A STUDY OF COUNSELOR-SUPERVISOR AND COUNSELOR-CLIENT DYADIC RELATIONSHIPS

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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF COUNSELOR-SUPERVISOR AND COUNSELOR-CLIENT DYADIC RELATIONSHIPS

by Louise Peterson Forsleff

This is a study of the consistency of counselor feeling-verbalization in counseling and supervision situations. More specifically, it is an examination of the degree of consistency of feeling-verbalization exhibited by counselors-in-training in counselor-client and counselor-supervisor relationships.

The hypothesis is derived from the theoretical assumption that personality characteristics tend to be consistent from one situation to another and, further, that such consistency is particularly evident in patterns of interpersonal behavior. The specific hypothesis tested is the following:

> Consistency of feeling-verbalization exists between the responses made by the counselor in the counselor-supervision and counselor-client dyadic relationships.

The review of related literature suggests that (a) "outcome" studies, so prevalent in counseling research have provided information about the effectiveness of therapy, but, in treating therapy as an homogeneous treatment variable, have largely failed to probe the complexities of interpersonal behavior which need to be included in an understanding of the nature of therapy; (b) that some degree of counselor consistency exists

across counseling and non-counseling situations; and (c) that feeling-verbalization is an important and empirically sound research construct.

The study was conducted during a summer National Defense Education Act Counseling and Guidance Institute. Data for the hypothesis-testing portion of the study were collected by tape recording all counseling and supervisory sessions held during the Institute. Typescripts of counselor responses were made from tape samples.

The counselor responses were rated by three judges as follows: (F) if the response included expression of feeling or affect, and (C) if it was cognitive in content. The proportion of F responses determined a counseling rank order and a non-counseling rank order for the subjects.

For the counseling data, percentages of agreement on F responses for pairs of judges were as follows: Judge A with B, 81.3%; B with C, 77.1%; A with C, 62.4%. For the supervision data, percentages of agreement on F responses for pairs of judges were as follows: Judge A with B, 76.3%; B with C, 69.6%; A with C, 65.6%.

The coefficient of correlation (Kendall's tau) between the counseling and supervisory rankings was +0.23. This value of tau is significant beyond the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the null hypothesis of no consistency of feeling verbalization was rejected. The research hypothesis that consistency of feeling verbalization exists between the responses made by the counselor in the counselor-supervisor and counselor-client dyadic

relationships was accepted.

To further explore possible non-hypothesized relationships between supervision and counseling, each supervisor described himself and the counselors with whom he worked on the Leary Interpersonal Check List. Counselors described themselves, their supervisors, and their clients; clients described themselves and their counselors on the ICL.

Analysis of ICL data demonstrates apparently significant differences between clients' self descriptions and descriptions of them by their counselors. Examination of the ICL data revealed several interesting factors which could be implemented by further research.

In this study, a significant correlation was observed between feeling-verbalization in supervision and in counseling. One of the ultimate possible implications of this kind of consistency is that some understanding of the counselor-client relationships which will be established by a counselor in his counseling practice may be obtained by observing his other relationships.

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DYADIC RELATIONSHIPS

By

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM OF THE RESEARCH

Introduction

As recently as thirty years ago, the literature of psychology was dominated by concepts oriented toward nonsocial aspects of human behavior. Emphasis on the individual, his instinctual past, his racial past, his symptoms, his intelligence, his achievement, his learning processes or his temperament has given way to a new way of looking at man as a uniquely social being, involved in constant and crucial interactions with other social beings.

In the last two decades, the social psychologists and other systems theorists have put their weight behind the movement toward an interpersonal approach to behavior. Researchers in the field of counseling and psychotherapy have found this social, interpersonal view of behavior to be an invaluable contribution to their thinking. Out of this view has come a vast literature of studies concerned with interpersonal influence, conformity, suggestibility, and similar behavior functions.

Consistency emerges as an important and relatively unstudied dimension of interpersonal behavior. Practices in psychotherapy imply that personal characteristics remain relatively consistent from one interpersonal situation to another. Theorists representing widely spread schools of thought have referred to personal characteristics which they assumed to be consistent from one life setting to another. Freud's idea of "transfer" in psychotherapy of certain interpersonal relationships (Freud, 1949), Adler's "style of life" concept (Hall and Lindzey, 1958), the learning theorists' explanation of "generalization" across similar situations (Dollard and Miller, 1950), and Rogers' term "congruency" (Rogers, 1959) all describe a kind of consistency. The goal of counselor consistency in and outside of the therapy setting has been a central tenet of the client-centered theorists. Rogers' (1959) insistence that the counselor be congruent in all his relationships and that he have "unconditional positive regard" for his client and for others, is a clear statement of expected consistency.

All of the above-mentioned investigators and numerous others have indicated that the therapist's personality, feelings, emotional blind spots, and past interpersonal experiences influence his counseling procedure and effectiveness.

In the literature of therapy, there is a paucity of research related to consistency of counselor characteristics such as sensitivity, feeling-verbalization, hostility, or inhibition. Feeling-verbalization has been identified by numerous researchers as a sound empirical construct, but

the only systematic attempt to evaluate consistency of feeling-verbalization across counseling and non-counseling situations which appears in the literature is Ellsworth's study (1962).

Statement of the Problem

This study is designed to investigate the consistency of counselor feeling-verbalization in counseling and non-counseling situations. More specifically, it is an examination of the degree of consistency of feeling-verbalization shown by counselors-in-training in counselor-client and counselor-supervisor relationships.

Definition of Terms

Counselor refers, in this study, to a National Defense Education Act Counseling and Guidance Institute enrollee.

Client is understood to mean a high school age counselee who engages in a counseling relationship with one of the Institute enrollee counselors.

Supervisor is understood to mean a National Defense Education Act Counseling and Guidance Institute staff member who supervises the counseling practicum experience of enrollee counselors.

Supervisory session refers to a period of time approximately one hour in length once a week during which a supervisor and counselor interact.

Counseling session refers to a 50-minute period of time each week

during which a counselor and client interact.

Counselor response is defined as each separate response or proposition made by the counselor during a supervisory session or counseling session. Each counselor response will be separated from another counselor response either by a client or supervisor response or by a period of silence.

Consistency is defined as the presence in the counselor-client interaction of the same proportion of feeling-verbalization on the part of the counselor as is found in the counselor-supervisor interaction for a given counselor.

Feeling-verbalization is operationally defined as the judgements made by experienced counselors (judges) about the presence or absence of feeling-verbalization in responses made by the counselors in counselor-client and counselor-supervisor interactions. Each counselor response is rated by the judges as (F) or (C).

(F) is the rating used by judges to describe a feeling response characterized by the expression of affect.

(C) is the rating used by judges to describe a content response which does not contain any expression of affect.

Feeling or Affect is further defined in this study to mean the expression of present experience of emotion, including expressed, current feelings about self or another individual (i.e., client, supervisor, or other), restatement of a specific emotional experience of the client or supervisor, and feelings underlying feelings. Feeling or affect as defined in this study does

not include vague "How do you feel?" questions, complaints to the counselor, or verbal behavior which is active, cognitive resistance even though these expressions may be couched in "feeling" language. (For further detail, see instructions to the judges in Appendix C.)

Deliminations

The sample for this study is limited to enrollee-counselors in the National Defense Education Act Counseling and Guidance Institute held at Western Michigan University during the summer of 1966. The sample includes twenty-six males and four females, between the ages of 25 and 51. Since the selection of participants was based on certain National Defense Education Act requirements, the present sample may be representative of the total population of National Defense Education Act Counseling and Guidance Institutes in the United States. Generalization of the research findings is limited to the extent to which the counselors included in the sample are similar to and representative of other counselors-in-training.

No assumptions or inferences are made about the emotional states underlying the verbalization of affect. The design of this study does not include dynamic interpretation or causality involved in the feeling-verbalizations of the counselors.

Although some of the findings of the present research may contribute to an understanding of counselor effectiveness, that is not the primary concern of this study.

Loosely structured verbal data such as those found in the typescripts used for analysis in this study present problems in precise statistical sampling. However, every effort was made to obtain responses representative of all responses made during the time over which the investigation extended. Generalization of the findings is limited to the extent to which the data were sampled in a random manner.

Any extension or generalization of the research findings should be in accordance with the delimitations outlined above.

Basic Assumptions

It is assumed that the supervisory sessions and the counseling sessions from which data for this study were drawn are not unique or significantly different from other counseling and supervisory sessions in programs of counselor education.

It is further assumed that the behavior of the subjects during the time of the study is representative of their behavior in other similar situations and is not unlike their future behavior.

It is assumed that verbal statements of affect proceed from underlying experiences of affect. More specifically, the assumption is made that such verbalization can be identified and classified. Some research evidence has been produced in support of this assumption (see chapter two, especially Anderson, 1956). However, it still seems appropriate to state the matter as an assumption.

The further assumption is made that the three expert counselors who served as judges for this investigation are competent and qualified by education and experience to identify feeling-verbalization and rate the counselors' responses with appropriate validity for the purposes of this research.

Underlying Rationale and Hypothesis

The theoretical assumption has been made that personality characteristics tend to be consistent from one situation to another and, further, that such consistency is particularly evident in patterns of interpersonal behavior.

Sullivan's definition of personality as "the relatively enduring pattern of recurrent interpersonal situations which characterize a human life" (1953, pp. 110-111) implies that understanding an individual and his behavior requires knowledge of the interpersonal techniques that he employs to minimize or avoid anxiety and of the consistent patterns of relationships that he forms as a result of these techniques.

Leary's (1955) general probability principle, which states that subjects tend to pull from others (with a probability significantly greater than chance) interpersonal responses which lead to a repetition of the subjects' own favored interpersonal security operations, is derived from Sullivanian theory.

In emphasizing interpersonal aspects of behavior, Sullivanian theory assumes that the essence of human success and failure, happiness and de-

spair, is determined in large part by the way in which an individual consistently sees, symbolizes, and communicates with others.

The consistency which is hypothesized for human beings, generally, is, in this reserach, being hypothesized for counselors in specific elements of their interpersonal behavior.

This study is designed to evaluate assumptions related to previous research findings and, specifically, to examine the degree of consistency of feeling-verbalization exhibited by counselors in counseling and supervisory sessions.

The hypothesis-testing portion of this study will analyze ratings of counselor responses for support or rejection of the following hypothesis:[1]

> Consistency of feeling-verbalization exists between the responses made by the counselor in the counselor-supervisor and counselor-client dyadic relationships.

The hypothesis-generating portion of this study will be concerned with relationships which appear to exist between personality variables (as measured and defined by the Leary Interpersonal Check List) and the affective-cognitive dimension of verbal behavior in counseling and supervision.

The hypothesis stated above was formulated from the purpose and rationale of the study. The hypothesis also reflects the writer's observations in counseling and supervising experiences, and from listening to the tape-recorded interviews of others.

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[1]The hypothesis is restated in testable null form in chapter four.

Need for the Study and Theoretical Bases

The literature devoted to counselor consistency contains an abundance of theory which assumes consistency, but empirical demonstrations of consistency are conspicuously missing. The demands of science permit neither acceptance nor refutation of assumptions or postulates in the absence of empirical verification. Thus, verification of an assumption upon which we seek to build more theory is an important and timely step in counseling research.

The consistency of the counselor's interpersonal behavior outside of the counseling situation is believed to be positively related to his counseling effectiveness (Luborsky, 1952, Parloff, 1956, Abeles, 1962). Increasing evidence is also being offered in support of the hypothesis that a positive relationship exists between a therapist's ability to communicate with clients on a feeling level and his effectiveness as a therapist (Fiedler, 1950, Rogers, 1959, Strupp, 1960, Abeles, 1961, 1962). In the light of findings from these investigations it would seem that better understanding of counselor consistency, generally, and consistency with respect to feeling-verbalization, specifically, could make a real contribution to programs of counselor training.

The theoretical formulations and research findings of a number of individuals have contributed to the framework for this study. The impetus for the present study is found within the theoretical structure presented by

Kell and Mueller (1966) who suggest "that a counselor may often attempt to create a relationship with his supervisor which is similar in some significant dimensions to the relationships he has with his clients." (1966, p.100). Also, they submit the idea that, in some respects, "the supervisory relationship parallels the counseling relationship . . . . . The supervisory relationship itself is a human interaction process and as such the dynamics of the supervisee and supervisor are reciprocally affecting and changing each other" (p. 129).

Rogers' (1959) observations about counselor congruency and consistency lend support to the hypothesis underlying the present investigation as do other research results which indicate that counselors appear to have individual "modal approaches" or "styles" which can be seen as consistent with past emotional experiences (Dipboye, 1954, Peterson et al., 1958, Bandura, 1960).

Few studies have been concerned specifically with the interpersonal behavior of counselors outside of the counseling relationship. In a study of counselor sensitivity and affective complexity, Abeles (1961) has stated the importance of counselor consistency for counselor effectiveness.

> In order to be therapeutically sensitive, not only must one be able to perceive and to respond to complex and varied feelings, but there must also be consistency in the responses, not only toward the client, but OUTSIDE of the therapist-client relationship. Otherwise, the conflicts aroused by the inconsistency of one's response to non-clients might be expected to reduce therapeutic sensitivity. (1961, p. 3).

In Abeles' own research on therapeutic sensitivity and self-consistency (1961), his findings suggest that the beginning counselor who has great-

er sensitivity also has a wider range of feeling-verbalization available to him and demonstrates this greater capacity for feeling-verbalization on projective tests and in simulated therapy settings.

Ellsworth's study (1962) lends support to the consistency hypothesis with respect to counseling and group case conference situations.

More research in the area of counselor consistency is needed. A portion of the present study is designed as an extension of Ellsworth's (1962) investigation of consistency of feeling-verbalization.

CHAPTER II

THE RELATED LITERATURE

The review of literature related to the present study will be presented under three headings: (a) client-therapist interaction, (b) counselor consistency, and (c) feeling-verbalization. The literature dealing with client-therapist interaction and counselor consistency provides the background for the development of the present study. Feeling-verbalization is included because it is to be conceptualized as an experimental construct in this investigation. The review of literature pertinent to that construct will include a survey of methodological approaches to the study of such a concept.

Client-Therapist Interaction

A number of significant empirical studies have been devoted to investigation of the process of client-therapist interaction. Many of these studies could be described as "outcome" research. They have focused largely on the question of effectiveness of therapy and have attempted to define components of successful therapy.

Arbuckle's (1956) study of client perception of counselor personality is a classic example of the systematic definition of therapist characteristics associated with favorable and unfavorable therapeutic prognosis. Linked with favorable prognosis are such therapist qualities as scientific curiosity, self-confidence, low MMPI scores, patience with clients, warmth, interest, tolerance, highly developed persuasive and literary skills, and genuineness. Arbuckle found the following therapist characteristics to be associated with poor prognosis: moralizing, lack of understanding, disinterest, authoritarian or aggressive attitudes, and behavior which conveys a superior attitude.

Aronson (1953), in contrast to Arbuckle and most authors of similar studies, evaluated dependency as prognostically favorable and intellectual curiosity and exploration as unfavorable. Operating from the point of view of the client-centered approach, he also describes adequate emotional control and social adjustment with co-workers as therapist qualities associated with therapeutic success.

Rubenstein and Lorr (1957), using self and peer personality ratings of psychotherapists, describe effective therapists as motivated for long-term goals, having a sense of personal adequacy and emotional understanding, conscientious and orderly. Therapist qualities which they labeled as associated with poor client prognosis were anxiety, tension, suspiciousness, and rebellion toward authority.

Holt and Luborsky (1958) in their lengthy two-volume report, which is undoubtedly the most extensive discussion of therapeutic prognosis grow-

ing out of research, present findings based on a sample of 228 Fellows in Psychiatry at the Menninger School of Psychiatry. These beginning psychiatrists were studied almost microscopically during several years of residency in an attempt to devise criteria which would effectively discriminate between the "good" and "poor" ones. In outline form, under six general headings, the therapist qualities associated with a good therapeutic prognosis, according to Holt and Luborsky are as follows:

I. Motivation for psychological work
    1. Freedom from material preoccupations[1]
    2. Freedom from status-mindedness[2]
    3. Need to help[2]
    4. Psychological-mindedness[1]
    5. Interest in Psychiatry[2]
II. Self-adjustment
    1. Self-confidence[1]
    2. Self-objectivity[2]
    3. Capacity for personal growth[1]
    4. Adequate emotional control[2]
    5. Adequate handling of hostility[2]
    6. Emotional appropriateness[2]
III. Orientation toward clients
    1. Objective attitude to authority figures[1]
    2. Objective toward dependent figures[1]
    3. Empathy (sensitivity)[2]
    4. Conscious of social injustice[2]
    5. Freedom from ethnocentrism[1]
IV. Social adjustment
    1. Mature heterosexual adjustment[2]
    2. Social adjustment with co-workers[2]
    3. Feelings of security[1]
V. Intellectual effectiveness
    1. Clarity of thought[1]
    2. Cultural wealth[1]
    3. Quality of verbalization[1]

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[1]Significant at .05 level
[2]Significant at .01 level

VI. Honesty

1. Genuineness[2]

Some aspects of intellectual effectiveness which Holt and Luborsky had hypothesized as being important to therapy (i.e., perceptual sensitivity and freedom from stereotypy of thought) were not supported as significant by their investigation. A number of researchers and theorists have included honesty or its synonyms in their writings. For Holt and Luborsky it was by far the most significant single variable which differentiated between good and poor therapists.

In much of the literature of research and speculation about counselor effectiveness, concern with what might be referred to as "orientation toward clients" continually presents itself as a foremost consideration. While this observation is not surprising, it does support the notion that the interpersonal relationship between the therapist and client is the most important aspect of psychotherapy.

Axelrod (1952) found counselor-client similarity on certain Rorschach variables, particularly those reflecting intellectual functioning, to be conducive to therapeutic progress.

Tuma and Gustad (1957) hypothesized that systematic relationships exist between the amount of self-learning by clients in a counseling situation and the degree of client-counselor similarity on selected personality traits. The dependent variable, self-learning, was assessed by the Self-Knowledge

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[2]Significant at .01 level

Inventory. Ten measures were used to assess similarities and differences between counselors and clients. These measures were the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale, California F Scale, (Authoritarianism), and the Dominance, Social Participation, Social Presence, Tolerance, Flexibility, Impulsivity, Self-Acceptance, and Good Impression scales of the California Personality Inventory. As the indices were set up, better criterion performance was associated with smaller differences between clients and counselors. Only three of the scales attained significant results. They were Dominance, Social Presence, and Social Participation. The Anxiety and Self-Acceptance scales approached significance. On all five of these scales, it was found that the greater the similarity between counselor and client, the better the client's criterion performance.

In a similar study with somewhat different results, Gerler (1958) used the Ewing Personal Rating Form and found that some medium degree of similarity was more conducive to a favorable outcome of therapy than was a high degree of similarity.

Snyder's ambitious research project which he reports in The Psychotherapy Relationship (1961) was designed to study the interpersonal relationship between client and therapist, to discover whether mutual reciprocity exists in the client's and therapist's interpersonal affect, and to identify personality variables which may affect the therapeutic relationship. Extensive use was made of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule in the investigation. Two affect scales, the Therapist's Affect Scale and the Client's

Affect Scale, were constructed by Snyder and validated by use in the study. Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory scores, Leary classifications, biographical material and diagnostic ratings were included among the data. At the conclusion of therapy, each client was ranked by the therapist on the following six characteristics: hostility, amount of rapport, amount liked by the therapist, dependency, success of case, and guardedness. Dependency was the only characteristic that produced a significant correlation. Clients rated low on dependency by the therapist were the clients whose PPS Factor IV (independent, status-seeking) scores most nearly correlated with those of the therapist. No marked trend appeared in PPS score patterns of clients' need structures toward approximation of the therapist's need structures. Clients who changed in the direction of the therapist's need structure showed a tendency to increase in needs for achievement and autonomy and to decrease in needs for succorance and abasement. Clients whose need structures changed in a direction away from that of the therapist showed increases in need for succorance and decreases in endurance, introception, and need for change. Clients who were more like the therapist in PPS need structure at the start of therapy were among the most unsuccessful and difficult cases according to the therapist's rating. The four clients who were least like the therapist in PPS need structure at the beginning of therapy were ranked as the most successful of cases and possessed the best rapport with the therapist during the course of therapy. The latter two findings might be seen as a corroboration of Leary's (1957) theory that persons with

certain characteristics "pull" predicted kinds of responses from others whose patterns of response are least like their own. Snyder factor-analyzed client MMPI scores and extracted four factors (Factor I: uninhibited, manic, hysterical; Factor II: hypochondriacal, schizoid; Factor III: obsessive, schizoid; Factor IV: uninhibited, depressive, hysteric) which he correlated with therapist rankings and with mean ranks on the Therapist's Affect Scale. Clients toward whom the therapist felt the most favorable affect were in the Factor I and Factor III clusters. A factor which limits generalization of Snyder's findings is the fact that only one therapist (Snyder, himself) was involved in the research. He also worked with a relatively small, homogeneous sample -- twenty graduate students in psychology. The study is described by Snyder as "an exploratory one, designed more for the purpose of hypothesis generating than that of hypothesis testing" (1961, p. 19).

Basing identification of counselor effectiveness on judgements by fellow-enrollees in a National Defense Education Act Counseling and Guidance Institute, Stefflre, et al. (1962) identified three variables which were associated with being chosen as effective counselors. The variables were (a) higher academic performance, (b) somewhat more appropriate Strong scores, (c) less dogmatism as measured by the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale.

Demos and Zuwaylif (1966), using (a) the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values, (b) the Kuder Preference Record, and (c) the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule in an attempt to differentiate between most and least effective counselors as rated by supervisors, found only the EPPS to

show sensitivity to differences between the two groups. The most effective counselors showed significantly higher scores on need for affiliation and nurturance. The least effective counselors had high scores on abasement, autonomy, and aggression scales.

Truax and Carkhuff (1965) present research findings which show a significant positive relationship between therapist transparency or self-congruence and the client's level of self-disclosure or self-exploration.

Kahn (1957) examined the question of whether the counselor's choice of therapeutic approaches has influence on the therapy relationship. His findings indicate that the passive-active qualities of a counselor are related to the accuracy of his perception of the client in therapy of a leading type. He found that the therapist who has more negative feelings toward one client than another, perceives the behavior and dynamics of the less favored client more accurately in leading therapy than in reflective therapy.

Heilbrun (1961) in his analysis of personality correlates of early termination in counseling suggested that analysis of sex differences or sex matching would improve predictive power. Mendelsohn and Geller (1963) disclaimed the usefulness of that approach. They found no significant sex differences in their research. Using the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, they rated clients and counselors on the four dimensions of the instrument (Judgment-Perception, Thinking-Feeling, Sensation-Intuition, and Extraversion-Introversion). Summing the absolute differences between the scores of the counselor and client for each client-counselor pair on each of the four

dimensions resulted in total difference scores. The difference score was a measure of client-counselor dissimilarity, with greater dissimilarity represented by high scores. The number of counseling sessions before termination was the dependent variable. The findings indicated that the greater the client-counselor difference score on each dimension, the fewer the number of sessions. The data consistently indicate that similarity between counselor and client is associated with a greater number of counseling sessions. If, as Mendelsohn and Geller assume, the number of sessions reflects to some extent success in counseling, their results can be seen to be similar to those of Tuma and Gustad (1957) and Axelrod (1952).

The value of studies which will provide us with information about the effectiveness of therapy cannot be denied. Such an approach has not been abandoned because the effectiveness of therapy has been demonstrated unequivocally, but because researchers have recognized a difficult problem that arises as a result of looking upon therapy as an homogeneous treatment variable in the "outcome" designs.

There is some evidence that therapeutic effectiveness rests upon characteristics brought to the situation by each member of the dyad, and upon the nature of the interaction of the members rather than upon differences in theoretical orientation. Lennard and Bernstein (1960) borrowed extensively from the work of Parsons, Bales, and others in their examination of therapist-client pairs. They describe their project as "research designed to develop and test a methodology and to uncover hypotheses -- not sample

statistics to be generalized, but parameters of our group of eight therapist-patient pairs" (p. 35). They also stated "though process is considered in relation to change in structure, we are not primarily concerned with therapeutic results" (p. 3). Their study is multi-dimensional and multi-level. Their concept of primary system references seems especially noteworthy. The primary system references are concerned with therapist-client role relations and revolve around the activities and obligations of the therapist and client vis-a-vis each other (discussion of the purposes of therapy, communication between therapist and client regarding their respective roles, etc.). The other reference categories which they use are the secondary system (reference to therapist and client in other than primary roles -- transference, etc.), the tertiary system (reference to family and other social systems), and the self system (references to self that do not fit in any other category). They also identify "evaluative propositions" which give or ask for appraisals or statements of value, and "affective propositions" which express feeling or emotion. An increase was found in similarity of therapist and client behavior over time. The sample size, as in Snyder's research, is too small for generalization of findings.

Bohn (1965) sought to clarify the relationship of each of three variables (counselor dominance, counselor experience, and client type) to counselor directiveness. Experienced and inexperienced counselors matched on California Psychological Inventory Dominance scale scores and divided into groups on the basis of high and low dominance, were asked to respond to

recordings of first interviews. Three client types (typical, dependent, and hostile) were presented. The three types of clients elicited significantly different responses from the same therapists. The dependent client elicited the most directiveness. The directiveness scores of the high dominance groups were not significantly different from those of the low dominance groups. Bohn expressed dissatisfaction with the measure of dominance used in his study and suggested that, even though his hypothesis linking counselor dominance and counselor behavior was not supported, personality variables such as dominance deserve further attention.

Aronson (1953), using a measure of directiveness in the therapy setting and counselor peer ratings of six personality ratings, obtained results which suggest a positive relationship between counselor dominance and directiveness in therapy.

Heller, Myers, and Kline (1963) successfully predicted counselor behavior as a function of client type. Their hypothesis that dominant client behavior would evoke passivity from counselors was supported.

Tuma (1955) found that dissimilarity in dominance between counselor and client, regardless of the direction of the difference, correlated highly with rated improvement in a counseling situation. Hypothesizing that the productivity of a pair depends upon the degree to which each member can utilize his habitual patterns of interpersonal behavior, Tuma predicted a rank order of achievement for various combinations of dominant and submissive individuals placed in dominant, submissive, and neutral role as-

signments. He found that assigned roles which were contrary to the preferred modes of the individuals involved aroused anxiety and disrupted achievement. In his study, Tuma obtained a rank order correlation of .78 between the predicted and empirical rank orders of achievement. The most productive group was made up of pairs in which the dominant subject was assigned the dominant role and the submissive partner the submissive role. The least productive was the group with roles reversed. Paired dominant subjects were more successful than paired submissive subjects. Tuma also observed that the degree of dominance attributed to others appeared to be a function of the subject's personal dominance. The degree of dominance ascribed to the self and partner was observed to vary in the direction of the assigned role.

Pallone and Grande (1965) report significant relationships between such counselor personality characteristics as lack of rigidity, spontaneity, ego strength, liberalism, and rapport with the client.

Concepts originally derived from research on small groups have been found to be useful tools for examination of psychotherapeutic dyads. Such studies as those by Barrett-Lennard (1962), Brams (1961), Cahoon (1963), Canon (1964), Heller et al. (1963), Izard (1960), Mendelsohn (1963 and 1966), Meuller (1963), and van der Veen (1965) attempt to define interpersonal variables and assess their effect on relationship.

Frank (1961) comments as follows:

> . . . all research that deals with the dynamics of any one-to-one interpersonal relationship, such as with hypnosis, non-clinical studies of attitude change, etc. are relevant for an understanding of psychotherapy. One can reason that all these are but special instances of the dyadic relationship, therefore, the phenomena pertinent to one should be pertinent to the others (pp. 89-90).

The theoretical structures of several authors suggest ways of conceptualizing interpersonal structure. Bales' (1950) interaction process analysis provides a valuable technique for analysis and for construction of small group models. His observations and laboratory records have led Bales to postulate certain uniformities in group interaction which, for heuristic purposes, he presents as a closed system.

Sullivan (1953) hypothesizes that an individual's ways of relating to others are functional, enabling him to keep anxiety at a minimum. He takes the theoretical position that interpersonal situations which permit or encourage the use of a salient interpersonal technique such as dominance or submission give rise to less anxiety than situations that do not. If, as he assumes, the experiencing of anxiety disrupts cognitive function and leads to less effective performance in a given task situation, then greater achievement and/or satisfaction should occur when individuals are encouraged or permitted to assume their habitual modes of relating to others. This hypothesis is borne out by Tuma's (1955) research results reported earlier.

Despite the theoretical importance and the explicitness of this reciprocal aspect of interpersonal theory, very few experimental studies have been concerned with it.

Leary has built, on a Sullivanian foundation, an elaborate multilevel interpersonal system which is both theoretical and methodological. Discussion of some of the methodology of the interpersonal system appears in chapter three. Leary describes his approach as a "dynamic behaviorism." Two dynamic attributes are contained in his system; (a) the impact an individual has in interaction with others, and (b) the interaction of psychological pressures among the different levels of personality which he describes. The use which is made of Leary's system in the present study is limited to the former (i.e., the impact of an individual in interaction with others). Over 5,000 cases, including psychiatric and medical patients and normal controls, have been included in the research for development and validation of the interpersonal system.

The literature in client-therapist interaction summarized here suggests that "outcome" studies have provided information about the effectiveness of therapy, but, in looking at therapy as an homogeneous treatment variable, have largely failed to examine the relationship between the counselor as a person in a variety of relationships and the counselor as a functioning part of the counselor-client dyad.

Counselor Consistency

In comparison to the number of studies which deal with some aspect of client-therapist interaction, there is a paucity of research which is di-

rectly concerned with counselor consistency.

Carl Rogers (1959) presents theoretical formulations and empirical evidence which are related to counselor consistency. His concept of counselor "congruency" requires the counselor to understand himself and be "deeply himself" in relationships with clients. Genuineness in the therapeutic encounter includes behaviors which are characteristic of the counselor and which have their sources in his personality dynamics. If he is "genuine" in counseling situations and in non-counseling situations, it follows that consistency will exist across both settings.

In his attempt to define the ideal therapeutic relationship, Fiedler (1950) examined counselor and client responses to questions and to given therapeutic situations. He concluded that the counselor's past experience was the most important factor in his provision of empathic, communicative, therapeutic relationships with clients. He suggests that the experienced counselor's behavior in the counseling situation is influenced only slightly by his professional affiliation or theoretical background.

Strupp (1955), in a study of interaction patterns of counselors from different theoretical orientations and varying levels of experience, found no significant difference in the process of therapy as practiced by the counselors included in his sample. Strupp made a series of similar studies, and concluded that the counselor's own personality, past interpersonal experiences, feelings, and emotional blind spots are the prime determiners of his behavior in the therapy situation. Strupp (1960) also indicates that the ther-

apist's feelings toward and perception of a client reflect the therapist's own personality dynamics. He adds that only if a counselor's personality encompasses "integrity, honesty, and dedication" (1960, p. 219), can he achieve positive therapeutic results. Strupp found a significant difference in the counseling behavior of therapists who had undergone personal psychoanalysis and those who had not.

Wrenn (1960), using a modified version of Bales (1950) interaction process analysis categories, attempted to complement the experimental weaknesses of Fiedler's study (1950). Wrenn sought to provide data which would emphasize the theoretical differences between counselors instead of avoiding them. He looked for similarity of counseling behavior in the interviews of therapists subscribing to different theoretical orientations. His findings concur with those of Fiedler and Strupp. He reported finding no significant procedural differences among the therapists he studied which could be accounted for by their theoretical orientations.

The differences between counselors, as studied by Fiedler (1950), Strupp (1955, 1957, 1960), Wrenn (1960), and Peterson, Snyder, Guthrie, and Ray (1959) appear to be personal differences rather than differences of technique or theory. The findings of such studies strongly suggest that the personality characteristics of the counselor greatly influence his counseling behavior.

Other writers support these findings. In a study of counselor subroles, Danskin (1955) and Hoffman (1959) found individual counselor prefer-

ences a factor which determined the sub-roles played by the therapist in the counseling situation. Dipboye (1954) stated his belief that there is a general similarity in "counselor style" when units of style are considered together. Grigg and Goodstein (1957) reported that counselors in their study were found to show identifiable individual differences in their counseling behavior or "approach," and that the counselors showed consistency in the use of such "modal approaches." Bandura's findings (1960) demonstrate that the counselor who expresses hostility during the counseling interview also permits and encourages the expression of hostility by his client. Kell and Mueller (1966) suggest that if a counselor avoids affective struggle with his client, he will also avoid it with his supervisor.

Counselor consistency across counseling and non-counseling situations is implied by a number of authors. Some treat consistency in a more specific manner. For example, Bordin (1955) makes the statement that

> The emotional tone of the counselor's relationship to the client probably reflects most fully his natural ways of interacting with others, his personality conflicts and integrations, his life style.(p. 170).

Patterson (1959) voiced his view that the counselor's behavior in therapy must be consistent with his own personality structure; consistent with his feelings and attitudes. Recognizing situational variance, he added that the counselor's personality may appear to be different at different times or with others, but stressed the common elements which he believes exist in interactional situations. Fiedler (1950) described a good relationship in counseling as very much like any good interpersonal relationship, and supported his

view with research findings. He also found that lay raters described a good therapeutic relationship in a way that very closely approximated the ratings by experienced therapists.

Luborsky (1952) reported that beginning psychiatrists who received better ratings as therapists were also rated better in their personal relationships with research staff, supervisors, ward personnel, and fellow students. Concurring with Luborsky's findings, Parloff (1956) indicated that of two therapists, the one that was rated highest for the quality of therapeutic interaction with members of therapy groups with whom both therapists worked, was also rated higher for other social relationships.

Little investigation has been made of consistency in terms of specific components of counselor behavior such as feeling-verbalization, hostility, sensitivity, or inhibition. Abeles (1961), in his study of therapeutic sensitivity and self consistency attempted to define therapist response to client affect. He described counselor consistency as an essential ingredient in genuine sensitivity. He also postulated that counselor sensitivity includes the consistent ability to perceive affect and to respond to affect which varies in complexity. Using Henry and Schlien's (1958) affective complexity score, Abeles found significant correlations between affective complexity scores on a projective test and in a simulated therapy situation. Indicating that the most frequent activity of the counselor is understanding and/or responding to client affect, Abeles put particular emphasis on feeling-verbalization.

Ellsworth (1962) reported significant correlations between feeling-

verbalization (one dimension of behavior) in counseling sessions and in group case conferences.

Such findings as those reported above lend convincing support to the hypotheses that (a) the personality characteristics of the counselor are an integral part of his counseling behavior, and that (b) as a result, consistency can be expected to occur in interpersonal relationships which the counselor forms in and outside of the therapy setting.

Feeling-Verbalization

The literature which is concerned with measurement, identification, or classification of feeling-verbalization in counseling reports two basic approaches to the problem: (a) methods of rating by judges, and (b) methods using semantic instruments such as word lists, grammatical ratios, or physiological correlates. There is some overlap or combination of the two methods in some studies, making discreet categorization difficult at times.

The client-centered movement with its strong emphasis on affect, led to much interest in the development of methodology for making content analyses of verbal material from counseling interviews. A number of interaction variables, feeling-verbalization prominent among them, were subjected to empirical scrutiny.

Among the early studies in this group, a study by Porter (1943) appears to mark the first reference to feeling-verbalization as an empirical

construct. He reports a study in which judges rated counselor behavior (including identification of feeling-verbalization) in interview situations. Finding an interjudge reliability coefficient near .95, Porter concluded that ". . . judges can agree with a high degree of reliability as to the procedures which the counselor follows."

Earlier, Baldwin (1942) in approaching a similar problem revealed both the fruitful possibilities and the tedious process involved in a quantitative approach to verbatim interview material.

Snyder (1945) found during his investigation into the nature of non-directive therapy that he was able to classify eighty per cent of content and feeling items from forty-eight interviews in the same manner after a time lapse of one month. An untrained judge was able to categorize sixty per cent of the items in exactly the same way and seventy-four per cent in the same general category groups. These findings led Snyder to conclude that material from therapy interviews can be analyzed by the categorization method and that measurable data can be obtained in that manner.

Later, Reid and Snyder (1948) attempted to determine the accuracy of therapist recognition of client feeling-verbalization in the therapy interview. They computed a rank correlation of .70 between what "good" counselors thought was productive feeling-verbalization and what supervisors identified as such when they listened to taped recordings of therapy interviews. They also reported that counselors appeared to have consistent personal preferences for designation of certain feelings, that "good" coun-

selors showed this tendency toward consistency more clearly than those counselors who were rated as less effective, and that the "good" counselors were able to recognize a broader range of feelings than the less effective counselors.

Seeman (1949), also investigating process in non-directive therapy, presents evidence which supports the validity and reliability of the feeling-verbalization construct. He reported concurrence by four judges eighty-one per cent of the time when affective units were identified and ninety-five per cent of the time when cognitive content units were identified.

In a study of self-reference in therapy interviews, Raimy (1948) reported that four judges, rating positive, negative, and ambivalent client feelings about self and others, achieved 81.8 per cent agreement in the initial rating and 80 per cent agreement in test-retest ratings over a period of six months. Raimy referred to the work of Baldwin (1942), Curran (1945), and Rogers (1951) to support his claim of validity. He also stated, "The reliability studies indicate that the method can be applied to verbatim responses . . . with considerable hope of gaining an objective picture of changes taking place in verbalized self-reference" (p. 158).

In an attempt to measure tension, Dollard and Mowrer (1947) established a Discomfort-Relief Quotient (DRQ). They instructed judges, using written case notes as material, to list all the words which they identified as indicating discomfort (unhappiness, suffering, pain, tension, etc.), and all the words which they saw as indicating comfort or relief (satisfaction, enjoy-

ment, comfort, etc.). Sentences and clauses were also rated. Instructions to the judges about rating sentences were: "Does the sentence (a) disturb, (b) relieve, or (c) fail to affect you either way? If you react with tension to the sentence, i.e., if it makes you feel annoyed, excited, appetitive, or apprehensive . . ." rate it as a discomfort sentence. If, conversely, ". . . the sentence gives you a sense of well-being, relaxation, or satisfaction . . ." rate it as a relief sentence. Independent clauses or "thought units" were also rated in the same manner. Interjudge reliability for eight judges of individual word analysis was .80. Interjudge reliability for sentence analysis, again with eight judges, was .81. An interjudge reliability coefficient of .88 was found when ten judges rated the clauses or thought units. Positive inter-correlations were found to exist between the graphic representations of the three rating methods. Clause and sentence curves showed a correlation coefficient of .90, as did word and sentence curves. Clause and word curves correlated positively at .93. The clause scoring method produced greater parallelism and coincidence between curves than either of the other methods. Dollard and Mowrer state, "It seems indubitable that something 'real' is being scored when results so similar are obtained by three somewhat varying methods" (1947, p. 13). Their study and subsequent investigations using the DRQ indicate that it is a valid and reliable measure of tension change which can be applied to case records. Such success with the DRQ implies not only that gross feeling-verbalization can be scored reliably and used as a valid empirical construct, but also that

more specific kinds of feeling-verbalization can be identified reliably.

Murray (1956) stated his belief that all of the observable events in any therapeutic encounter can be meaningfully sorted into such categories as verbal, physiological, and gross behavioral. Selecting the area which he labeled "verbal" for investigation, he sought, by means of content analysis procedures, to identify "meaning content" of the language used. He used a "meaning phrase" construct which was similar to the DRQ thought-clause. Reliability coefficients for identification of the meaning phrases ranged from .88 to .94. Two judges classified the meaning phrases into such categories as affection, independence, dependence, sex, etc. with reliability coefficients ranging from .58 to .98. Interjudge reliability for the two judges was .86 for classification of affection, .77 for classification of anxiety, and .78 for classification of frustration. Murray also explored expressions of client feeling about the therapist and found interjudge reliabilities (again, for two judges) ranging from .58 to .97 for eight feeling categories and a reliability coefficient of .97 when all eight categories were pooled. Murray concluded that although the validity of his approach cannot be ideally established, some validity is inferred by the usefulness of his data.

Anderson (1956) in a study designed to link phenomenological and physiological operationalism concerning feeling-verbalization obtained results which convincingly establish validity for judges' ratings of feeling-verbalization. Anderson studied the same client over a period of ten therapy sessions. The client was "wired up" to demonstrate changes in heart

rate and other physiological changes which are known to be related to emotional states. He obtained a correlation of .69 (tau coefficient) between the physiological changes measured during the sessions and the therapist's judgements about intensity of feelings. He also obtained the following reliability coefficients for two judges rating four categories: (a) person referents, .82, (b) time referents, .75, (c) feeling-expression, .73, and (d) intensity of affect or feeling expressed, .82. After a ten-month interval, a test-retest procedure showed an overall agreement of .85. In Anderson's words,

> There are concomitant modifications of the emotional and cognitive processes of client behavior during client-centered therapy which are related to each other, and they will vary together in a predictable manner.
>
> It was assumed that cognitive behavior could be measured from the client's speech during the interview and the emotional behaviors could be measured from a physiological system known to be responsive to emotional upset . . .
>
> As the frequency of client talk units denoting self-reference, negative affect, and present time reference vary together, there should be a concomitant variation in the heart rate . . ." (p. 175).

Physiological tension was related to (a) the referent of the client's speech, (b) the affective valuation (positive or negative), and (c) the time reference in the speech. More specifically, self references, negative valuations of experience, and present-time oriented statements were most significantly related to physiological tension elicitations.

An example would be "I feel blue," as opposed to "he felt O.K." The example illustrates each point respectively as it refers to (a), (b), and

(c) above; in other words, "I" as a self-referent rather than "he," "feel" in the present rather than "felt" in the past, and "blue" as a negative rather than a positive valuation. In addition such statements as "He was six feet tall" or the question "What is your major?" or "How old did you say your mother was?" are illustrations of cognitive intellectual content, as opposed to specific feeling expression.

Lending further support to the empirical respectability of the construct of feeling-verbalization are the more recent studies by Salzinger (1958, 1960). His theoretical orientation is similar to that of Dollard and Miller (1950). Salzinger views therapy as a learning situation in which he identifies approach-avoidance conflict about feelings, reduction of anxiety and tension, the decrease of displacement, and the increase in positive feeling expression as the therapy-learning experience progresses. In his research, Salzinger investigated reinforcement of client feeling response by therapists, using both schizophrenic and normal client populations. He defined feeling or affect responses as follows:

> The response class of affect used in this experiment was defined as any statement by the patient describing or evaluating his own state (other than intellectual or physiological). The response class therefore included only those affect statements which begin with pronouns "I" or "we" as the following examples indicate: "I am satisfied, I'm happy, we enjoyed it, I like him, I'm very close to him, I was mad at him, I feel . . . (followed by other words), I was frightened, we couldn't take it, I always suffered." Quotations in which affect was described to the speaker by another individual (e.g., "my husband said I didn't feel good") although fulfilling all other criteria, were excluded on the basis of not being direct expression of the patient's own affect.

Statements like "I am happy and excited" were considered as one affect statement only, because the pronouns "I" or "we" did not precede the second affective word. On the other hand, incomplete statements (in the sense that the object of the affect is not mentioned) like "I love . . ." or "We feared . . ." were viewed as bona fide responses.

Certain types of private events or internal states were excluded from the response class of affect because they referred primarily to intellectual processes, or to actions which are sometimes but not always associated with affect, or to desires which appear to constitute a class of responses different from the affect class defined here. Some examples are the following: "I am confused, I am not well, we forgave him, I threaten her constantly, I didn't trust them" (1960, p. 242).

The interjudge reliability coefficients for two judges as they independently coded 15 recorded interviews for self-referred affect were computed separately for each response class and ranged from .79 to 1.00. The interjudge reliability coefficients were the same in both studies. The high reliability coefficients led Salzinger to conclude that "The affect response as defined in this experiment can be objectively isolated and counted" (1958, p. 85). "It was further shown that a verbal response class" (like feeling-verbalization) "can be reliably isolated and reacted to" (1958, p. 90). Salzinger also stated his belief that some of the reliability coefficients would have been even higher if the quality of recording had been better.

For three judges, Levine (1958) found the same interjudge reliability (.92) when the amount of feeling expressed in counseling interviews was rated, when the feelings were further categorized as either positive or negative, and when the feelings were rated as mild, moderate, or intense. His study lends further support to the empirical reliability of the judges' rating method for use with taped material taken from counseling interviews.

In a study designed to explore reinforcement in a simulated therapy situation by selective response to content or feeling, Waskow (1962) again demonstrated the experimental reliability and validity of feeling-verbalization. Seeking to link the client-centered theorists' (Rogers 1942,, Seeman 1954) emphasis of the importance of feeling as opposed to content in client verbalizations with the learning theorists' (Dollard and Miller, 1950) view that previously punished feelings must be expressed in the presence of a non-punitive therapist in order for new learning to occur, Waskow studied 32 subjects in situations where feelings were reflected and in situations where they were not. The aspect of her research which has particular relevance to the present study is the rating of tape recorded interview material. Three categories were used for classification of responses, (C) content, (FC) feeling and content, and (F) predominantly feeling. The following example illustrates the manner in which the responses were classified.

Subject:

Sometimes my father yells at my mother over nothing. But, boy, can she get mad. And I don't like it one bit when he does it.

Therapist:

(F): You really get upset about that.

(FC): You feel real upset when your father gets mad at your mother about things that don't matter.

(C): Sometimes your father gets real mad and yells at your mother about little things.

Inter-rater reliability between a therapist and graduate student in clinical psychology was .81 for the (F), (FC), and (C) classifications.

It has been demonstrated that laymen or untrained scorers can make reliable and valid judgements about feelings in counseling and non-counseling situations. Beldoch (1961) investigated the ability of his subjects (who were not therapists) to identify feeling expression in vocal, musical, and graphic media. He found that his subjects could reliably identify given feelings from spoken, musical, and abstract art stimuli which were presented to them. He also found significant intercorrelation among the feeling identification abilities in the three media. He concluded, "the reliability coefficients for each instrument ranged from..60 to .70 indicating that the ability to identify the communication of feeling in the separate media is a relatively stable phenomenon" (p. 1274).

In a study concerned with awareness of and responsiveness to affect as a function of counselor training and supervision, Abeles (1962) had judges (some of whom were untrained personnel) rate the following five kinds of affect: (a) affect inhibition, (b) monotonic positive affect, (c) monotonic negative affect, (d) ambivalent affect, and (e) ambivalent affect with controlled resolutions indicated. He reports an interjudge reliability coefficient of approximately .70.

The literature related to feeling-verbalization presents evidence that feeling-verbalization is an important and empirically sound research construct, and reports a number of methodological approaches to the study of feeling-verbalization.

Summary

The review of related literature which has been presented in chapter two suggests (a) that "outcome" studies, so prevalent in counseling research, have provided information about the effectiveness of therapy, but, in looking at therapy as an homogeneous treatment variable, have largely failed to examine the relationship between the counselor as a person in a variety of relationships and the counselor as a functioning part of the counselor-client dyad, (b) that counselor consistency has been hypothesized to exist but verification of this hypothesis remains to be established, and (c) that feeling-verbalization is an important and empirically sound research construct.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Overview

This research was designed to investigate consistency of counselor feeling-verbalization across counseling and supervisory situations.

The Setting

The study was conducted during a summer National Defense Education Act Counseling and Guidance Institute held at Western Michigan University from June 20, 1966, to August 12, 1966. The structure of the Institute included large group didactic instruction, discussion periods, practicum experience with individual and group supervision, observation of counseling, case conferences, group process interaction, and professional field placement in selected community agencies and services.

Two one-hour laboratory or practicum experiences were scheduled each week for the counselors who were enrolled in the Institute. These practicum experiences centered around counseling with clients who were

referred by counselors from secondary schools in the Kalamazoo area.[1] The counseling sessions were conducted in rooms fitted with one-way glass for observation and were tape recorded for supervision and discussion. Individual supervision sessions, held in supervisors' offices, were scheduled once a week and were also tape recorded.

The four supervisors on the staff of the NDEA Institute were selected because of their supervisory experience and their recognized ability to work with individuals and small groups. One was a Clinical Staff Psychologist at the Veterans Administration Hospital in Battle Creek, Michigan, and a specialist in counseling theory and process. Two were Assistant Professors in the Counseling Center, Western Michigan University, and specialists in the supervision of individual and group counseling. The fourth was an Assistant Professor in the School of Education, Western Michigan University, and a specialist in research, individual counseling and the supervision of counseling.

The Research Subjects

The subjects of this study were the enrollee-counselors who participated in the National Defense Education Act Institute at Western Michigan University during the summer of 1966. Thirty enrollees, twenty-four males

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[1]The procedure used in the selection of clients is presented in Appendix A.

and six females, were included in the sample. The age range of the enrollees was from 24 to 51 with the mean age being 33.5. Twenty-seven of the thirty held masters' degrees. The other three had earned 28, 27, and 25 semester hours of graduate credit, respectively, and expected to complete the requirements for masters' degrees at the conclusion of the Institute.

All of the subjects had been enrolled in at least one counseling practicum course before admission to the Institute and had completed, with a B or better average, not less than 22 and not more than 36 semester hours in graduate courses applicable to a degree in counselor education at Western Michigan University.

All of the enrollees were married except two of the women, who were members of religious orders. Twenty-seven of the Institute members had children. The number of children in the 27 families ranged from one to nine with a mean of 2.9. The enrollees had between one and twenty-one years of "teaching experience" with a mean of 8.7 years. Included in the years of "teaching experience" for twenty-seven of the enrollees were from one to seventeen years of full- or part-time counseling with a mean of 3.1 years of counseling experience.

Three of the Institute enrollees were employed in private schools or institutes. The remaining twenty-seven were public school counselors and/or teachers. Twenty-six of the enrollees had been involved in counseling and guidance activities at least half-time in junior or senior high schools prior to enrollment in the Institute. All thirty of the enrollees were assured of em-

ployment as counselors in secondary schools at least half time after the Institute experience.

Enrollees came to the Institute from the following nine states: California, Illinois, Michigan, Minnesota, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Wisconsin. Seventeen of the enrollees were from Michigan; thirteen from "out-of-state."

A summary chart of information about the research subjects is presented in Table 3.1.

Assignment of Subjects to Supervisors

The counselor-enrollees were ranked in order of dominance scores obtained by administration of the Leary Interpersonal Check List at the first session of the Institute.[2] The ten enrollees at the high dominance end of the continuum were assigned randomly to the four supervisors.[3] The ten counselors at the low end of the continuum were assigned randomly to the four supervisors. Random assignment of the middle group was also made. The purpose of this method of assignment was to insure that each supervisor would be working with a group in which a range of dominance could be assumed. A chart showing assignment of subjects to supervisors is presented

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[2]Rank order of subjects from high to low dominance is presented in Table 3.2.

[3]Two supervisors had eight counselors assigned to each of them. The other two supervisors had seven, the difference being a function of other commitments to the Institute by the supervisors.

Table 3.1 Summary Chart of Information about the Research Subjects

	Range	Mean
Age	24-51	33.5
No. of children	1-9	2.9
Years of teaching experience	1-21	8.7
Years of counseling experience	1-17	3.1

	Male	Female	Total
Number of Enrollees	24	6	30

No. of Enrollees with Masters Degree	27
No. of Enrollees with counseling practicum experience	30
No. of Enrollees having completed not less than 22 and not more than 36 hours toward graduate degree in counseling	30
No. of Enrollees married	28
No. of Enrollees with children	27
No. of Enrollees employed as public school counselors and/or teachers	27
No. of Enrollees in private schools or institutes	3
No. of Enrollees in counseling at least half-time prior to enrollment in Institute	26
No. of Enrollees assured of at least half-time counseling positions following the Institute	30

State Residence of Enrollees	Number
California	1
Illinois	1
Michigan	17
Minnesota	1
New Jersey	1
Ohio	5
Pennsylvania	2
Utah	1
Wisconsin	1
Total	30

Table 3.2. Rank Order of Subjects from High to Low Dominance

Dominance Ranking		Counselor Identification
1		06
2		30
3		29
4	High	18
5	Dominance	08
6	Group	20
7		19
8		25
9		17
10		21
11		28
12		03
13.5		07
13.5	Average	27
15	Dominance	13
16	Group	24
17		10
18		23
19		05
20		04
21.5		15
21.5		26
23		22
24	Low	02
25	Dominance	11
26	Group	09
27		14
28		01
29		12
30		16

in Table 3.3.

Tape Sampling and Typescripts

All the counseling and supervisory sessions of the Institute were tape recorded. Sample segments from all the tapes were used to derive the research data. Since rate of interaction was not a variable under study in this research, samples were taken in such a way that an equal number of responses from each tape were included. Some researchers (Kiesler, et al.) have suggested that, for most research purposes, tape segments from parallel portions of tapes can be compared more effectively than random segments drawn from different portions of tapes. They also conclude that there is no "best" way to select time segments, but that such a choice depends on the focus of a particular study. They indicate that segments from the final portion of the interview are usually superior in discriminatory power to segments from earlier portions.

The sample from each tape was taken following thirty minutes of elapsed time from the start of the tape and included the next five counselor responses which followed. If the session ended before five counselor responses were made in the prescribed tape segment, counselor responses made just prior to the thirty minute point were included in the data. In these cases the tape was "back-tracked" to meet the five-response criterion.

Table 3.3. Chart of Assignment of Subjects to Supervisors (showing high, average, and low dominance divisions)

Supervisor A		Supervisor B	
Counselor	Rank	Counselor	Rank
08	5	20	6
21	10	25	8
		17	9
07	13.5		
13	15	24	16
23	18	05	19
15	21.5	09	26
12	29	16	30

Supervisor C		Supervisor D	
Counselor	Rank	Counselor	Rank
06	1	30	2
29	3	18	4
19	7		
		28	11
03	12	27	13.5
04	20	10	17
26	21.5	22	23
11	25	02	24
01	28	14	27

Supervisory tapes and counseling tapes were sampled in an identical manner.

Typescripts were made containing only the counselor responses from the sample segments of each counselor-supervisor and counselor-client tape. Each tape was heard and converted into typescripts by the investigator.

Each response was numbered and groups of responses were coded. A counselor response was defined as each statement separated from another counselor response either by a client or supervisor response or by a period of silence. "Uh huh" or "uh hmm" sounds were not included as responses.

Evaluation of Typescripts by Judges

Three judges[4] were selected to evaluate the typescripts. The judges were given typescripts of counselor responses made in counseling and supervisory sessions. They were asked to rate each counselor response as (F)if it included expression of feeling or affect or (C) if it was cognitive in content. Complete instructions to the judges are reproduced in Appendix C. A sample typescript page for judges' rating of subjects' responses is included in Appendix D.

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[4]Biographical material about the three judges is presented in Appendix B.

Interjudge Agreement[5]

Percentages of agreement between pairs of judges on F (feeling) responses were computed on the basis of the maximum number of possible F-matches between pairs of judges. Chi square assessment of the relative divergence of each pair of judges' actual F-percentage agreement from ρ.50 (chance) agreement was computed.

For the counseling data, percentages of agreement on F responses between pairs of judges were as follows: Judge A with Judge B, 81.3 per cent; Judge B with Judge C, 77.1 per cent; Judge A with Judge C, 62.4 per cent.

For the supervision data, percentages of agreement on F responses between pairs of judges were as follows: Judge A with Judge B, 76.3 per cent; Judge B with Judge C, 69.6 per cent; Judge A with Judge C, 65.6 per cent.

For all the data (counseling and supervision combined), percentages of agreement on F responses between judges was as follows: Judge A with Judge B, 79.7 per cent; Judge B with Judge C, 74.3 per cent; Judge A with

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[5]Traditionally, computation of interjudge reliability utilizes Kendall's concordance (W). The coefficient of concordance is an index of the divergence of actual agreement shown in the data from the maximum possible (i.e., perfect) agreement. A more meaningful and less tedious approach to analysis of interjudge agreement for this study was to assess the relative divergence of each pair of judges' actual F-percentage agreement from ρ.50 agreement.

Judge C, 63.6 per cent.

Percentages of interjudge agreement are presented in Table 3.4.

Table 3.4. Percentages of Agreement on F (Feeling) Responses by Pairs of Judges for Counseling, Supervision, and Combined Data

Pairs of Judges	AB	BC	AC
Counseling	81.3%	77.1%	62.4%
Supervision	76.3%	69.6%	65.6%
Total Data	79.7%	74.3%	63.6%

A chi square test of significance was applied to percentages of interjudge agreement for the counseling and supervision data combined. The obtained value of chi square permitted rejection of the null hypothesis that ratings by the judges are unrelated and could be expected to occur by chance.

Applying a chi square test of significance to percentages of interjudge agreement for counseling and supervision data separately, the obtained value of chi square ($\chi^2 = 63.74$, $p > .001$) permitted rejection of the null hypothesis that judges' ratings of counseling and supervision data are unrelated and that the percentages of interjudge agreement could be expected to occur by chance.

Rejection of the null hypothesis that the ratings are unrelated may be interpreted as indicating that all the judges applied essentially the same standards in rating all the responses.

Ranks for the counseling and supervisory situations were assigned on the basis of agreement on F ratings by two or more judges. The proportion of F responses, as determined by majority agreement of the judges, decided the position for each subject in the counseling and supervisory rankings.

Collection of the Data

The data for this study were collected during the summer of 1966. The data for the hypothesis-testing part of this research were collected by tape recording all counseling and supervisory sessions which were held during the NDEA Institute. Sample segments from all the tapes were used to derive the research data.

The data for the hypothesis-generating part of this research were obtained in the following manner. Each of the supervisors was asked to describe himself on the Leary Interpersonal Check List before the Institute began. The ICL was administered to counselor-enrollees on the first day of the Institute and to clients when they came for their second interviews. The second interview was used as the time to obtain client self-descriptions at the request of the Institute director who was reluctant to have any kind of testing situation presented at the time of the first interview.

After the last supervisory session, each member of a counselor-supervisor dyad was asked to describe the other member of the dyad on the ICL. After the last counseling session each counselor was asked to describe his client on the ICL and each client was asked to describe his counselor on the ICL. Each time the ICL was administered, the persons involved were asked to describe themselves and/or the persons they were being asked to describe as honestly as possible. They were assured that the information would be kept confidential and that the instrument was being administered for research purposes only.

Early termination by clients and/or missed supervisory sessions caused a slight variation in the number of responses available from several of the counselors. Table 3.5 shows the number of responses judged per subject in counseling and supervisory situations.

Treatment of the Data

The proportion of feeling-verbalization in a given counselor's responses was assessed by judges' ratings. The ratings by judges also determined the rank order of counselors for the counseling and supervisory situations. The assumption of rankability, which is a basic assumption underlying the use of rank correlation methods, is met by the proportions of feeling-verbalization in two situations available for ranking. Therefore, the degree of consistency of feeling-verbalization between the counseling and superviso-

Table 3.5. Number and Totals of Responses for Subjects in Counseling and Supervisory Situations

COUNSELING SITUATION		SUPERVISORY SITUATION	
Counselor	No. of Responses	Counselor	No. of Responses
01	80	01	40
02	80	02	40
03	80	03	25
04	80	04	40
05	80	05	40
06	80	06	40
07	80	07	40
08	80	08	40
09	80	09	40
10	80	10	40
11	80	11	40
12	80	12	40
13	80	13	40
14	80	14	40
15	80	15	40
16	80	16	40
17	80	17	40
18	80	18	40
19	80	19	40
20	80	20	40
21	15	21	20
22	80	22	40
23	80	23	40
24	80	24	40
25	80	25	40
26	80	26	40
27	80	27	40
28	75	28	40
29	80	29	40
30	80	30	40
Total	2330	Total	1165

Grand total (both situations)	3495
Average number of responses, counseling	77.7
Average number of responses, supervisory	38.8
Over-all average for both situations	58.2

ry situations can be determined by means of a statistical test which results in a rank correlation coefficient. The statistical test which was chosen for analysis of the data in this research is Kendall's tau. The formula for tau given by Kendall (1955) for cases where ties occur in the ranks is the one selected for use in this study and is reproduced here:

$$\text{tau} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{1/2\ N\ (n-1) - t_x}\quad\sqrt{1/2\ N\ (N-1) - t_y}}$$

Two studies (Anderson 1956, Ellsworth 1962) which have used Kendall's tau are reviewed in chapter two. Both deal with assumptions and conditions similar to those of the present research.

It appears that the nature of the data and the conditions of this study meet the assumptions for Kendall's tau and that this statistical test can be used in a meaningful way in the analysis of data for this study.

The Interpersonal Check List

The Leary Interpersonal Check List is a collection of 128 items descriptive of interpersonal behavior (see Appendix E for text of ICL - Form IV). The items are representative of sixteen interpersonal variables each of which has eight items related to it. The sixteen interpersonal variables measured by the ICL can be treated as eight combined octant variables as was done in this study. (see Figure 3.1 for illustration of variables). Octant scores can then be algebraicly weighted, converted into standard scores

Figure 3.1. Illustration of Interpersonal Behaviors Classifications

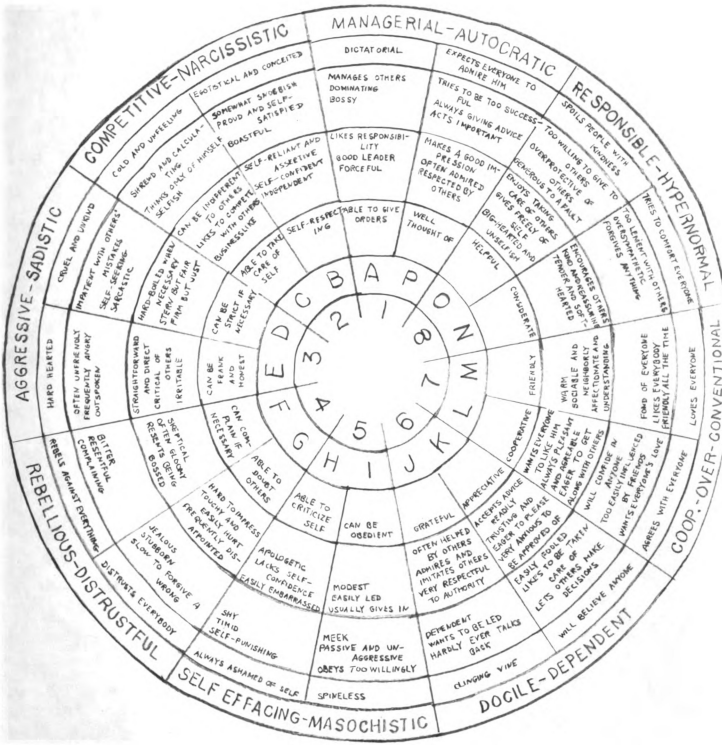
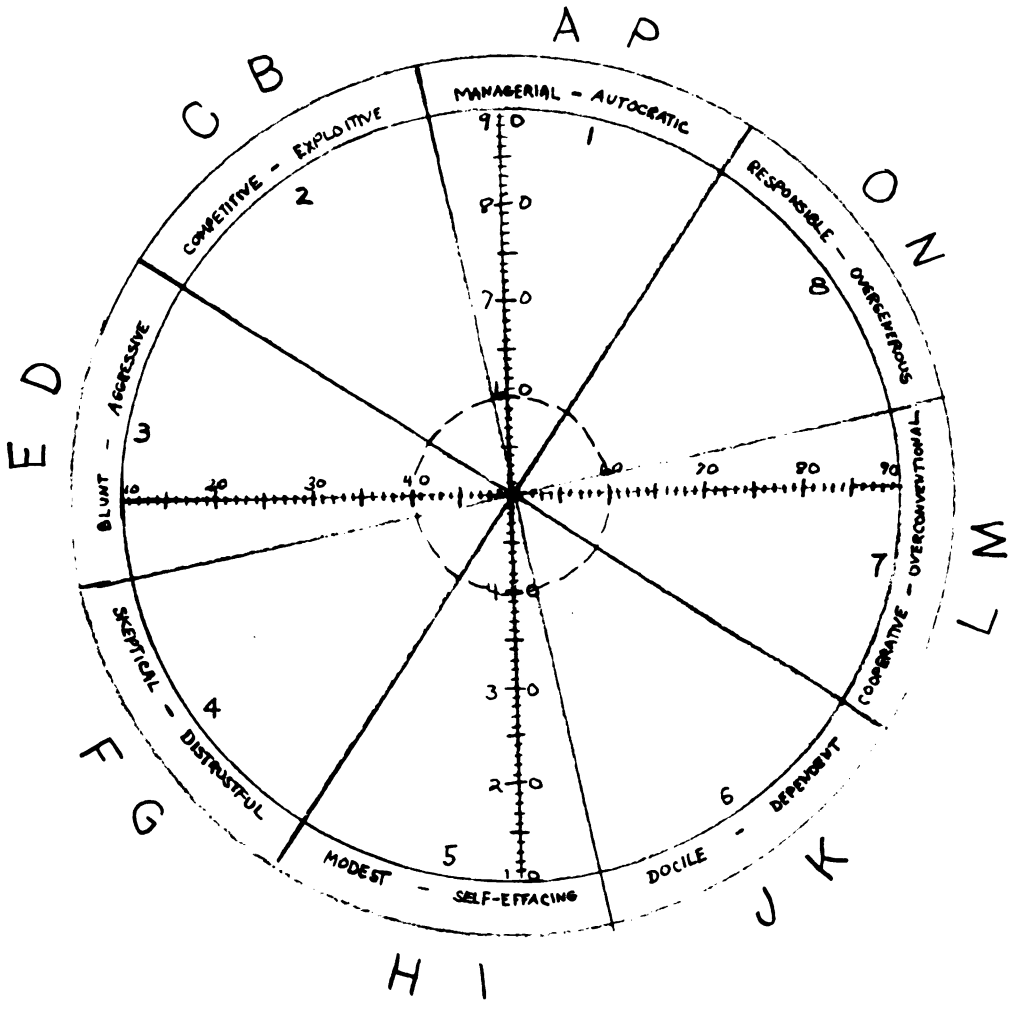


Figure 3.2. Circular Grid for use with Interpersonal Check List



by use of a conversion table based on a Kaiser Foundation research sample, and plotted on a circular grid (see Figure 3.2).

The formulas used to obtain raw score indices for the vertical and horizontal axes are the following:

Dom = AP - Hi + .7 (NO + BC - FG - JK)

Lov = LM - DE + .7 (NO - BC - FG + JK)

As was indicated in chapter two, use of the Leary interpersonal system in this study was limited to Level II behavior which refers to the individual's conscious descriptions of self and specified others.

A test-retest reliability coefficient of .78 for octant reliability was obtained for the ICL in the Kaiser Foundation research. Intervariable correlations were obtained for several samples and are presented in the ICL manual (Leary, 1956). The averages of the correlations for variables decrease as distance (around the circle) increases between the variables.

CHAPTER IV

TREATMENT OF THE DATA

The data for the consistency hypothesis-testing part of this study were derived from 2330 counselor responses selected from counseling tapes and 1165 counselor responses selected from supervisory tapes. Each typescript response was rated either F (feeling) or C (cognitive) by three independent judges.[1]

Because incomplete data were available for one of the thirty subjects, all supervisory and counseling ratings for that subject were dropped from further analysis.

The method used to rank the subjects according to percentages of F responses on counseling and supervision data required agreement by at least two of the three judges on F-ratings. The subjects were ranked from 1, 2, . . ., n on each set of data. The counselor having the largest proportion of F ratings by majority agreement of the judges was assigned the rank of 1.

Separate rankings for counseling and supervision data, using the ma-

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[1]Criteria for the judges' ratings were described in chapter three.

jority ranking method, were completed for the 29 subjects remaining in the sample. When two or more subjects were tied for the same rank, the tied subjects were given the average of the ranks they would have received if there had been no ties. Ranks assigned to the subjects for counseling and supervision data are presented in Table 4.1.

The counseling ranks were arranged in natural order (i.e., 1, 2, 3, ... , n). Ranks for the supervisory data were then ordered in such a way as to match (by counselor) the natural order noted above. Kendall's tau was computed for the data presented in Table 4.2, using the formula for treating tied data.

Results of the Statistical Analysis

Kendall's tau[2] was used to compute the correlation between counseling and supervisory rankings.

$$\text{tau} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{1/2\,N\,(N-1) - t_x}\ \sqrt{1/2\,N\,(N-1) - t_y}} = \frac{+90}{398.0} = +0.23$$

When N is larger than 10, tau may be considered to be approximately normally distributed with zero mean and unit variance. Thus the probability

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It should be noted that the Spearman r_s and the Kendall tau are equally powerful in rejecting H_0, inasmuch as they make equivalent use of the information in the data. The power efficiency of tau (91%) makes tau approximately as sensitive a test of the existence of association between two variables as is the Pearson r (Siegal 1956, p. 223).

Table 4.1. Ranks of Subjects for Counseling and Supervision Data

Counselor	Ranks		Counselor	Ranks	
	Counselor	Supervisory		Counselor	Supervisory
01	13.5	14	16	2	3.5
02	9	8.5	17	17	1
03	11	23	18	15	10.5
04	25.5	14	19	29	23
05	24	8.5	20	17	20
06	22.5	14	21	incomplete data	
07	20	2	22	3	23
08	1	6.5	23	22.5	14
09	11	6.5	24	28	28
10	20	25	25	6	28
11	17	26	26	20	10.5
12	5	5	27	13.5	17.5
13	7.5	3.5	28	4	20
14	25.5	28	29	27	20
15	7.5	14	30	11	17.5

Table 4.2. Presentation of Ranked Data Showing S-component for Computation of Kendall's Tau

C	08	16	22	28	12	25	13	15	02	03	09	30	01	27	18	11	17	20	07	10	26	06	23	05	04	14	29	24	19
X	1	2	3	4	5	6	7.5	7.5	9	11	11	11	13.5	13.5	15	17	17	17	20	20	20	22.5	22.5	24	25.5	25.5	27	28	29
Y	6.5	3.5	23	20	5	28	3.5	14	8.5	23	6.5	17.5	14	17.5	10.5	26	1	20	2	25	10.5	14	14	8.5	14	28	20	28	23
S	+ 17	+ 23	- 14	- 10	+ 18	- 19	+ 18	+ 4	+ 13	- 10	+ 14	+ 1	+ 3	- 1	+ 7	- 9	+ 12	- 2	+ 10	- 5	+ 6	+ 3	+ 3	+ 5	+ 4	- 2	+ 2	- 1	

C = counselor identification

X = counseling rank

Y = supervision rank

S = S-component for computing Kendall's tau

$t_x = 7$ (ties in counseling ranks)

$t_y = 9$ (ties in supervision ranks)

associated with the occurrence under H_0 of any value as extreme as an observed tau may be determined by computing the value of z, as defined by the formula below, and then determining significance of that z in the table of probabilities.

$$z = \frac{\tau}{\sqrt{\frac{2\,(2N+5)}{9N\,(N-1)}}}$$

The coefficient of correlation between the counseling and supervisory rankings when the rank orders were determined by the judges' majority method was + 0.23. This value of tau ($z = +1.76$, $p > .0399$) is significant beyond the .05 level of confidence. The null hypothesis of no consistency of feeling-verbalization between counselor responses in the counseling and supervisory situations can be rejected. Some support for the research hypothesis is thus indicated. The following hypothesis is accepted:

> Consistency of feeling-verbalization exists between the responses made by the counselor in the counselor-supervisor and counselor-client dyadic relationships.

Using some of the data obtained by administration of the Interpersonal Check List analysis was made of the differences between clients' self-descriptions and descriptions of clients by their counselors. After plotting the scores of both descriptive groups on Leary diagnostic grids (See Appendix F for diagnostic grids), the octant position for each subject was transferred to a summary sheet having a summary box for each octant. The method routinely employed to establish statistical significance for such data

is to divide the diagnostic grid in half by combining four adjacent octants and to use a chi square test of significance. The division used in this research was obtained by grouping octants 1, 2, 7, and 8 and octants 3, 4, 5, and 6. This division is a standard split which combines the idealized "virtues" of strength, responsibility, and conventionality vs. the more "neurotic" factors of dependence, submission, distrust and anger. Table 4.3 presents the octant data for clients' self-descriptions and counselors' descriptions of clients on the ICL.

Table 4.3. Octant Summary Data for Clients' Self Descriptions and Counselors' Descriptions of Clients

	Diagnostic Octant								Octant Summaries	
Groups	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	1278	3456
Clients' Self Descriptions	9	5	5	1	4	0	5	8	27	10
Descriptions of Clients by Counselors	4	4	7	5	10	13	7	2	17	35

The significance of differences between clients' self descriptions and counselors' descriptions of clients was determined by chi square analysis. A χ^2 value of 14.99 was obtained which is significant beyond the .001 level of confidence. The self descriptions of the clients were found to be significantly different from their counselors' descriptions of them.

In a "healthy," functioning group or dyadic relationship the expectancy[3] is that the individuals involved will view themselves and each other "accurately," i.e., that significant differences will not occur between an individual's self description and the description of him by the other members of the group.

In Table 4.4 the chi square table for testing the significance of the difference between clients' self descriptions and counselors descriptions of clients is presented in tabular form.

Table 4.4. Chi Square Table Testing Significance of Difference Between Clients' Self Descriptions and Counselors' Descriptions of Clients

Clients' Self Descriptions	27	10
Counselors' Descriptions of Clients	17	35

$\chi^2 = 14.99$
$p = > .001$

Non-Hypothesized Observations

Although no other statistical analyses were performed on the Leary Interpersonal Check List, an investigation of these data revealed several

[3]Based on Kaiser Foundation research data (Leary, 1956).

interesting factors which could be implemented by further investigation.

From examination of diagnostic grids some ordering of supervisors became apparent. Identifying the four supervisors by the numbers 1, 2, 3, and 4, the following orders were observed. Amount of overlap (from most to least) of areas bounded by lines connecting the points marking the enrollees' self descriptions and the supervisors' descriptions of enrollees occurred in the pattern 1, 2, 3, 4. The amount of overlap may be understood as concurrance between supervisors and enrollees about the enrollees' pattern of interpersonal behavior.

In the same order for supervisors, an increase was found in distance between the supervisors' self descriptions and descriptions of supervisors by enrollees. These linear distances may be understood as psychological differences between supervisors' self perceptions and their perceptions of enrollees.

In reverse order (4, 3, 2, 1), distance increased between the supervisors' self descriptions and descriptions by supervisors of enrollees. These linear distances may be understood as differences between the supervisors' self perceptions and the enrollees' perceptions of the supervisors.

In every case but one, the distance (or difference) between the descriptions of each other by client and counselor was found to be greater than the distance (or difference) between their self descriptions.

Illustrative diagrams, charts of linear relationships and grids of the Leary data are reproduced in Appendix F.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND DISCUSSION

Summary

Consistency of personal characteristics from one situation to another has been assumed in and outside of therapy relationships. The personality of the therapist, his feelings, his emotional blind spots and his past interpersonal experiences are assumed to be determining factors in the nature of the relationship which he develops with clients. Feeling-verbalization has been identified by numerous researchers as a sound empirical construct. It is one aspect of interpersonal behavior which has been assumed to be consistent across situations, yet little research evidence has been presented which would support this assumption.

This study was designed to investigate the consistency of counselor feeling-verbalization in counseling and non-counseling situations. More specifically it was an examination of the degree of consistency of feeling-verbalization shown by counselors-in-training in counselor-client and counselor-supervisor relationships.

The following terms were defined in chapter one: (a) counselor, (b) client, (c) supervisor, (d) supervisory session, (e) counseling session, (d) counselor response, (e) consistency, (f) feeling-verbalization, (g) feeling or affect.

Delimitations of the study described in chapter one included (a) limitations upon generalization of findings from the study, (b) the absence of assumptions about emotional states underlying feeling-verbalization, (c) the limited concern of this particular study with counselor effectiveness as an outcome variable, (d) limitations in the precise statistical sampling of loosely structured verbal data.

The following basic assumptions were stated: (a) the legitimacy of generalizing from the counseling and supervisory sessions sampled in this study to other counseling and supervisory sessions in programs of counselor education, (b) the assumption that verbal statements of affect reflect valid feeling, and (c) the assumption that feeling-verbalization is a sound empirical construct and that, more specifically, such verbalization can be identified and classified.

Verbalization of feeling or affect is just one pattern of interpersonal behavior which needs to be evaluated by further research. This study, and others like it, are needed to bridge the gap between an abundance of theory which assumes consistency and a paucity of empirical demonstrations of consistency in counselor behavior.

Therefore, the following hypothesis was developed:

> Consistency of feeling-verbalization can be demonstrated to exist between the responses made by the counselor in the counselor-supervisor and counselor-client dyadic relationships.

The review of related literature, presented in chapter two, suggested (a) that "outcome" studies, so prevalent in counseling research, have provided us with information about the effectiveness of therapy, but, in looking at therapy as an homogeneous treatment variable, have largely failed to probe the complexities of interpersonal behavior which need to be included in an understanding of the nature of therapy, (b) that some degree of counselor consistency exists across counseling and non-counseling situations, but that further empirical validation of such consistency is needed, and (c) that feeling-verbalization is an important and empirically sound research construct for which high reliability and validity have been found.

This study was conducted during a summer National Defense Education Act Counseling and Guidance Institute. The methodology of the research was as follows: Data for the hypothesis-testing portion of the study were collected by tape recording all counseling and supervisory sessions which were held during the Institute. Sample segments from all tapes were used to derive the research data. Typescripts containing counselor responses were made from the tape samples. Three experienced counselors serving as independent judges rated the counselor responses as follows: (F) if the response included expression of feeling or affect, (C) if it was cognitive in content.

The proportion of F responses, as assessed by judges' ratings, determined rank orders of counselors for counseling and supervisory data. For the counseling data, percentages of agreement on F responses for pairs of judges were as follows: Judge A with B, 81.3%; B with C, 77.1%; A with C, 62.4%. For the supervision data, percentages of agreement on F responses for pairs of judges were as follows: Judge A with Judge B, 76.3%; B with C, 69.6%; A with C, 65.6%. Percentages of agreement were computed on the basis of maximum possible agreement on F ratings for pairs of judges.

Conclusions

Kendall's tau (formula for tied data) was used to test for consistency between counselor rankings. A tau value of +0.23 was obtained, which is significant beyond the .05 level of confidence. Thus, it was possible to reject the null hypothesis of no consistency and accept the research hypothesis.

Non-hypothesized observations of the Leary Interpersonal Check List data led to statistical treatment of an observed difference. A chi square test established difference significant beyond the .001 level of confidence between the octant summaries of self descriptions of clients and their counselors' descriptions of them.

An examination of the ICL diagnostic grids revealed supervisor differences. Amount of overlap (from most to least) of areas bounded by lines connecting the summary points of the enrollees' self descriptions and the

supervisors' descriptions of enrollees occurred in the pattern 1, 2, 3, 4.

In the same order for supervisors, an increase was found in distance between the supervisors' self descriptions and descriptions of supervisors by enrollees.

In reverse order (4, 3, 2, 1) distance increased between the supervisors' self descriptions and descriptions by supervisors of enrollees.

In every case but one, the distance between the descriptions of each other by client and counselor was found to be greater than the distance between their self-descriptions.

Discussion

The major finding of the research was that there is a significant positive correlation between the amount of feeling-verbalization expressed by counselors in counseling and supervisory situations. In other words, the proportions of feeling verbalization in a counselor's counselor-client relationships and in his counselor-supervisor relationships are significantly related to each other.

Although the statistically significant result indicates some consistency, much of the variance is not accounted for by the postulate of counselor consistency.

Some possible sources of variance which could have altered the outcome of this study include: (a) the validity and reliability of judges' ratings;

(b) procedural and sampling methods; (c) additional situational factors such as role-playing, role perception, conformity to authority, and anxiety arising from the practicum situation; and (d) the similarity of the interpersonal relationship in and outside of the therapy setting.

Doubt might be raised that valid feeling can be identified and rated on the basis of feeling-verbalization, especially from typescripts. This issue resulted in the basic assumption made in chapter one concerning verbalization of feeling. There is also research evidence cited in chapter two(especially Anderson, 1956). It might also be contended that counselors-in-training may be influenced to make feeling-type responses in order to fit the "ideal" counselor role as it is seen by them or others. Two forces would appear to mitigate such pretension of feeling-response. The first would be the professional competence of the judges making the ratings. The second would be the ability of the supervisors to detect such role-playing and explore its dynamics.

In any study of content analysis the issue of interjudge reliability is important. Berelson (1952) has stated that reliability among raters can be expected to increase as the task becomes more simple, clear-cut, and specific. The percentages of interjudge agreement in this study ranged from 62.4 per cent to 81.3 per cent and are comparable to percentages of agreement found in similar studies reported in the literature (Danskin, 1955; Ellsworth, 1962; and Anderson, 1956).

Because there were a large number of data, small samples were taken

from each tape and only the counselor responses (not client or supervisor responses) were included. The inclusion in the typescripts of counselor responses only may or may not have influenced the ratings by the judges. Although there is no way of knowing, except for future replication of the study, what effect the choice of a particular time segment from the tapes may have had on the outcome of this research, it is clear that sampling techniques utilized in this study are in concordance with accepted techniques reported in the literature (Keisler, et al., 1965). In order to compensate for a relatively small N, Kendall tau statistical technique was employed since its power efficiency rating maximizes sensitivity in assessing probable association between two variables.

In a discussion of additional situational factors that could have affected the research, an examination of several theoretical views may be of value. Interpersonal theory, which has perhaps contributed most to the framework of this study, suggests that anxiety is the primary motivating force in human personality. It is plausible to assume that anxieties centering in the practicum experience could give rise to behaviors which might be consistent over counseling and supervision or which might be differentiated in terms of the anxiety experienced in the two situations.

Counselors-in-training, particularly those with a background in classroom teaching, tend to conform to authority. Literature on the personality of the classroom teacher generally agrees that the teacher functions in a rela-

tively structured environment in which conformity is rewarded.

If the counselor role is perceived in a stereotyped manner or as expectations of an authority figure, such role perception could alter expressive behavior. Goffman (1961) has theorized that an individual, while manifestly participating in one system of role behavior, has some capacity to hold in abeyance his involvement in other patterns, thus sustaining one or more dormant roles that are enacted roles on other occasions. Mead (Strauss, 1956) notes the importance of role-taking behavior as a means of facilitating identification, observation, and integration of significant "other" roles.

It can be assumed that the counselor-in-training will see his role in the counselor-client dyad as different from his role in the counselor-supervision dyad. The correlation between ranks in counseling and supervision could be depressed by the differing role perceptions just described or by certain other possible factors such as session to session changes, development of a status hierarchy, or task changes.

The similarity of the interpersonal relationship in and outside of the therapy setting might also be considered as a possible source of variance on the basis of theory and research evidence. In Mead's words (Strauss, 1956, p. 219),

> What determines the amount of self that gets into communication is the social experience itself. Of course, a good deal of the self does not need to get expression. We carry on a whole series of different relationships to different people. We are one thing to one man and another thing to another. . . . . It is the social process itself that is responsible for the appearance of the self; it is not there as a self apart from this type of experience.

Borgatta and Bales (1953) present evidence that a person will be more consistent, given the same amount of time, when interacting with the same individuals than when interacting with different individuals. They also state that a certain degree of consistency in the interaction pattern may be expected if any common elements (i.e., the task, subjects, size of groups) exist in the conditions under which the behavior occurs. They conclude (p. 568) that

> The stability of subjects shown is sufficient to encourage us to believe that the interaction of an individual . . . may tell us something about his personality, in spite of peculiarities due to the fact that he is interacting with particular other persons. . . .

supporting the hypothesis that stability or consistency of social behavior may be attributable in some measure to individual personality factors.

A plausible explanation for the statistically significant difference found in the Leary ICL data between the self descriptions of clients and their counselors' descriptions of them may be found in role theory. If Goffman's (1961, p. 85) definition of "role" as consisting "of the activity the incumbent would engage in were he to act solely in terms of the normative demands upon someone in his position" is used, the possibility exists that the counselor perceiving his role in terms of such normative demands creates a "role" for his client which includes less healthy behavior than the client presents.

Another related explanation of the same data may be seen in an analogy to the medical student who experiences the symptoms about which he is studying. The Institute enrollees were exposed to course work and discussions related to psychopathology concurrently with the practicum experience.

It seems plausible, therefore, that the counselor-enrollees were acutely aware of deviant behavior patterns and were influenced by their newly acquired "diagnostic skills" in their descriptions of clients.

Examination of the ICL data where ordering of supervisors appeared led to a tentative hypothesis that the orderings might be related to an open-closed dimension in the supervisors' personalities.

In order to obtain consensual validation of an informal ranking of the supervisors according to "openness," the researcher asked five colleagues in counseling to whom all the supervisors were known personally and professionally to rank the four supervisors from most to least "open." Four concurred exactly with the researcher's ranking. The fifth concurred on the ranking of supervisors 1 and 2, and inverted the rank order of supervisors 3 and 4.

It appears that some distortion factors were reflected in the clients' and counselors' descriptions of each other, resulting in the greater distance between their descriptions of each other than between their self-descriptions. Projection can be eliminated as a possible distortion factor by the findings of the Kaiser Foundation research.[1] It is plausible that role expectations may provide a clue to at least some of the distortion. If Level

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[1]On the basis of the normative data collected by the Kaiser foundation, two-way projection was hypothesized to result in Level II-Other scores which are closer on the diagnostic grid than the Level II-Self scores for the same individuals.

II-Other scores were influenced by role expectations they could be expected to vary from Level II-Self scores in predictable directions. If, conversely, Level II-Self scores are influenced by role-playing or role perceptions, the distortion might be seen to occur as a movement of the Level II-Self summary points away from what could be relatively "accurate" Level II-Other summary points.

Implications for Further Research

Areas of further research suggested by the findings of this study are the following.

1. A parallel study using innovative interpersonal process recall techniques similar to those developed and reported by Kagan, Krathwohl, and Miller (1963).

2. Examination of interpersonal behaviors other than feeling-verbalization, such as hostility, warmth, understanding.

3. A parallel study of counselor consistency in other professional environments.

4. Correlated studies of counselor consistency and effectiveness.

5. Extension of the Leary ICL findings of this study to include design and implementation of further research with the ICL.

6. Investigation of the validity and effectiveness of pairing therapist

and client on the basis of various personality characteristics and/or role preferences.

7. Perhaps the major implication of this study, not only for future research, but for clinical application and evaluation is the potential meaning of the data for counselor education. In most counselor education programs, judgement about a counselor's potential is withheld until the counselor candidate is observed in face-to-face relationships with clients. This experience, unfortunately, is not usually enacted until well into the counselor's graduate program. If further research bears out or expands upon our understanding of how a counselor's behavior with any "other" (in this study, his supervisor) relates to or is predictive of his behavior with clients, we may one day be able to predict an individual's performance in counseling based on observation of him in other relationships. These other relationships could be observed early in the program, or even "set up" as a screening procedure for entrance to a program of counselor education. The method used in this study for quantifying affect could be one method used for such future evaluation.

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APPENDIX A

SELECTION OF CLIENTS

The high school age clients were selected as follows: Letters were sent by the NDEA Institute director to twenty counselors in area high schools explaining the nature of the Institute and asking for their help in recruiting clients who might benefit from such a counseling experience. A follow-up telephone contact was made to the fifteen counselors who responded to the letter. Arrangements were made with these counselors for the director of the Institute to meet with a group of ten students in each school. The students selected for inclusion in the groups (a) appeared to be motivated to enter a counseling relationship, (b) would be available for six to eight sessions, and (c) had personal concerns of some depth that might warrant a counseling experience. In talking with the students, the director made some judgements about their levels of motivation for counseling. Following the group meetings, the director rank ordered the students according to his estimate of the probability that each would continue in a counseling relationship for the eight-week duration of the NDEA Institute. Students who ranked in the top five from

each school were selected for participation as clients in the Institute. A secondary list of alternates for clients who might terminate counseling during the eight week period was compiled.

APPENDIX B

THE JUDGES: BIOGRAPHICAL MATERIAL

The first judge has been admitted to membership in the American Academy of Psychotherapists. He received his A.B. and M.A. degrees in California and his Ph.D. from Michigan State University. He has been Director of the Counseling Center at Western Michigan University for the past five years. He has held visiting professorships at the University of Dayton, Michigan State University, Ohio University, University of Colorado, and the University of Wisconsin. He has served and presently is serving as research consultant to school districts and has published numerous research articles on a wide variety of educational problems.

The second judge received his B.A. from Western Michigan University, his M.A. from the University of Michigan, and his doctorate from Michigan State University. He is presently an Associate Professor and Chairman of Guidance and Personnel Services, Western Michigan University. He has been involved as a participant and investigator in depth interviewing and research on "underachievers."

The third judge received his A.B. degree from Albion College, his M.S. from the University of Illinois, and his Ph.D. from Michigan State University. He is an Associate Professor of Education at Western Michigan University and has served as Director for the National Defense Education Act Summer Institutes for Counseling and Guidance held at Western Michigan University in 1965 and 1966.

APPENDIX C

INSTRUCTIONS TO THE JUDGES

The following typescripts contain the responses of counselor trainees in two situations: (1) the counseling interview, and (2) the supervisory interaction. It may be obvious to which category some responses belong, but the material will be presented in random order and will not be identified as proceeding from one situation or the other. All responses are to be judged in the same manner and according to the criteria which are described below.

Verbalization of feeling or affect as opposed to verbalization of intellectual content is the behavior which you are being asked to judge. Please rate each response that includes expression of feeling or affect as (F). Responses which are cognitive in content are to be rated as (C).

"Feeling" or "affect" will be further defined to mean the expression of the experience of emotion. Please include in the category of feeling responses (F) only those responses which contain what is evaluated as productive, appropriate affect.

Productive, appropriate affect for the counselor-enrollee will include expressed, current feelings about self or another individual (i.e., client, supervisor, or other), restatement of a specific emotional experience of the client or supervisor, and feelings underlying feelings.

Productive, appropriate affect for the counselor-enrollee would not include vague "How do you feel?" questions, complaints, or verbal behavior which is defined as defensiveness, even though these expressions may be couched in "feeling" language.

Cognitive content might be defined as what is left after feeling or affect as defined above is removed. Cognitive material has been variously defined by different authors as impersonal, intellectual, integration, higher mental process, knowledge, organizing, describing, recognizing, sensing, ordering.

Please rate a response by content and/or intent. Whether the aim of the response is to clarify, reflect, or interpret, the criteria for rating feeling will be the same.

In general we might say that usually (though not always) such words as the following include affect: antagonism, annoyed, apprehensive, angry, afraid, bitter, calm, cheerful, close to them, couldn't take it, disturbed, desperate, depressed, detached, embarrassed, excited, emotional, enjoyed, frightened, futile, guilty, happy, hate, it hurt, it was hard for me, irritated, jealous, kind, lonely, loving, longing, nervous, panicky, painful, relieved, relaxed, scared, satisfied, sad, secure, self-pity, shaky, sorry, shy, sulky, timid, tense, terrified, uneasy, unsure, unhappy.

Some examples of (F) responses are the following:

1. You really get upset about that.
2. Where are you now, Jane; I feel you've pushed me clear away from you.
3. It will be hard for me to tell her that.
4. But to me it's expecting her to feel warmly not needing this relationship.
5. You dislike him a good deal, then.

Some examples of (C) responses are the following:

1. Oh, you haven't?
2. But most of these kids don't know what they want to go into, and how can we help them if we don't know either?
3. Well, supposing you don't -- what does that mean?
4. I thought your grades were pretty good.
5. Well, of course, you have to take a lighter course load, because of your work.

APPENDIX D

A SAMPLE TYPESCRIPT PAGE FOR JUDGES' RATING OF SUBJECTS' RESPONSES

132059

1. Is this -- ah -- do you think this problem has been responsible for low grades?
2. Now, in taking a look at this whole thing, you say that the three of you being intermingled with each other and taking each other's time, then.
3. What other things do you think we could isolate here?
4. Then, as far as the class is concerned it would be these three guys that are bothering you -- I mean these other two fellows in the class including yourself then.
5. Then you feel like this fall when you return to school if these other fellows are in your class, that you want to get away from them.

231060

1. That's what I'm just thinking about here -- trying to figure out what I would tell him. At the end of this what I was thinking about would be that -- well, tell him again when we get to him he tells me a story -- it's about something else or somebody else ----
2. Not as bad as he has been, 'cause I was trying to cut that off. But he tells me stories that are contradictory in what he says -- like he doesn't care what people think of him, but, then like you said here, he watches -- he knows very well how they are watching him and that gives him (inaudible) so there are some things like that that contradict each other. In fact all these things, as you said, are really denials, or shying away from getting into it.
3. Because he said this three or four times to me last week.
4. Is it really important or are you telling me a story again?
5. I feel like he's shying away again. He says it's not really important, but I think it is.

121061

1. By this time I knew I had lost her, but I didn't know what to do. I'd have to go back over it and think what I should have done in those cases, because I jump too fast.
2. I'd never thought of that before.
3. Now this afternoon when she comes, should I go back over all of this?
4. And then I had lost her.
5. But from then on I don't think I succeeded with her.

APPENDIX E

THE INTERPERSONAL CHECK LIST -- FORM IV

This is a list of words and phrases which may be descriptive of you (or the person you are rating). On the separate answer sheet mark the item true if the statement is essentially or most usually descriptive of you (or the other person). Mark it false if it is not essentially or most usually descriptive. Answer all the items as quickly as you can.

1. Able to criticize self
2. Able to doubt others
3. Able to give orders
4. Able to take care of self
5. Accepts advice readily
6. Acts important
7. Admires and imitates others
8. Affectionate and understanding
9. Agrees with everyone
10. Always ashamed of self
11. Always giving advice
12. Always pleasant and agreeable
13. Apologetic
14. Appreciative
15. Big-hearted and unselfish
16. Bitter
17. Boastful
18. Bossy
19. Businesslike
20. Can be frank and honest
21. Can be indifferent to others
22. Can be obedient
23. Can be strict if necessary
24. Can complain if necessary
25. Clinging vine
26. Cold and unfeeling
27. Complaining
28. Considerate
29. Cooperative
30. Critical of others
31. Cruel and unkind
32. Dependent
33. Dictatorial
34. Distrusts everybody
35. Dominating
36. Eager to get along with others
37. Easily embarrassed
38. Easily fooled
39. Easily led
40. Egotistical and conceited

41. Encouraging others
42. Enjoys taking care of others
43. Expects everyone to admire him
44. Firm but just
45. Fond of everyone

46. Forceful
47. Forgives anything
48. Frequently angry
49. Frequently disappointed
50. Friendly

51. Friendly all the time
52. Generous to a fault
53. Gives freely of self
54. Good leader
55. Grateful

56. Hardboiled when necessary
57. Hard-hearted
58. Hardly ever talks back
59. Hard to impress
60. Helpful

61. Impatient with others' mistakes
62. Independent
63. Irritable
64. Jealous
65. Kind and reassuring

66. Lacks self-confidence
67. Lets others make decisions
68. Likes everybody
69. Likes responsibility
70. Likes to be taken care of

71. Likes to compete
72. Loves everyone
73. Makes a good impression
74. Manages others
75. Meek

76. Modest
77. Obeys too willingly
78. Often admired
79. Often gloomy
80. Often helped by others

81. Often unfriendly
82. Outspoken
83. Overprotective of others
84. Oversympathetic
85. Passive and unaggressive

86. Proud and self-satisfied
87. Rebels against everything
88. Resentful
89. Resents being bossed
90. Respected by others

91. Sarcastic
92. Self-confident
93. Selfish
94. Self-punishing
95. Self-reliant and assertive

96. Self-respecting
97. Self-seeking
98. Shrewd and calculating
99. Shy
100. Skeptical

101. Slow to forgive a wrong
102. Sociable and neighborly
103. Somewhat snobbish
104. Spineless
105. Spoils people with kindness

106. Stern but fair
107. Straightforward and direct
108. Stubborn
109. Tender and soft-hearted
110. Thinks only of himself

111. Timid
112. Too easily influenced by friends
113. Too lenient with others
114. Too willing to give to others
115. Touchy and easily hurt

116. Tries to be too successful
117. Tries to comfort everyone
118. Trusting and eager to please
119. Usually gives in
120. Very anxious to be approved of

121. Very respectful to authority
122. Wants everyone's love
123. Wants everyone to like him
124. Wants to be led
125. Warm

126. Well thought of
127. Will believe anyone
128. Will confide in anyone

APPENDIX F

DIAGNOSTIC GRIDS, ILLUSTRATIVE DIAGRAMS, AND CHARTS OF LINEAR RELATIONSHIPS BASED ON LEARY ICL DATA

key to symbols used on diagnostic grids

⊛ Supervisors' self descriptions

✳ (✳-1,2....n) Description of supervisors by enrollees (number identifies enrollee)

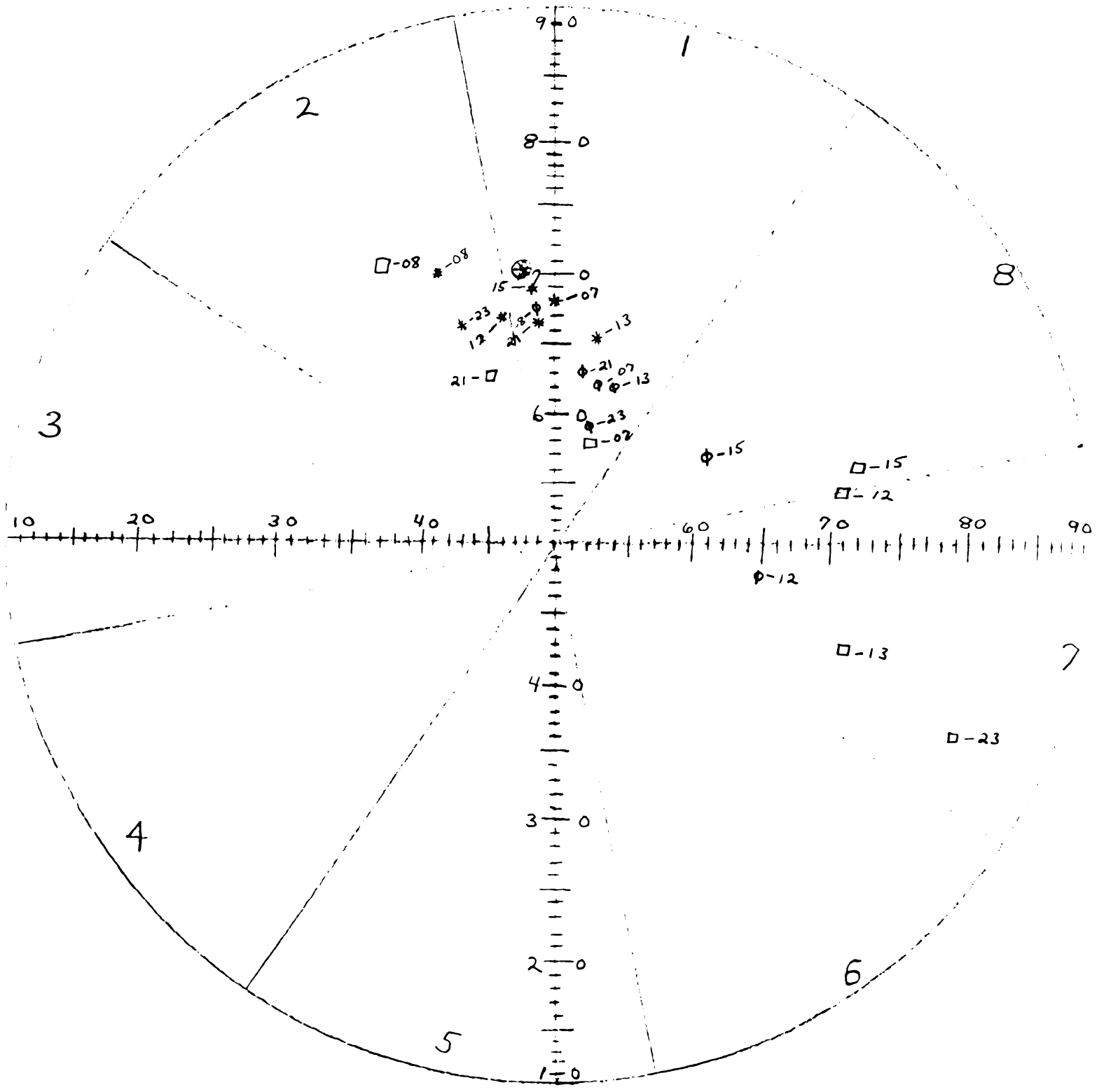
□ (□-1,2...:n) Description of enrollees by supervisors

ϕ Enrollees' self descriptions

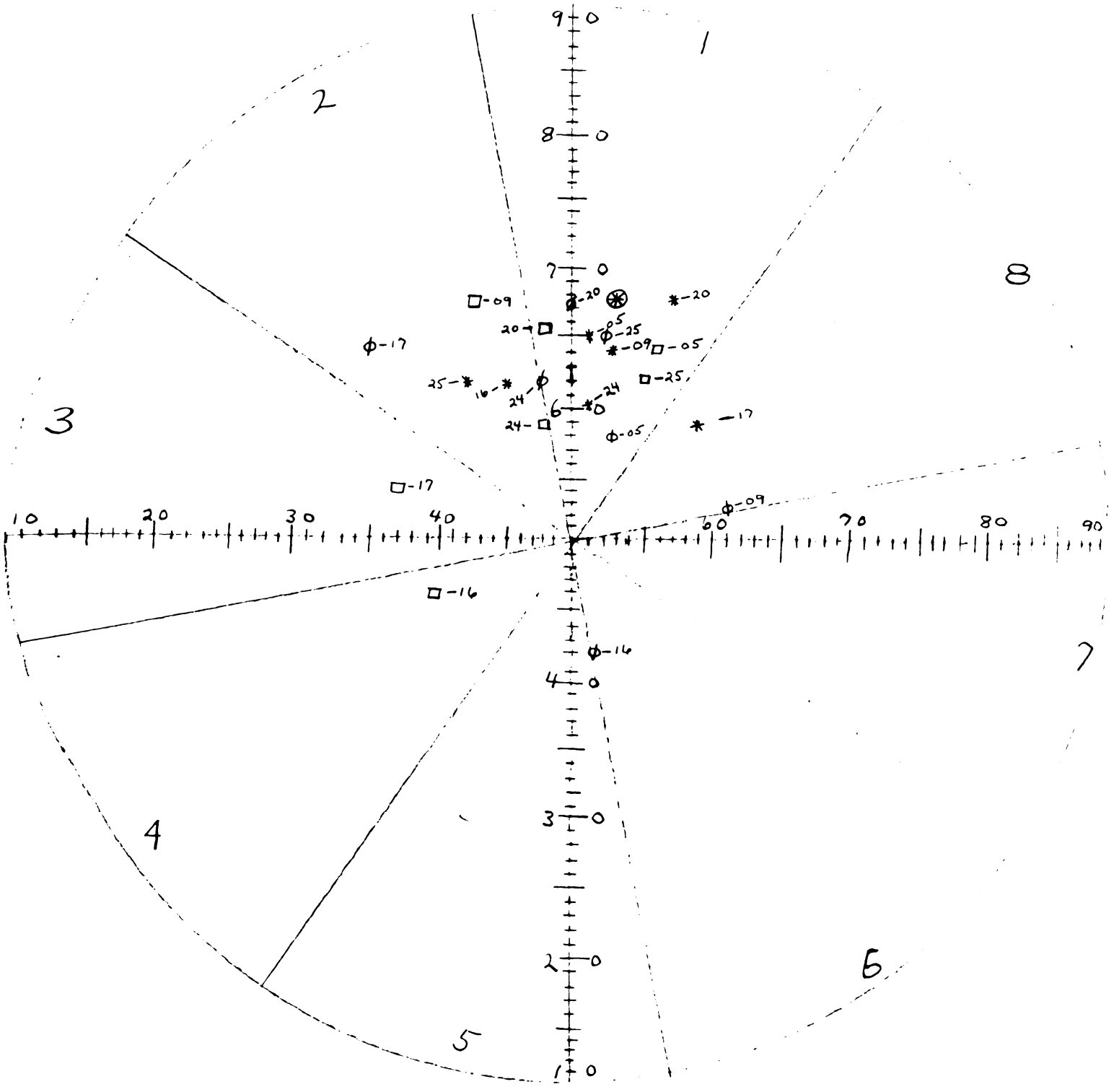
✗ Clients' self descriptions

• Descriptions of clients by enrollees

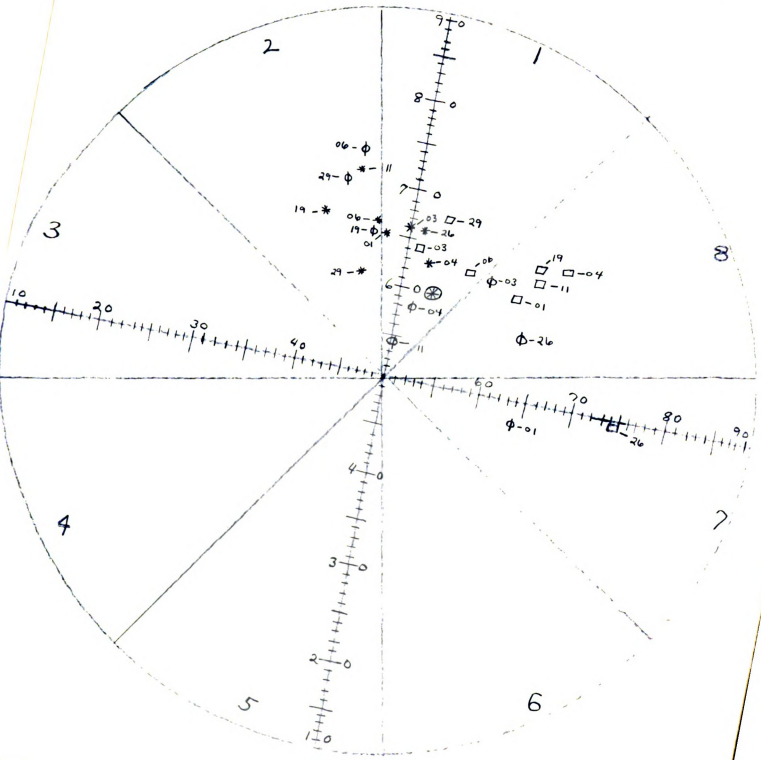
Grid Showing ICL Level II-Self and -Other Summary Points for Supervisor A and his Group of Enrollees



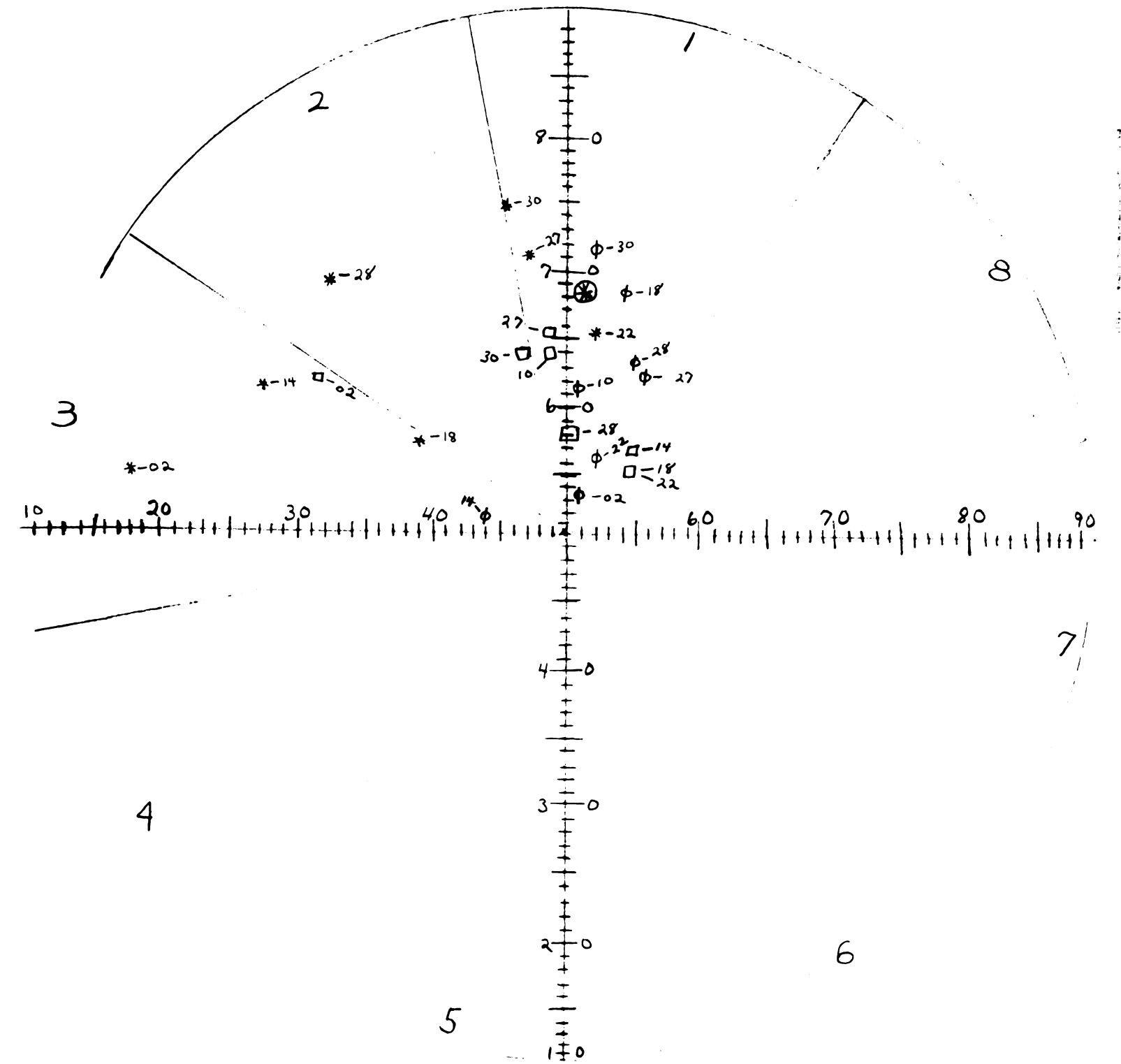
Grid Showing ICL Level II-Self and -Other Summary Points for Supervisor B and his Group of Enrollees



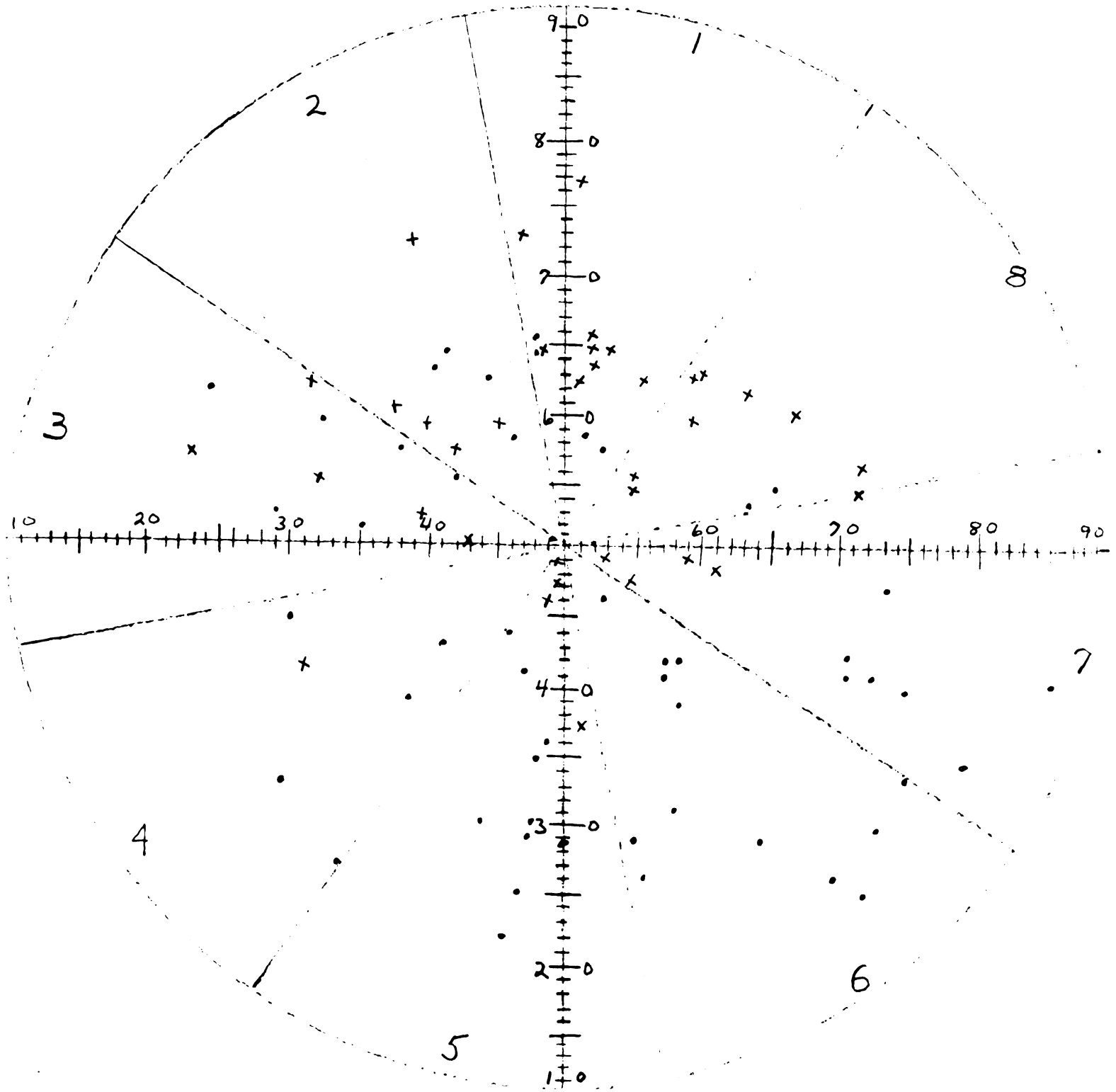
Grid Showing ICL Level II-Self and -Other Summary Points for Supervisor C and his Group of Enrollees



Grid Showing ICL Level II-Self and -Other Summary Points for Supervisor D and his Group of Enrollees

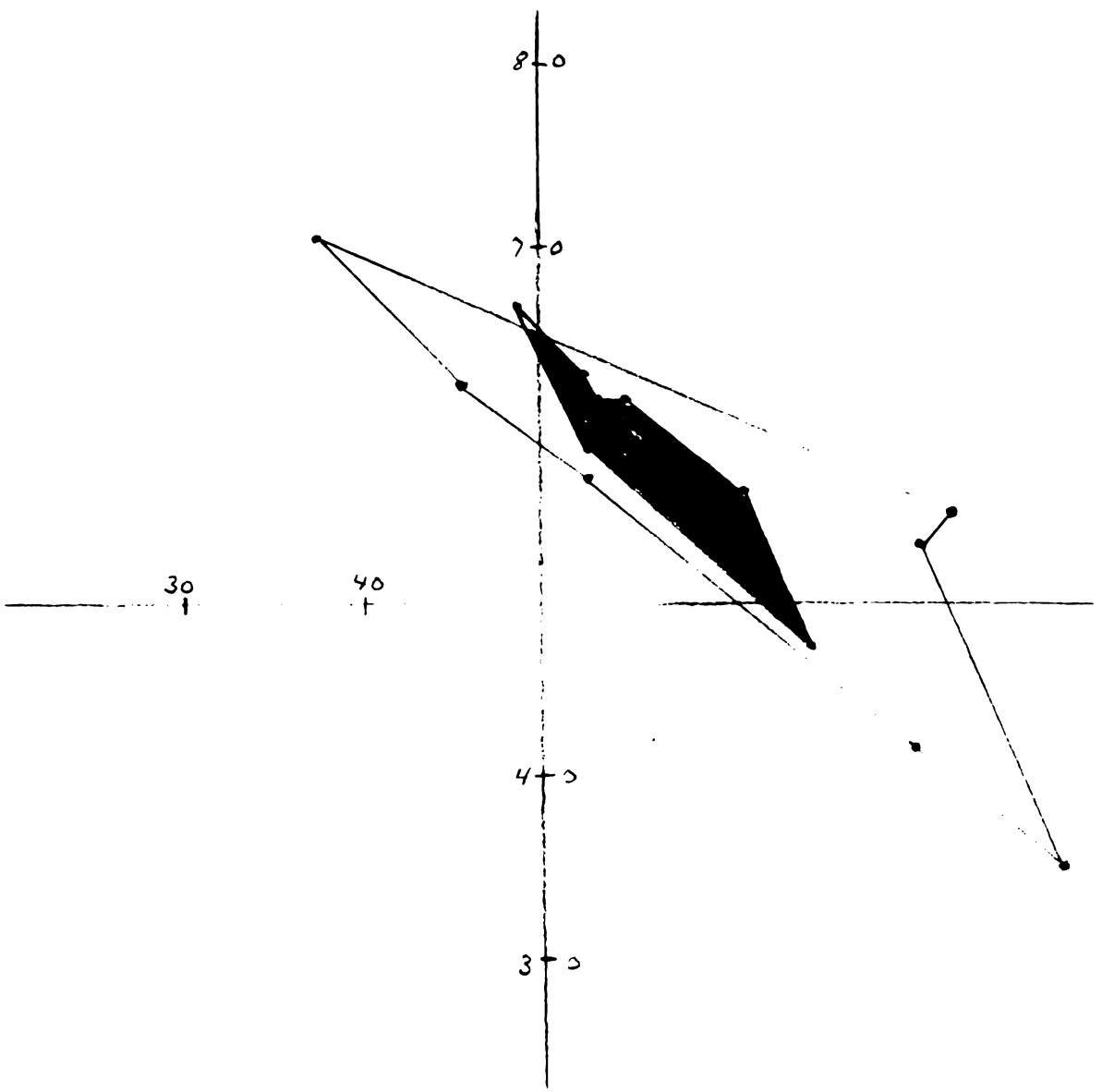


Grid Showing Summary Points of Clients' Self Descriptions and Descriptions of Clients by Enrollees



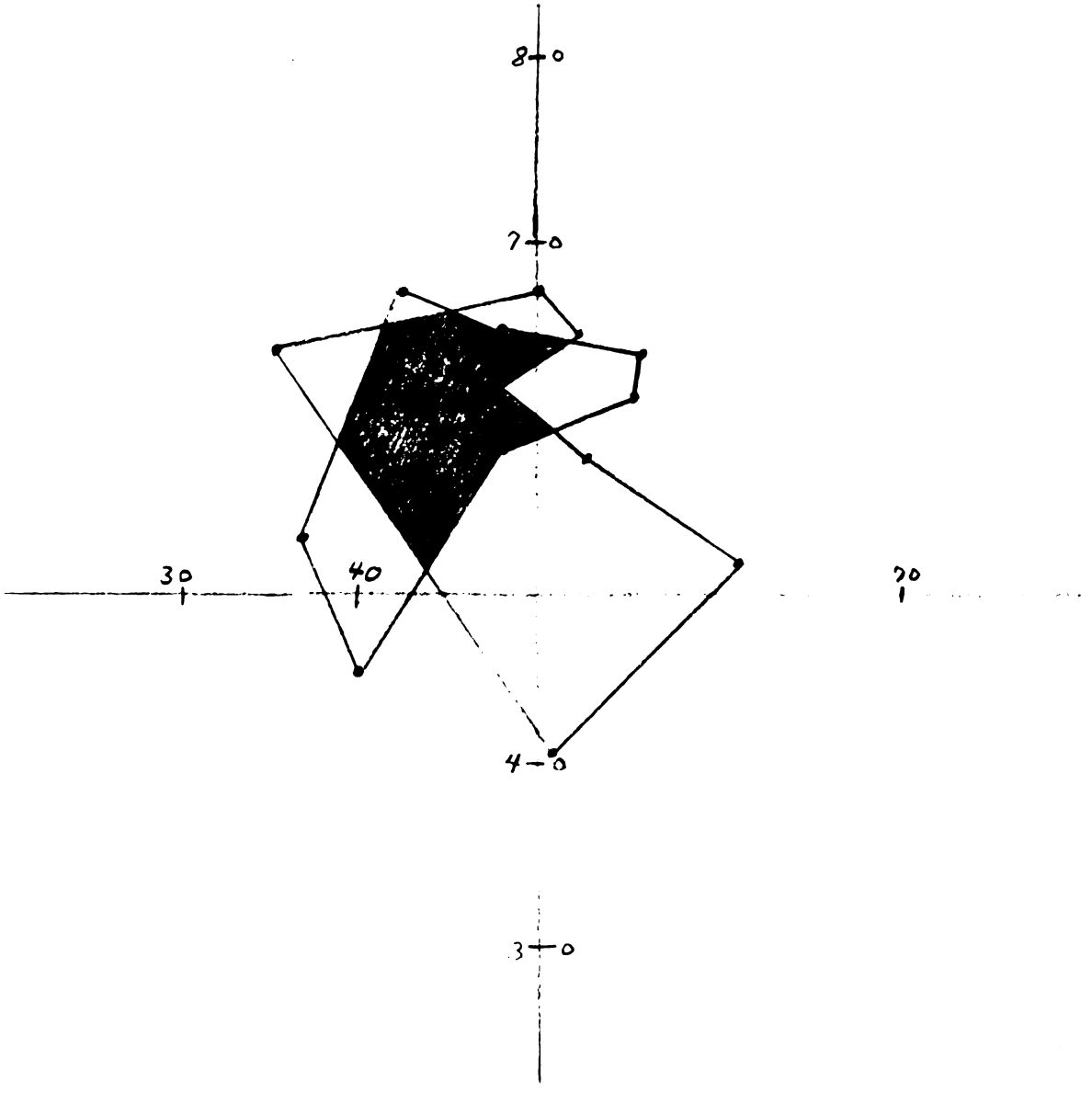
Area of Overlap between Supervisor A's Descriptions of Enrollees and Enrollee's Self Descriptions

Supervisor's descriptions of enrollees on ICL are represented by outer figure in which each coordinate is the summary point for each individual rated. The inner figure represents summary points for enrollees' self descriptions on ICL. One conceptualization of the data on this page and the following three pages is that the overlap is concurrance between supervisor's perceptions of enrollees and enrollees' self perceptions.



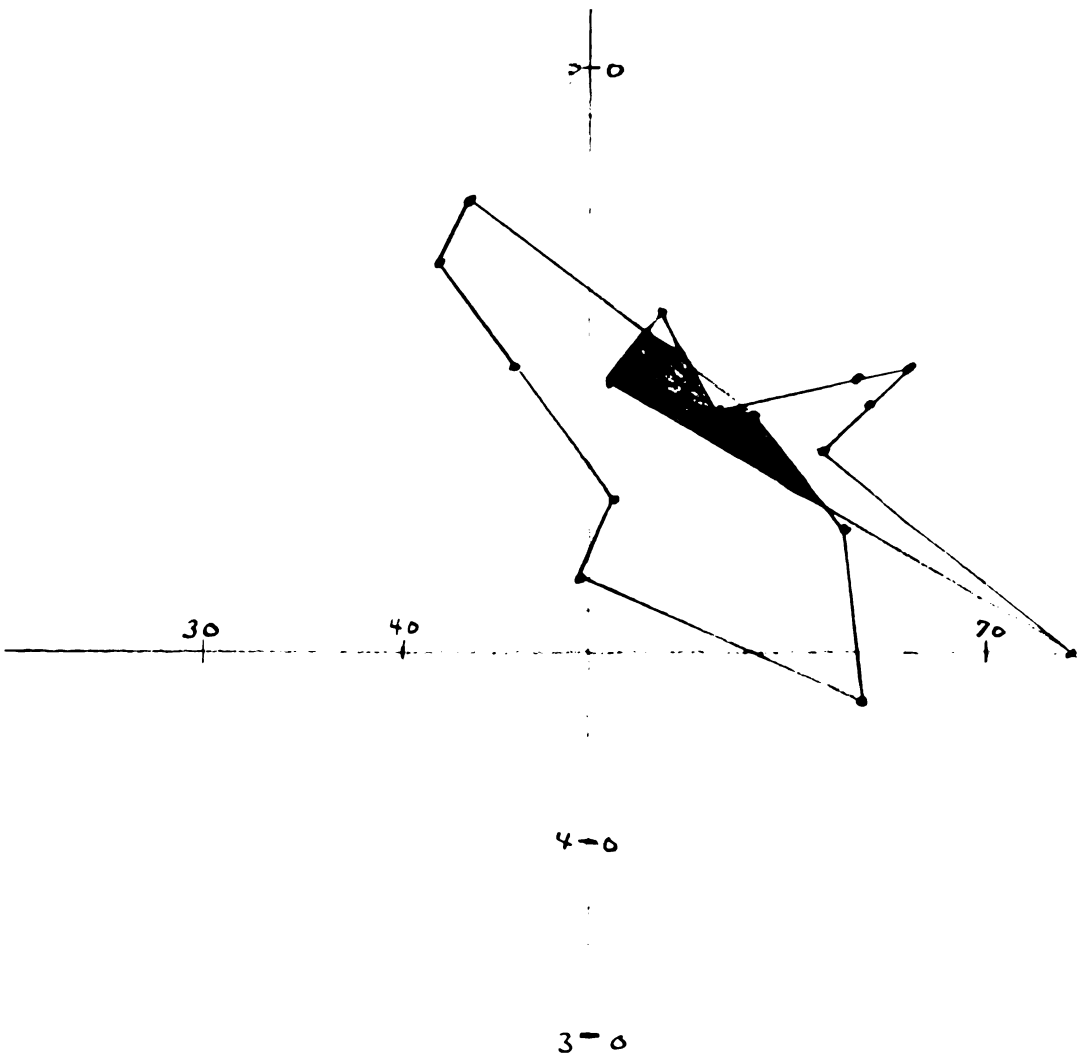
Area of Overlap Between Supervisor B's Descriptions of Enrollees and Enrollees Self Descriptions

Supervisor's descriptions of enrollees on ICL are represented by the smaller figure. The larger figure represents summary points for enrollees' self descriptions on the ICL.



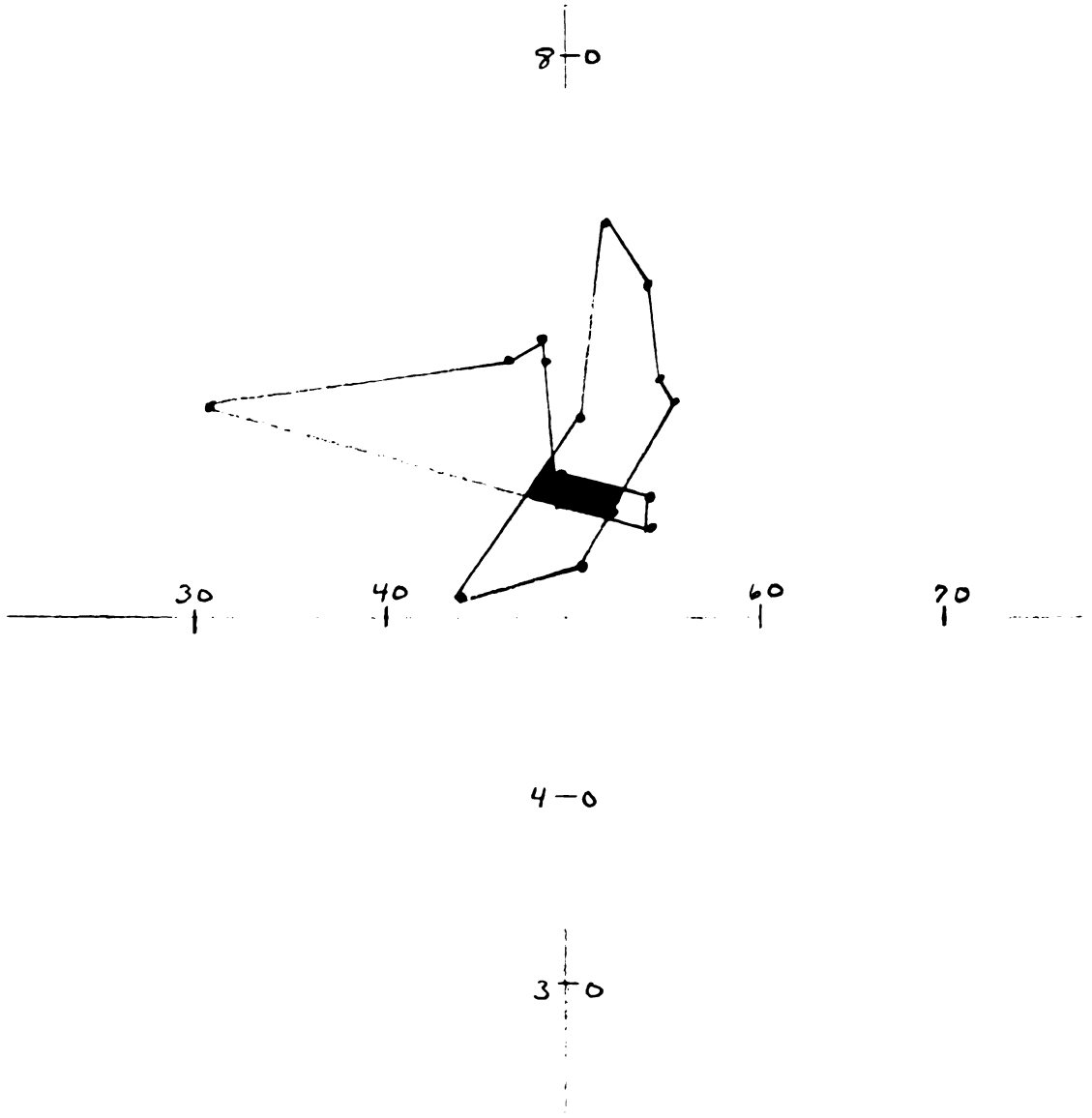
Area of Overlap between Supervisor C's Descriptions of Enrollees and Enrollees' Self Descriptions

Supervisor's descriptions of enrollees on ICL are represented by the smaller figure. The larger figure represents summary points for enrollees' self descriptions on the ICL.



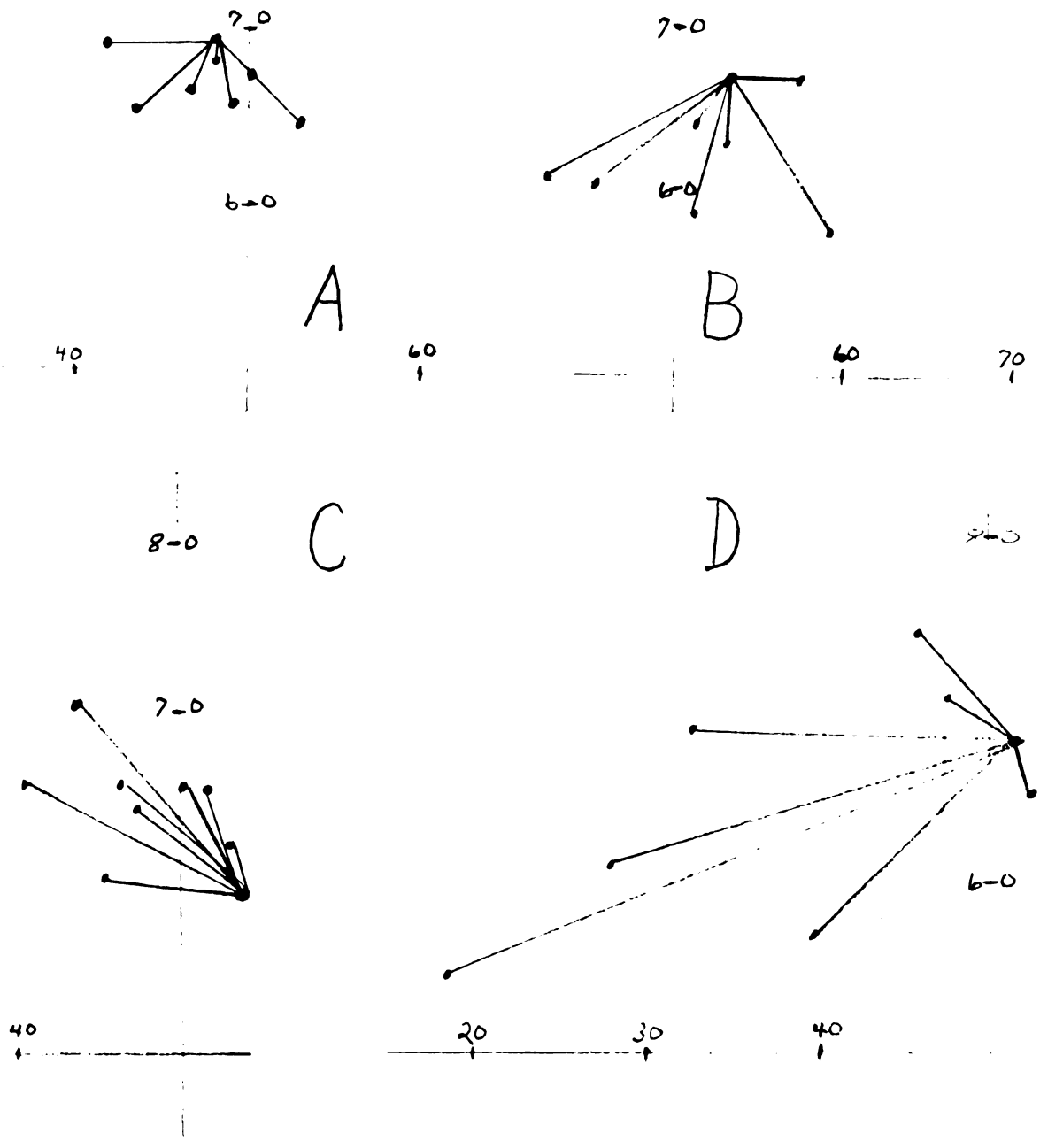
Area of Overlap between Supervisor D's Descriptions of Enrollees and Enrollees' Self Descriptions

Supervisor's descriptions of enrollees on ICL are represented by the figure on the left. The figure on the right represents summary points for enrollees' self descriptions on the ICL.



Linear Distances between Self Description Summary Points for Supervisors and Descriptions of Supervisors by Enrollees

In each case on this diagram and diagrams on pages 109 and 110 the supervisor's summary point is diagramed as the origin of each line which extends to an enrollee summary point. The linear distance may be understood as psychological distance.



Linear Distances between Self-Description Summary Points for Supervisors C and D and Descriptions by Supervisors C and D