions that important people have of me cause me little concern.
7. (T) I am often afraid that I may look ridiculous or make a fool of myself.
8. (F) I react very little when other people disapprove of me.
9. (T) I am frequently afraid of other people noticing my shortcomings.
10. (F) The disapproval of others would have little effect on me.
11. (T) If someone is evaluating me I tend to expect the worst.
12. (F) I rarely worry about what kind of impression I am making on someone.
13. (T) I am afraid that others will not approve of me.
14. (T) I am afraid that people will find fault with me.
15. (F) Other people's opinions of me do not bother me.

16.(F) I am not necessarily upset if I do not please someone.

17.(T) When I am talking to someone, I worry about what they may be thinking about me.

18.(F) I feel that you can't help making social errors sometimes, so why worry about it.

19.(T) I am usually worried about what kind of impression I make.

20.(T) I worry a lot about what my superiors think of me.

21.(F) If I know someone is judging me, it has little effect on me.

22.(T) I worry that others will think I am not worthwhile.

23.(F) I worry very little about what others may think of me.

24.(T) Sometimes I think I am too concerned with what other people think of me.

25.(T) I often worry that I will say or do the wrong things.

26.(F) I am often indifferent to the opinions others have of me.

27.(F) I am usually confident that others will have a favorable impression of me.

28.(T) I often worry that people who are important to me won't think very much of me.

29.(T) I brood about the opinions my friends have about me.

30.(T) I become tense and jittery if I know I am being judged by my superiors.

---

*From: Watson, D., & Friend, R. Measurement of social-evaluative anxiety. Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology, 1969, 33(4), 448-457.

Mean scores and F-values of variables across counseling theory groups

Variable	Behavioral $\bar{X}$	Rogerian $\bar{X}$	Adlerian $\bar{X}$	Trans. Anal. $\bar{X}$	Other $\bar{X}$	F-value
Age	31.7	35.7	29.6	36.6	32.0	1.78
Years Teaching	3.6	4.9	2.5	1.6	4.3	1.06
Years Counseling	4.2	4.4	3.3	6.5	4.3	.79
Graduate Credit	44.0	44.8	43.7	53.5	51.4	.81
Number of Schools	1.7	1.4	2.8	1.3	1.5	2.99*
Number of Students	805.0	766.0	1575.0	944.0	924.0	4.49**
Highest Grade	6.3	6.8	6.0	6.6	6.6	.43
Number of Grades	5.78	6.97	6.6	6.8	6.1	1.06
FNE	7.47	8.2	8.0	5.8	9.2	.57
EI	89.7	91.5	96.2	85.3	88.3	.25
SN	97.2	102.8	111.5	92.0	100.2	.58
TF	113.2	113.6	113.2	106.0	106.6	.56
JP	91.8	88.3	101.0	85.3	81.6	.74
CFI	15.5	16.5	15.6	16.6	15.7	.44
CtFI	13.1	13.2	13.1	14.3	14.3	.52
F-Dif.	30.4	31.4	30.5	30.3	29.5	1.16
CPS	22.3	22.1	20.2	21.8	20.9	.77
CtPS	22.5	22.2	23.6	23.1	23.0	.77
P-Dif.	27.8	27.9	24.6	26.6	25.9	1.72

*$p < .01$

**$p < .001$

APPENDIX H

Descriptions of activities used on the Counseling-Consulting Frequency Indexes and Preference Scales

Item Number

#1 Counseling individual students about their personal concerns.

#2 Counseling individual students about their academic concerns.

#3 Counseling groups of students about their personal concerns.

#4 Counseling groups of students about their academic concerns.

#5 Counseling individual parents about their specific personal concerns.

#6 Counseling groups of parents about their specific personal concerns.

#7 Counseling individual teachers or staff members about their personal concerns.

#8 Consult with individual parents regarding their child's academic and developmental needs.

#9 Consult with individual parents about specific family concerns which are affecting their child's development and school adjustment.

#10 Consult with groups of parents about child development and the influence of parents and the family.

#11 Consult with parents and teachers together about problems and concerns affecting the child's growth and development.

#12 Consult and provide inservice with groups of teachers about child behavior and class guidance activities and strategies.

#13 Consult with individual teachers about specific behavioral and developmental concerns of students in their classes.

#14 Consult with the principal and teachers about curriculum decisions which affect the students.

Correlation coefficients for the independent and dependent variables

	Sex	Age	Yr.Teach. Exper.	Yr.Couns. Exper.	Grad. Credit	No. of Schools	No. of Students	High.Gr. Level	No. of Grades
Age	.12								
Yr.Teach.Exp.	.17	.65*							
Yr.Couns.Exp.	.09	.69*	.37*						
Grad.Credit	-.18	.32*	.22*	.23*					
No.of Schools	.07	-.15	-.09	-.02	-.25*				
No.of Students	.09	-.20*	-.15	-.10	-.30*	.89*			
High.Gr. Lev.	-.14	.11	.04	.15	-.03	.00	.00		
No.of Grades	.02	-.17	-.09	-.13	-.04	.06	.17	.64*	
Fear of Neg.Ev.	.11	-.14	-.06	-.11	-.09	.00	-.01	.06	.07
Extrov-Introv.	.15	-.04	.00	-.09	-.07	-.03	-.09	-.10	.00
Sens.-Intui.	-.14	.04	-.09	-.08	.16	.14	.23*	-.03	.03
Think-Feeling	.05	.07	.03	.09	-.12	.17	.09	-.12	-.18*
Judg.-Perceiv.	-.18*	-.25*	-.23*	-.04	-.06	.17	.18*	.04	.20*
Couns.Freq.	.16	.16	.20*	.14	.06	-.07	-.17	.16	.00
Consult.Freq.	.11	.00	.19*	.03	.06	.07	.02	-.07	-.09
Freq.Diff.	..06	.17	.02	.13	.00	-.16	-.22*	.25*	.09
Couns.Pref.	-.13	.08	.08	.09	-.24*	.11	.02	.15	-.03
Consult.Pref.	-.06	.05	.02	.15	-.18	.12	.07	-.13	-.15
Pref.Diff.	-.07	.04	.07	-.03	-.08	.00	-.03	.24*	.09

*p < .05

Correlation coefficients for the independent and dependent variables

		Extrover.-Introver.	Sensing-Intuition	Thinking-Feeling	Judging-Perceiving	Counseling Frequency	Consulting Frequency	Frequency Difference	Counseling Preference	Consulting Preference
Age										
Yr.Teach.Exp.										
Yr.Couns.Exp.										
Grad.Credit										
No.of Schools										
No.of Students										
High.Gr.Lev.										
No.of Grades										
Fear of Neg.Ev.										
Extrov.-Introv.	.15									
Sens.-Intui.	-.11	-.15								
Think-Feeling	-.09	-.12	.00							
Judg.-Perceiv.	-.05	-.17	.24*	.08						
Couns.Freq.	-.02	-.05	-.13	.00	-.02					
Consult.Freq.	.05	-.02	-.13	.08	-.13	.59*				
Freq.Diff.	-.08	-.04	-.02	-.08	.11	.48*	-.42*			
Couns.Pref.	-.13	-.16	-.09	.05	-.10	.20*	.04	.18*		
Consult.Pref.	-.15	.01	-.04	.06	-.12	.05	.23*	-.20*	.26*	
Pref.Diff	.05	-.12	-.04	.00	.00	.13	-.12	.28*	.66*	-.54*

*p < .05

APPENDIX J

Variables in the regression equations

Dependent Variables	Independent Variables	B	Beta	Std. Err.B	F-values
Counseling Frequency Index	Yr.Teach	0.878	0.119	0.080	1.205
	Sex	1.674	0.210	0.868	3.721
	High.Grade	0.401	0.250	0.230	3.028
	No.Students	-0.288	-0.462	0.001	3.503
	No.Schools	1.020	0.348	0.708	2.077
	No.Grades	-0.169	-0.115	0.216	0.617
Consulting Frequency Index	Yr.Teach	0.198	0.286	0.100	3.918
	Age	-0.900	-0.234	0.057	2.474
	No.Grades	-0.166	-0.119	0.152	1.180
	SN	-0.120	-0.104	0.012	0.868
	Sex	0.778	0.103	0.856	0.826
	Grad.Credit	0.211	0.105	0.023	0.789
Frequency Difference Score	High.Grade	0.382	0.276	0.145	6.907
	No.Students	-0.236	-0.440	0.001	3.600
	Sex	1.272	0.185	0.739	2.960
	JP	0.176	0.161	0.011	2.263
	FNE	-0.752	-0.125	0.063	1.416
	No.Schools	0.566	0.223	0.586	0.935
Counseling Preference Scale	Grad.Credit	-0.832	-0.357	0.026	10.135
	Sex	-1.828	-0.209	0.953	3.679
	Age	0.706	0.159	0.051	1.903
	EI	-0.256	-0.154	0.017	2.096
	JP	-0.212	-0.153	0.015	1.977
	FNE	-0.737	-0.096	0.081	0.819
Consulting Preference Scale	Grad.Credit	-0.592	-0.306	0.021	7.758
	Yr.Couns.	0.244	0.267	0.100	5.879
	High.Grade	-0.276	-0.189	0.155	3.143
	Sex	-1.561	-0.215	0.799	3.810
	JP	-0.187	-0.162	0.012	2.386
	FNE	-0.647	-0.102	0.066	0.935
Preference Difference Scale	High.Grade	0.608	0.316	0.288	4.431
	No.Grades	-0.223	-0.127	0.262	0.729
	Yr.Couns.	-0.164	-0.137	0.149	1.212
	Yr.Teach	0.103	0.118	0.104	0.997
	EI	-0.146	-0.080	0.019	0.538
	Grad.Credit	-0.200	-0.079	0.028	0.484

Individual Subject Data

Subject	Sex	Age	Years Teach. Experience	Years Coun. Experience	Graduate Credit.	Number of Schools	Number of Students	Highest Grade Lev.	Number of Grade Lev.	Fear of Neg. Evaluation	Extroversion Introversion	Sensing-Intuitive	Thinking-Feeling	Judging-Perceiving	Counseling Frequency	Consulting Frequency	Frequency Difference	Counseling Preference	Consulting Preference	Preference Difference
01	F	28	06	02	48	02	700	07	08	06	147	53	115	65	16	15	29	22	19	31
02	M	28	00	02	72	01	705	06	07	02	119	95	95	73	17	14	31	20	21	27
03	F	32	04	04	60	02	1180	08	09	05	61	71	135	89	18	16	30	24	23	29
04	F	25	00	04	30	01	1200	06	07	13	103	127	99	75	11	14	25	18	24	22
05	F	29	05	02	36	04	2000	08	07	13	53	133	121	93	10	06	32	19	20	27
06	F	38	03	07	33	03	1500	08	09	03	93	117	139	87	11	12	27	25	22	31
07	F	36	05	07	42	02	700	08	08	14	133	43	119	89	20	18	30	26	26	28
08	F	42	05	07	42	01	600	06	07	10	61	117	117	123	18	12	34	20	21	27
09	F	27	00	05	33	01	700	03	04	05	133	79	109	69	13	28	20	20	23	25
10	F	28	00	06	40	01	650	06	07	00	73	139	119	149	19	17	30	25	25	28
11	F	29	06	01	51	01	643	04	05	02	51	101	113	120	21	20	29	23	23	28
12	F	24	00	01	68	01	500	06	07	16	121	151	121	53	11	11	28	19	20	27
13	F	30	02	05	56	02	600	03	04	06	113	63	139	125	16	09	35	18	20	26
14	M	37	04	03	36	01	345	06	02	03	57	109	95	77	20	14	34	25	22	31
15	F	26	00	03	42	01	770	06	07	08	79	101	113	87	12	13	27	16	21	23
16	M	33	00	02	84	01	568	05	06	05	77	129	77	59	16	10	34	23	23	28
17	M	35	10	04	33	02	1750	06	07	08	83	99	123	103	12	12	28	25	20	33
18	F	23	00	01	39	02	1300	08	09	09	115	135	85	117	12	09	31	16	18	26
19	F	28	02	02	51	01	200	12	08	08	133	39	55	61	19	16	31	21	20	29
20	M	31	01	05	33	02	1235	06	03	02	117	93	103	83	18	13	33	22	24	26
21	F	38	15	03	42	02	1150	06	06	09	73	91	103	49	18	18	28	22	23	27
22	F	28	06	01	66	02	1500	06	07	19	69	89	93	89	18	16	30	26	21	33
23	M	32	06	03	45	01	400	06	03	01	81	121	119	73	16	10	34	25	22	31

Individual Subject Data

Subject	Sex	Age	Years Teach. Experience	Years Coun. Experience	Graduate Credit	Number of Schools	Number of Students	Highest Grade Lev.	Number of Grade Lev.	Fear of Neg. Evaluation	Extroversion Introversion	Sensing-Intuitive	Thinking-Feeling	Judging-Perceiving	Counseling Frequency	Consulting Frequency	Frequency Difference	Counseling Preference	Consulting Preference	Preference Difference
24	M	30	02	02	45	01	525	04	05	03	65	133	145	73	14	14	28	25	27	26
25	F	26	03	02	33	02	700	06	07	12	95	57	99	59	15	12	31	24	23	29
26	F	29	00	01	40	01	460	06	07	03	91	131	105	109	20	16	32	26	25	29
27	F	32	01	04		02	1000	06	07	01	91	107	135	91	15	13	30	22	26	24
28	F	32	02	02	78	01	750	06	07	07	71	131	117	115	19	13	34	20	24	31
29	F	28	02	02	40	01	750	06	07	07	141	123	129	123	17	10	35	18	22	27
30	M	31	00	02	54	01	654	09	07	07	79	95	125	87	11	12	27	21	26	32
31	F	33	06	05		03	1400	06	07	06	117	111	113	81	15	19	24	22	25	25
32	F	24	00	02	36	01	850	06	07	11	117	71	95	103	14	12	33	22	23	27
33	M	28	00	02	40	02	1200	08	09	12	113	91	93	87	17	09	33	27	26	29
34	F	40	08	04	45	01	875	06	07	24	123	91	111	53	19	22	25	18	21	25
35	F	32	03	01	54	01	700	03	04	15	85	101	113	95	11	15	29	20	25	31
36	F	54	19	14	80	01	350	09	03	08	85	65	145	59	23	15	36	24	26	31
37	F	27	03	01		02	1500	06	07	09	117	99	95	97	15	15	29	20	20	23
38	F	24	00	02	36	01	725	06	07	09	105	79	119	59	16	16	25	22	21	25
39	F	37	05	02	46	02	800	06	07	09	97	45	117	53	26	15	31	20	28	29
40	F	65	21	18	69	02	550	06	07	05	67	81	81	75	15	11	33	24	25	29
41	M	33	05	05	120	01	500	06	07	09	69	137	83	59	15	18	32	20	13	27
42	F	26	03	02	52	01	425	05	06	07	79	101	115	107	18	15	25	22	26	27
43	F	56	05	10	70	01	500	12	06	09	93	107	113	59	16	12	34	21	21	13
44	F	42	01	14	48	01	390	06	08	12	85	93	109	101	15	10	31	18	17	31
45	F	27	02	03	48	01	820	08	09	10	75	117	115	157	17	12	32	22	21	31
46	M	38	06	06	33	03	1200	08	04	07	61	89	89	117	12	08	32	26	17	37

Subject	Sex	Age	Years Teach. Experience	Years Coun. Experience	Graduate Credit.	Number of Schools	Number of Students	Highest Grade Lev.	Number of Grade Lev.	Fear of Neg. Evaluation	Extroversion Introversion	Sensing-Intuitive	Thinking-Feeling	Judging-Perceiving	Counseling Frequency	Consulting Frequency	Frequency Difference	Counseling Preference	Consulting Preference	Preference Difference
47	F	33	06	05	35	02	1200	08	09	04	97	111	93	73	24	16	36	22	23	27
48	F	37	07	05	35	01	1000	12	13	06	77	101	107	77	16	13	31	28	28	28
49	F	29	02	03	36	03	1200	06	07	05	75	87	119	89	14	14	28	20	20	28
50	M	32	04	06	51	01	800	06	07	08	87	113	95	97	11	15	24	28	25	31
51	F	57	04	10	60	01	960	08	05	07	71	127	117	55	18	15	31	24	21	31
52	M	40	00	02	57	01	180	05	05	08	139	99	119	119	10	08	30	19	22	25
53	F	29	00	02	52	04	2000	06	06	05	85	135	143	143	10	12	26	17	28	17
54	F	36	10	03	45	02	650	06	06	05	97	67	115	57	13	15	32	25	24	24
55	F	35	08	06	36	02	950	06	06	11	95	135	117	103	15	10	31	23	27	29
56	F	25	00	03	30	01	750	04	05	09	81	881	101	79	15	12	31	13	26	24
57	F	32	08	03	33	01	555	08	05	07	115	115	115	79	17	14	31	23	27	29
58	M	35	00	06	33	01	800	12	13	08	87	103	109	91	15	09	34	24	23	24
59	F	30	00	05	35	01	4500	06	06	07	89	141	125	115	17	17	28	25	25	29
60	F	39	03	04	24	01	900	08	08	08	75	113	129	111	21	15	34	21	15	28
61	F	33	02	05	60	01	850	05	05	05	65	73	141	99	11	11	24	23	22	34
62	F	37	02	04	36	02	903	08	09	21	97	97	107	69	20	14	37	22	21	29
63	F	36	08	02	30	01	620	06	07	05	85	53	127	59	15	11	29	17	20	26
64	F	27	03	01	42	03	1400	05	06	11	95	127	87	81	16	15	34	23	23	34
65	D	31	06	03	33	02	1300	12	12	02	69	143	115	59	15	13	33	21	22	33
66	F	29	00	06	33	01	400	06	07	15	69	97	65	127	18	15	33	22	21	28
67	F	36	04	06	30	01	500	06	06	17	93	81	115	71	15	13	28	23	22	20
68	F	38	08	05	42	01	650	06	07	11	81	119	65	59	12	15	33	24	25	29
69	F	35	12	01	35	01	750	08	08	07	93	93	95	143	19	13	34	20	23	25

Individual Subject Data

Subject	70	71	72	73	74	75	76	77	78	79	80	81	82	83	84	85	86	87	88
Sex	F	F	F	F	M	F	F	F	N	F	F	M	M	F	M	F	F	F	M
Age	29	43	46	27	31	27	44	31	27	46	39	27	28	50	28	37	34	58	42
Years Teach. Experience	02	12	00	01	04	00	14	06	00	03	05	00	00	05	00	04	00	17	12
Years Coun. Experience	05	05	01	04	04	02	06	04	03	17	05	05	08	05	04	06	05	08	08
Graduate Credit	33	42	45	27	36	42	60	60	36	46	30	21			51	78	36	54	70	54
Number of Schools	02	01	01	02	02	01	01	02	02	02	02	01	02	01	02	02	01	01	01	01
Number of Students	619	548	830	1400	650	850	600	1200	1000	950	1500	550	1100	460	900	800	600	545	350	
Highest Grade Lev.	05	08	05	07	06	06	02	08	09	08	03	08	08	08	08	05	05	03	12	
Number of Grade Lev.	02	09	05	08	07	07	03	09	07	05	04	03	09	04	09	06	06	04	12	
Fear of Neg. Evaluation	17	04	07	09	21	13	02	11	05	03	00	09	07	06	06	05	02	03	12	
Extroversion Introversion	121	93	101	91	97	65	91	109	59	81	91	67	57	85	71	115	85	131	107	
Sensing-Intuitive	63	79	147	59	143	81	93	127	135	93	123	45	111	125	81	85	107	139	117	
Thinking-Feeling	145	129	103	95	113	125	127	93	115	125	115	127	107	127	101	131	85	97	139	
Judging-Perceiving	63	55	71	91	117	95	81	113	141	87	85	55	119	73	139	47	103	77	135	
Counseling Frequency	22	17	14	14	19	16	16	16	20	16	15	14	18	18	16	19	18	16	22	
Consulting Frequency	19	13	10	16	11	11	18	11	16	11	11	13	15	16	11	12	15	13	20	
Frequency Difference	31	32	32	28	31	33	26	33	32	33	32	29	31	30	33	35	31	31	30	
Counseling Preference	27	20	23	21	25	12	19	25	18	25	20	28	23	19	18	27	24	18	18	
Consulting Preference	25	18	26	23	23	19	25	15	23	28	26	27	21	21	19	26	27	20	24	
Preference Difference	30	30	25	26	30	21	22	31	30	25	22	29	30	26	27	29	25	26	22	