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The effect of the Enneagram on psychological well-being and unconditional self-acceptance of young adults

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The effect of the Enneagram on psychological well-being
and unconditional self-acceptance of young adults

by

Jeanne Godin

A dissertation submitted to the graduate faculty
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Major: Family and Consumer Sciences Education

Program of Study Committee

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ABSTRACT

This quasi-experimental study investigated whether the knowledge of the Enneagram system affects unconditional self-acceptance and psychological well-being of university students who have been attending university for at least a year. It also measured the correlation between the total scores on the psychological well-being instrument and unconditional self-acceptance questionnaire. A two-group design was employed, wherein a control and an experimental group completed a pre- and two post-tests on psychological well-being and unconditional self-acceptance. The randomly selected experimental group received three weekly educational sessions on the Enneagram system.

Results show that the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system does not have a significant effect on psychological well-being. Due to a small sample size and violation of the assumptions required to conduct an ANCOVA it was not possible to determine if the knowledge of the Enneagram affects unconditional self-acceptance. Findings indicate also a low to moderate positive correlation between the *Unconditional self-acceptance questionnaire* Chamberlain and Haaga (2001a) and Ryff *Psychological Well-Being Scale* (1989).

Recommendations include using a larger sample, changing the number of educational sessions or their format, and using an additional test to measure irrational thoughts. Therefore, in a future study it may be favorable that the intervention be an integral part of a family and consumer sciences university course. Finally, despite the results of this study there are some indicators that suggest the Enneagram system be taught in schools and

university to help prepare students to be more conscious of how marketing agencies may manipulate such knowledge to their advantage.

Keywords: psychological well-being, unconditional self-acceptance, Enneagram, personality, family and consumer sciences

CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Background of study

The well-being of individuals and families has been central to the mission of family and consumer sciences educators for over 100 years (International Federation for Home Economics, 2010). The current family and consumer sciences body of knowledge model prepared by Nickols, Ralston, Anderson, Browne, Schroeder, Thomas, and Wild (2009) outlines the conceptual scope of the field. One of the core concepts of the model is individual well-being which the authors characterize as being “a central tenet of family and consumer sciences” (p. 273). Brown and Paolucci (1979), who philosophically defined the field, state that the family, being one of the primary agents of socialization, instills ways of thinking in their children, which then dictates how they will interact with others. Brown and Paolucci (1979) and Brown (1993) add that self reflection and self-knowledge can help identify thought patterns that may be detrimental to individuals, their families and other interpersonal relationships and thus hamper their well-being. Their claim implies that individuals should critically look at thought patterns that have developed through socialization and seek to identify those that promote personal well-being and those that should be reassessed, abandoned or changed. Although Brown and Paolucci propose that self-knowledge is an important means to achieving well-being and that the family and consumer sciences educator’s role is to assist individuals and families to achieve a better state of well-being, they provide little guidance on how this can be accomplished.

The Rational Emotive Behavioral Theory (REBT) developed by Ellis (Ellis & Abrams, 2009) suggests that the concept self-knowledge is part of the broader concept of

unconditional self-acceptance. Ellis explains that everyone possesses levels of self-knowledge but the key factor to improving one's well-being is through unconditional self-acceptance (USA). According to Ellis's theory and Chamberlain (1999), Chamberlain and Haaga (2001a, 2001b), and Davies' (2006) research, personality plays a critical role in self-acceptance. Besides the work of these authors, there is limited evidence about how USA can be improved and if it affects well-being.

The knowledge of the Enneagram system (Dallaire, 2000, 2004, 2010; De Lassus, 2006; Riso & Hudson, 1999), a theory based on nine personality types, has helped me gain USA and enhance relationships with family members, friends, and co-workers, and therefore improved my well-being. The Enneagram is called a system because it provides knowledge beyond the identification of one's personality type (Riso & Hudson, 1999). This system provides not only information about one's personality type assessed with the *Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator*, but also knowledge of how and why each type will possess certain qualities or favor certain actions over others (Enneagram Institute, 2010). It also explains the relationship and interconnectedness between each type, as shown in Figure 1. Therefore, the Enneagram system, according to De Lassus (2006), helps individuals understand and accept not only themselves, but also others which can lead to more compassionate relationships and improved well-being.

The Enneagram has been investigated in a few research studies. Wagner (1981), Wagner and Walker (1983), Newgent (2001), Newgent, Parr, and Newman (2002), Newgent, Parr, Newman, and Higgins (2004), Bartman and Brown (2005), and Brown and Bartram (2005) evaluated the reliability and validity of the *Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator*, the instrument used to identify the personality type. Cohen (2007) suggests applications of

the Enneagram to psychological assessment and Matise (2007) promotes the Enneagram as a tool in counseling relationships. Jervis (2006) argues its symbolism and contemporary use. Kale and Shirvastava (2001), Kale and De (2006), and Kamineni (2005) discussed how the knowledge of the Enneagram system could be applied to human resources sub-functions such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, pay and, compensation and motivation.

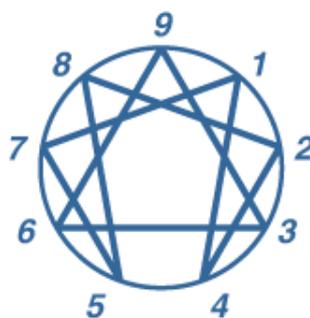


Figure 1 The Enneagram system

Besides the concept of personality, King (2007), Russell (2008), and Thogersen-Ntoumani and Fox (2005) attest that the concept of well-being is being researched more, especially because it has been linked to better health, increased job satisfaction and productivity, and decreased absenteeism from work. For example, there is much research on measuring the different types of well-being of individuals such as the psychological well-being (PWB) of affluent children (Luthar & Latendresse, 2005), the economical and PWB of children and family structure (Brown, 2004), the capabilities of well-being and the ageing population of New Zealand by King (2007), and the effect of parental work stress on children's and adolescents' PWB (Blustein, 2008; Crouter & Bumpus, 2001). The effects of parental divorce on the well-being of children (Strohschein, 2005) and adults (Amato &

Keith, 1991) have also been studied. Hence, no extant research has specifically investigated if the knowledge of the Enneagram system could improve PWB.

As a family and consumer sciences professor at the Université de Moncton, I prepare future educators to teach personal and social development courses in the school system. This university is the only higher education institution that offers a bachelor degree in family and consumer sciences. The province of New-Brunswick, the only bilingual province in Canada, has a dual system of education. Each linguistic community has authority over the school curriculum and the administration of its schools. To understand the Canadian societal and cultural context further, it should also be noted that family and consumer sciences does not have a national organization such as the American Association for Family and Consumer Sciences to advocate for its needs. Nevertheless, the French high school curriculum has a mandatory course in personal, social, and emotional education in grade nine and a second one in grade ten. In these courses, psychology and mental health principles are taught. Observing that the learning objectives related to personality in the current New Brunswick curriculum (New Brunswick Education Department, 2006, 2009) did not include the Enneagram led me to wonder if it could be a reliable tool to use in family and consumer sciences courses both at the university and school level.

The results of these research studies, coupled with my personal and professional experience, affirm the value of the Enneagram and have led me to investigate the effects of Enneagram system instruction on USA and PWB. Specifically, the primary aim of this study is to examine if knowledge of the Enneagram system affects unconditional self-acceptance (Chamberlain & Hagga, 2001a) and psychological well-being (Ryff, 1989). Hence, the

research question is: Does the knowledge of the Enneagram system affect unconditional self-acceptance and well-being as measured by psychological well-being in young adults?

Significance of Study

In recent years, the concept of well-being has become a concern in many fields (King, 2007; Russell, 2008; and Thogersen-Ntoumani & Fox, 2005). For example, the Department of Human Resources and Social Development of Canada has a web site called “Indicators of well-being in Canada.” This site (Canada, 2010) gathers data collected by Statistics Canada to present an overall picture of the well-being of Canadians through the following indicators: family life, social participation, leisure, health, security, environment, financial security, learning, work, and housing. For instance, under the health section, the site presents data on life expectancy at birth, infant mortality rate, and includes how many Canadians smoke, are obese, or participate in physical activity. The website provides a mostly demographic, economic, and statistical picture of the way Canadians live.

Moreover, organizations (Russell, 2008; Thogersen-Ntoumani & Fox, 2005) are introducing well-being committees or strategies in their human resources programs in an effort to improve public health and well-being. These initiatives by government and business demonstrate that well-being and wellness are more important issues now than they were ten years ago. This present study shares these interests while looking more closely at how self-knowledge affects the well-being of individuals.

In addition, well-being is a concern of family and consumer sciences educators who strive to assist individuals and families to improve well-being and who themselves require a

repertoire of strategies to make this goal achievable. This present research contributes to the knowledge base of the profession, informs its practices, and fosters its mission:

To enable families, both as individual units and generally as a social institution, to build and maintain systems of action which lead (1) to maturing in individual self-formation; and (2) to enlightened, cooperative participation in the critique and formulation of social goals and means for accomplishing them. (Brown & Paolucci, 1979, p. 47)

Any professional field relies on a knowledge base to accomplish its mission and research is the means by which this base or body of knowledge is “replenished and codified” (Nickols et al. 2009, p. 268). The current body of knowledge model (see Appendix A for complete model) emphasizes an integrative approach to the relationships among individuals, their families, and the communities in which they live. These integrative elements are life course development and human ecosystems which provide the theoretical context. The cross-cutting themes are (a) capacity building, (b) global interdependence, (c) resource development and sustainability, (d) appropriate use of technology, and (e) wellness. These themes represent historical continuity as well as contemporary trends within society. Central to the model are four core concepts. The first and most important concept is basic human needs. Family and consumer sciences has been a major contributor to human basic needs research as it has played and continues to play a key role in nutrition, housing, and resource management. The second concept is family strengths that focus study on family resiliency and strengths of individual members that help families endure hardship, stressors and crises. The third concept presented in the model is community vitality, which is the capacity to live, grow, and develop in a cohesive community.

Individual well-being, which has been included in the family and consumer sciences body of knowledge from the beginning of the profession, is the fourth core concept of the body of knowledge model for family and consumer sciences prepared by Nickols et al. (2009). The authors recognize the importance of individual well-being as they reiterate the words of Brown and Paolucci (1979) in the following statement:

Family and consumer sciences practice focuses on individual well-being as a clear outcome of work in the field. Stronger families or more viable communities cannot be developed without individuals “maturing in self formation” (Brown and Poalucci, 1979). In fact, bringing about change in families and communities is often reaching “one individual at a time” (Nickols et al., 2009, p. 273).

The authors suggest that the model can be used in total or in part to frame research projects. Thus, this research is framed on the core concept of individual well-being and seeks to identify the ways self-knowledge through the Enneagram system may improve individual well-being.

The participants of this research, young adults who have attended Mount Allison University for more than a year, are representative of the global trend of the lengthening of the transitional adolescent period. Arnett (2000) reports that in North America and Europe the average age for marriage and employment has been pushed back from 22 to 26 years. The current trend of increased education and dependency on parents is likely to be the cause of these changes (McLaughlin & Alexander, 2005). Thomson and Holland (2002) add that young people also seek to delay adulthood and suggest that the school’s curriculum has a significant part to play in this transitional period. McLaughlin and Alexander also believe that the decrease in social capital in many countries is linked to the fact that personal, social

and health education and citizenship remain on the periphery of educational practice rather than taking center stage. This research may widen the narrow view of intellectual development in educational circles and promote a more holistic view of the young adult. The findings may add to this body of evidence and heighten the concern of the psychological well-being and unconditional self acceptance knowledge of university students.

The present research contributes theoretically to the question of whether USA and PWB can be enhanced through an education intervention, specifically the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system. The findings also will be important to family and consumer sciences educators and practitioners as they indicate if this strategy may be useful in helping young adults in reaching increased USA (and self-knowledge) and affect PWB. It also contributes to the validation of Brown and Paolucci's (1979) philosophical proposition that self-knowledge through USA and PWB can help identify thought patterns that may be detrimental to individuals, their families and other interpersonal relationships.

Finally, this research presents an opportunity to contribute to the convergent validity of the *Unconditionnal self-acceptance questionnaire*. Convergent validity as explained by Anastasi and Urbina (1997) is the extent to which a measure correlates with other measures to assess similar constructs. Chamberlain (1999), Chamberlain and Haaga (2001a, 2001b), Davies (2006), and Stiner (2007) all contributed to the validation of the *Unconditionnal self-acceptance questionnaire*. Because this questionnaire has not been used as extensively in research as *Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale* (1989), an analysis of the relation between them was conducted through the Pearson product-moment correlation.

Research questions

This study is guided by the following research questions and corresponding hypothesis.

Research Question 1 Does a relationship exist between the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system and PWB?

H1: There is a significant relationship between the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system and total PWB scores.

Research Question 2 Does a relationship exist between the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system and USA?

H2: There is a significant relationship between the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system and total USA scores.

Research Question 3 Does a correlation exist between the USA and the PWB total scores?

H3: There is a positive correlation between the total USA scores and the total PWB scores.

Key terms

Psychological well-being (PSW): Ryff (1989) and Ryff and Singer (2008) melded the theories derived from the positive psychological functioning literature of Maslow, Rogers, Allport, Jung, Erickson, Neugarten, Frankl, Jahoda and Buhler; into the formulation of psychological well-being to describe a person functioning well in six dimensions: (a) self-acceptance, (b) positive relations with others, (c) autonomy, (d) environmental mastery, (e) purpose in life, and (f) personal growth.

Unconditional self-acceptance (USA): An attribute of individuals who accept one's good and undesirable aspects without self rating (Ellis & Abrams, 2009).

Enneagram system: A personality theory credited, according to Riso and Hudson (1999), to Oscar Ichazo who in 1950 integrated the nine personality types into the Enneagram symbol and to Claudio Naranjo, a psychiatrist, who studied under Ichazo in 1970. Naranjo, through the use of panels, elaborated further each personality type. Riso and Hudson (Enneagram Institute, 2010) define the system as a person-centered trait approach known as a prototypical approach to aid personal understanding and development. It can be thought of as a particular pattern, a profile, or a configuration of trait attributes that can include from healthy to unhealthy behaviors, motivations, values, thinking styles, and ways of problem solving. The main claims about personality in this system, according to Riso and Hudson, the creators of the Enneagram Institute (2010), are that: (a) There are only nine personality types, (b) every human being is only one type but can fluctuate between healthy and unhealthy characteristics belonging to his or her type, and (c) no personality type is superior to the other but each has strengths to contribute to the world.

Personality: Overt and covert actions, behaviors, styles of thought, speech, perception, and interpersonal interactions that are consistently characteristic of an individual (Ellis & Abrams, 2009).

Assumptions

Three basic assumptions are contained in this research. First, it is assumed that all participants answered sincerely when responding to the instruments. Second, all respondents were capable of perceiving and accurately reporting their PWB and USA. Finally, it is assumed that three information sessions about the Enneagram personality system were sufficient to create knowledge change in the participants.

Limitations

This study has limitations. First, social desirability may influence the total scores of the PWB and USA instrument. Social desirability refers to the tendency to present oneself in a good light to the researcher. Secondly, Ryff (1989), author of the PWB instrument, also warns that the questionnaire mostly depicts middle-class values. The students attending the Mount Allison University in Sackville may not all be from this social class. It should also be noted that the students volunteered to participate in the research knowing the subject was personality and well-being, therefore they had an initial interest in the subject.

Finally, the funds available to complete this research were limited. The results can generalize to a student population similar to the age and demographic status of the sample.

CHAPTER 2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Theoretical perspective

Although all personality theories somewhat agree on the definition of personality, not all psychologists agree on how the comprehensive and reasonably consistent patterns of human behavior develop. These disagreements, according to Ellis and Abrams (2009), are the reason many theories and models have emerged. Personality psychology is called upon whenever society is threatened by human predators such as sociopaths, but more commonly, personality theories can help us understand how people differ in their thinking, behavior and processing of information. This knowledge can help individuals understand and predict behavior.

Among the many personality theories available such as psychoanalytic, neo-psychoanalytic, behavioral, humanistic, genetic/biological, cognitive and trait, the one chosen to guide this research is the rational emotive behavioral theory (REBT). As will be explained in this section, REBT integrates the concepts of personality, self-knowledge, self-acceptance, and the questioning of thought patterns accumulated through socialization in order to increase well-being. This humanistic and cognitive theory was founded through the collective works of two theorists, Albert Bandura and Ulric Neisser, and a clinician, Albert Ellis (Ellis & Abrams, 2009).

Bandura, an educational psychologist, is known as the first to elaborate a personality theory based on social cognition, which means information processing mediates between observing and learning and the actions we choose to take (Bandura & Walters, 1963). He was the first to demonstrate that one learns from observing the behaviors of others. For example, if a child sees another receive either a positive or negative reinforcement, the

observing child will learn from that experience and adapt his own behavior consequently.

Bandura's theory was constructed through the combination of his own research and the integration of his findings with those of others from anthropology, sociology and a number of clinical and psychiatric sources.

Not long after, in 1967, Neisser introduced the concept of cognitive psychology. His theory marked the beginning of the shift away from behaviorism. Prior to his discovery, personality through the behaviorist lens was the sum of all stimuli-response connections. With the invention of computers, Neisser and others began to doubt that the human brain which had created the device was not as sophisticated as the "black box." His contribution to the study of human memory and intelligence demonstrated that a part of personality is concerned with information processing. Therefore, how humans perceive and interpret the world may differ according to one's personality (Neisser, 1967).

The discoveries of these two founders supported the REBT developed by Ellis (Ellis & Abrams, 2009). As a clinician, he began by practicing traditional psychoanalytic and Rogerian psychotherapy where the therapist spends considerable time showing a patient how he or she originally became neurotic. At that time, Ellis deplored the fact that most psychoanalysis was not scientifically based or oriented. Although Ellis started publishing his more directive type of psychotherapy known as rational psychotherapy in 1955, it was not until the early 2000s that the theory was stated explicitly (Ellis & Abrams, 2009). Prior to this, his theory was mostly implied in his publications that evolved from the aforementioned rational psychotherapy to rational-emotive therapy and finally to rational emotive behavioral therapy. This model of personality was constructed on direct clinical experience and on the

findings of other researchers such as Schachter and Singer (1962), Kahneman, Slovic, and Tversky (1982), and LeDoux (1994).

Schachter and Singer's (1962) experiments demonstrated that cognitive interpretation has a powerful effect on how one feels and behaves. Kahneman, Slovic, and Tversky (1982) proposed that a majority of people use heuristics to make sense of the world around them, but this method leads them to incorrect conclusions or irrational beliefs, as Ellis calls them. Finally, LeDoux (1994), a neuropsychologist, studied the biological basis of emotions. His work on animals led him to discover that the thalamus, a nonconscious (as opposed to unconscious because it has been detected with neuro science) area of the brain, can produce strong emotional reaction well before the conscious cortex is notified. This explains how one can freeze when met with a difficult situation; the nonconscious takes over. LeDoux's experiments demonstrated that this passive fear can be replaced by active coping strategies. If one initiates an easy action, the inaction and the fear disappear. This discovery followed by application to humans, solidified Ellis's theory that conscious cognitive learning and practice or actions can mediate these nonconscious emotional reactions that keep individuals trapped in fear, dread, disgust, or rage.

These research results made the REBT plausible because it provides the experimental data that support Ellis's view that personality is influenced by the interrelation of our thoughts, behavior, and emotions. Thus having explained the research and theoretical background of the REBT, the following section will examine how Ellis views personality and why it is appropriate for this research.

REBT and personality

Ellis's view of personality attests that it is fully established once the prefrontal cortex is fully developed, therefore when children and adolescents have more control over their behavior, this indicates that their personality is established. He does not subscribe to the notion of fixed developmental stages but prefers the neuro-developmental perspective proposed by Jean Piaget. He also believes that children's personalities are linked to their innate styles of thinking and develop with the maturation of their brain (Ellis & Abrams, 2009).

The essential premise of REBT is that "personality results from the interplay of learned and innate styles of thinking" (Ellis & Abrams, 2009, p. 15) hence; "human personality consists of all biological drives, impulses, and styles of information processing, both rational and irrational" (pp. 484-485). Although the rational thoughts do not seem to cause many problems, the irrational beliefs, according to the authors, can lead to distorted views of reality, ourselves, and others and bring emotional pain.

Although Ellis reported in 1987 identifying hundreds of irrationalities from working with thousands of REBT clients, he began by enumerating four categories: (a) irrational beliefs about competence and success; (b) irrational beliefs about love and approval; (c) irrational beliefs about being treated unfairly; and (d) irrational beliefs about safety and comfort. Later, in 2009, Ellis and Abrams added the following ten categories: (a) prejudiced-based irrationalities that include political dogmas and social biases; (b) irrational beliefs used to support or justify habits; (c) irrationalities that maintain or encourage the development of personality disorders; (d) dogmatic religious irrationalities; (e) political, social, and, economical irrationalities; (f) irrational beliefs derived from custom and conformity; (g) ego-

related irrationalities that include self-deification, or the perceived need that we are superior to others; (h) errors in logic and, reason; (i) social irrationalities; and (j) irrationality regarding emotions and emotion-based reasoning.

Ellis (1987) explains that when an individual has irrational thoughts about competence and success, for example, the person will first have such self-talk as, “Because I strongly desire to perform important tasks competently and successfully, I absolutely must perform them well (and I am an inadequate incompetent person if I don’t)” (p. 371). This kind of thought, Ellis proposed can easily be dismissed by thinking rationally and accepting that one cannot be competent at all times in every endeavour; therefore one ought to accept the emotions that come with this realization and move on. But what happens, Ellis explains, is that the irrational thought is transformed into a need and leads to emotional disturbance and behavioral malfunctions. The person then has what Ellis calls secondary problems, meaning the person not only gets depressed in situations of incompetence, but also gets depressed about being depressed for such a benign reason. It becomes a vicious cycle. The person’s thoughts then escalate to levels such as, “Because I strongly desire to perform important tasks competently and successfully, because I feel so anxious and depressed when I do not, my powerful feelings of worthlessness prove that I absolutely must perform well!” (Ellis & Abrams, 2009, p. 372).

How REBT helps individuals reassess these thought patterns is through the realization that humans have control of their emotional state and are able to increase this control, if they work at doing so. As mentioned previously, neuropsychological research (LeDoux, 1994) also supports this theory with evidence that the majority of an individual’s emotional

predispositions are innate, but that one can learn to reduce their effects through learned cognitive change.

REBT and unconditional self-acceptance

The second assumption of this theory is that rather than have high self-esteem or a positive self-concept, one should have unconditional self-acceptance (USA). This statement suggests that our value is linked to our existence. Hence, we should abandon the impossible quests of raising or trying to quantify our self-esteem. When we are able to accept the good and the undesirable aspects of ourselves, Abrams and Ellis (2009) claim, we allow for better interpersonal relationships and lead a more satisfying life while being more emotionally balanced. In return, Abrams and Ellis conclude, USA will lead to unconditional acceptance of others and better relationships.

Although personality is largely innate, Ellis (1987) believed that through persistent work and self-knowledge, changes in personality can occur. The final assumption supports this view that changes in personality can occur through work and self-knowledge. Ellis's theory supports the idea that if an individual increases self-knowledge, he or she should be able to understand how one may be holding beliefs and enacting behaviors that are detrimental to his or her own well-being. Ellis also suggests that psycho-educational strategies may help individuals realize the amplitude of their irrational beliefs. In this statement, he acknowledges the use of an educational intervention to increase self-knowledge and deter irrational thoughts. The knowledge of the Enneagram system which highlights how one's personality influences one's reactions, behaviors and thought patterns may then be an appropriate tool to identify irrational beliefs and increase USA.

Related research

In this section, a review of the research related to the central constructs of the proposed hypothesis is presented: USA, the Enneagram personality system, and PWB.

Unconditional self-acceptance

Chamberlain and Haaga (2001a, 2001b), attest that esteeming oneself either favorably or unfavorably is illogical, unhealthy, and counterproductive. To demonstrate this, these authors created the *Unconditional Self-Acceptance Questionnaire* based on REBT and completed two studies with the hypothesis that USA is associated with a mentally healthy philosophy. The first included 107 participants recruited from a newspaper advertisement and the second, 86 university undergraduates. The participants completed the following measures: a) *Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale*, b) *Beck Depression Inventory*, c) *Beck Anxiety Inventory*, d) *Marlowe-Crown Scale*, e) *Narcissistic Personality Inventory*, f) *Satisfaction with Life Scale*, g) *Articulated Thoughts during Simulated Situations*, and h) *Unconditional Self-Acceptance Questionnaire*. Both of these studies concluded that unconditionally self-accepting individuals are lower in anxiety, less critical of others, and less prone to depression, when self-esteem is partialled out. What surprised the authors is that self-esteem was highly correlated with USA ($r = .56, p < .05$). This result, the authors explain, may be due to the constructs' overlap, or that this reflects the relationship that exists in the real world; meaning that if one esteems oneself, he or she also accepts oneself unconditionally. Finally, the authors suggest that USA could be used to measure therapy or educational program outcomes because it inversely correlates with anxiety and depression.

Thompson and Waltz (2008) examined the relationship between mindfulness (non-judgemental attitude toward moment-to-moment unfolding of an experience), self-esteem,

and unconditional self-acceptance. Their correlational study was conducted in an Introductory Psychology college class where 167 students participated. The university students completed the *Mindful Attention Awareness Scale*, the *Cognitive and Affective Mindfulness Scale-Revised*, the *Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale*, and the *Unconditional Self-Acceptance Questionnaire*. Through significant Pearson correlation coefficient values, the results showed that everyday mindfulness is related to both unconditional self-acceptance and self-esteem. These results also demonstrated how there is overlap between the *Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale* and the *Unconditional Self-Acceptance Questionnaire*. Therefore the delimitation between self-esteem and unconditional self-acceptance ($r = .51, p = .001$) may not be as clear as they had hoped because mindfulness was not more strongly related to USA than to self-esteem.

Hall, Hill, Appleton, and Kozub (2009) also recently found that USA fully mediates the relationship between socially prescribed perfectionism and exercise dependence. To discover this, the authors used descriptive statistics, correlations, and a path analysis design to analyze the scores of 307 (109 females, 194 males, and 4 gender not disclosed) middle-distance UK runners of average age 40 years. Besides demographic information and activity patterns, the runners completed the *Exercise Dependency Questionnaire*, the *Flett and Hewitt Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale*, the *Labile Self-Esteem Scale*, and the *Unconditional Self-Acceptance Questionnaire*. The *Labile Self-Esteem Scale* differs from the *Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale*, as it consists of only 5 items which reflect a tendency to experience shifts in self-esteem. The correlation found between USA and labile self-esteem was $r = .45$ ($p < 0.01$). The structural equation model using the 5.0 version of the AMOS statistical software package determined that self-acceptance or lack of it fully mediates this relationship for both

males and females. This means that the higher the score on USA the least likely were the participants to become exercise dependent.

Hall, Hill, Appleton, and Kozub (2008) recently found that USA partially mediates the relationship between perfectionism and athletes' burnout. To discover this, a correlation design was employed with 151 male United Kingdom soccer players of average age 14 years. They completed a multi-sectional questionnaire, including the *Flett and Hewitt Multidimensional Perfectionism Scale*, *Readeke and Smith Athlete Burnout Questionnaire*, and *Unconditional Self-Acceptance Questionnaire*. The structural equation model conducted using version 5.0 of the AMOS statistical software package determined that self-acceptance or lack of it combined with perfectionism (either self-oriented or socially prescribed) render young athletes vulnerable to burnout.

Davies (2006) pursued Chamberlain and Haaga's (2001a, 2001b) work and investigated the link between USA and irrational beliefs. In a study of 158 undergraduate students aged 18-48, Davies confirmed that irrational beliefs are negatively related to unconditional self-acceptance as measured with the *Unconditional Self-Acceptance Questionnaire* and that various types of irrational beliefs differ in their strength with USA. The instrument used was the *General Attitude and Belief Scale* (GABS), which measures REBT irrational thinking such as rationality, self-downing, need for achievement, need for approval, need for comfort, demand for fairness, and other-downing. Davies' results demonstrate that the strongest items: need for approval, need for achievement, and self-downing of GABS are negatively related to unconditional self-acceptance. These results confirm Ellis's REBT in a non-clinical population and suggest that individuals with higher scores in USA have fewer

irrational beliefs. They also suggest that the participants of the present research attaining higher levels of USA after the intervention might have less irrational beliefs.

The most recent empirical research that is closest in design to the present research, is from Stiner (2007). The REBT-based quasi-experimental research had three aims: evaluate the psychometric properties of the USA questionnaire (Chamberlain & Haaga, 2001), seek to identify if a relationship exists between self-acceptance and risk of eating disorder, and attempt to increase self-acceptance of high school students through a six-session intervention. The results confirmed the acceptable validity and reliability of the USA questionnaire and that low self-acceptance is associated with risk of an eating disorder, but the prevention program failed to improve scores of self-acceptance. Stiner, discussing the limitations of her research, suggests that the small sample size ($n = 71$) was a drawback. Through class enrolment, the participants were divided into three groups: an independent sample ($n = 22$), an experimental group ($n = 23$) and a control group ($n = 26$). She also warns of the bias of participants; because they chose to participate they may not represent the general population. She also realizes that the time elapsed (6 weeks) may not be enough to have a significant impact on USA. Finally, the author explains that the session content was not conceived to raise self-acceptance, but mostly to prevent an eating disorder.

The prevention sessions included in Stiner's (2007) research may have also lacked the identification of irrational thoughts as described in the REBT. The role of the participant's personality had not been taken into account, as suggested by Merrill and Strauman (2004) and Cervone (2004), which I will discuss in the following section. Therefore, the present research is similar to Stiner's, but sought to discover if the knowledge of the Enneagram system affects USA.

The Enneagram system

Merrill and Strauman (2004) deplore the fact that personality has played such a limited role in cognitive-behavioral therapies. They contend that most personality research done in the past has been to find cures for personality disorders or evaluate the effects of treatments. With the recent social-cognitive theories of personality, the authors would like to see more research aimed at finding ways to enhance personality strengths that may help plan appropriate intervention by therapists. The authors seem to want to be able to use personality assessment in a more proactive way.

Cervone (2004), also on the subject of personality, presents a critique of the traditional assessment strategies based on “between-persons factor-analytic construct.” He deplores that these strategies do not treat people as human beings. To justify this statement, he claims that four of the five dimensions of the Five Factor Model (Costa & McCrae, 1990) can be found not only among persons, but also animals such as monkeys and dogs. Therefore, he argues that personality assessments ought to focus on unique qualities of humans. Cervone (2004) also cites Borsboom, Mellenbergh, and van Heerden (2003), who criticize how between-persons factor-analytic constructs are obtained from averages of many individuals, meaning that they really do not represent anyone in particular. Both these views lead to looking at other types of personality assessments, such as the Enneagram which has not been studied in relation to USA and PWB.

Although the history of the Enneagram system is still being debated (Ellis & Abrams, 2009), the majority of research (Brown & Bartram, 2005; Newgent, 2001; Newgent, Parr, & Newman, 2002; Newgent, Parr, Newman, & Higgins, 2004) identified in this document refer to the system developed by Riso and Hudson (1999). Dallaire (2000, 2004, 2010) and De

Lassus (2006) describe the Enneagram system as a way of understanding people's behavior, motivations, values, thinking selves, and ways of solving problems.

Brown and Bartram (2005), from the SHL People Performance Group known for the creation of the Occupational Personality Questionnaire, describe the assumptions contained in the Enneagram system. First, no personality type is inherently better or worse than the other. Each type has levels of development; therefore there exists a wide spectrum of behaviors and motivations within each type. Second, not every attribute used to describe the type will apply to people all the time: the basic type will vary between healthy, average, and unhealthy levels depending on stress, health issues, and/or situations. Third, no one is a pure personality. Everyone is a mixture of his or her basic type, with two adjacent types called wings (e.g., the type 2 has complementary or contradictory attributes from both its wings: type 1 and 3). Finally, Brown and Bartram remind us that the nine types also form three triads. Types 8, 9, and 1 are instinctive; 2, 3, and 4 are the feeling triad; while 5, 6, and 7 are the thinking group. Dallaire (2004) adds that the instinctive group is mostly focused on action, although the feeling group is focused on rallying people together, and the thinking group is more in retreat compared to the others because they live mostly in their imagination.

The nine personality types constitute a taxonomy of individual differences. In Appendix B, the nine Enneagram personality types are briefly described and are compared with other typologies. The comparison is presented to demonstrate how each type is specific and different from the traits of other known typologies such as the DSM-IV categories of personality disorders, Freud's typology and the Five Factor model.

The Enneagram has never been used to measure its effect on USA and PWB. Wagner and Walker (1983), Newgent (2001), Newgent, Parr, and Newman (2002), Newgent, Parr,

Newman, and Higgins (2004), and Bartman and Brown (2005) evaluated the reliability and validity of the Enneagram questionnaires used to identify the personality types and these are their results.

Wagner and Walker (1983) were among the first to initiate the validation of the Enneagram questionnaires. Through workshops and classes, the authors identified a pool of 390 adult and college-age subjects who knew enough of the Enneagram to identify themselves. The 239 subjects who accepted were administered the *Myers-Briggs type indicator Form F* (1976) and the *Millon-Illinois Self-Report Inventory: Form P* (1974) personality inventory to establish concurrent validity. For this study, Wagner's (1981) *Enneagram Personality Inventory*, with 135 items (15 for each type), was used. The results indicated a Cohen's Kappa Coefficient ranging from .76 to 1.00 for the nine types for reliability. The concurrent validity was highly significant for both the Myers-Briggs and Millon scales and the nine personality types. Although the *Enneagram Personality Inventory* indicated an accuracy which was greater than chance, the author felt it still needed refinement because the positive affirmations contributed more to the overall alpha than did the negative elements.

Newgent (2001), Newgent, Parr, and Newman (2002), and Newgent, Parr, Newman, and Higgins (2004) used the *Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator, Version 2.5* from Riso and Hudson (1999) to psychometrically validate the Enneagram personality types. This instrument consists of 144 forced-choice items of normal personality that measures the nine personality types. As a result, six of the nine personality types achieved a coefficient greater than or equal to .70, which is considered acceptable (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) for reliability (personality type 1, 2, 4, 7, 8, and 9). The lowest score of the Cronbach coefficient

alpha was .56, for personality types 3 and 5, and .66 for type 6. Because mixed support for construct validity using correlational and canonical analyses was found, the authors recommended that, although the instrument has heuristic value, further testing should be done to assess the psychometric scores of the *Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator*.

Bartman and Brown's (2005) research found:

...that it is possible to predict type membership with a high degree of accuracy using trait-based measures. For both the prototypical and the categorical cases, OPQ32 scales could be used to model type patterns and predict type membership with above 70% accuracy. (p. 5)

Unfortunately, the white paper is the only publication that does not provide details on how the results were obtained. But in another document by the same authors, Brown and Bartram (2005) found that the nine personality types are real and objective, and stand on par psychometrically with Myers-Briggs system and the Big Five. The research was done with the collaboration of the Enneagram Institute which provided contact information for a sample of 241 volunteers from different countries who already knew their personality type. The participants (27% male and 73% female) completed the OPQ32 online. The results show that each type is characterized by different scores on the Big Five and the SHL Universal Competency Framework Great Eight Factor scores (measured with OPQ32).

Three other scholarly documents describe the use of the Enneagram. Kale and Shirvastava (2001) and Kale and De (2006) discuss how the knowledge of the Enneagram could be applied to human resources' sub-functions such as recruitment and selection, training and development, performance appraisal, pay and compensation, and motivation. The article by Kale and De (2006) is unfortunately not favorable for pro-consumers family

and consumer sciences teachers whose aim is to empower individuals and families to question the neo-liberalism ideology and capitalist society as explained by McGregor (2009). The article presented at the Australian and New Zealand Marketing Academy conference in December 2006, by Kale and De (2006) states: “Given the wealth of information the Enneagram potentially affords, scholars in marketing are urged to employ this framework for marketing-related research” (p. 5) and adds “The Enneagram has solid psychometric properties” as they refer to the already mentioned Brown and Bartram report (2005) and also cite Newgent, Parr, Newman, and Higgins (2004). It is therefore important that the Enneagram system be taught in schools and university to help prepare students to be more conscious of how marketing agencies manipulate such knowledge to their advantage. McGregor (2009) agrees with this when she reminds family and consumer sciences educators to empower individuals to become transformational leaders for the well-being of humanity, rather than advantage a few powerful neoliberal corporations. Ethically speaking, only one small paragraph of Kale and De’s (2006) document cautions managers:

As a manager becomes increasingly more familiar with the Enneagram, it becomes possible, in many cases, to be able to ascertain people’s type through mere interaction. However, such tendency to type people needs to be kept in check as this violates the fundamental principle of self-discovery, the very foundation of the Enneagram. (p. 4)

The third document exposing the use of the Enneagram system is from Cohen (2007) who enumerates its application to psychological assessment. She reports that clinicians find that the Enneagram system facilitates the rapport-building between the client and the

therapist, that countertransference is more illuminated, that it helps in the assessment of mental status, and that it provides insight into the wishes, defences and suffering of patients.

Luckcock (2008), in an article on spiritual intelligence in leadership development, suggests that it is appropriate to include the Enneagram system in educational leadership programs:

Another approach, which I have benefited from personally in my own continuing professional development, is the Enneagram system ... which can be used to discern an individual's predisposition towards one of the nine particular world views, each with a particular emotional and cognitive perspective, which relates to intrapersonal, interpersonal, and transpersonal development. Whether such approaches could easily be incorporated into mass leadership development programmes sensitively is debatable, but they do suggest that a more personalized approach to professional learning ... could be encouraged. (p. 389)

The discussed research results summarize the current state of research with the Enneagram personality system and also suggest how it can increase self-knowledge. Although the results demonstrate mixed results for the validity and reliability of the *Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator*, Version 2.5, from Riso and Hudson (1999), it is important to note that for the present research, the accuracy of the type determination is not a necessity. The research has demonstrated how each personality type from the Enneagram personality system is specific and different from the traits of other known typologies such as the Big Five and the OPQ32 (Bartman & Brown, 2005). Riso and Hudson (1999) as shown in Appendix B, have compared the types to Freud's typology and the personality disorders

identified in the DSM-IV. The aim of present research was to seek the effect of the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system on self-knowledge and relationships by the measuring USA and PWB.

Psychological well-being

In the past decade increased research has been done for the concept of well-being. It has been linked to better health, increased job satisfaction and productivity, and decreased absenteeism from work (King, 2007; Russell, 2008; Thogersen-Ntoumani & Fox, 2005). Subjective well-being is by far the most widely used indicator of well-being. Inglehart, Foa, Peterson, and Welzel (2008) demonstrate this by analyzing data collected through surveys of adults from 52 nations between 1981 and 2007. The data were collected through the World Values Surveys and European Values Study. The two questions used to determine the subjective well-being index are: how satisfied with their life as a whole are the participants (1-10 scale) and how happy are they (four categories from *very happy* to *not happy at all*). These questions, originally formulated by Andrews and Withey (1976), are also being used in the research conducted by Ed Diener (Diener, 2000; Diener, & Diener 1996). Although these survey questions imply a global assessment of one's life, they fail to assess the integrative and interdependent relationship among individuals, families and community, a perspective on well-being proposed by the family and consumer sciences body of knowledge model (Nickols et al, 2009). The human ecosystems theory which examines families and individuals in relation to their environment justifies the use of the *Ryff Psychological Well-being Scale* for this research because its questions evaluate relationships with others, environmental mastery, and purpose in life.

In her critique of the formulations of the concept of well-being, Ryff (1989) explains how the different concepts of well-being used in research are not strong theoretically and lack aspects of positive psychological functioning. She provides examples such as the balance of the positive and negative affect, which became the index of happiness, the life satisfaction index, and subjective well-being. Therefore, Ryff operationalized aspects of well-being derived from the positive functioning theories of a) Maslow for self-actualisation, b) Rogers for the fully functioning person, c) Allport for maturity, d) Jung for individuation, e) Erickson for personal development, f) Neugarten for executive processes of personality, g) Buhler for the basic life tendencies, h) Jahoda for mental health, and i) Frankl for the search for meaning. From these nine theories, she developed *Ryff's psychological well-being questionnaire*.

PWB according to Ryff (1989), Ryff and Keyes (1995), and Ryff and Singer (2008) refer to a person functioning well in the following six dimensions:

1) *self-acceptance*. Well functioning individuals possess a positive attitude toward self while acknowledging that self encompasses both good and bad aspects, and they feel positive about past life. Ryff and Singer (2008) claim that self-acceptance is a long-term process that involves awareness, “to strive to accurately perceive our own actions, motivations, and feelings” (p. 20).

2) *positive relations with others*. Well functioning persons have satisfying, open, and trusting relationships with others while understanding the give and take of human relation.

3) *autonomy*. Well functioning persons are self-determined and independent. They do not rely on the judgement of others to make important decisions and have the ability to regulate their behavior from within. Ryff and Singer (2008) refer to Maslow's (1968) proposal that

self-actualizers resist enculturation and to life-span developmentalists as Jung (1933), Erikson (1959), and Neugarten (1968) who describe autonomy as “a sense of freedom of the norms governing everyday life” (p. 23).

4) *environmental mastery*. Well functioning individuals find or create through mental or physical activities an environment that suits their personal needs and capacities. They have a sense of competence while making effective use of available opportunities.

5) *purpose in life*. Well functioning persons feel and create meaning and purpose in their present and past life by having goals.

6) *personal growth*. Well functioning persons have a continual concern for developing their potential rather than achieving a fixed state where all problems are solved. They are open to new experiences and change in ways that reflect self-knowledge and effectiveness.

Ryff's (1989) *Psychological Well-being Scale* has been used in over a hundred research studies since its publication (C. D. Ryff, personal communication, October 2008). Out of these, only three investigated personality and well-being. Fleeson and Heckhausen (1997), through a correlational study with 398 German participants between the ages of 26 and 64 years, assessed the past, present, future, and ideal perceived lifetime personality during adulthood; and well-being. The participants' responses led the authors to conclude that adult self reports of well-being and personality traits contrast with earlier findings that these are invariable. Although these were perceived personality and well-being changes over an extended lifespan, the results provided for the age group of 26 to 35, which will be the closest to the age group of my research participants, have shown that self-acceptance and positive relations to others had increased from retrospect to present and was anticipated to increase in the future.

The second research also dates from 1997 and is from Schutte and Ryff who investigated the connection between personality and psychological well-being with two samples of midlife adults ($n = 215$ and $n = 139$). Their aim was to differentiate among the constructs of personality and psychological well-being because prior research which indicates the link between personality and emotional experience or happiness failed to be based on theories of positive functioning and optimal human development. In this study the participants judged their life outcomes rather than report on positive and negative feelings during recent weeks. The results demonstrate that psychological well-being may be achieved by more people than just the extraverted and non-neurotic, as previous results have suggested.

The third research addresses the topic of emotional intelligence, personality, and the perceived quality of social relationships (Lopes, Salovey, & Straus, 2003). A sample of 103 college students completed an emotional intelligence test, a measure of verbal intelligence, five factor personality scales, and the subscale of Positive Relation to Others from Ryff's psychological well-being instrument. The results demonstrated modest yet significant correlations between emotional skills, personality dispositions, and self-reported satisfaction with relationships in life. This research, which parallels the sample population that will be used in my research, attests that we may anticipate a change in the subscale of positive relation to others through increased self-knowledge through the Enneagram.

Operationalization of psychological well-being by Ryff (1989), Ryff and Keyes (1995), and Ryff and Singer (2008) is the most compatible with the Enneagram personality system, the family and consumer sciences body of knowledge model, and Ellis's REBT. As Riso and Hudson (1999) explain, the Enneagram is a tool that can transform life. Strategies

that were explained and put into practice between the intervention sessions with the experimental group, such as learning to observe one-self and letting go, becoming aware of habitual patterns of actions, and understanding our fears, issues, and feelings that may be blocking growth should be appropriately measured with the dimensions of the PWB instrument. Also, Riso and Hudson (1999) and Abrams and Ellis (2009) recognize that personal growth needs work and does not happen magically. Therefore the participants in this research received three weekly informational sessions followed by a follow up questionnaire after a two month period in order to verify if the integration of the knowledge of the Enneagram to their lives had modified their well-being and self-acceptance.

In conclusion, this chapter presented the rationale for choosing the REBT theory to guide this research and a review of the literature related to the central constructs of the proposed hypothesis was presented: USA, the Enneagram personality system, and PWB. The research reviewed made the REBT plausible because it provides the experimental data that support Ellis's view that personality is influenced by the interrelation of our thoughts, behavior, and emotions. Although the effect of the Enneagram is recognized in the marketing and leadership domains, there are no studies reporting its affect on PWB or USA. The following section will describe the method used in this research.

CHAPTER 3. METHOD

Rationale

The purpose of this quasi-experimental study was to investigate whether the knowledge of the Enneagram system affects unconditional self-acceptance (USA) and psychological well-being (PWB) of university students who have been attending Mount Allison University in Sackville, New-Brunswick for at least a year. It also measured the correlation between the total scores on the psychological well-being (PWB) instrument and *Unconditional Self-acceptance Questionnaire (USAQ)*.

Design

A two-group design was employed, wherein a control and an experimental group completed a pre- and two post-tests on PWB and USA. The independent variable in this study was the three educational sessions on the Enneagram system, considered to be the treatment, or lack of treatment. The dependent variables were the dimensions of PWB and the *USAQ*. The dependent variables were measured at Time 1, during the week preceding the three weekly educational sessions on the Enneagram personality system; at Time 2, during the week following these sessions; and at Time 3, two months after Time 2 in order to detect any consequence or presumed effect of the treatment (Lobiondo-Wood & Haber, 2009). The Time 1 pre-test determined the baseline of psychological well-being and self-acceptance of both groups. The following week, the experimental group received their first of three educational sessions on the Enneagram. These sessions were two hours in duration.

Participants

The participants in this study were students attending Mount Allison University, in New Brunswick, Canada who have been attending this university for at least a year. The

province of New Brunswick's population is 719,650 (Statistics Canada, 2007) with two official languages: French 32% and English 64%. It has eight universities where one is a for-profit online university, four are smaller religious oriented universities and three are large public, non-profit universities. One of these three, being the place of employment of the researcher, is a French language university. Due to the extended time and funds it would have required to translate the instruments and the content of the intervention, it was not considered for this research. In order to complete this research in English, a choice between two universities was left. Mount Allison University was chosen for its proximity. The choice of selecting post first-year students avoided measuring the first-year adaptation period, which generally occurs when most students move from high school to university studies (Gore, 2005).

Wallen and Fraenkel (2001) recommend describing the population with as many details as possible so that other researchers can determine the applicability of the results. Therefore, the ethnic origin and the participant's socio-economic level are data commonly collected in the demographic section of most research questionnaires. However, because personality is a universal human characteristic which is fully developed by adolescence (Ellis & Abrams, 2009) and is not affected by these traits, the participants were not asked these demographic questions.

According to the Iowa State University Institutional Review Board, research participants under the legal age, which is 19 in New Brunswick, need to obtain parental consent to participate in research. Because a great number of students attending the university are not currently living with their parents, it was decided to restrict the participation to students who were 19 years of age or older. Therefore, the results of this

study can generalize to the student population of Mount Allison University and to other youth who have similar university experience, are 19 years old or older and for whom the universities' demographic characteristics are similar to those of Mount Allison. Mount Allison University has a capped student population of 2250 which is composed of 60% from the Maritime Provinces (New Brunswick, Nova Scotia and Prince Edward Island), 30% from the rest of Canada, and 10% international students (Mount Allison University, 2007).

The ethics approval was obtained from the Research Ethics Board of Mount Allison University in July 2009 and from the Institutional Review Board of Iowa State University in September 2009 (see Appendix C, D and E). Upon obtaining these approvals, the director of the Office of Research Services from Mount Allison University provided a list of professors who taught large group classes of 50 students or more, in the fall semester 2009. The courses selected were offered mostly to second and third year students. The following weeks were spent identifying classes and communicating with their professors to obtain permission to visit their class to recruit participants. Because I teach full time at another university, some classes were not visited due to conflicts of class schedules. Out of a possible list of 20 courses, 15 professors were contacted and 13 of them accepted the class visit.

Scheduled at the beginning of each class, these visits allowed me to explain the purpose of the research and the time commitment required. First, the students were informed that they had to be at least 19 years old as of September 1, 2009 and to have attended this university for at least a year. Secondly, they were told that the purpose of the study was to examine whether personality affects self-acceptance and well-being of university students and that it involved completing a questionnaire on three occasions: mid-October, mid-November and early January, and that each may take approximately 50 minutes to complete.

Thirdly, they were advised that half of the participants would be randomly assigned to an experimental group and would receive three educational sessions about personality and relationships which would be approximately two hours long and offered once a week for three consecutive weeks. Therefore, they knew the time commitment required could either be three hours for the control group or, at the most, nine hours for the experimental group. They were then cautioned that if selected for the experimental group, they would complete a personality assessment and because the assessment had not been fully tested to be an accurate measure of one's personality type, that it may not reflect their actual personality.

They were advised that there were no potential risks to participating in this study, and that they could choose not to participate in the discussions during the educational sessions or skip questions on the questionnaires. Finally, participants in the study were explained the incentives to participate in the research. First, they would be eligible to win a \$200 CAN (\$175 US) bursary. The approximate odds of winning were 1 in 200 or better, depending on the number of participants and their level of participation. Each participant would earn a chance for each component of the research project they completed. The draw for the prize would be held on the day the participants completed the last questionnaire. If the winner was not present at the draw, he or she would be notified by email. The participants could also benefit from receiving the educational sessions, an estimated value of \$400 CAN (\$350 US). After the research was completed, the participants not included in the experimental group would be offered, for free, the educational sessions, if they wished to receive them. Once these explanations were completed, a form was circulated for the students to register their name and email to signify their interest.

From this first wave of visits, 74 participants accepted. After verifying the age needed to participate, one student was refused because she was not at least 19 years of age. Two emails were sent to remind the participants of the time (October 20, 2009) and place of the Time 1 questionnaire. The questionnaires were numbered; the even-numbered questionnaires determined the control group, and the odd-numbered questionnaires designated the experimental group. Upon their arrival, the students randomly picked a questionnaire and completed it. Once the questionnaire was completed, the students were told whether they were in the control or experimental group and they were given a letter indicating the next time the group would convene. Therefore the control group was invited to come back four weeks later while the experimental group received a letter informing them of the time, date, and location of the three intervention sessions as well as the date of the Time 2 questionnaires which would be administered a week after the last session.

Initially it was expected that all participants would complete the Time 1 questionnaire on the same day, but unfortunately only 24 participants came to the scheduled date out of the possible 73 who initially accepted. This meant there would only be 12 participants in each group. It was then decided that the time allotted for participants to complete the questionnaire would be a week rather than a day in order to accommodate the student's schedules. An email was sent to those absent to see if they were still interested in participating in the research. Out of the 50 possibilities, seven accepted. Simultaneously between October 21 and 27, 2009, I visited five more classes that included smaller class sizes. Out of the 17 participants recruited from these classes, 11 completed the Time 1 questionnaire. The recruitment phase ended with 21 participants in each of the control and

experimental groups. The control group included 14 females and 7 males while the experimental group consisted of 13 females and 8 males.

The three weekly educational sessions were held in the evening to avoid being in conflict with university classes. At the first session, 16 of the possible 21 participants attended, at the second, 12 participated and at the final 11 were present. Even if three students from the experimental group did not attend all three educational sessions, 15 (ten females and five males) completed the Time 2 questionnaire. As for the control group, 17 (ten females and seven males) completed the Time 2 questionnaire for a total of 32 for the post-test.

Two months later, both groups were convened to complete the final questionnaire. From the experimental group, all 15 filled the questionnaire and from the control group 14 (9 females and 5 males) completed it. In the next page, Table 1 shows the number of participants who completed the three questionnaires and also indicates the attendance rate of the Enneagram educational sessions.

Instrumentation

Two instruments were used to measure the dependent variables in this study: *Unconditional Self-acceptance Questionnaire* (Chamberlain & Haaga, 2001a) and Ryff's (1989) *Psychological Well-being*. I also included a demographics questionnaire to which was added filler items pertinent to family and consumer sciences educators and concepts related to the family and consumer sciences body of knowledge model. The following are descriptions of the instruments as they appear in the questionnaire presented in Appendix G.

Demographic questionnaire: The demographic questionnaire asked participants to indicate their sex, if they had attended this university for more than a year, and if they had heard of the Enneagram personality system. One question asked about the number of stressful events they had experienced in the past three months.

Table 1

Participants' attendance

Groups	Time 1	Attendance of Enneagram sessions			Time 2	Time 3
		1	2	3		
Experimental	21	16	12	11	15	15
Females	14	10	8	8	10	10
Males	7	6	4	3	5	5
Control	21				17	14
Females	13				10	9
Males	8				7	5

Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale: The original instrument contains 120 items (20 items per dimension) constructed to measure the six dimensions of psychological well-being. The 14-item per dimension scale is the shortened version, prepared by Ryff (C. D. Ryff, personal communication, October, 2008) obtained from the original 20-item version. In Table 2, the internal consistency and the test-retest reliability obtained after a six-week interval are presented. The last column presents the correlation between the shortened 14 items per

subscale with the original 20 items. In this study, I used the 9 item scales which Ryff is currently using in the Wisconsin Longitudinal Study (C. D. Ryff, personal communication, October, 2008).

Table 2

Psychometric Properties of Subscales of PWB

Subscale	Internal consistency 20 items	Test-retest reliability 20 items	Correlation of 14 items short version
Autonomy	.83	.88	.97
Environmental mastery	.86	.81	.98
Personal growth	.85	.81	.97
Positive relations with others	.88	.83	.98
Purpose in life	.88	.82	.98
Self-acceptance	.91	.85	.99

Note: Table constructed from (Ryff, 1989) and (C. D. Ryff, personal communication, October, 2008).

The construct validity of the 20 item scale ranged between .32 and .76 (Ryff, 1989). The three intercorrelations which were above .72 are the subscales of environmental mastery and self acceptance, purpose in life and self acceptance, personal growth and purpose in life. Ryff recognizes these numbers as high but asserts that they are unique because they represent theory-driven dimensions and load on different factors in multivariate and mean levels analysis.

Items from the separate scales are mixed by taking one item from each scale successively into one continuous self-report instrument. Participants responded using a six-point format: *strongly disagree* (1), *moderately disagree* (2), *slightly disagree* (3), *slightly agree* (4), *moderately agree* (5), and *strongly agree* (6). Examples of the items are statements such as “I enjoy personal and mutual conversations with family members and friends.” and “I have difficulty arranging my life in a way that is satisfying to me.” Responses to negatively scored items were reversed in the final scoring procedures so that high scores indicate high self-ratings on the dimension assessed.

Unconditional Self-acceptance Questionnaire (USAQ): This scale (Appendix G) consists of 20 items measuring various aspects of unconditional self-acceptance philosophy. Participants responded to each item on a scale ranging from 1 (*almost always untrue*) to 7 (*almost always true*) depending on how the characteristic matched the perception of themselves. Examples of the items are statements such as “I feel worthwhile even if I am not successful in meeting certain goals that are important to me” and “When I am criticized or when I fail at something, I feel worse about myself as a person.” Eleven items in the questionnaire are worded to suggest lower self-acceptance, therefore these-items (1, 4, 6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 13, 14, 15, and 19) are reverse scored. The nine remaining items (2, 3, 5, 8, 11, 16, 17, 18, and 20) are directly scored because they indicate a higher self-acceptance. According to the authors, Chamberlain and Haaga (2001), the *USAQ* demonstrates a moderate internal consistency ($\alpha = .72$). A test-retest reliability was conducted by Stiner (2007) with a Pearson r of .70 over a two-week period. Stein also established the construct validity of the two subscales; a

correlation coefficient of .43 supports the idea that there are two separate subscales, which are related but distinct.

Filler items: In order to distract the participants from detecting that I was seeking to evaluate psychological well-being and unconditional self-acceptance, I added filler questions to the questionnaire. These questions were constructed using the family and consumer sciences body of knowledge model (Appendix A) and focused on integration, relationships and environment of the participants towards their family and community. Because the combined USA and PWB instruments totaled 74 questions, 16 filler questions were added for a total questionnaire length of 90 items. Questions number 2, 5, 10, 16, 23, 24, 25, 33, 37, 40 and 44 are the filler questions included in the *Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale* and items 4, 8, 12 and 16 are the items inserted the *USAQ*.

Intervention

I provided three educational sessions for the intervention group in this study. Between 2005 and 2007, I had received four training sessions of three days each from Francine Dallaire, a teacher and counsellor of the Enneagram from Montreal, Quebec in Canada. Her initial training was done in Denver, Colorado with Kathleen Hurley and Theodore Dobson who have written several books on the subject. She has also published three books on the subject (Dallaire 2000, 2004, 2010). Once I had planned the intervention, I consulted Dallaire and she approved the content and the sequence of the sessions. All documents and materials for the participants were provided with funding assistance from the New Brunswick Home Economics Association. The following is a brief overview of each session.

Session 1 Introduction

This session included an introduction to the Enneagram system. It began with the definition and origin of both the word Enneagram and the symbol. The nine basic personality types were presented. For each type description, the strengths and challenges were first presented. In order to compare and contrast each type, a short list of what the type would not usually do was presented and suggestions were made to indicate how one could get along with this personality type. During the powerpoint presentation, on individuals' documents, the participants were invited to check the traits they felt pertained to them. They were asked to read more about their types and their relations with other types on the Enneagram Institute website.

Session 2 Relationships

Relationships and the Enneagram system were presented in this session. I explained the triadic self and the triune brain theory. We also discussed the dynamics of the Enneagram and its variations through the explanation of the wings, the instinctual variants. We then explored how this knowledge of ourselves plays a major role in our relationships. This session also presented the family ideal, the preferred, the slave, and the denied energy of each type. Examples of famous people were presented to illustrate the different personalities. As homework, the participants were asked to be mindful of their irrational beliefs and to try to be the observer of their action, emotions, and thoughts. They were also asked to complete the *Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator, Version 2.5* from Riso and Hudson (1999) available online from the Enneagram Institute and reflect on the results.

Session 3 Exploration

In this last session, we began by discussing the results of the online *Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator*. We then addressed the levels of development and the REBT theory was also presented for the students to continue to be mindful of their irrational beliefs in the following months.

We took this opportunity to explore the road-blocks and irrational thoughts that can be associated with each personality type. We discussed how the Enneagram can be used as a tool for transformation and be used in daily practice. We concluded with a reminder of the ethical use of the personality types.

CHAPTER 4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Data Analysis

Klein (2005) and Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) remind researchers that data preparation and screening are crucial; therefore the following preliminary analyses were done. First, the original data was transcribed and each transcription was proofread twice to ensure accuracy. Once this was completed, three questionnaires were picked to verify again the accuracy of the data. Each of these attempts proved the data was correctly transcribed. Recodes were also conducted for the negative-oriented statements.

Second, the pattern of missing values was examined. The PWB questionnaire had 11 nonresponse items, a percentage smaller than 1%. The missing values were randomly scattered between 10 cases and 7 observations, which is evidence of general pattern of missing data (Little & Rubin, 2002). As these authors suggest doing for a small sample size, the missing data were filled using the model-based imputation method of maximum likelihood using expectation-maximization (EM) algorithm with EQS version 6.1. There was no missing data in the USA questionnaire.

Through an inspection of descriptive statistics, the data were screened for univariate and multivariate outliers. Five students, two from the control group and three from the experimental group, could be considered outliers as their standardized scores differ by more than 3.29 (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001) on five different variables. It was concluded that the data would not be transformed or eliminated because the answers of the students represented how they felt on those particular subjects. For example one student who responded *strongly agree* to question 15: "I do not fit very well with the people and the community around me"

was not considered an outlier nor was the score transformed because the answer differs from the rest of the sample.

Normality of variables was assessed by statistical measures of skewness and kurtosis (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2001). Only one variable, question 58: “Sometimes I feel I’ve done all there is to do in life” had very high skewness (-2.580) and kurtosis (8.497). The negative skewing indicates there is a pileup of cases to the right and the left tail is too long, while the positive kurtosis indicates a distribution that is too peaked with short thick tails. It is logical that the participants being in their early 20s would consider that they have not yet done all there is to do in life. However, given the already very small sample size, it was decided that the elimination of data should be minimized by all means possible. Therefore this variable was not eliminated.

The data analysis, using SPSS version 18, was conducted for the 29 participants (15 experimental and 14 control) who completed all three questionnaires. The results and discussion are presented in the following section.

Results

The purpose of this study was to examine if knowledge of the Enneagram personality system effects PWB and USA total scores. The following results to test the null hypothesis were obtained using the latest versions of the SPSS version 18. First, the total scores for each questionnaire (PWB and USA) were tabulated and descriptive statistics (Table 3), including mean, standard deviations, skewness, and kurtosis are presented for the pre-test and two post-

tests. In Table 4, the means and adjusted means for the control and experimental group are presented.

An independent-sample *t*-test was conducted to compare the PWB scores at Time 1 for the control and experimental groups. There were no significant differences in scores for the control group, $M = 4.40$, $SD = .68$ and the experimental group, $M = 4.61$, $SD = .67$; $t(27) = -.870$, $p = .392$ (two-tailed). The magnitude of differences in the means (mean difference = 1.03, 95% CI: -.73 to .30) was small to moderate (eta squared = 0.02).

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Total Scores

Variables	Mean	Standard deviation	Skewness	Kurtosis
PWB* Time 1	4.51	.66	-.63	-.16
PWB Time 2	4.41	.65	-.93	-.65
PWB Time 3	4.41	.73	-.26	-.72
USA** Time 1	3.90	.59	.13	-1.39
USA Time 2	3.89	.58	.18	-.04
USA Time 3	3.86	.60	.42	.80

* Psychological well-being: Likert scale 1=*strongly disagree*, 6=*strongly agree*

** Unconditional self-acceptance: Likert scale 1=*almost always untrue*, 7=*almost always true*

A second independent-sample *t*-test was also conducted to compare the USA scores at Time 1 for the control and experimental groups. There were no significant differences in

scores for the control group $M = 3.76$, $SD = .57$ and the experimental group, $M = 4.03$, $SD = .60$; $t(27) = -1.20$, $p = .238$ (two-tailed). The magnitude of differences in the means (mean difference = .89, 95% CI: -.71 to .18) was small to moderate (eta squared = 0.03).

Table 4

Means and adjusted means

	PWB*			USA**		
	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3	Time 1	Time 2	Time 3
<i>Experimental</i>						
Mean	4.62	4.53	4.55	4.03	3.97	3.91
Adjusted mean		4.44a	4.45a		3.88b	3.85b
<i>Control</i>						
Mean	4.40	4.29	4.27	3.76	3.80	3.81
Adjusted mean		4.38a	4.37a		3.89b	3.87b

* Psychological well-being: Likert scale 1=*strongly disagree*, 6=*strongly agree*

** Unconditional self-acceptance: Likert scale 1=*Almost always untrue*, 7=*Almost always true*

a. Evaluated for total PWB scores at Time 1 = 4.51

b. Evaluated for total USA scores at Time 1 = 3.90

Prior to performing an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) specify that assumptions must be tested. The first assumption implies that the covariate, which in this case are the Time 1 total scores on PWB and USA scales are, measured prior to the treatment (the sessions on the Enneagram personality system). This assumption was not violated.

The second assumption concerns the score reliability estimate reported using the Cronbach's coefficient alpha. Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) attest that values above .7 are considered reliable. The internal consistency of the PWB scale was .9 at all three administration times and for the USA scale Cronbach's coefficient alpha was .7 at Time 1 and 3, but .6 at Time 2. Due to the inconsistency in the USA scale, the Guttman's lambda-6 coefficient is reported with an internal reliability coefficient of .719.

The third assumption, homogeneity of regression slopes, concerns the relationship between the covariate (Time 1) and the dependent variable (Time 3) for each group. This assumption was assessed statistically. In all cases, Time 1 vs. Time 2 and Time 1 vs. Time 3 and for both scales (PWB and USA), all probability values were above .05; therefore this assumption was not violated.

The fourth and last assumption concerns linearity. The general distribution of scores of the groups was checked with scatterplot graphs. Unfortunately as shown in Figure 2, the relationship between the dependent variable (PSW Time 3) and the covariate (PWB Time 1) was not linear. The same results were found for USA Time 3 and USA Time 1 (Figure 3). The linear relationship between the dependent variables and the covariate was also checked between Time 2 and Time 1 for both the PWB total score and the USA total score (Figure 4). Only the relationship between PWB Time 2 was linear with the PWB Time 1 (Figure 5).

The testing of the assumptions indicates that the only ANCOVA that can validly be performed is for hypothesis one between the dependent variable of PWB total scores at Time 2 and the covariate PWB at Time 1 (D'Alonzo, 2004; Hamilton 1977; Karpman 1986).

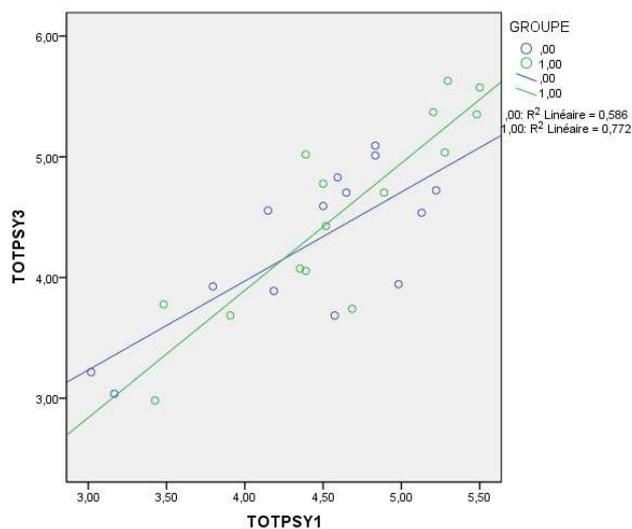


Figure 2. Assumption of linearity between psychological well-being total score at Time 1 and Time 3 (violated)

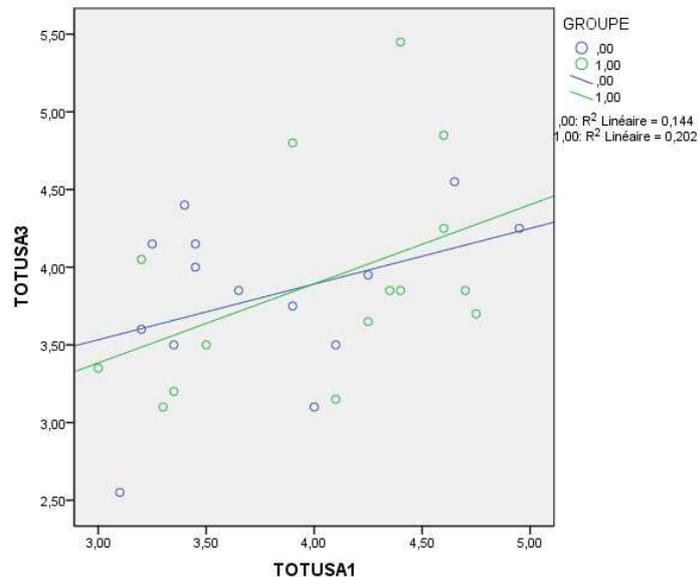


Figure 3. Assumption of linearity between unconditional self-acceptance total score at Time 1 and Time 3 (violated)

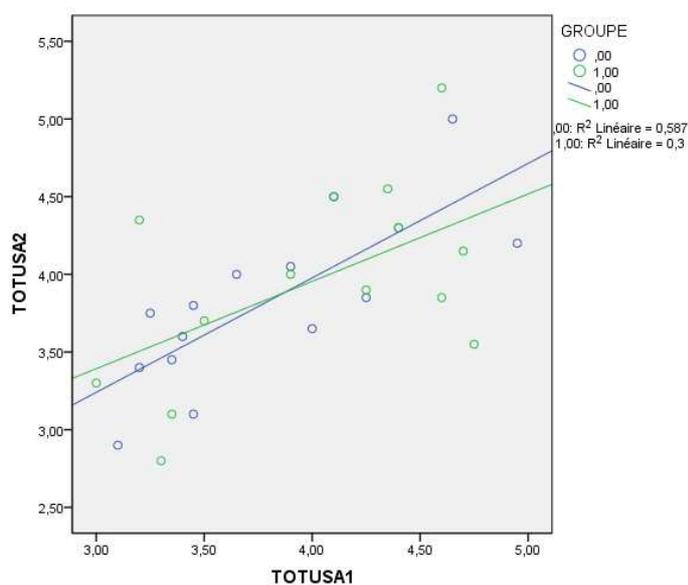


Figure 4. Assumption of linearity between unconditional self-acceptance total score at Time 1 and Time 2 (violated)

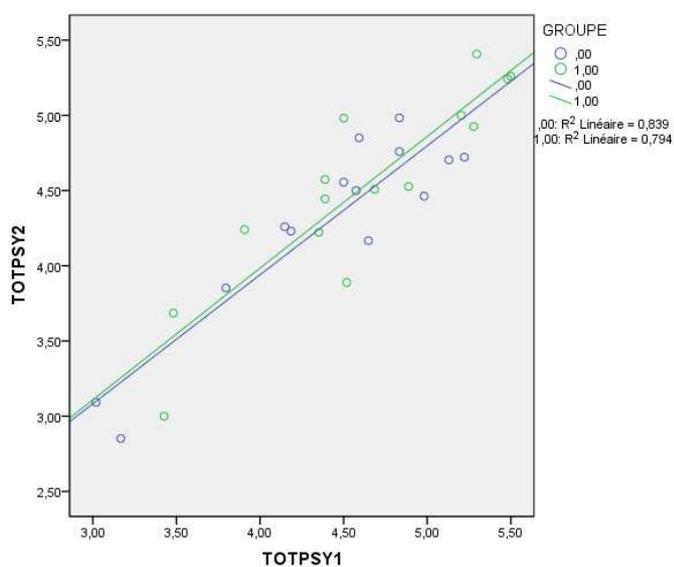


Figure 5. Assumption of linearity between psychological well-being total score at Time 1 and Time 2 (not violated)

The ANCOVA has strict limitations and Tabachnick and Fidell (2001) remind us that often alternative analytical strategies are sought. One strategy which is sometimes chosen, report the authors, is the repeated measures also known as the within-subject or one score per cell. This was not done for this research in order to control for variations between the groups at Time 1 and due to the small sample size, it was decided to limit the loss of degrees of freedom. Finally, Tabachnick and Fidell also caution the researchers that the assumptions for using repeated measures design are more stringent.

Hypothesis one: There is a significant relationship between the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system and total psychological well-being scores.

In preparation for this research, it was anticipated that prior knowledge of the Enneagram personality system may be a covariate in an ANCOVA, but this covariate was eliminated because none of the participants had prior knowledge of the Enneagram. It was also anticipated that the stress level of the participants may influence the results; however the stress level was not measured as a continuous variable, so it was not considered. A one-way between-groups analysis of covariance was conducted to verify if there is a significant relationship between the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system and the total score of PWB. To perform this ANCOVA, the categorical independent variable with two levels was the control and experimental group. The experimental group received the Enneagram personality system sessions while the control did not receive this treatment. The continuous dependent variable is the PWB total score at Time 2 (completed a week after the intervention), and the continuous covariate is the PWB total score at Time 1 completed prior to the intervention.

Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure that there were no violations of the assumptions of normality, linearity, homogeneity of variances, homogeneity of regression slopes, and reliable measurements of the covariate. After adjusting for the pre-intervention scores, there was no significant difference between the experimental and control group on the post-intervention scores on the PWB scale, $F(1, 26) = .25, p = .62$, partial eta squared = .01. There was a strong relationship between the pre-intervention and post intervention scores on the PWB Time 1 scores, as indicated by a partial eta squared value of .81. Therefore, there is no significant relationship between the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system and total PWB scores.

Hypothesis two: *There is a significant relationship between the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system and total unconditional self-acceptance scores.*

Preliminary checks were conducted to ensure that there were no violations of the assumptions of normality, homogeneity of variances, homogeneity of regression slopes, and reliable measurements of the covariate. Unfortunately, the assumption of linearity was violated; therefore the ANCOVA could not be performed for this hypothesis.

Hypothesis three: *There is a positive correlation between the total unconditional self-acceptance scores and the total psychological well-being scores.*

Chamberlain and Haaga (2001a), Davies (2006) and Stiner (2007) all contributed to the validation of the *Unconditionnal self-acceptance questionnaire*. Because this questionnaire had not been used as extensively in research as *Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale* (1989), an analysis of the relation between them was conducted through the Pearson

product-moment correlation. Convergent validity as explained by Anastasi and Urbina (1997) is the extent to which a measure correlates with other measures to assess similar constructs. The results in Table 4 show that the hypothesis was correct. The obtained Pearson r ranged between low .46 to moderate .68 ($p < .01$). The strength of the relationship follows the guide suggested in Munro (2005).

Table 5

Intercorrelations Between PWB and USA Scales

Scales	USA Time 1	USA Time 2	USA Time 3
PWB Time 1	.61**	.40*	.54**
PWB Time 2	.63**	.61**	.61**
PWB Time 3	.52**	.46**	.68**

** Correlation is significant at 0.01 (one-tailed)

* Correlation is significant at 0.05 (one-tailed)

Discussion

From the data reported above, it appears that the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system did not have a significant effect PWB total scores. These results differ from the research conducted by Schmutte and Ryff (1997), Lopes, Salovez, and Straus (2003), Fleeson and Heckhausen (1997), Hall, Hill, Appleton, and Kozub (2009), Hall, Hill, Appleton, and Kozub (2008), and Davies (2006). Although the above research studies were done with different design, population, and construct, they all share one quality which is

missing from this research: a large sample. The number of participants of these research studies which found a significant effect varied from 107 to 398.

By contrast, the only research which found results similar to these, was the study done by Stiner in 2007. The REBT-based quasi-experimental had an independent sample ($n = 22$), an experimental group ($n = 23$) and a control group ($n = 26$). In her discussion section, she suggests that the time elapsed (6 weeks) may not be enough to have a significant impact on USA. The present results findings may indicate that 3 months may not be long enough to have a significant effect on USA as Ryff and Singer (2008) claim that self-acceptance is a long-term process.

These assumptions are confirmed by Wallen and Fraenkel (2001), who recommend having 40 participants per group, while 30 could be a statistical minimum required. Initially 91 participants had volunteered to participate, knowing the time commitment required, but only a third participated fully in the research. Although they were not required to give a reason why they could not complete all three questionnaires or attend all sessions, many emailed to explain that they had exams, projects to complete or were participating in sports events. Two participants from the control group had stopped attending university in January 2010. The attendance for the Enneagram sessions was also poor. Only 11 out of the original 21 participants in the experimental group attended all three sessions. Attrition is not an isolated occurrence in experimental design with educational intervention (Bloom, 1984; Little & Yau, 1998).

The following procedures were implemented to control threats to internal validity. The participants were randomly assigned to either control or experimental group to avoid selection bias. The independent t -test indicated that both groups were similar at Time 1. No

large scale events affected the participants at the time of the study. Although the flu virus HINI was rampant at the time, no students evoked that reason for not participating in the research. Three months elapsed between Time 1 and Time 3, therefore this should not be enough to be considered maturation. Repeated testing could have influenced the answers. To alleviate this threat, at both Time 2 and Time 3, the students were told to answer as if they had never seen the questionnaire before. The mortality rate went from 21 per group to 14 in control and 15 in experimental, showing that they both were reduced to almost the same number. Also, the threat of diffusion was present because when students volunteered to participate they often did so in groups of friends. After being told they were not in the experimental group, the participants not chosen seemed disappointed. This phenomenon could be observed by the results of 3 participants of the control group who had no prior knowledge of the Enneagram at Time 1, but had some at Time 2 and Time 3. The information may have been diffused by the experimental group.

The educational sessions were successful in guiding students to identify their personality type. At Time 2, 80% of the participants knew their personality type and 90% by Time 3. Although the majority indicated they knew their personality types in the Time 2 and Time 3 questionnaires, the *Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator*, Version 2.5, which they completed online between the second and third session did not demonstrate the same results. The results showed that only four of the 12 participants were able to identify their personality types through this test. The rest of the group had high scores for either two or three personality types. These results lead to a question as to whether one's personality is fixed at adolescence as proposed by Ellis or whether the *Riso-Hudson Enneagram Type Indicator* is sensitive enough to distinguish the personalities of young adults.

The quality of intervention and its content could also be questioned. In his book *Brain Rules*, Medina (2008) encourages educators “to repeat and repeat and repeat content” if you want students to learn. This strategy was followed as a review of the essentials points was recapped at the end of each session and would also be restated at the start of the following one. Therefore session two and three began with a general reminder of the traits of each personality type while adding new details and examples. Medina also states that the students need pauses from content every 10 to 15 minutes to assimilate the information. This strategy was also applied by the inclusion of interesting or humorous examples of celebrities’ personality types throughout the presentations.

Medina’s rule (2008) which may have been the least respected was the rule concerning the establishment of a trusting climate. Although the 25 years of teaching experience of the researcher agrees completely with the author, no activities such as ice-breakers, were initiated to create a trusting climate in class. Therefore the sessions were presented as a lecture on the advice of Dallaire (F. Dallaire, personal communication, July 2008). According to her, the Enneagram is such a personal matter that it is preferable to keep the anonymity of group members as much as possible. Therefore her point of view was respected.

The results may also have been influenced by the quality of the measures. In 2006, the *Ryff Psychological Well-Being Scale* was critiqued by Springer, Hauser and Freese and Springer and Hauser. They attest that they have found very high correlations among the six dimensions of well-being. Precisely, they conclude that four of the six factors are indistinguishable. Although they acknowledge that two of Ryff’s key papers (Ryff, 1989; Ryff & Keyes, 1995) have been cited in over 500 published works, they recommend

combining all of the items into a global well-being index. The data analysis was done in this manner for this research.

Summary and recommendations

This quasi-experimental study investigated whether the knowledge of the Enneagram system affects unconditional self-acceptance and psychological well-being of university students who have been attending university for at least a year. It also measured the correlation between the total scores on the psychological well-being instrument and unconditional self-acceptance questionnaire. A two-group design was employed, wherein a control (N = 14) and an experimental group (N=15) completed a pre- and two post-tests on psychological well-being and unconditional self-acceptance. The randomly selected experimental group received three weekly educational sessions on the Enneagram system.

Results show that the knowledge of the Enneagram personality system does not have a significant effect on psychological well-being. Due to a small sample size and violation of the assumptions required to conduct an ANCOVA it was not possible to determine if the knowledge of the Enneagram affects unconditional self-acceptance. Findings indicate also a low to moderate positive correlation between the *Unconditional self-acceptance questionnaire* Chamberlain and Haaga (2001a) and Ryff *Psychological Well-Being Scale* (1989).

Future research in this domain should first ensure that sufficient participants are recruited. In order to obtain an 80% probability of detecting a medium effect according to Cohen (1988) with a 0.05 significance, 150 participants would be needed. A larger university could be selected and more incentives could be offered to the students to increase sample size. At Mount Allison University, students in psychology courses are allocated credits to

participate in research. Unfortunately, I was not in a position to offer the students this same advantage.

It may also be pertinent to sample older participants. During her training sessions, Dallaire (F. Dallaire, personal communication, 2008) recommended to participants in their 40s to answer the personality questionnaire while thinking how they used to be at age 25. She referred to that life period as the time when one's personality is at its purest. This statement seems to imply that the personality was not completely formed for the participants of this research because none of the experimental group members were older than 25. Therefore, future research may produce better outcomes with participants who are 25 and older. The global trend of the lengthening of the transitional adolescent period being pushed back from 22 to 26 years old (Arnett, 2000) may also be a factor that influences personality development and self knowledge of young people.

The overlap among the tests may have contributed negatively to the results. Hypothesis three determined a Pearson correlation ranging between low .46 to moderate .68 ($p < .01$). One of the subscales of PWB is self-acceptance; therefore the participants had 20 statements which were evaluating similar content. Future research may be better served using the *General Attitude and Belief Scale* (GABS) to measure irrational beliefs as used by Davies (2006).

The number of educational sessions or their format could be modified. During informal discussions after session one, most participants felt they had identified their personalities. Instead of being two hours in length and in the evening, the sessions might have attracted more participants if they would have been offered during the day. The challenge would then be to find a time that would be convenient for the majority of students.

Educational sessions offered online, with blog discussions, may also be possible and this strategy may accommodate more participants while respecting the anonymity and personal nature of the self-knowledge acquired with the Enneagram personality system.

This last suggestion also brings the question of whether or not this theory should be taught in high schools. Can it contribute to increased self knowledge and improve well-being as suggested by Brown and Paolucci, (1979) and Brown (1993)? Even if the results of the present study did not show significant effect there is a ray of hope that transpires in the eta squared values of .81. This result may indicate a certain influence on PWB through the Enneagram personality system which may have been significant if the sample was larger.

Nevertheless the educators of family and consumer sciences have a responsibility to teach the national standards. The area of study which personality, self-knowledge, and well-being are inherent to is: Interpersonal relationships. The competency: "Analyze the effect of personal characteristics on relationships" (National Association of State Administrators of Family and Consumer Sciences, 2008 p.1) certainly indicates some form of self-knowledge has to be taught. The Enneagram personality system may need a study which resembles more that of Alder-Beader, Kerpelman, Schramm, Higginbotham, and Paulk (2007). Through funds received from the U.S. government (Federal Deficit Reduction Act 2005) the authors implemented a relationship program of twelve lessons with a sample of 340 high school students from nine public schools and found significant results in five dimensions of relationship knowledge. They recommend the implementation of curricula that integrates engaging and active learning, which may be more effective than lecture sessions. Therefore, in a future study it may be favorable that the intervention be an integral part of a family and consumer sciences university course.

In conclusion, Abrams and Ellis (2009) recall a time when any type of research on religious or spiritual topics was considered a career-ender. The Enneagram is a personality grid which links personality and spirituality. This research has not demonstrated its effect on psychological well-being and unconditional self-acceptance but the review of literature demonstrated that others such as Kale and Shirvastava (2001) and Kale and De (2006) are exploring its use for marketing strategies. Although Rutter and Smith (1995) remind us that in the last 50 years, economic prosperity and new technologies have not dramatically improved adolescents or adults well-being, it is still important that the Enneagram system be taught in schools and university to help prepare students to be more conscious of how marketing agencies manipulate such knowledge to their advantage. McGregor (2009) reiterates this when she reminds family and consumer sciences educators to empower individuals to become transformational leaders for the well-being of humanity rather than enrich a few corporations.

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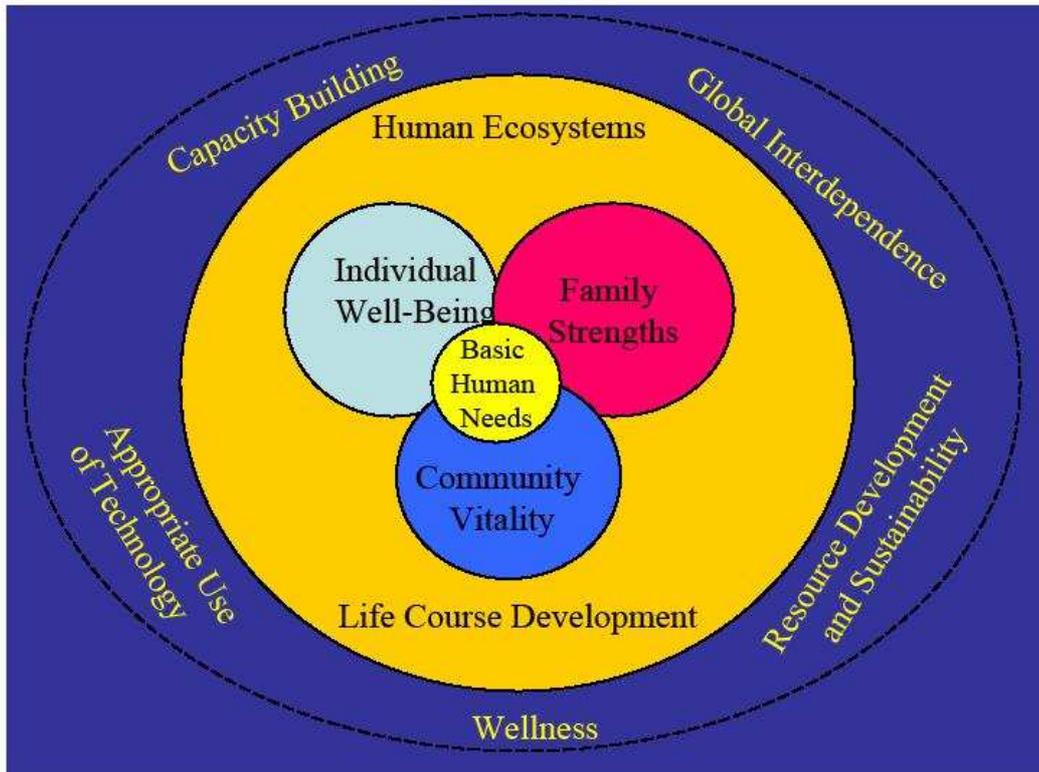
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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Family and consumer sciences 2009 Body of knowledge



APPENDIX B

Nine Enneagram personality types and other typologies

Type	Basic Characteristics	DSM-IV categories (personality disorders)	Freud's typology	Big 5
One: Reformer	Principled, Self-controlled, Perfectionist	Obsessive-compulsive	Anal retentive	High C, Average A Low E, O, ES
Two: Helper	Caring, Generous, Intrusive	Histrionic	Anal expulsive	Above average E, A Average O, ES, C
Three: Achiever	Efficient, Adaptable, Image conscious	Narcissistic	Phallic receptive	Above average E Average O, ES, C, A
Four: Individualist	Intuitive, Expressive, Temperamental	Avoidant	Oral retentive	Above average O Average A, E, C Below average ES
Five: Investigator	Perceptive, Innovative, Detached	Partly paranoid and partly schizotypal	Oral expulsive	Above average O Average E, ES Low E, A
Six: Loyalist	Committed, Responsible, Anxious	Dependent	Anal receptive	Average A, E, C Below average ES Low O
Seven: Enthusiast	Spontaneous, Talkative, Scattered	Histrionic with manic features	Phallic retentive	High E Above aver. ES, O Average A Below average C
Eight: Challenger	Self Confident, Decisive, Confrontational	Antisocial	Phallic expulsive	High E, ES Above average C, O Below average A
Nine: Peacemaker	Calm, Reassuring, Complacent	Dependant	Oral receptive	Above average A, ES Below average E, C Low O

E – extraversion, ES – emotional stability, A – agreeableness, O – openness, C – conscientiousness

SOURCE: Adaptation of Bartram & Brown (2005) and Riso (1999).

APPENDIX C**Research Ethics Board of Mount Allison University**

Mount Allison
UNIVERSITY
Founded 1839

OFFICE OF RESEARCH DEVELOPMENT

July 24, 2009

Jeanne Godin
25 Ruelle Chablis
Dieppe NB
E1A 0N2

Dear Jeanne:

I am writing with respect to your recent submission to the University's Research Ethics Board (REB) Form 1 (#2009-030) for your project titled "The effects of the Enneagram personality system on unconditional self-acceptance and psychological well-being of young adults." The REB has reviewed the project and determined that it meets its ethical guidelines, with one minor revision and a request for a clarification.

Specifically, the contact information on the Informed Consent Form is incorrect. It should read "... you may contact Dr. Nauman Farooqi, Chair of the Mount Allison University research Ethic Board by phone (364-2281) or email at reb@mta.ca." Please send a copy of the revised Informed Consent form to reb@mta.ca before you begin the data collection.

Members of the REB were curious to know more about your use of the term "bursary" and whether or not this meant a direct payment to the student or to the institution. Please send me a note (to reb@mta.ca) clarifying this item.

Members of the REB made a number of important logistics observations about your proposed project and asked me to pass them on to you:

- You will definitely need to obtain permission from the Psychology Department for this project. The scope of the REB is simply to ensure that the research is ethical – our approval should not be taken as an endorsement of the project. Whether or not you will be able to obtain permission and cooperation from the Department is another matter.

65 York Street

Sackville, New Brunswick

Canada E4L 1E4

Tel: (506) 364-2632

Fax: (506) 364-2301

- You should be aware that the Mount Allison University student body is relatively small and the number of Psychology students is relatively small, and more specifically, the number of second year students enrolled in second year courses is relatively small, especially when compared to other universities. You will need to discuss the potential limitations of your proposed sample size with the Department.
- Some members of the REB expressed some concern that this research project does potentially place a heavy burden on student participants and that while the research itself is ethical, it may prove to be challenging to complete.

You are reminded to file with us a copy of the approval you receive from Iowa State University's IRB.

Please note that the REB requests that all researchers who submit projects for ethics review provide a brief report at the end of the year outlining their progress with data collection and commenting on any problems they may have encountered. Researchers are also urged to contact REB immediately if any ethical issues arise during data collection.

Members of the board would like to thank you for your submission and wish you great success with project.

Sincerely,



Dr. M. Nauman Farooqi, Chair
Mount Allison University Research Ethics Board
Email: reb@mta.ca

cc: Dr. S McClatchie, Provost and Vice-President, Academic and Research

APPENDIX D

Reply email confirming approval from Mount Allison University

Dear Jeanne:

Thank you for the clarification of the issues addressed in the letter sent to you. Based on your reply, your project is approved by the REB.

All the best for a successful project.

Take care.

Nauman

On 30/07/09 1:36 PM, "Jeanne Godin" <jeanne.godin@umoncton.ca> wrote:

> Dear Dr. Farooqi
 > I am writing in reply to the letter sent on July 24, 2009 reporting on the
 > revisions and clarifications the Research Ethics Board needs regarding the
 > Form1 (2009-030).
 > As requested you will find attached the revised Informed consent form.
 > I would also like to clarify for your members that the bursary is meant to be
 > a payment which will be made directly to the winning student.
 > I would also like this opportunity to specify that the students I am
 > recruiting can be from any department. The only requirement is that they have
 > attended your university for more than one year. After speaking with Dr David
 > Bruce this morning, he has agreed to help me identify a list of the professors
 > who teach large groups of students in the fall. I will then seek their
 > permission to go recruit in their classroom.
 > Finally I would like to thank the committee for their expedient reply to my
 > request. If you would like to discuss these matters further please call me at
 > 506 850 5385.
 >
 > Jeanne Godin
 >
 >
 >

M. Nauman Farooqi, Ph.D.
 Associate Professor &
 Chair, Research Ethics Board
 Coordinator - Norway Exchange Program
 Coordinator - The Hague University of Applied Sciences

Ron Joyce Center for Business Studies
 Department of Commerce
 Mount Allison University
 144 Main Street, Sackville
 NB E4L 1A7, Canada

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APPENDIX E

Institutional Review Board of Iowa State University

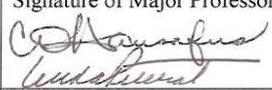
For IRB Use Only	Review Date: _____	IRB ID: _____
	Approval Date: _____	Length of Approval: _____
	Approval Expiration Date: _____	FULL Committee Review: _____
	EXEMPT per 45 CFR 46.101(b): _____ Date: _____	Minimal Risk: _____
	EXPEDITED per 45 CFR 46.110(b)	More than Minimal Risks: _____
	Category _____, Letter _____	Project Closed Date: _____

INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB)

Application for Approval of Research Involving Humans

SECTION I: GENERAL INFORMATION

Principal Investigator (PI): Jeanne Godin		Phone: 506 850 5385	Fax: 506 858 4283
Degrees: PhD	Correspondence Address: 25 Chablis St, Dieppe, NB Canada E1A 0N2		
Department: AESHM	Email Address: jeanne2@iastate.edu		
Center/Institute:	College: College of Human Sciences		
PI Level: <input type="checkbox"/> Faculty <input type="checkbox"/> Staff <input type="checkbox"/> Postdoctoral <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Graduate Student <input type="checkbox"/> Undergraduate Student			
Alternate Contact Person: Cheryl Hausafus		Email Address: haus@iastate.edu	
Correspondence Address: 30E Mackay Hall		Phone: 515 294 5307	
Title of Project: The effects of the Enneagram personality system on unconditional self-acceptance and psychological well-being of young adults			
Project Period (Include Start and End Date): 09/01/09 to 09/01/10[

FOR STUDENT PROJECTS	
Name of Major Professor/Supervising Faculty: (Co-directors) Dr. Cheryl Hausafus Dr Linda Peterat	Signature of Major Professor/Supervising Faculty: 
Phone: 515 294 5307 (Hausafus) 250 503 2526 (Peterat)	Campus Address: 30E Mackay Hall
Department: AESHM	Email Address: haus@iastate.edu
Type of Project: (check all that apply)	
<input type="checkbox"/> Research <input type="checkbox"/> Thesis <input checked="" type="checkbox"/> Dissertation <input type="checkbox"/> Class project <input type="checkbox"/> Independent Study (490, 590, Honors project) <input type="checkbox"/> Other. Please specify: _____	

KEY PERSONNEL

List all members and relevant experience of the project personnel. This information is intended to inform the committee of the training and background related to the specific procedures that each person will perform on the project.

NAME & DEGREE(S)	SPECIFIC DUTIES ON PROJECT	TRAINING & EXPERIENCE RELATED TO PROCEDURES
------------------	----------------------------	---

		PERFORMED, DATE OF TRAINING
Jeanne Godin, Masters degree	Principal investigator	IRB web-based training, Nov. 5, 2005
Cheryl Hausafus, PhD	Co-director	IRB web-based training, Sept. 19, 2000
Linda Peterat, PhD	Co-director	IRB web-based training, July 9, 2009

To list additional personnel please attach separate sheet.

APPENDIX F

Free and Informed Consent Form:

The effects of personality on self-acceptance and well-being
Jeanne Godin under the supervision of Dr Cheryl Hausafus and Dr Linda Peterat
Iowa State University

I am a doctoral student at Iowa State University in the Department of Apparel, Educational Studies, and Hospitality Management. As part of my doctoral thesis, I am conducting research under the supervision of Dr. Cheryl Hausafus and Dr Linda Peterat, and I am inviting you to participate in my study. You must be 19 years old as of September 1st 2009 and have attended this university for at least a year. The purpose of the study is to examine **whether personality affects self-acceptance and well-being of university students.**

This study involves completing a questionnaire on three occasions: mid-September, mid October and early December which takes approximately 50 minutes to complete. Half of the participants randomly assigned to an experimental group will receive three educational sessions about personality and relationships which will be approximately two hours long and offered once a week for three consecutive weeks. Therefore, the time commitment required can be either 3 hours or at the most 9 hours depending on which group you will be assigned.

If you are selected to the experimental group, you will complete a personality assessment during the program. The assessment has not been fully tested to be an accurate measure of personality type, and may not reflect your actual personality.

Participants in the study will be eligible to win a 200\$ bursary. The approximate odds of winning will be 1 in 200 or better depending on the number of participants and their level of participation. Each participant will earn a chance for each component completed. The draw for the prize will be held on the day the participant complete the last questionnaire. If the winner is not present at the draw, he or she will be notified by email. The participants may choose not participate in the discussions or skip questions on the questionnaires.

The participants will also benefit from receiving the educational sessions, an estimated value of 400\$. Participating in this study may increase knowledge of one's personality, self acceptance and well-being. After the research is completed, the participants not included in the experimental group will be offered, for free, the educational sessions, if they wish to receive them.

There are no potential risks to participating in this study. However, should any concerns arise; I would be available to discuss them with you. You may contact me at 506 858 3793.

Your participation in this research study is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from this study at any time without explanations or penalty.

The identity of the participants will be kept strictly *confidential*. The following procedures will be in place to ensure confidentiality of data both during the research and upon the release of the findings: 1. Separating consent forms from surveys and storing separately. 2. Storing data in a locked office. 3. Eliminating identifying details from research findings. The results of this study will be presented as a group and no individual participants will be identified.

By signing this consent form, you are indicating that you fully understand the above information and agree to participate in this study. A copy of this form will be provided at the first meeting.

Participant's signature _____

Date: _____

Researcher's signature: _____

Date: _____

If you have any questions about this study, please contact Jeanne Godin, 506 858 3793, jeanne.godin@umoncton.ca or my co-directors Cheryl Hausafus, 515 294 5307, haus@iastste.edu and Linda Peterat, 250 503 2526, peterat1@telus.net

This research has been reviewed and approved by the Mount Allison University Research Ethics Board and the Iowa State University Institutional Review Board. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, you may contact Dr. David Bruce, Chair of the Mount Allison University Research Ethics Board, by phone (364-2618) or by e-mail at reb@mta.ca. or the Institutional Review Board Administrator, by phone (515) 294-4566 or by email at IRB@iastate.edu

Personal information

In order to send you reminders of the date and time of either the intervention sessions, the pre and post tests, and to identify the winner of the bursary, I need your name and your email address where you can be reached. Rest assured that this information will be kept strictly confidential and stored separately from the surveys and stored in a locked office.

Please print clearly:

Name: _____

Functional email address: _____

Please check one of the following:

- I wish to receive the results of the study.
- I do not wish to receive the results of the study.

APPENDIX G
Questionnaire

Number: _____

Part 1

Demographic questionnaire

1. I am a: female: _____ or male _____

2. Please check the following statement pertaining to you:
_____ This is my first year attending this university.
_____ I have attended this university for more than a year.

3. Please check the following statement pertaining to your knowledge of the Enneagram personality system:
_____ I have never heard of it.
_____ I have heard of it but I do not know my type.
_____ I have known my type for the past _____ years.

4. Please check the following statement pertaining to number of events you considered highly stressful in the past three months:
_____ I have not experienced any events that were more stressful than normal.
_____ I have experienced one stressful event in the past three months.
_____ I have experienced more than one stressful event in the past three months.

Part 2

The following set of questions deals with how you feel about yourself and your life. Please remember that there are no right or wrong answers.

Circle the number that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with each statement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
1. Most people see me as loving and affectionate.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. I believe family is the most important unit in society.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. In general, I feel I am in charge of the situation in which I live.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. I am not interested in activities that will expand my horizons.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. I am a volunteer for a community organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6. When I look at the story of my life, I am pleased with how things have turned out.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Maintaining close relationships has been difficult and frustrating for me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. I am not afraid to voice my opinions, even when they are in opposition to the opinions of most people.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. The demands of everyday life often get me down.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. My family has always been there to support me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. I live life one day at a time and don't really think about the future.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. In general, I feel confident and positive about myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. I often feel lonely because I have few close friends with whom to share my concerns.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. My decisions are not usually influenced by what everyone else is doing.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle the number that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with each statement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
15. I do not fit very well with the people and the community around me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. When my family experienced stressful events in the past, it gained in strength.	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. I tend to focus on the present, because the future nearly always brings me problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. I feel like many of the people I know have gotten more out of life than I have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. I enjoy personal and mutual conversations with family members or friends.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. I tend to worry about what other people think of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. I am quite good at managing the many responsibilities of my daily life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. I don't want to try new ways of doing things - my life is fine the way it is.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Society should provide more services aimed at helping and supporting families.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24. I voted in the last election (municipal, provincial or federal)	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. I studied nutrition in high school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Being happy with myself is more important to me than having others approve of me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. I often feel overwhelmed by my responsibilities.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. I think it is important to have new experiences that challenge how you think about yourself and the world.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. My daily activities often seem trivial and unimportant to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. I like most aspects of my personality.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. I don't have many people who want to listen when I need to talk.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle the number that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with each statement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
32. I tend to be influenced by people with strong opinions.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. I studied personal finances in high school.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. When I think about it, I haven't really improved much as a person over the years.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. I don't have a good sense of what it is I'm trying to accomplish in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. I made some mistakes in the past, but I feel that all in all everything has worked out for the best.	1	2	3	4	5	6
37. My actions can affect my family's well-being.	1	2	3	4	5	6
38. My actions contribute to the quality of life in my community.	1	2	3	4	5	6
39. I generally do a good job of taking care of my personal finances and affairs.	1	2	3	4	5	6
40. Family is important in times of change.	1	2	3	4	5	6
41. I used to set goals for myself, but that now seems like a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
42. In many ways, I feel disappointed about my achievements in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
43. It seems to me that most other people have more friends than I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
44. Improving one-self improves a family.	1	2	3	4	5	6
45. I enjoy making plans for the future and working to make them a reality.	1	2	3	4	5	6
46. People would describe me as a giving person, willing to share my time with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
47. I have confidence in my opinions, even if they are contrary to the general consensus.	1	2	3	4	5	6
48. I am good at juggling my time so that I can fit everything in that needs to be done.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle the number that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with each statement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
49. I have a sense that I have developed a lot as a person over time.	1	2	3	4	5	6
50. I am an active person in carrying out the plans I set for myself.	1	2	3	4	5	6
51. I have not experienced many warm and trusting relationships with others.	1	2	3	4	5	6
52. It's difficult for me to voice my own opinions on controversial matters.	1	2	3	4	5	6
53. I do not enjoy being in new situations that require me to change my old familiar ways of doing things.	1	2	3	4	5	6
54. Some people wander aimlessly through life, but I am not one of them.	1	2	3	4	5	6
55. My attitude about myself is probably not as positive as most people feel about themselves.	1	2	3	4	5	6
56. I often change my mind about decisions if my friends or family disagree.	1	2	3	4	5	6
57. For me life has been a continuous process of learning, changing, and growth.	1	2	3	4	5	6
58. I sometimes feel as if I've done all there is to do in life.	1	2	3	4	5	6
59. I know that I can trust my friends, and they know they can trust me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
60. The past had its ups and downs, but in general, I wouldn't want to change it.	1	2	3	4	5	6
61. I have difficulty arranging my life in a way that is satisfying to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
62. I gave up trying to make big improvements or changes in my life a long time ago.	1	2	3	4	5	6
63. When I compare myself to friends and acquaintances, it makes me feel good about who I am.	1	2	3	4	5	6
64. I judge myself by what I think is important, not by the values of what others think is important.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Circle the number that best describes your present agreement or disagreement with each statement.	Strongly Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Disagree Slightly	Agree Slightly	Agree Somewhat	Strongly Agree
65. I have been able to build a home and a lifestyle for myself that is much to my liking.	1	2	3	4	5	6
66. There is truth to the saying that you can't teach an old dog new tricks.	1	2	3	4	5	6

Part 3

INSTRUCTIONS: Please indicate how often you feel each statement below is true or untrue *of you*. For each item, write the appropriate number (1 to 7) on the line to the left of the statement, using the following key:

		More Often Untrue	Equally Often True	More Often True		Almost Always True
Almost Always Untrue	Usually Untrue	Than True	And Untrue	Than Untrue	Usually True	Always True
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

- ____ 1. When someone compliments me for something, I care more about how it makes me feel about myself than about what it tells me about my strengths or abilities.
- ____ 2. I feel worthwhile even if I am not successful in meeting certain goals that are important to me.
- ____ 3. When I receive negative feedback, I take it as an opportunity to improve my behavior or performance.
- ____ 4. I feel connected to the community I now live in.
- ____ 5. I feel that some people have more value than others.
- ____ 6. Making a big mistake may be disappointing, but it doesn't change how I feel about myself overall.
- ____ 7. Sometimes I find myself thinking about whether I am a good or bad person.
- ____ 8. My actions can impact the well-being of others.
- ____ 9. To feel like a worthwhile person, I must be loved by the people who are important to me.
- ____ 10. When I am deciding on goals for myself, trying to gain happiness is more important than trying to prove myself.

- ___ 11. I think that being good at many things makes someone a good person overall.
- ___ 12. Diversity is a strength in a community.
- ___ 13. My sense of self-worth depends a lot on how I compare with other people.
- ___ 14. I believe that I am worthwhile simply because I am a human being.
- ___ 15. When I receive negative feedback, I often find it hard to be open to what the person is saying about me.
- ___ 16. Most of the time, technology is used in appropriate ways.
- ___ 17. I set goals for myself that I hope will prove my worth.
- ___ 18. Being bad at certain things makes me value myself less.
- ___ 19. I think that people who are successful in what they do are especially worthwhile people.
- ___ 20. To me, praise is more important for pointing out to me what I'm good at than for making me feel valuable as a person
- ___ 21. I feel I am a valuable person even when other people disapprove of me.
- ___ 22. I avoid comparing myself to others to decide if I am a worthwhile person.
- ___ 23. When I am criticized or when I fail at something, I feel worse about myself as a person.
- ___ 24. I don't think it's a good idea to judge my worth as a person.

Thank you for completing this questionnaire!