THE EFFECTS OF REQUIRED SUPERVISION, AND COUNSELOR AND CLIENT GENDER ON THE CLIENT'S PERCEPTION OF THE COUNSELOR'S INTERPERSONAL INFLUENCE

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INTRODUCTION

Included in recent professional literature are studies attempting to measure variables hypothesized to lend themselves to the counseling clients' beliefs that they are dealing with a competent counselor, one who can help with their concerns. Variables such as counselor introduction, gender, title, race, and dress, as well as office trappings such as decor, degrees, books, and furnishings have been investigated separately and in relation to one another (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). These studies have been designed to measure whether or not clients are affected by visual and verbal cues indicating the counselor is credible and able to professionally assist clients.

Strong (1968) introduced the concept of an interpersonal influence model which is another dimension to this research. According to his view, clients who perceive the counselor as an expert in his/her field, as a person who can be trusted, and as a person who is similar to them in some respects are more likely to consider that counselor capable of assisting with their problems.

Strong's (1968) article has generated further speculation and research. Interpersonal influence and its three dimensions of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness have been investigated singularly, in conjunction with each other, and with additional variables (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). This research has primarily been conducted under the guise

of increasing counselor effectiveness by attempting to determine what, if any, factors enhance the interpersonal influence process, and hence, give the counselor more credibility (Dorn, 1984a).

One factor receiving little attention when paired with interpersonal influence has been the gender of the counselor. The few studies focusing on this variable have generally been plagued with statistical problems and inconsistency in their results (Corrigan, Dell, Lewis, & Schmidt, 1980). Consequently, at this point in the development of the interpersonal influence model, little can be said with certainty about its interplay with counselor gender.

Client gender has had much the same fate, especially when tied to the supervisory process. When investigated, it has usually been on one dimension of the construct--attractiveness--and then only tangentially related (Corrigan et al., 1980). In addition, most studies that have included client or counselor gender as variables have asked subjects to state their preference and did not measure behavioral responses to the counselors (Hoffman-Graff, 1977).

Counselor supervisors and supervisees seem to agree that the counselor required to receive supervision is not as expert as the counselor who provides the supervision. Power base and evaluative necessity are generally assumed to be the reasons for this belief (Hart, 1982). Depending on the setting, the supervisor is often the supervisee's instructor during formal education and a senior staff member in an employment situation. Within the counseling profession, therefore, it might be said that there are some counselors who are more experienced and subsequently, at least according to the expertness dimension of the interpersonal influence model, more capable of helping the client than others.

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of the supervisory process on clients' perceptions of a counselor's ability to be of assistance to them within the interpersonal influence model. More specifically, it was designed to answer the following two questions. Are potential clients' beliefs about the capability of the counselor to help them affected by whether or not the counselor is required to receive supervision? To what extent do the variables of counselor and client gender interact with the interpersonal influence provision in this context?

Significance of the Study

Supervision is a major element in the life of counselors. It is a necessity during the practica experiences in preparation programs and often required in employment settings after the counselor has finished formal education. Considering the potential importance of interpersonal influence on the counselor's ability to facilitate change in the client, the counselor requiring supervision might be perceived by the client as less expert and, consequently, less capable of helping than a counselor who does not require supervision. To date, no study has looked at whether or not required supervision detracts from the interpersonal influence paradigm.

Gender of the counselor and/or client have received little attention in this area as well. When gender of either participant has been considered, the results have been ambiguous at best (Corrigan et al., 1980; Merluzzi, Banikiotes, & Missbach, 1978). Counselor or client

gender do not appear to have been combined with the entire interpersonal influence construct in any study to date. And certainly, they have not been considered as an element of concern in regard to any possible effect when combined with supervision as it relates to interpersonal influence.

Interpersonal influence studies have been conducted using many variables including gender. However, no researcher has yet addressed the question of whether or not clients' perceptions of the counselor's ability to help is affected by knowledge that the counselor is required to receive supervision. There is no empirical evidence to suggest, or repudiate, that a supervised counselor is perceived by the client as any less, or more, capable of helping than is a non-supervised counselor. In a profession devoting much of its education to professional experience through supervised practica with actual clients, this would seem to be an important consideration.

In addition, though the gender of the counselor and/or client have been studied, results have generally remained inconclusive in terms of the interaction between the two. The counseling profession at this time can say very little with certainty regarding whether gender similarity or difference affects the counseling relationship. If a discrepancy exists in the client's perception of the counselor based on supervisory status, it would appear noteworthy to determine if this is in any way a function of gender.

Definitions of Terms

Interpersonal influence: the process of one person influencing the actions, attitudes, or feelings of another (Zimbardo & Ebbesen, 1970). Interpersonal influence contains three source characteristics affecting

the client's perception of the counselor: expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Strong and Matross (1973) note that these characteristics, as used in this context, involve the client's perception and not necessarily a judgment based on any concrete evidence.

Expertness: defined as a client's belief that the counselor possesses information and a means of interpreting this information allowing clients to obtain valid conclusions about, and to deal effectively with, their problems. Perceived expertness is influenced by objective evidence of professional education, counselor behaviors, and counselor reputation (Strong & Dixon, 1971).

Attractiveness: includes clients' positive feelings about the counselor based on their perceptions of similarity to, and compatibility with, the counselor as well as their perceptions of the counselor's liking and acceptance of them (Strong, 1968).

Trustworthiness: defined as the client's perceptions of the counselor's apparent lack of motivation for personal gain through their interaction. It is also based on the counselor's sincerity and openness, as perceived through positive regard for the client, and level of self-disclosure (Strong, 1968).

Supervision: "The purposeful function of overseeing the work of counselor trainees or practicing counselors (supervisees) through a set of supervisory activities which include consultation, counseling, training and instruction, and evaluation" (Boyd, 1978, p. 7).

Limitations of This Study

The following limitations are inherent in the design of this study:

1. This research was conducted with college students enrolled in introductory psychology courses. Caution should be exercised in attempting to equate the results of this study to other populations in terms of socio-economic status, education, and age.

2. Since this is an analogue study, the subjects must be considered to be, in a sense, outside observers. Responses are therefore based on subjects' objective responses and, though valid within the parameters of this study, they may not be necessarily generalizable to an actual client population (Heppner & Heesacker, 1982).

3. Any interpretation of the results of this study should be done with the recognition that people often view all counselors as possessing a "good guy image" or legitimate social power (Corrigan et al., 1980; Strong & Matross, 1973). The possibility therefore exists that all subjects' ratings of the counselors are elevated in a direction that reflects this bias.

Research Hypotheses

The .05 level of significance was designated in testing the following hypotheses:

1. Counselors who are introduced as being required to receive supervision will be rated lower by the subjects on all three dimensions of interpersonal influence--expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness--than counselors who are introduced without this distinction being made.

2. These ratings are not affected by either the gender of the counselor or the gender of the subject.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I has presented an introduction to the study by briefly describing the interpersonal influence model and discussing its hypothesized interaction with counselor supervision and gender of the participants, thereby providing a rationale for the significance of the study. Also included were a statement of the problem, definitions of terms, limitations, and the hypotheses to be tested. Chapter II reviews the literature and comments on its significance to the study. The methodology, instrumentation, and research design are presented in Chapter III. Chapter IV includes the results, and Chapter V presents the summary, conclusions, and recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

To date there has been no research directly relating to client perceptions of the counselor in terms of the interpersonal influence model and based on whether or not the counselor is required to receive supervision. The first section of this review, therefore, is of a somewhat general nature and attempts to encompass all of the relevant interpersonal influence literature to date in chronological order. This work has primarily taken place since 1968, when Strong published his conceptualization in what has come to be known as a landmark paper on the subject (Corrigan et al., 1980). This review will concentrate primarily on the work of Strong (1968) and subsequent studies generated by his article.

An exception to this format is found in the second section which covers relevant research including gender of the counselor and client as variables. This section includes work both within the interpersonal influence sphere and other studies which have considered the gender of the participants important to counseling outcome.

Interpersonal Influence

Strong (1968) initially conceptualized counseling as an interpersonal influence process by integrating ideas taken from social psychology into counseling (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). Borrowing heavily from Festinger's (1957) theory of cognitive dissonance, Strong postulated the

counseling process involves a preliminary stage in which the counselor is judged by the client as to whether or not he or she will be effective in helping with the client's concern (Strong, 1968).

Zimbardo (1960) sums up the relevant aspect of dissonance theory: "Dissonance theory assumes a basic tendency toward consistency of cognitions about oneself and about the environment. When two or more cognitive elements are psychologically inconsistent, dissonance is created. Dissonance is defined as a psychological tension having drive characteristics. Thus, the existence of dissonance is accompanied by psychological discomfort and when dissonance arises, attempts are made to reduce it" (p. 86).

It follows, therefore, that individuals will experience dissonance when they are aware that another person with whom they are interacting holds opinions contrary to their own (Festinger, 1957). Strong (1968) hypothesized the differences in opinions and behaviors between the client and counselor would lead to dissonance on the part of the client.

In extrapolating from Festinger (1957), Strong (1968) delineates five ways the client may reduce dissonance: (a) the client can change in the direction advocated by the counselor; (b) the client can discredit the counselor; (c) the client can discredit the issue; (d) the client may attempt to change the counselor's opinion; or (e) the client may seek out others who are in agreement with him/her. Strong continues by suggesting counselors can increase the likelihood that the first alternative will occur by reducing the likelihood of the others. This is particularly true with respect to alternative (b), the client can discredit the counselor.

From this belief, Strong (1968) suggests his two-stage model of counseling. In the first stage, counselors enhance the client's perception of their expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness (interpersonal influence), and then use this influence in the second stage toward opinion or behavior change in the client, who is then more open to the communication.

Subsequent researchers appear to take the dissonance perspective for granted and, rather than expand upon it, assume its relevance and focus on the effects of the interpersonal model on the client's perception of the counselor. Generally, this research has focused on one or the other of the three components: expertness, attractiveness, or trustworthiness.

Though not investing himself in Strong's conceptualization, Greenberg (1969) investigated the effect of pre-session information on subjects' perceptions of a therapy session. Using introduction of a male counselor as either experienced or inexperienced and as either warm or cold, he formed a different group of 28 college students in each of the four experimental treatments--experienced/warm, inexperienced/warm, experienced/cold, and inexperienced/cold. Ratings obtained from subjects after listening to a portion of an audio-taped therapy session revealed those subjects who were given the experienced/warm introductions were more attracted to the counselor, more receptive to his influence, and evaluated his work more positively than the other three groups. These responses supported Greenberg's hypothesis that pre-meeting information can affect the therapy relationship, and that clients' perceptions of counselor characteristics can be influenced by this information.

Unfortunately, Greenberg does not operationally define his warm and cold introductions, leaving unanswered exactly what these terms are meant to imply.

In 1970, Strong, in collaboration with Schmidt, published several articles investigating hypotheses contained within the interpersonal influence paradigm. The first of these (Strong & Schmidt, 1970a) was designed to evaluate the amount of perceived counselor expertness as measured by the counselor's influence on the client. A total of 49 male college students rated their need for achievement on three occasions: prior to, immediately following, and one week following, a 20-minute interview with a counselor. The counselor was introduced as either expert or inexpert and was further instructed by the researchers to take on an expert or inexpert role performance. Though their results did not reach statistical significance, the authors claim the study provides some support for the hypothesized effect of expertness on interpersonal influence by stating that the subjects in the expert condition changed their self-ratings more between the first and third rating than did those subjects in the inexpert condition.

In their second study, Schmidt and Strong (1970) attempted to determine what counselor behaviors could be identified as indicators of counselor expertness. They had 37 college students view video-tapes of six male counselors who ranged in experience from a first year graduate student to a doctoral level counselor with five years of experience. Their results ". . . were nearly the reverse of the order of the interviewer's training and/or experience" (p. 115). The mean ratings for the counselors with advanced training and/or experience ranged between "slightly" and "moderately" inexpert, while the mean ratings for the novice counselors

were between "slightly" to "moderately" expert. Schmidt and Strong (1970) draw two conclusions from these results. First, the novice counselors displayed greater responsiveness to the client. Second, the novice counselors asked what appeared to the clients to be more logical straightforward questions.

The third study (Strong & Schmidt, 1970b) abandons the expertness dimension and focuses instead on perceived trustworthiness. A total of 54 college males were involved in eight experimental conditions defined by (a) two male interviewers, (b) confidential or unconfidential introduction, and (c) trustworthy or untrustworthy counselor performance. The results failed to lend support for the effects of trustworthiness on interpersonal influence. The researchers, however, mentioned possible internal bias within the experimental design as a likely cause for this result. They end their paper with a discussion of trustworthiness as still an important aspect of interpersonal influence, though conceding that it may not play a significant part in the construct in a brief first meeting.

The role of attractiveness was investigated by the same researchers the following year (Schmidt & Strong, 1971). They used 54 college males as subjects and their need for achievement (defined as self-rated achievement motivation) as the dependent variable. Though their results indicate the experimenters/counselors were able to control whether or not the subjects were attracted to them, attractiveness did not play a significant role in determining whether or not the subjects were influenced by them. Schmidt and Strong (1971) point out counselor influence may have been affected by the fact that both the "attractive" and "unattractive" counselors were given "expert" introductions as Ph.D. psychologists. This then leads them to suggest ". . . that social attractiveness may not be

important in counseling when the client's problems require expert opinion and knowledge" (p. 350).

The role of trustworthiness was examined by Kaul and Schmidt (1971). They state two reasons for their investigation: (a) to develop a methodology for empirical analysis of perceived trustworthiness, and (b) to begin the explication of factors influencing these perceptions. The subjects were 32 graduate and undergraduate students representing both sexes. They were shown 24 video-tapes lasting from 16 to 145 seconds in length, depicting a portion of a counseling interview. The tapes were made of six basic scripts but varied in respect to the trustworthiness of the interviewer's statements and manner of communication (defined as interviewer intonation, emphasis, position, and gestures). A total of 16 subjects were given a definition of trustworthiness prior to viewing the tapes, while the other 16 subjects were asked to reflect on their thoughts regarding what attributes make a person seem trustworthy. Results of the study suggest the interviewer's manner of communication has greater impact on perceived trustworthiness than the words used. Unfortunately, this study did not use introduction of the interviewer as a variable in its design, nor does it lend itself to providing evidence for trustworthiness as a dimension of the interpersonal influence construct.

A total of 62 male college students participated as subjects in a combined study designed to investigate the interplay between expertness and attractiveness (Strong & Dixon, 1971). The hypotheses for these studies were: (a) expertness and attractiveness combine additively in defining an interviewer's influence power, and (b) expertness masks the influence of attractiveness.

The first experiment paired attractive and unattractive interviewer behaviors developed earlier (Schmidt & Strong, 1971) with expert introductions. The second experiment was similar but contained inexpert introductions as well. Results of the first experiment indicated the manipulations of attractiveness/unattractiveness were successful when combined with an expert introduction. This was measured on an adjective rating scale on which the subjects significantly distinguished the two counselors on 37 out of 73 possible descriptors. However, the hypothesis that attractiveness and expertness are additive in increasing interpersonal influence was not supported.

There was significant support for the second hypothesis, that expertness masks the effects of attractiveness. Their (Strong & Dixon, 1971) results indicate that expert interviewers' attractiveness will not affect their influence power, but inexpert interviewers have more influence power if they are perceived as attractive.

Guttman and Haase (1972) designed a study to evaluate the effects of expertness introductions on actual clients in brief vocational counseling. A total of 30 college freshman males were assigned to one of two groups distinguished by type of introduction (doctoral level staff member and graduate student in counseling) as well as prestigious versus barren office space. The results of their study parallel those of Schmidt and Strong (1970) in making the suggestion that nonexpert introduced counselors tend to be perceived as more helpful than counselors with more experience and/or training.

Guttman and Haase (1972) do note, however, this seeming reversal is not supported in terms of informational recall. The subjects paired with the "expert" counselor remembered more material directly related to

vocational interests than did those paired with the "inexpert" counselor. There were no significant differences found between the groups on a measure of how well the client felt his test results were communicated to him, or on a measure of counselor effectiveness.

In a study that is perhaps more directly related to the present research than those reviewed thus far, Binderman, Fretz, Scott, and Abrams (1972) report only the title of an interviewer (expert/doctor versus inexpert/student) is necessary to establish a difference in the client's perception of the counselor's ability to be helpful. Using 145 college students as subjects and two confederate counselors who interpreted personality test scores to them, the authors report the professional level of the interpreter, based solely on the introduction, effected change in self-report for the subjects in all experimental groups.

Atkinson and Carskadden (1975) also investigated the effect of counselor introduction on counselor credibility. Counselor credibility, as they use the term, is comprised of two of the three factors which make up the interpersonal influence model--expertness and attractiveness. Along with the variable of expert versus nonexpert introduction they incorporated the use or non-use of psychological jargon by the counselor. Following the viewing of the segment of a counseling session, the 96 subjects from three populations (introductory psychology students, community mental health center clients, and clients from a correctional facility for alcohol and drug offenders) rated the counselor's performance on an evaluative questionnaire. The concepts rated were: (a) the counselor's ability to help, (b) the counselor's knowledge of psychology, (c) the counselor's willingness to help, (d) the counselor's comprehension of the

client's problem, and (e) the counselor as someone the rater would see if he/she had a problem to discuss.

Significant main and interaction effects were found for the counselor's knowledge of psychology, comprehension of the client's problem, and the counselor as someone the rater would see. From these results Atkinson and Carskadden (1975) conclude: ". . . individuals perceive a counselor as a more credible source of assistance if he is introduced as a highly prestigious professional and if he uses a preponderance of highly abstract, psychological jargon than if the counselor is assigned a low level of expertness and employs easy-to-understand layman's language" (p. 184). They also concluded people are more likely to prefer a counselor for themselves if that counselor is described as an expert rather than a novice.

In an attempt to demonstrate the existence of the three dimensions of interpersonal influence, Barak and LaCrosse (1975) had 202 male and female subjects rate interviews given by Carl Rogers, Albert Ellis, and Frederick Perls from the film Three Approaches to Psychotherapy (Shostrom, 1966). The results lend support for the hypothesis that all three factors are involved in the interpersonal process though they are not necessarily distinct from one another. The trustworthiness dimension was non-existent in the ratings of Albert Ellis, leading Barak and LaCrosse to conclude it may be too closely intercorrelated with expertness to be measured independently.

A follow-up study (LaCrosse & Barak, 1976) was undertaken for the purpose of clarifying the interrelationships among the three dimensions as well as to assess the reliability of the instrument used in the 1975 study, the Counselor Rating Form (CRF). A total of 127 undergraduate

students were divided into three groups and shown one of the three filmed interviews described above. After viewing, subjects rated the counselor's behavior on the CRF according to their perceptions of the counselor.

Statistical analysis leads LaCrosse and Barak (1976) to assert ". . . each dimension appears to have enough uniqueness to be considered a separate entity for both theoretical and practical use" (p. 171). This is a reversal of their stance based on their earlier work. While acknowledging future measures of reliability are needed for the CRF, they also state ". . . despite the unique variance attributable to each dimension (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975), there is a common component of counselor behavior" (p. 172). A more comprehensive review of the Counselor Rating Form is included in the following chapter.

Spiegel (1976) tested the hypothesis that counselor introduction, in terms of expertness or similarity, would enhance the client's perception ofthe counselor as helpful depending on the instrumental value of the interview. She defined instrumental value as ". . . the extent to which they perform a function for the recipient" (p. 437), and explained the hypothesis assumes that the main determinant of whether similarity or expertness will facilitate perceived counselor competence is the nature of the client's problem.

A total of 227 male and female college students evaluated a counselor's competence after listening to an eight-minute audio-tape of the counselor and client in one of four experimental conditions which varied by introduction of the counselor as high and low in similarity to the client (attractiveness) and high and low in expertness. Though the data recorded for the study did not reach statistical significance in respect to

the hypothesis, Speigel (1976) reports the expertness manipulation was effective in facilitating subjects' perceptions of high counselor competence when looked at singly.

Scheid (1976) draws a similar conclusion in a study closely paralleling Spiegel's in both hypothesis and methodology. His study incorporated 120 male and female undergraduate students who viewed video-tapes of four experimental conditions defined by expert versus non-expert introduction and facilitative versus non-facilitative counselor behaviors in the video-tape. The findings lead Scheid (1976) to state, ". . . even in the face of clearly perceived nonfacilitative or destructive counselor behavior, subjects rate the counselor high on expertness or competence if he has been given a high status introduction" (p. 507).

Heppner and Heesacker (1982) took for granted the presence of the interpersonal influence process and chose to look at it for changes over time rather than first interview impressions. They also investigated whether or not the model is affected by the client's motivation or perceived need for counseling. Using 31 clients at a university counseling center, they found only the attractiveness variable reached significance in terms of change over time. This indicated that, as a group, the clients rated their counselor as more attractive following the last counseling session than after the first one. The three dependent variables, when considered together as an interpersonal influence construct, also change over time but not always in the same direction. In other words, some counselors were perceived as decreasing on these variables in the same time frame. Heppner and Heesacker (1982) were unable to find support for the second hypothesis regarding client motivation and perceived need for counseling affecting the interpersonal influence process.

In a second study using 72 student clients in a university counseling center, Heppner and Heesacker (1983) investigated the effects of interpersonal influence related to client satisfaction with the counseling process and the actual experience level of the counselor. Their results suggest: (a) the interpersonal influence concept correlates with client satisfaction in a "real life" counseling situation, and (b) actual counselor experience is not significantly related to clients' perception of the counselor within the interpersonal influence model. The authors explicitly point out the limitations of this study in terms of sample size and non-random assignment, and suggest their results be interpreted with caution.

Gender of Counselor and Client

Very little of the interpersonal influence literature has treated gender of either participant as a variable. Those studies that have usually have generated incongruent and often incomplete results (Corrigan et al., 1980). Research not involving interpersonal influence in which gender of either the counselor or client has been considered as a variable has had similar results (Bloom, Weigel, & Truatt, 1977; Brooks, 1974; Shainess, 1983). The studies reviewed in this section encompass, in a chronological order, the works from both spheres that have focused on counselor and/or client gender and are most relevant to this study in terms of its emphasis on the counselor within the interpersonal influence construct.

Though additional research has considered the attractiveness dimension of interpersonal influence, these studies were not reviewed here. This is primarily due to the fact that this additional work has looked

at attractiveness from a physical perspective only, rather than as it is defined within the context of this study--as the client's perceived similarity to the counselor.

In a review of the factors that influence psychotherapy outcome, Luborsky, Chandler, Auerbach, Cohen, and Bachrach (1971) cite seven studies prior to 1971 investigating the variable of client gender. Of these seven, only two found a significant effect involving gender. By using ratings of success and satisfaction with counseling, these studies determined that female clients had counseling outcomes or results significantly better than male clients in the study (Mintz, Luborsky, & Auerbach, 1971; Seeman, 1954). In the other five studies, client gender was unrelated to outcome (Cartwright, 1955; Gaylin, 1966; Hamburg, Bibring, Fisher, Stanton, Wallerstein, Weinstock, & Haggard, 1967; Knapp, Levin, McCarter, Wermer, & Zetzel, 1960; May, 1968). None of these studies appears to have considered counselor gender as a variable.

Using 93 college students with "trained" undergraduate therapists, Persons, Persons, and Newmark (1974) found several significant effects regarding gender of the counselor and client in a study that was originally intended to look at differences between paraprofessional and professional therapists. Gender of the participants only became a factor when ". . . it became clear that sex was an important factor" (p. 63). In other words, although the study was not designed with gender as a consideration, analysis of the results indicated that gender of the participants did indeed make a difference. In general, they state that although all clients showed improvement as a result of psychotherapy, those clients who were matched with the same gender counselors were the most responsive. Specifically, they found the client subjects rated the same gender

counselors higher than opposite gender counselors on the variables of honest feedback, encouragement of risk taking, perceptivity and insightfulness, warmth and friendliness, and helpfulness with sexual identity concerns.

Somewhat contradictory results to those of Persons et al. (1974) were found by Brooks (1974). Using self-disclosure as the dependent variable, she matched 40 male and 40 female undergraduate students with two male and two female counseling graduate students. The hypotheses were: (a) female subjects would be more disclosing than males, (b) subject-interviewer pairs containing a female (counselor or client) would result in greater disclosure than all male pairs, and (c) subjects would disclose more to a high status rather than low status interviewer. Her results indicated that the subjects were more disclosing in a dyad containing a female as either the counselor or the client. Females were not more disclosing than males regardless of the interviewer's gender. In fact, Brooks (1974) reports subjects disclosed more to the opposite gender counselor than to the same gender counselor. In terms of interviewer status, males and females tended to display disparate effects. Males disclosed more to high status than low status interviewers, while female subjects reversed this order, disclosing more to the low status interviewer.

Considering the suggestion that expertness cues for male and female counselors may differ (Persons et al., 1974), Dell and Schmidt (1976) investigated this hypothesis in conjunction with a replication of an earlier study that found an inverse relationship between perceived expertness and actual experience (Schmidt & Strong, 1970). Using 60 male and 60 female undergraduate volunteers as subjects and a semantic differential

scale, which measured potency, evaluation, and activity, for the dependent measure, Dell and Schmidt (1976) found a significant relationship on only the potency variable. On that measure, female subjects rated male counselors as more potent than female counselors. When considered with the negative results on the other measures in respect to counselor gender, the authors conclude ". . . this single significant effect is not sufficient to suggest any important role for counselor sex or observer sex in determining observer's judgements in the study" (p. 200).

Heppner and Pew (1977) hypothesized clients interviewed in the presence of documented evidence of counselor expertness would perceive those counselors as more expert than those without the same cues. However, they also hypothesized a male counselor would be perceived as more expert than a female counselor in both conditions. The study used 112 undergraduate subjects and a rating form of the authors' own design. The results supported the first hypothesis that the presence of awards and diplomas lends itself to the perception of expertness. These results, however, reached across both counselor genders and produced no significant differences regarding male or female being perceived as more expert.

Using 72 female and 72 male undergraduate college students, Bloom, Weigel, and Truatt (1977) explored the relationships between gender pairing, office decor, and perceived credibility. Using the dependent variables of qualification, dynamism, safety, and total credibility (the combined sum of the first three subscores) the subjects rated their conception of the therapist who utilized the office in which they were seated. This office was decorated to denote either a "traditional" or "humanistic" orientation by its occupant. The subjects were not exposed to the office's inhabitant.

Several significant results were obtained. In the qualification analysis all subjects rated the therapist in the "traditional" office more qualified than the therapist in the "humanistic" office. On the safety dimension, the opposite result took place with the inhabitant of the "humanistic" office being rated as more safe. In terms of the total credibility score, it was found that the female subjects rated both therapists higher than the male subjects did.

Of particular importance to this review, subjects perceived a female therapist in the "traditional" office as more credible than a female therapist in the "humanistic" office. Conversely, the subjects perceived a male therapist as more credible in the "humanistic" setting than in the "traditional" one. These ratings were across all subjects and the authors suggest that gender by itself has little or no effect on the client's perception of counselor credibility.

A total of 112 undergraduate volunteers were used by Merluzzi, Banikiotes, and Missbach (1978) in a study designed to test the effects of counselor experience (expert or non-expert), disclosure level (high or low), and counselor gender on interpersonal influence. Their results indicate female experts were rated significantly more expert than either male experts, male non-experts, or female non-experts. The authors conclude subjects may attribute more expertness to females based on stereotypic impressions of women. In other words, "The subjects may assume that if a woman has such substantial credentials she must be substantially better than her male counterparts" (p. 482).

In one of the few studies to focus on child client perceptions within the interpersonal influence paradigm, Bernstein and Figoli (1983) examined the effects of counselor gender, client gender, and type of

introduction (high or low credibility) on eighth graders' perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness, as well as overall confidence in the counselor. They used 120 male and 120 female subjects. A slightly modified Counselor Rating Form-Short and a "Help With Specific Problems Scale" were the dependent measures. Although reporting a significant difference in perception of the counselor based on high versus low credibility introduction, the researchers further note that the subjects' ratings on the interpersonal influence dimensions did not differ as a result of counselor gender. The female subjects rated both male and female counselors significantly higher in attractiveness, trustworthiness, and confidence-inspiring than did the male subjects. Bernstein and Figoli (1983) suggest that perhaps this reflects a willingness by females to more readily seek out counseling and an ability to feel more at ease earlier with counseling than males do.

In a recent study, Angle and Goodyear (1984) used 105 male undergraduate college students in a study that considered counselor gender as well as high status, low status, or no introduction and client self-concept as independent variables. Counselor gender alone did not affect the subjects' perceptions of the counselor on the Counselor Rating Form, although type of introduction did.

Summary

The interpersonal influence model has generated some diverse viewpoints among researchers. The research does, however, appear to be in general agreement that structured introductions regarding any one, or all, of the three dimensions do enhance the client's perception of the counselor in a positive fashion. This seems particularly true in regard

to the expert dimension as it relates to being part of a prestigious introduction.

There are several other salient points regarding the model. The trustworthiness dimension now appears to be a separate and distinct factor, though early research failed to distinguish it as such. And, research involving all three factors has been carried out in both an analogue fashion, using student volunteer subjects, and with actual clients with apparently no appreciable differences.

Though many studies have investigated various effects associated with counselor or client gender, only a few have considered these variables within the context of interpersonal influence. It appears at this time that gender of the counselor is not as important a variable as are such things as presenting concerns, office decor, and type of counselor introduction.

Client gender, in a singular context, is the least represented variable in this review in terms of previous research. Generally, when it has been considered as a variable, it has been in conjunction with counselor gender.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY AND INSTRUMENTATION

The purpose of this study was to investigate the attitude difference, if any, of potential counseling clients toward counselors when the potential client is aware that the counselor is required to receive supervision. It was also hypothesized that these attitudinal differences, if they exist, will not be affected by either the gender of the counselor or the gender of the client.

This chapter is concerned with the methodology and instrumentation used in conducting the study and begins with a discussion of the subject selection process and demographic information. The chapter continues with a presentation of the instrumentation used as well as the research and statistical designs. A section on procedures describes in detail how the study was conducted.

Subjects

The sample for this study consisted of 349 students at two large southwestern universities. They were recruited from sections of introductory psychology classes at each university and received extra class credit for their participation. The only limitation placed on the selection of subjects was the restriction of graduate students in psychology, social work, and related disciplines.

Of the 349 subjects who participated, 155 were male and 194 were female. Their ages ranged from 17 to 47 with a mean age of 24.4 and a median age of 19.0. Of the total number, 149 identified themselves as freshmen, 94 as sophomores, 50 as juniors, 43 as seniors, 11 as graduates, and 2 as special students. In addition, 76 subjects responded yes to a question asking whether or not they had received counseling or psychological help from a professional person.

Instrumentation

Counselor Rating Form-Short

The Counselor Rating Form-Short (CRF-S) (Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983) was used (see Appendix A). Its predecessor, the Counselor Rating Form (CRF), was originally designed by Barak and LaCrosse (1975) to assess the degree of involvement of each of the three factors of the interpersonal influence construct. Though the original instrument consisted of 36 pairs of bi-polar adjectives, Corrigan and Schmidt (1983) shortened it to 12 of those initial 36 items.

The CRF-S consists of 12 adjectives, four for each of the three dimensions of interpersonal influence. In revising the original CRF, Corrigan and Schmidt (1983) chose to drop the negative half of the bi-polar pairings and replace the ends of the seven-point Likert scale with the words "not very" and "very" to describe the formerly positive adjective.

The instrument is designed to be easily completed by anyone possessing an eighth-grade level of comprehension or readiness (Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983). Items from the expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness scales are alternated throughout the protocol and scored from 1

for "not very" to 7 for "very." Scale scores for each of the dimensions are then computed by adding the ratings from the four items comprising each scale. Scale scores, then, can range from a low of 4 to a high of 28.

Reliability. In terms of reliability of the CRF-S, its authors (Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983) report observed reliabilities ". . . exceeded the values expected from random item selection and, in most cases, equaled or exceeded those reported for the CRF" (p. 72). Inter-item reliabilities for the CRF-S were found to range from .89 to .93 for attractiveness, .85 to .94 for expertness, and .83 to .91 for trustworthiness across stimulus counselors who were rated. These counselors were Albert Ellis, Frederick Perls, and Carl Rogers from the film Three Approaches to Psychotherapy (Shostrom, 1966) and a combined group of 22 community counselors who volunteered to be rated by their actual clients.

In addition to these findings, reliability measures were also computed for the three subscales of the CRF-S as used in this study. Using Cronbach's Coefficient Alpha the following coefficients were established: .877 for expertness, .846 for attractiveness, and .814 for trustworthiness. As can be seen from these results, the CRF-S appears to be a reliable measurement device for the hypothesized effects of this study.

Validity. The instrument was validated using Barak and LaCrosse's (1975) methodology for the CRF, again utilizing the ratings of college students to interviews by the three counselors in the film. In addition, ratings were also obtained from actual clients at two community health centers regarding counselors they were currently seeing (Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983). A "confirmatory factor analysis with simultaneous groups"

(p. 68) was adapted from a LISREL computer package and used. The resulting correlation coefficient of .93 is considered by Corrigan and Schmidt to be very adequate in terms of existing theory and, according to their study (1983), suggests the CRF-S can be used with both college and non-college subjects in experimental and/or field settings.

Appraisal. The CRF-S is a relatively new instrument and has, at this date, received no critical appraisal. The CRF, on the other hand, has been used by several researchers since its introduction in 1975. Perhaps the two researchers who have been most involved with its critique and continuing evaluation are its authors, Barak and LaCrosse (1975). In a second study several months after the instrument's introduction, LaCrosse and Barak (1976) state that analysis of variance suggests the CRF can differentiate both within and between counselors on the three dimensions of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Following a third study in which the CRF was employed (Barak & LaCrosse, 1977) they assert ". . . the CRF appears to be a valid instrument for assessing perceptions of counselor behavior from multiple sources" (p. 207).

Barak and Dell (1977) combined two studies to replicate and extend the earlier work of LaCrosse and Barak (1976). In combining the CRF with a self-referral rating scale, they found that the CRF is sensitive to perceived differences among and within counselors of minimal to moderate levels of training and experience. This prompted Barak and Dell (1977) to suggest the CRF is ". . . a valuable tool for counseling research" (p. 292).

Though crediting the instrument as a valuable tool, Heesacker and Heppner (1983) assert the CRF does not always distinguish readily between expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness as the intercorrelations

among the three scales appear to increase over time. They suggest that perhaps all three factors might fit better as part of a general construct.

The CRF has been used extensively in counseling research since its development. Its applicability has primarily been in the area of interpersonal influence. Dorn (1984b) probably sums up what has seemed evident since the CRF's introduction in 1975, when he states ". . . the CRF has become almost a standard measure in social influence research" (p. 344).

Demographic Questionnaire

In addition to the CRF-S, the subjects were asked to complete a short demographical information questionnaire which was attached to the CRF-S (see Appendix B). Subjects' names were not included on this form in order to assure anonymity. Information sought about the participants included age, gender, college grade level, history of previous counseling experiences, and a question designed to help determine if the subject paid accurate attention to the stimulus introduction.

Research Design

The research design utilized in this study is of the true experimental type. More specifically, it is classified as a post-test only control group design (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Gay, 1976) which can be diagrammed as in Figure 1. The rationale for the study's placement in this category is: (a) subjects were randomly assigned to one of the treatment groups, and (b) subjects' scores in the groups in which the counselor was not required to receive supervision were treated as control group scores and compared to scores from the groups in which supervision was

required. This type of design provides the optimal amount of control for extraneous variables as well as for threats to internal validity (Campbell & Stanley, 1963; Gay, 1976).

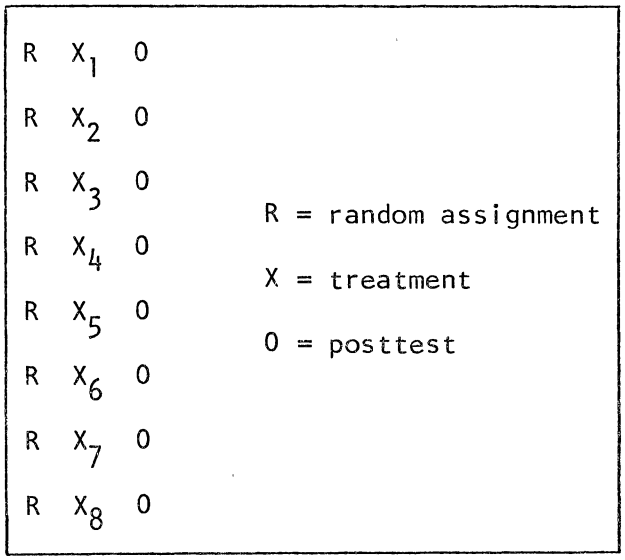

Figure 1. Diagram of post-test only control group design.

In terms of external validity, or the study's generalizability to other populations, the design allows for minimal threat. The post-test only design nullifies any pretest-posttest interaction effect as well as the opportunity for multiple-test interference. Potential sources for problems with external validity for this study are therefore centered around selection-treatment interaction, specificity of variables, and contamination and experimenter bias (Gay, 1976).

Contamination and experimenter bias were controlled for by utilizing double blind techniques whenever possible. The researcher did not

participate in the role-plays on the stimulus tapes that were utilized. Likewise, those people who assisted the researcher with those tapes were not informed of the nature of the study until after their participation was complete.

In addition, audio-tapes were used rather than video-tapes to rule out potential extraneous variables associated with visual cues of the three dimensions of the interpersonal influence construct. This is in keeping with Siegel and Sell's (1978) findings that both objective evidence of specialized training, such as diplomas or awards--or the lack of such evidence--and counselor non-verbal behaviors affect subjects' perceptions of counselor expertness.

Selection-treatment interaction was controlled by the randomization of both subject sign-up sheets and treatment choice for each group of subjects. The experimenter maintained no control over when subjects participated or which treatment they received. Both of those elements were dependent on subject availability times and the ongoing relative size of each experimental group.

Since the study utilized college students only, the specificity of variables must be considered as a potential threat to external validity. According to Gay (1976), specificity of variables refers to the fact that a study ". . . is conducted with a specific kind of subject, using specific measuring instruments, at a specific time, under a specific set of circumstances" (p. 170). Therefore, conclusions drawn from this study are most applicable to similar college student populations under similar circumstances and any generalization to other populations must be made with caution.

Procedure

The student subjects were recruited by sign-up sheets which were either posted in conspicuous places on the campus or distributed in classrooms by the experimenter. All subjects were given a liberal choice of availability times and told the study would require less than one-half hour to complete. The researcher remained in the designated room at all times that were posted on the sign-up sheets and conducted the study with whatever number of subjects had signed up for each particular time. The size of the groups varied from only one participant to a maximum of 16. Several of the allotted times remained empty.

Each group of subjects heard one of two tapes (male or female counselor) which was paired with one of the two introductions (supervised or non-supervised counselor). The selection of tape and introduction was changed with each successive group and was dependent on which of the four variable treatment groups contained the least number of subjects at that time. Following each group's participation, and dismissal, their responses were further divided by the subject's gender, yielding a total of eight treatment groups.

Both tapes contained an identical segment of a counseling interview between confederate counselors and a female client (see Appendix C). The use of a female client rather than a male was determined by a coin toss. The confederate counselors are both professional counselors employed in a large university counseling center and the client role was played by an advanced graduate student in drama at the same university.

The introduction to each tape was read to the student subjects just prior to their hearing the tape. Both introductions were identical

except in regard to supervisory status which was not included in the non-supervised introductions (see Appendix D).

In an effort to have tapes that sounded realistic, several procedures were followed. First, the tapes were recorded, and later played back to the subjects, on stereo portable recorder/players. This was done to achieve a more realistic tone quality. Second, the process of recording the tapes was done in a methodological manner to insure realism and believability. The voices of three male and three female counselors were rated on the CRF-S by a panel of five undergraduate students. The choice of the two who completed the counseling session tapes was determined by the highest rating for each counselor gender.

In recording the counseling session tapes several attempts were made with different client actresses until a predetermined rating of 90% or higher was achieved for realism and plausibility. A final rating of 94% agreement was reached by a panel consisting of three professional counselors and two undergraduate students.

The taped segments lasted approximately 12 minutes. These segments were introduced as the first session between the counselor and client who was seeking assistance in dealing with possible psychological issues after being referred by her family physician. Following the tape, the CRF-S with demographic questionnaire attached was distributed to all subjects who then rated the counselor in accordance with instructions contained in the initial introduction. After all subjects had completed the forms, they were collected and the subjects debriefed.

In the debriefing the student subjects were told first that the tape consisted of a role-play interaction between confederates and the nature

of the experiment. Time was allotted for questions from the subjects and they were requested to not discuss the study with anyone else until all subjects had completed the task. In addition, they were informed they could receive a summary of the study's results at a later date.

Data Analysis

This study utilized a 2x2x2 factorial design. The alpha level was set at .05. With 349 subjects this yielded an effect size of .25 and a statistical power level of 59 (Cohen, 1969). A three-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with Wilk's lambda criterion was used. The entire analysis was completed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences ($SPSS^X$) on an IBM mainframe computer.

The independent variables of introduction, counselor gender, and subject gender each had two levels. For the introduction variable these were supervised and non-supervised counselors. For the other two independent variables the levels coincided with the gender of the participants--male and female.

The dependent variables consisted of ratings on the CRF-S. This instrument contains the three separate, yet intercorrelated, variables of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness which form the general construct of interpersonal influence.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This chapter presents the results of the study following the analysis of the collected data. Each of the null hypotheses associated with the interactions and main effects are listed and the results of the test of significance for each are summarized in the text and graphically represented by the use of tables.

Findings

Three-Way Interaction

The first null hypothesis tested was concerned with the three-way interaction. This hypothesis stated there would be no significant interaction effect between supervisory status, counselor gender, and subject gender in terms of the subjects' ratings of the counselor's interpersonal influence.

The means and standard deviations for each variable are presented in Table 1. Differences in cell size between the groups was accounted for by using an unweighted cell means analysis. Cell sizes ranged from 38 to 49.

A 2x2x2 between subjects' multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) using Wilk's criterion was performed on the three dependent variables of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. The multivariate analysis was utilized due to the assumption that the dependent

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Three Dependent Variables

		Expertness		Attractiveness		Trustworthiness	
	N	M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Male Counselor--Supervised							
Male Subject	38	20.50	3.45	18.53	4.46	20.82	3.71
Female Subject	49	20.00	4.70	17.04	4.86	20.55	4.44
Male Counselor--Not Supervised							
Male Subject	40	20.65	3.69	16.95	4.66	20.68	2.97
Female Subject	48	20.85	4.42	17.00	4.01	21.19	3.90
Female Counselor--Supervised							
Male Subject	39	19.59	5.68	16.46	4.55	19.67	5.05
Female Subject	49	21.51	3.69	17.26	5.21	21.78	4.00
Female Counselor--Not Supervised							
Male Subject	38	19.79	5.41	17.00	5.64	20.24	4.50
Female Subject	48	20.31	5.16	17.73	4.50	20.96	3.98
For Entire Sample	349	20.43	4.58	17.24	4.73	20.78	4.10

dependent variables were intercorrelated at a level higher than .30. Within-cells correlations did in fact show the dependent variables to be correlated above this level. This is represented in Table 2.

The independent variables, and their order of entry in the MANOVA, were supervisory status, counselor gender, and subject gender. The total N of 350 was reduced to 349 with the deletion of one incomplete rating form. Results of evaluation of assumptions of normality, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, linearity, and multicolinearity were satisfactory after this deletion. No significant three-way interaction was found. The analysis yielded $F(3, 339) = 0.52$, $p > .05$. This and the remaining F statistics are presented in Table 3.

When the three-way interaction does not reach significance, it is customary within an analysis of variance to consider the results of the two-way interactions. This study contains three of these, utilizing different combinations of the independent variables.

Two-Way Interactions

The first two-way null hypothesis stated there would be no significant interaction effect in terms of the subjects' perceptions of the counselor's interpersonal influence based on supervisory status and counselor gender. No significant interaction was found to reject this hypothesis. Order of entry was supervision status followed by gender which resulted in $F(3, 339) = 1.73$, $p > .05$.

The second two-way interaction stated in null form that there would be no significant interaction effect in terms of the subjects' perceptions of the counselor's interpersonal influence based on supervisory

Table 2

Within-Cells Correlations With Standard Deviations on Diagonal

	Expertness	Attractiveness	Trustworthiness
Expertness	4.58446		
Attractiveness	0.45234	4.74883	
Trustworthiness	0.71637	0.57938	4.10489

Statistics for within-cells correlations:

Determinant = 0.32201

Bartlett test of sphericity = 384.33443 with 3 df

Significance = .000

F(max) criterion = 1.33835 with (3, 341) df.

Table 3

Source Table for Univariate and Multivariate F Statistics

Source	Univariate F df = (1, 341)	Multivariate F df = (3, 339)
Subject Gender		1.46
Expertness	1.170	
Attractiveness	0.004	
Trustworthiness	3.030	
Counselor Gender		0.05
Expertness	0.060	
Attractiveness	0.120	
Trustworthiness	0.030	
Supervision		0.05
Expertness	0.000	
Attractiveness	0.040	
Trustworthiness	0.010	
Subject Gender X Counselor Gender		0.95
Expertness	1.960	
Attractiveness	2.060	
Trustworthiness	2.160	
Subject Gender X Supervision		0.48
Expertness	0.120	
Attractiveness	0.520	
Trustworthiness	0.120	
Counselor Gender X Supervision		1.73
Expertness	1.300	
Attractiveness	1.440	
Trustworthiness	0.310	
Subject Gender X Counselor Gender X Supervision		0.52
Expertness	1.130	
Attractiveness	0.620	
Trustworthiness	1.500	

status and gender. Using this order of entry, no significant effect was found, $F(3, 339) = 0.48$, $p > .05$.

The final two-way interaction stated in null form that there would be no significant interaction effect in terms of the subjects' perceptions of the counselor's interpersonal influence based on counselor gender and subject gender. This was also not found to be significant, $F(3, 339) = 0.95$, $p > .05$.

Following the failure to reject any null hypothesis associated with the interactions, the main effects were examined. There are three of these, one for each independent variable.

Main Effects

The first main effect null hypothesis stated there would be no significant difference between subjects' responses regarding their perceptions of the counselor's interpersonal influence based on whether or not the counselor is required to receive supervision. This hypothesis could not be rejected, $F(3, 339) = 0.05$, $p > .05$.

The second main effect hypothesis stated in null form that there would be no significant difference in subjects' perceptions of the counselor's interpersonal influence based on counselor gender. The analysis again failed to reject the null hypothesis, $F(3, 339) = 0.05$, $p > .05$.

The final main effect hypothesized in null form stated that there would be no difference in subjects' ratings of the counselor's interpersonal influence based on subject gender. This analysis also did not yield a significant result, $F(3, 339) = 1.46$, $p > .05$.

Summary

Based on the relatively high correlations between the dependent variables of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness, it can be concluded that the multivariate approach was appropriate for this analysis. The various F statistics derived from the analysis failed to reject each of the null hypotheses associated with the study. It should also be noted that none of the statistical values obtained in the analysis indicate any trends or directions which might lead to possible speculation.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the effects of the supervisory process on clients' perceptions of a counselor's ability to be of assistance to them. In addition, it looked at the possible role that both counselor and/or client gender might play in this perception. The construct of interpersonal influence as initially proposed by Strong (1968) was used as a measure of client perceptions. This construct has been widely used in counseling research since its introduction and has been shown to be sensitive to differential perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

College student subjects were exposed to one of eight different treatment groups to test the hypothesis that counselors who were introduced as being required to receive supervision would be rated lower on interpersonal influence than counselors who were not introduced in that fashion. It was also hypothesized that the subjects' ratings would be affected by either the gender of the counselor or the gender of the subject.

The student subjects completed a rating form, the Counselor Rating Form-Short (Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983), regarding their perceptions of a counselor they listened to on an audio-tape. The counselor was either

male or female and introduced as either required to receive supervision or neutral on this factor. A total of 349 subjects participated and were randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups. The two levels of the third independent variable were contingent on the gender of the subject.

Since the construct of interpersonal influence is made up of three distinct, yet interrelated, dimensions, a multivariate analysis of variance was performed to test the hypothesis. Neither the interaction effects of the independent variables nor main effects when they were viewed individually reached significance at the 0.95 level of confidence.

Conclusions

Though the hypothesized results of this study did not reach statistical significance, several conclusions can be drawn from the results. These conclusions can be categorized in terms of overall ramifications of the study, possible methodological problems, and one outcome of the study regarding gender of the participants that appears to parallel other research in this area. These conclusions can also be subsumed to fit within the parameters of the two research hypotheses:

1. There may be no difference in client perceptions of counselors based on supervisory status. Though different variables have been shown to affect perceptions of interpersonal influence, whether or not the counselor is required to receive supervision may not be among them. This idea would seem somewhat supported by the knowledge that many of the subjects in this study did not appear to be aware that supervision is an integral part of counselor preparation and often an ongoing job requirement.

In the introduction of the counselor on the tape only one line was changed to indicate whether or not the counselor was required to receive supervision. Though the subjects were requested to listen carefully to the introduction, it is possible that some did not hear or pay attention to this distinction.

One question on the demographic questionnaire provides some evidence for assuming the subjects may not have listened well to the introduction or realized counselors are often required to receive supervision. In response to whether or not they felt the counselor was adequately supervised, 76% of the subjects responded "yes" while 24% said "no." Only half of the subjects were given the required supervision introduction, yet three-fourths of them responded affirmatively to this question. This may point to a discrepancy regarding either some subject's accurate listening to the introduction or some subject's perceptions of what counselor supervision actually denotes. It would therefore appear likely that some subjects may have marked their responses while maintaining an attitude toward the counselor that was incongruent with what the CRF-S was attempting to measure.

The taped counseling interview the subjects heard may have had a differential effect on ratings. Though the script was identical for all groups and would therefore appear to remain neutral in terms of any bias in ratings, several considerations should be taken into account as possibly having an effect on the study's outcome. The tape lasted over 12 minutes and may have failed to fall within the limits of some subjects' attention spans. This might particularly be true if the subjects found the tape dull, or at least not as dynamic as they might have expected.

Student subjects were utilized and participated primarily for extra course credit. Most of them (78%) reported they had not received counseling or psychotherapy during their lifetime. An actual client, or former client, population might have contained subjects able to rate the counselors in a more realistic and/or discriminating fashion.

The possibility is also present that the construct of interpersonal influence fails to accurately reflect perceptions of counselors when paired with supervisory status. Though it has been shown to be a sensitive measure of client perceptions in many contexts (Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983), this study represents the first use of interpersonal influence when applied to supervision.

2. As discussed in this study's review of relevant literature, the results of research investigating effects of counselor-client gender interaction has generally had ambiguous results (Bloom et al., 1977; Brooks, 1974; Corrigan et al., 1980; Shainess, 1983). This study, though unable to provide any insight on this question, certainly appears to lend support to the ambiguity. It was hypothesized that supervisory status would have an effect regardless of counselor or client gender. Though the statistical analysis does not reflect anything that might be of value in determining the effects of participant gender, neither does it offer any evidence to refute what might be said to have already been assumed. It may be that the gender of the participants makes little or no difference in the counseling interaction.

Recommendations

Several recommendations for further research based on the conclusions of this study are indicated:

1. Any future research should take into consideration the possible methodological problems of this work. Areas of particular concern would involve the mode of introduction between the supervised and non-supervised counselor, the stimulus tape presentation, and the subject population.

In terms of the mode of introduction, if the counselor began the interview with an explanation that he/she is required to receive supervision (on those tapes used with the supervision variable), the subjects would be given additional exposure to this knowledge beyond the one time it is mentioned in the spoken introduction.

In addition, a shorter tape interview might better hold the attention of the subjects. This study utilized a tape that lasted approximately 12 minutes. One of considerably shorter length might prove to be just as adequate for the purposes of this study.

2. Future research might also want to consider whether or not interpersonal influence is a viable measure of client perceptions of counselors when matched with supervision.

3. Though this study has failed to show a relationship between supervisory status and clients' perceptions of counselors, it has not established any evidence that clients' perceptions are not affected by this knowledge. This would appear to make supervisory status a consideration worthy of additional study.

4. This study has contributed little to the current field of knowledge regarding counselor-client gender interaction, except perhaps to add to its already ambiguous position. Additional research certainly appears warranted in this area, both within and outside of the concept of interpersonal influence.

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APPENDIX A

COUNSELOR RATING FORM-SHORT

INSTRUCTIONS

Below are some general human characteristics followed by a seven-point scale. Please mark an "X" at the point on the scale that best represents how you feel about the counselor on the tape. For example:

FUNNY

Not very X : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

WELL DRESSED

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : X : __ Very

These ratings might show that the counselor did not joke around much but was dressed well. Though all of the following characteristics we ask you to rate are desirable, therapists may differ in their strengths. We are interested in knowing how you view these differences.

FRIENDLY

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

EXPERIENCED

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

HONEST

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

LIKEABLE

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

EXPERT

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

RELIABLE

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

(Please go on to next page)

SOCIABLE

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

PREPARED

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

SINCERE

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

WARM

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

SKILLFUL

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

TRUSTWORTHY

Not very __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ : __ Very

(Please complete information on next page)

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Please do not put your name on this paper.

Please do furnish the following information about yourself.

Sex: Male ___ Female ___

Age: ___

College Grade Level: Freshman ___

Sophomore ___

Junior ___

Senior ___

Graduate ___

Special Student ___

Have you ever received counseling or psychological help from a professional person? Yes ___ No ___

Do you think the psychologist on this tape receives adequate supervision? Yes ___ No ___

APPENDIX C

TRANSCRIPT OF SIMULATED TAPE INTERVIEW

Transcript of Simulated Tape Interview*

C: Well, some people at work, particularly my boss, had been telling me that my work was not up to par recently. My boss said that it appeared as if I wasn't doing anything at all according to him. He suggested that I go to a doctor; so I went to my family physician. He's the one that I've gone to all my life, and he said that there was nothing wrong. I told him that I was having headaches and that my allergies were really bothering me. I admitted that I had been kind of nervous. My nerves bother me some. To be honest, there have been times lately when it appears that for no particular reason I start crying. So I guess I am kind of upset, but I didn't know that it was affecting my work. I'm doing just fine at work; I think. So anyway, he said to come over here; but--well, anyway, that's kind of why I'm here. He said to come over here and see if there's something wrong.

T: Do you feel that anything in particular is affecting your work?

C: No--nothing in particular, I guess. I've got a pretty responsible job. I've got to get listings, handle closings, etc. My boss said it just seemed as if I wasn't quite attuned to what I was doing. I don't know. The last two closings I had in the summer--I thought I did just fine. I guess that I made a couple of errors on the contracts. That's no big deal. He just said that I seemed kind of nervous and on edge.

T: You mentioned that you've been going to the same doctor all your life.

C: Yes.

T: For what reasons?

C: Oh, there was one time that I remember--(nervous chuckle)--it was after our high school graduation. We just had a great time. We stayed out all night and I think that I just had a reaction to that. For about a couple of weeks after that, I felt kind of like I was nervous and oh--boy, I just didn't know that was going on. I didn't

---

*Adapted from Gentry, 1982; Proctor, 1982; used by permission.

sleep very well. It wasn't any big deal. My doctor gave me some Valium, but I didn't even take it all. I felt a lot better after that--I didn't go back, not for that anyway.

T: Uh huh. What have you gone back for?

C: Well, a lot of times when it gets really hectic, I get extremely bad headaches. You know, the kind that almost knock you out. Then, my sinuses start acting up. Dr. Anderson says that it's just tension, but I think I have a lot of allergies.

T: Okay. These are some things that have been problems for you; at least that others have commented to you about. Why don't you now tell me what a typical day is like for you.

C: Kind of hectic right now--I'm trying to deal more in commercial properties than I have before. Well--I don't see how this has much to do with anything--well, I guess it might. I'm kind of dating this guy. I was married before and have been divorced for almost a year now. I dated a lot of people for a while, and--his name is Al--and I started dating only him about two-and-a-half months ago. It just kind of evolved into that. Before that I didn't date anyone for very long. We just started seeing each other, and you know how it is. It just kind of evolved into a one-to-one thing. Anyway, I work in the Smith Building, and he works right around the corner and down the street in Market Square. We usually meet at a little cafe for lunch, and the other day--well, that's not true--about two weeks ago, he told me that this new person had come to work for the insurance company. He said that a bunch of people were going to take this new person out to lunch and give her a kind of introduction to the company. Well, that would have been fine with me; but--I don't know--it wasn't just somebody, it was a girl and it wasn't a bunch of them, it was just him. It still didn't bother me much, really. Well, then the next day, he had to go introduce this person to some of the accounts of the realtor that she replaced. We didn't get to eat together again. So, I began to wonder about that. I asked him what this new person was like. He said, 'Oh, she's a nice enough person--

kind of nervous about the new job and all.' But I could tell by the gleam in his eye that there was more to it than that.

T: So you asked Al about these luncheons?

C: Yes!

T: It seems that it bothers you that he went out to lunch with this person.

C: Well! We told each other that we were not going to date anybody else, you know! I kind of felt that he--I wouldn't really call it cheating, but--I really enjoy our lunches together! We sit and talk, you know, share things about what we've done that day. It's just fun and it makes me feel great. It just seems to take a lot of pressure off of me. You know, everybody needs support from someone. It's tough out there, and a lot of times you need a pat on the back. Boy, after something like that, you just feel like you can conquer anything. In fact, if somebody cares about you, that's the main thing that they should give you. You know, really support you and help you through problems.

T: So, you get a lot out of your lunches with Al?

C: Yes!

T: When you talked to Al about his, what was his response?

C: Hmm, I was kind of afraid to bring it up to him at first. After it happened the second time, though, I was fed up! He sort of laughed, and said that I was making a mountain out of a molehill. I don't feel like I am! I feel that there is something going on. He said that I was trying to control him, and that I was being selfish. I just don't feel that's true at all. So we had kind of a big fight and we did a lot of yelling at each other. I guess that I did get pretty upset about that.

T: Did you manage to work things out during this?

C: Oh, I guess so. I don't really remember now.

T: And when you and Al have problems like this, are you usually able to work them out?

C: Oh, that's a problem in itself. I blow off steam and then I feel great. The problems are no longer an issue then, but he'll just nag at it. You know, that kind of reminds me--John used to bug the heck out of me with that same kind of thing.

T: John?

C: My ex-husband. He used to just work things to death before he felt like things were solved. You can't just get it out of your system and go on. You have to work it to death.

T: Perhaps we ought to talk about your marriage. Tell me something about that time.

C: Oh, O.K. Let's see. I met John in the summer of my junior year in college. We got married after graduation. He was a business major. I met him because we took some courses together in the marketing department. He was a very attractive guy. We dated all that year and then got married. Our marriage was fantastic at first, but it sure went to hell later. Mostly because of arguments. I remember that I wanted a new car after we got married. So I went out and I bought one. Boy, it was a great car. John just blew up when I got home with it. He said we couldn't afford a new car then, but we had the money. We were both working; oh, it made things kind of tight, I guess. He said that I was inconsiderate of him, but I wanted a new car then. I need one in my profession. You can't have just any car; you need a really sharp one. John said I was just selfish; boy, I don't know how I got on to all of this. Anyway, I guess it's kind of the same thing that Al says to me; and I just don't understand what they're talking about. They just beat stuff to death, and I feel like you can just let that sort of stuff go.

T: Hmm hm. Besides finances, were there any other problems in your marriage?

C: Yes, I put a lot of importance in my job, and I think that John couldn't understand that. He kept saying that I didn't pay any attention to him, and that I was always at work. He said that I seemed like I enjoyed my job more than I enjoyed him, and I guess there were some other problems.

T: Other problems?

C: Oh, I guess the biggest one was that he kept saying that he'd like to have a family and we'd discussed that before we got married. We were going to wait until we were at the point where we'd have time to raise a family. I just didn't feel like that was the time. Hey, kids are nice, but we still had car payments and were talking about buying a house.

T: So you felt that having a child would be too large a financial burden?

C: I didn't think that we could afford it. It's a big sacrifice to have children. Do you know what it costs to raise a child now? I just didn't feel like it was the thing to do right then. There were still a lot of other things that I wanted to do.

T: I see.

C: Those were the kind of things--you know, that hounding and nagging--the same old things. You know, these same problems kept coming up and coming up. Then it finally just got to be too much.

T: I see. Which of the two of you initiated the divorce?

C: Oh, I finally went ahead and filed. I just couldn't handle it anymore. You know, if you're just going to beat things to death--I felt like I wasn't going to stay in that relationship. It would've just totally wrecked me! There were too many demands, and I just decided that I wasn't going to take it.

T: I realize that sometimes it's difficult to talk about these things, but there may be information here that would help us work together on your situation. Could you tell me some more about the divorce? Was it friendly or difficult?

C: Oh, I thought it was just fine. It wasn't the happiest thing that ever occurred, but one day I just got my stuff and left.

T: Uh huh, so it was fairly quick?

C: Oh, yes, I just--we had argued one day and I just went down to my

lawyer and said draw it up! Then I went home, packed my stuff and left.

T: Were the divorce proceedings themselves fairly amiable?

C: It was for me! I just totally had my lawyer deal with the whole thing.

T: O.K. Well, we've covered your marriage and divorce. What was life like after that?

C: It was a ball! I just had a fantastic time--a lot of fun! I dated a different person nearly every night. You meet a lot of different people in this city anyway. In my profession, a lot of the people that I deal with are male; and it was just a lot of fun. I did a lot of partying.

T: Uh huh, you've been dating the same person, Al, for some time now though?

C: Yes, about two or three months now.

T: O.K. I think that we're back to the present and the reasons for your coming in today. Um, you're having some problems at work, your supervisor has mentioned this to you anyway. How long have these problems been going on? Is this fairly recent?

C: No, I think that I've been a kind of a tense person for a long time. It's very hard for me to relax. I don't remember--I do remember something now! When I was in college, a lot of times I would find myself daydreaming. It was really difficult to concentrate. That's something that I've felt for a long time. It's extremely hard for me to just relax. I get so bored and then kind of anxious or something. I really enjoy doing a lot of different things all the time.

T: What was happening at your work, or with Al, just prior to your supervisor mentioning your problems at work?

C: Nothing! Well, not a lot; it's just that thing about Al going to lunch with that girl. That bothers me--our lunches together really mean a lot to me! I'd like to see the look on his face if I would

get killed in a car wreck or something. That would change his tune! He'd see how much he would miss me!

T: So that would show him how important your relationship is to both of you?

C: Yes, I don't think he knows that.

APPENDIX D

INSTRUCTIONS TO SUBJECTS

Instructions to Subjects

Hello, my name is _____. I want to thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. I am going to play a tape which I would like you to listen to very carefully. After it is finished playing, I'll pass out a form for you to complete regarding what you have heard, along with a pencil if you need one.

Do not put your name on the form. We are interested in your responses to the tape as a group and have no need to identify you individually.

This entire process should take only 15 or 20 minutes. Please listen carefully and do not talk to anyone else until we are finished. Let me remind you that you have the right to not participate in this study or to withdraw from it while we are here if you desire. I'll be happy to answer any questions you may have about this research after we have finished. (Pause 5 seconds, then read introduction using either line I Supervised, or line II Non-Supervised.)

The tape you are about to hear is a portion of a counseling session between a Ph.D. counseling psychologist and client. It is the client's first visit to the psychologist's office.

Jane Smith, the client, has been referred to Dr. Johnson by her family physician who believes that at least part of Smith's problems may be of a psychological nature.

Doctor Johnson sees clients at the mental health facility five days a week in addition to working on research, teaching part time at a nearby college, and attending regular . . .

I. (Supervised Counselor)

. . . required clinical supervision sessions with a more senior and experienced staff member at the mental health facility.

II. (Non-Supervised Counselor)

. . . meetings of a local Music Appreciation group.

Please listen carefully and try to imagine yourself as a potential client of Dr. Johnson.

(After reading introduction, begin tape.)

(At end of tape distribute rating form and pencils.)

(After all subjects are finished ratings, collect the forms, then say): The tape you have just heard was a role-play interaction portrayed by actors.

(Briefly outline objectives of the study.)

Does anyone have any questions?

(Answer questions.)

We have not finished gathering our data yet, so please do not discuss what we have done with anyone else for a few days, until we are finished with all of our subjects. If anyone feels negatively affected by the experience of hearing the tape or filling out the forms, please tell me about it as soon as I have dismissed the group. I'll be around for a little while and will be happy to talk to anyone individually about what we have done. If any of you would like a summary of the results of this study, they should be available around the end of the semester and we'll be happy to send you a copy. You can request a copy from John Cummins through the ABSED department.

Thank you for your participation. You are dismissed.

APPENDIX E

PERMISSION TO USE CRF-S

OSU

The Ohio State University

Department of Physical Medicine
Dodd Hall
472 West 8th Avenue
Columbus, Ohio 43210-1290
Phone 614-421-3801

December 6, 1984

John M. Cummins
University of Oklahoma
Counseling Center
731 Elm Avenue, H325
Norman, Oklahoma 73019

Dear Mr. Cummins:

Enclosed you will find a copy of the CRF-S, as described in the 1983 JCP article. You have my permission to use the CRF-S in your doctoral dissertation. I would appreciate a copy of the results when available.

Good luck,

John D. Corrigan, Ph.D.
Assistant Professor

APPENDIX F

PERMISSION TO USE SIMULATED TAPE INTERVIEW

SHADOW MOUNTAIN INSTITUTE

A division of Dillon Family and Youth Services Inc

6262 S. Sheridan Road
Tulsa, Oklahoma 74133
Telephone: (918) 492-8200

January 16, 1985

John Cummins
1121 E. Brooks
Apt. #3
Norman, Oklahoma 73071

To Whom It May Concern:

I hereby give my permission for John Cummins to use materials, i.e., the tape script from my dissertation, in his research.

Sincerely,

Noble L. Proctor, Ph.D.

Noble L. Proctor, Ph.D.

NLP/bw

AUTHORIZATION

I do hereby authorize Mr. John Cummins to duplicate materials used in the development of my dissertation. These materials include but are not limited to: scripts, audio-tapes, questionnaires, etc.

William C. Gentry, Ph.D.

WCG/jab

Vita 2

John Michael Cummins

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: THE EFFECTS OF REQUIRED SUPERVISION, AND COUNSELOR AND CLIENT GENDER ON THE CLIENT'S PERCEPTION OF THE COUNSELOR'S INTERPERSONAL INFLUENCE

Major Field: Applied Behavioral Studies

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Tulsa, Oklahoma, August 19, 1945, the son of George E. and Bettye J. Cummins. Married to Virginia D. Llanso on July 15, 1978.

Education: Graduated from Daniel Webster High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, in May, 1963; attended Claremore Junior College, Claremore, Oklahoma, and received the Associate Degree from Tulsa Junior College, Tulsa, Oklahoma, in May, 1974; received the Bachelor of Science degree, with a major in Psychology, from Oklahoma State University, in May, 1978; received the Master of Science degree, with a major in Student Personnel and Guidance, from Oklahoma State University in May, 1982; completed requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State University in July, 1985.

Professional Experience: Volunteer Counselor with the Payne County Volunteer Program for Misdemeanants, Stillwater, Oklahoma, February, 1981, to April, 1982; Case Manager and Counselor in three satellite offices of the Bi-State Mental Health Foundation, Ponca City, Oklahoma, July, 1981, to July, 1984; Predoctoral Intern at the University of Oklahoma Counseling Center, Norman, Oklahoma, August, 1984, to August, 1985.