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LA THÈSE A ÉTÉ
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Counselor Development:
Longitudinal Study of the Association
Between Trainee Effectiveness and
Supervisory Relationship

Robert E. Napier

Thesis presented to the School
of Graduate Studies of the
University of Ottawa, as partial
fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of Ph.D.

Ottawa, Canada, 1979



Curriculum Studiorum

Robert E. Napier was born March 10, 1951, in Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. He earned the Bachelor of Science degree from Michigan State University and the Masters of Arts Degree from the University of Ottawa. The title of his Masters Thesis was Egocentrism-Anxiety: A Concept of Counselor Trainee Development.

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ABSTRACT

The importance of the facilitative conditions in the supervisory relationship for trainee development has been demonstrated (Pierce and Schauble, 1970). This study investigated the facilitative level of the supervisor with the trainee, and it's relationship to trainee facilitative level with clients.

Following the Carkhuff Model of Human Nourishment the perceptions of the "Changee" in a facilitative relationship were considered to be of prime importance in producing positive change. It therefore followed that if the object of the clinical practicum is to help the trainee change into an effective change agent, then the perceptions of the trainee of the facilitative conditions offered to the trainee by the supervisor should have a relationship to the trainees' ability to be facilitative to the client. Intern satisfaction with the supervisor, as well as with the internship center, were also studied in relation to intern facilitative level with clients.

Satisfaction with the supervisor was measured by a modified satisfaction scale of the Counselor Evaluation Inventory (CEI). Intern satisfaction with the practicum center was measured by a five-point satisfaction scale. The supervisor's facilitativeness was measured by the Relationship Inventory (RI). The intern's (N = 20) ability to give facilitative conditions (Empathy-Peak, Empathy-Average and Following Behavior) to a client were obtained from rated segments of actual therapy tapes taken over a twenty-week internship period. The independent variables, RI, CEI, and satisfaction questionnaire were related to the three dependent variables (Empathy-Peak, Empathy-Average and Following Behavior) by a multivariate analysis of variance procedure.

A significant relationship was found between the intern's ability

to offer facilitative conditions to a client over a twenty-week period and the level of facilitative conditions offered by the supervisor to the intern. There was also a significant relationship found between the intern's degree of satisfaction with the internship center and the intern's ability to offer facilitative conditions to a client when the intern's original internship expectations were taken into consideration.

The results were discussed in terms of the importance of the supervisory relationship, the interns' expectations of the internship, and a critical minimum length for an internship.

The trainer-trainee relationship is an important part of clinical psychology training programs. The effects of didactic and experiential supervisory strategies have been examined alone and in combination. The integrative didactic experiential supervisory strategy places the emphasis both on the cognitive learning by the supervisee and the experiential emphasis of the affective components.

After Truax, Carkhuff and Douds (1964) presented an integration of the didactic-experiential supervisory strategies, Carkhuff and Truax (1965), Butler and Hansen (1973) and Goldfarb (1978) gave evidence of the effectiveness of the didactic-experiential approach.

Theoretically, the effectiveness of the experiential approach lies in the helping model of Carkhuff and Berensen (1968). The therapeutic process of the helping model incorporates experiential exploration, understanding and action (the model is further elaborated in the first chapter). The essential components of the helping model are the core conditions for therapeutic change, empathy, positive regard, genuineness, and concreteness. It is these qualities in the therapist-client relationship that are equally applicable to the trainer-trainee relationship. In particular, it is the level of empathy (facilitative responding) on the part of the supervisor

that directly influences the trainee's level of facilitative responding and effectiveness with clients. This study investigates the differential effects of the perception of graduate students in clinical psychology with regards to their trainers' level of facilitative responding and how it affects the trainees' growth as measured by their own level of facilitative responding.

The first section of the following chapter elaborates on the helping model of Carkhuff and Berenson. The second section critically evaluates the didactic, experiential and didactic-experiential strategies to supervision and the final section presents a statement of the problem and the hypotheses.

The first section will describe the "human nourishment" model of Carkhuff and Berenson (1977) by first defining (1) the helper dimensions of empathy, respect and positive regard, genuineness and concreteness and (2) the helpee dimensions of exploration, understanding and action. The model of human nourishment and the implications for the therapeutic process and the trainer-trainee relationship are then discussed.

Dimensions of Human Nourishment

Thirty to fifty percent of all children in the United States are sufficiently maladjusted and may be classified in any one or all of the following categories: petty crime, vocational failure, chronic unemployment, emotional instability, marital unhappiness or divorce and other areas of failure in our social system (Rogers, 1957). These statistics were obtained twenty years ago and they look worse today (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977).

Those who seek counseling can be described as being unable to find sources of human nourishment in their everyday lives. Nourishment can be viewed in terms of parenting where there was none, teaching where there was little and helping because it promises so much. Consequently, a large number of people turn to the "healthy" and "knowing" professionals.

In counseling and therapy, the consequences may be constructive or deteriorative on intellectual, emotional and physical functioning. In perspective, the facilitative or retarding affects can be accounted for by a core of dimensions that are shared by all interactive human processes, which are independent of any theoretical orientation (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977).

These core dimensions are empathy, positive regard, genuineness and concreteness which are offered by those persons designated as "more knowing" or helpers. The recipients of these dimensions are the "less knowing" or helpless who can explore and experience himself in a helping relationship.

Helper-Dimensions:

Although the core conditions are often taught as techniques, the dimensions are integral parts of the human personality. It has been demonstrated that the core dimensions are at high levels in the healthy personality and at low levels in the unhealthy person (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1967). Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) have hypothesized that the level at which an individual functions with others reflects the level of the individual's attitudes and comprehension of his or her self. (The individual's lack of understanding and attitudes toward his or her self underscore the need for levels of minimally facilitative conditions. The individual's lack of understanding and attitudes towards others underscores the need for training in the discrimination and communication of high levels of condition, even for those individuals who have healthy attitudes and understanding of themselves, and especially for those who wish to function in a helping role.) A brief description on the core condition follows.

Empathy: In the case of empathic understanding, the helper strives to respond with great frequency to the helpee's deeper feelings as well as to the superficial feelings. Empathy reveals important dynamics which demonstrate the underlying understanding of both oneself as well as the individual being helped. The helper's effectiveness is related to his continuous depth of understanding rather than his ability to "technique it" during early phases of therapy. There appears to be an optimal amount

of empathy which creates a needed psychological tension which generates a process of constructive change (Bordin, 1955; Welber, 1954). Thus as the helper proceeds with high empathy levels, the helpee is enabled to explore previously unexplored areas of human living and human relationships, providing the helpee with the experiential base for change. With empathic communication skills, the helper can transcend the feelings of alienation and isolation which is characteristically felt by a person in need of help. In the context of the understanding relationship, the helpee is aided in clearing up distorted perceptions and their underlying assumptions effecting corrective actions and constructive change.

Truax and Carkhuff (1967) have emphasized that empathy is the convergence of client-centered and psychoanalytic thinking; that is, the measures of empathy are most highly predictive of change integrating the client-centered notion of the reflection of feelings and the analytic emphasis upon diagnostic accuracy. There is evidence to suggest that the mode of communicating empathic understanding which approximates the depth reflections of the client-centered school and the interpretation of the psychoanalytic orientation appears to have the greatest potential efficiency.

The emphasis of empathy is upon movement to levels of feeling and experience deeper than those communicated by the helpee, yet within the range of expression that the client can constructively employ in an effective manner. It is dependent on the helper's ability to allow himself to experience what the helpee is experiencing

and to reflect that experience without giving judgment.

Respect and Positive Regard: Respect originates in the amount of respect the helper has for himself. One cannot respect the feelings and experience of another if he or she does not respect the feelings and experience of one self. Raush and Borden (1957) give three critical components to the communication of positive regard: 1) helper's commitment, 2) the effort to understand, and 3) spontaneity. It is the helper's effort to understand which communicates respect and is a major tie between helper and helpee.

Respect may be transmitted in many modalities and must not necessarily be confined to warm modulated tones of voice. It may also be communicated in anger as well as in other forms of expression. In the final analysis, however, it is the helpee's experience of the expression that counts, and the helpee may experience the helper's attempts to share his or her own experience fully as an indication of the helper's respect for the helpee's level of development.

Genuineness: Genuineness is the degree to which the helper's statements appear to reflect his true feelings (Barrett-Lennard, 1962). The base of the entire helping relationship is the establishment of a genuine relationship between helper and helpee (Truax, Carkhuff, 1967). It includes the ability of the helper to be honest with him or her self, and thus with the helpee which establishes the base relationship.

The emphasis upon the helper being freely and deeply himself

does require one important stipulation which is if the helper's response to the helpee is negative, the helper must make an effort to employ his response in a constructive fashion. This also means that if the psyche of the helpee is in such a state where criticism would be of no use to the helpee or even detrimental, then it is the helper's responsibility to withhold his or her feelings until a more receptive time.

Concreteness: Concreteness or specificity of expression involves the fluent, direct and complete expression of specific feelings and experiences, regardless of their emotional content by both helper and helpee. This dimension serves three basic functions. First, it ensures that the helpee's concrete responses do not become too far removed emotionally from the helpee's feelings and experiences. Second, it aids the helper to be more accurate in his understanding of the client putting things more in operational terms to prevent misunderstandings. Last, concreteness aids the helper to attend specifically to problem areas and conflicts.

Helpee Dimensions:

The activities of the helpee are similar to those of the helper. Thus, the helpee, facilitated by the helper's role as both model and agent, becomes openly and deeply himself or herself in the relationship. The helpee is able to explore, understand and finally take action for a positive change.

Exploration: The dimensions of self exploration is the first and perhaps most important activity in the helping process. It is

the phase in which the helpee will, with the helper's responsiveness, come to have a more complete and intense grasp of his or her experience. The helpee is freed to experience and experiment with him or her self and thus gets to know him or her self in different ways in relation to the world.

Exploration is in part under the control of both helper and helpee (Carkhuff, 1969). When the helper raises or lowers the level of interpersonal facilitation, most helpees raise or lower their level of self exploration.

Understanding: The next dimension of helpee change is understanding the exploration. The basic foundation for understanding rests upon insights at which stimuli will increase the probability that a specific behavior will occur. What he or she wants to understand is in relation to where he or she wants to be.

Action: The final component to trainee change is action. However, action does not necessarily follow insight for they are not developed sequentially. Each part of explored material is not utilized as a base for the next level of understanding. What is required is a systematic actions program that flows from systematically developed insight (Carkhuff, 1971). Thus, the helpee is provided with the opportunity to acquire experience in developing a relevant course of action and in trying out new behaviors to implement that course of action. Understanding does not translate into behavior change unless both insights and actions are systematically developed.

Model of Human Nourishment

The central process in any helping relationship is the transformation of a person with a limited set of responses (the helpee) into an individual with an extensive set of responses (the helper). Therefore, the focus is helping the helpee to become the helper.

A limited repertoire of responses gets the helpee into trouble in normal situations. On the other hand, an extensive repertoire aids the helpee to stay out of trouble freeing the individual to emerge as a fully functioning and true human being.

If the helpees are to gain an extensive repertoire of responses and become fully functioning, then the helper must already have the extensive repertoire and already be "making it" in life. The helper must already have developed a high quality and quantity of responses in all areas of living, learning and working. The helper must already have in his repertoire the needed responses in life that will enable another person to expand the quantity and quality of their responses.

The identification, definition, and testing of the core dimensions previously mentioned provide the basis for establishing a model for helping and thus training. It is based on the phases of helping and learning that the helpee goes through: exploration, understanding, and action (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977).

"In other words, with a change or gain in behavior as the goal of helping, the helpee must act in some way to demonstrate the change or gain. Whether the helping process begins

with the behavior and is recycled through exploration and understanding in order to consolidate the behavior change or begins with exploring and proceeds through understanding to action is not critical. What is critical is that the phases of helping are recycled in an on-going learning process and that the helper has the skills to facilitate the helpee's movement through these phases (Carkhuff, 1972, p. 14)."

To demonstrate change, the helpee must first explore where he or she is in relationship to the world. That is, the helpee explores from his or her own frame of reference and then from an external frame of reference as well.

The functional purpose of exploration is understanding. The individual explores the world to grasp where he or she wants to be in relationship to the world. This means defining and operationalizing objective goals from an external frame of reference as well as developing values and desires that dictate those goals.

Finally, understanding is instrumental for action. The helpee explores and understands so that he or she can act to get what is desired. This phase of learning emphasizes the development and implementation of the devised program of steps of action which enables the helpee to achieve the individual's goals.

The helpee's behavior then provides feedback which is recycled to stimulate further and expanded exploration which gives further understanding and finally further effective action.

To develop a model for human nourishment, there must be a focus upon helping skills that the helper needs to facilitate the helpee's movements through the phases of helping. Helpee

exploration, understanding and action become the process criteria that serve to guide the helper's efforts in helping. He must draw upon his helping skills only as he has successfully completed each one of these phases of learning (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1977). This model of human nourishment is based on an extensive factor analysis studying the dimensions of helping (Berenson and Mitchell, Langley, 1968; Carkhuff, 1969). The results obtained were two sets of activities that helper and helpee engage in during helping.

The helpee as previously indicated engages in exploration, understanding and action. The helper utilizes two sets of helping skills in facilitating helpee movement (Carkhuff, 1972). Carkhuff and Berenson (1977) call these responsive and initiative skills.

Responsive skills are based on the helpee's experience and the helper's skill to discriminate and communicate accurately an understanding of the experience.

Initiative skills are based on the helper's experience of the helpee's experience. This means the helper must filter out the helpee's distorted perceptions of his experience through the helper's undistorted perceptions of the helpee's experience.

One is not possible without the other. At the highest level, responsiveness is important because it aids the helpee to act or respond to his or her experiences. One cannot accurately understand without experiencing one's responses.

At the highest level, initiative is responsiveness because action programs are not helpful unless they are based on understanding.

Responsiveness uses the dimensions of helper empathy and respect. It emphasizes responding to the helper's experience at the level at which the helpee experiences his environment.

Initiation employs the dimensions of helpee's genuineness and concreteness. It emphasizes the helpee's utilization of the helper's experience and employs it in developing his or her own experience and in developing goals and action steps to gain desired movement.

Human nourishment is then a function of the helper's ability to attend and respond to the helpee's experience to personalize the helpee's understanding of his goals and to concretize the helpee's action steps to achieve the desired goals (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977).

The helpee seeks aid in dealing with problems he or she is unable to handle. The helper breaks through the helpee's feelings of isolation and helplessness by attending to the helpee's feelings. The principle of reciprocal affect operates in which the helpee invests his or her self to the extent in which the helper is willing to invest his or her self. The helpee begins to become involved with the helping process. The helpee brings forth relevant personal information. The helper stimulates and reinforces the exploration of material by responding to the helpee at the level the helpee has explored himself. As the process continues, the helpee increases the exploration of the self with emotional proximity to the material being shared. In a highly facilitative atmosphere, the helpee's anxiety decreases due to counter conditioning and the helpee gets the first

clear picture of where he or she is in relation to his or her world.

Due to the understanding relationship, hope is introduced and positive experiences are established. Goals are set and courses of action to achieve those goals are considered. The helpee understands where he or she is in relation to where he or she wants to be in the world (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977).

Finally, the helper, through accurate statements of understanding, is a potent reinforcer for the helpee and the helpee's movement toward positive change. The helper is both model as well as an agent for the helpee's gain. The helpee finds in the helper things that he requires for positive growth. The helper helps the helpee achieve things by developing programs to implement the preferred courses of action to achieve the helpee's goals. The helpee knows how to act to get from where he or she is to where he or she wants to be.

The goal of this model is to equip the helpee with a large repertoire of effective physical, emotional, interpersonal, and intellectual responses so that he or she can live, learn and work effectively and hence, be a helper. In order to do this, those designated as trainees must acquire a large repertoire of effective physical, emotional, interpersonal, and intellectual responses along with the specialty skills needed to design and implement effective training programs.

Recent attempts have been made to develop an approach to supervision of training that integrates both the didactic intellectual approach (with an emphasis upon theoretic learning) and an experiential-accepting approach (with the emphasis being on the trainee's

personal growth and development). This integrative approach attempts to optimize the level at which the trainee communicates empathy, unconditional positive regard, genuineness and concreteness to patients. This approach encourages communication of genuine aspects of the therapist himself via the core conditions and facilitates a growth-producing interpersonal relationship free of threat. In other words, according to the integrative model, the highly effective therapist is one who can induce trust, facilitate the client's self-revelations, self-discovery, self-integration and the process of decision making and acting in the real world.

The skill of effective interpersonal relationships has not often been integrated into training programs (either didactic or experiential) but rather the emphasis has been on understanding the patient (psychodynamics, etc.). In effect, training programs provide trainees with a model of how to be a patient and not how to be an effective therapist when relating to "real" patients.

Evidence for the efficacy of existing training programs is scarce. If, as postulated above, empathy, non-possessive warmth and genuineness are core conditions for effective therapeutic change, training programs should initially focus much of their attention on the understanding and implementation of these conditions.

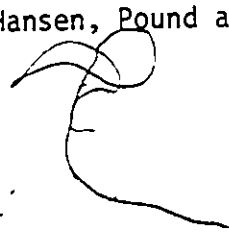
The following section will closely examine and critically evaluate the didactic and experiential approaches to supervision. This will be followed by a discussion of the integrative approach described above.

Two Approaches to Supervision

Two major orientations towards supervision appear to have evolved. The first major orientation is that of the didactic or an information-giving orientation whereby the supervisor is seen as a teacher in instructing the trainee on the use of skills and techniques to be used in the counseling session. The other orientation is the experiential tradition where the supervisory process is viewed as being parallel to the therapeutic process in which the trainee needs to experience a facilitative relationship with the supervisor. Although both orientations have the same goal; i.e., developing a competent change agent, their means of obtaining that goal is theoretically quite different. The didactic orientation leads to a viewpoint that all the neophyte counselor requires to become effective is knowledge which can be gained from a competent teacher. The experiential orientation views the requirements of a good therapist as one who has experientially matured to a level of competence which cannot be gained from teaching alone but requires facilitative relationship with the supervisor.

Didactic Approach to Supervision:

The didactic approach is based on the assumptions that established educational principles are an effective means of changing undesirable behavior of the trainee (Watson and Anchor, 1974). There have been many varied approaches to didactic approaches such as instruction, modeling, feedback contingent reinforcement, discrimination learning done by both supervisors and peers, (Eigenberg, 1973; Hansen, Pound and Petrol, 1976; Payne,



Winten and Bell, 1972; Hodge, Payne and Wheeler, 1978). The learning approach reinforces the trainee when he has made an appropriate response, and gives him adequate feedback when he is in error. The use of this approach also lends itself more easily to the scrutiny of empirical research. Truax and Carkhuff (1967) have been able to demonstrate that it is possible to train both graduate students as well as lay personnel to function at levels of empathy comparable to experienced therapists in less than one hundred hours of training. Butler and Hansen (1973) were able to increase levels of facilitation from written and oral modes of training in just ten hours of training. Rank, Thorenson and Smith (1972) list a number of successful systematic training programs used to enhance facilitative skills.

Some of the main proponents of the didactic approach are Thorne (1950), Wolberg (1954), Walz and Roeber (1962), Clark (1965), and Mazer and Engle (1968). They basically suggest that the teacher-supervisor brings to bear in supervision a wealth of knowledge and experience which may be passed on to the trainee. Mazer and Engle (1968) state that the practicum supervisor is a teacher who imparts knowledge or skills toward a learner and if the supervisor should refuse the teaching role, he is denying the existence of standards of counseling performance plus denying the right of the intern to have access to these standards. Studies by Delaney and Moore (1966), Gysbers and Johnston (1965), Miller and Oetting (1966) have all demonstrated that the students

(at least in the early phases of a practicum) welcome direction and structure. Mazer and Engle (1968), proponents of the didactic approach, do not deny the affective aspect of supervision. They add that the teachers should provide a relationship for the expression of feelings on the part of the students as well as for personal growth.

In conclusion, the didactic approach is a form of supervision which aims at modifying the "conscious" efforts of the trainee into a preset mode of correct responses. This form of supervision teaches basic skills and techniques to the trainee which are important for helping the client gain positive growth. Ronnestad (1977) in reviewing the literature stated that the didactic approach appears to be more effective in aiding the intern to gain skills when compared to the experiential approach.

Critique of Didactic Supervision:

In all, the didactic approach has been empirically demonstrated to be an effective and expedient way to teach important therapeutic skills to the trainee. If a new therapist encounters an anxiety producing situation in therapy his anxiety may be significantly reduced if he has an arsenal of learned skills in which to rely upon.

There are, however, a number of difficulties which are found with a purely didactic approach to supervision. Mahon and Altman (1977) found the retention of skills taught from a straight didactic approach to be quite low and suggest that there may be too

much of an emphasis on developing skills as opposed to developing an intern. The intern will not always have the supervisor to guide him. If the trainee has not had the opportunity to think for himself when encountering novel situations, he may not be able to do so when on his own.

Another problem is that the didactic approach does not allow the trainee to experience conditions of self-exploration (Watson and Anchor, 1974). In the experiential approach to supervision, which will be discussed next, the intern is able to bounce ideas, feelings and experiences off the supervisor which does not occur in a strict didactic approach. Truax, Carkhuff and Douds (1964) argued that the conditions, techniques and attitudes which the trainee is taught by the supervisor in a didactic approach are exactly not the conditions and attitudes which a supervisor should impose on the trainee because of the possible re-enactment of the supervisor's behavior with the client.

There appears to be an assumption made by the didactic orientation which may not be true. The approach seems to imply that undesirable behavior on the part of the intern can be changed by simply new training. In circumstances where the intern does not know any better or is naive, this may be true. What if, however, the inappropriate behavior is due to an ever so slight personality characteristic which resists change from a didactic approach? The experiential orientation appears to take this resistance to change into consideration.

A last difficulty of didactically based supervision is the possibility that the supervisor's teachings might be inappropriate or not correspond with the personality or style of the trainee. It is hypothesized that the trainee may become dogmatic in the use of his acquired skills, using them inappropriately. A purely didactic approach may also inhibit the trainee's creative and natural ability to develop his own style and approach to counseling (Sanderson, 1954).

The next section will cover the experiential orientation to supervision followed by a critique of the approach.

Experiential Approach to Supervision:

The experiential concept emphasizes the development of the trainee as a person. In this approach, the practicum is geared toward counselor growth and development via therapeutic conditions offered by the supervisor. This concept can be linked to Freud who observed that a counselor's lack of insight into his own psychological processes is an important source of distortion in his own perceptions of the client (Allen, 1967). This has been endorsed by writers outside the psychoanalytic tradition as well as with professionals such as Rogers (1957) and Tyler (1961).

The general principle which seems to apply here is that if the climate of the teaching situation, and the relationship between the teacher and the beginning counselor, are the same as the climate and the relationship which exist in therapy, then the young therapist will begin to acquire a knowledge in his viscera of what the therapeutic experience is (Rogers, 1957, p. 81).

In all, according to Rogers, the effectiveness of supervision depends on the relationship between the intern and the supervisor.

Rogers (1957) further adds:

The student should develop his own orientation to psychotherapy out of his own experience. In my estimation, every effective therapist has built his own orientation to therapy within himself and out of his own experience with his clients or patients....the aim of a training program in therapy should be to turn out individuals who have an independent and open attitude toward their own experience in working with clients. If this is achieved, they can continually formulate and reformulate and revise their own approach to the individuals with whom they are working in such a way that their approach results in more constructive and effective help (p. 87).

The whole goal of training should be to free the trainee to be himself and be more human (Kell and Mueller, 1966). Good preparation not only enables counselors to be more human, but helps them to know their own strengths, weaknesses, conflicts, and needs which can potentially be either harmful or helpful to the client (Rogers, 1975). Thorne (1967) stated that if there is a discrepancy between the actual and ideal self, there may be anxiety and detrimental effects in the therapist's ability to do therapy. This implies that the therapist should know himself.

Arbuckle (1968) said that the goal of graduate training is not to have a skilled technician, but to have a human being who is self-actualized and capable of working effectively with others to help them realize more fully their potential.

Altucher (1967) noted that the new intern lacks experience

and knowledge in the novel counseling situation (as noted with the didactic approach). He also noted that a second source of difficulty is that the counselor's own characteristic patterns of behavior may be a hindrance in paying attention to the client and may possibly block his understanding and communication to the patient. He said that the major assumption underlying supervision is that practicum learning is both an intellectual and emotional experience with the major emphasis being emotional. If the intern's emotional experience in supervision does have a significant effect on the trainee's growth and development as a counselor as hypothesized by Altucher, then the supervisor must not only be a teacher, but be therapeutic with the intern as well. Again, the relationship appears to be the key.

In 1963, Arbuckle made a number of suggestions for supervision, many of which imply that the supervisory situation should be treated similarly to that of the counseling situation. He suggested that the counselor-trainer should be consistent in dealing with the trainee as he would with a client.

If one operates in a certain manner with a client because he feels that this is the way he can be of greatest help to the client, then how can he justify his operating in an almost dramatically opposite fashion with a student counselor? (p. 166)

Arbuckle argued that the learning process of both client and intern is no different although one may be more stable than the other. Wiles and Lovell (1975) agree with Arbuckle concerning

supervision affecting trainee growth. They argue that the supervisor's role is not so much to be a formal leader, but to facilitate the release of the human potential for an increase in the potential for a heightening of human interaction which is necessary for counseling.

Arbuckle suggested that the supervisor help the trainer to learn about himself.

Much of what is talked about in a counseling practicum can be understood only in terms of the counseling experience, and this is usually far more a matter of feelings and emotions and trauma than is a didactic discussion. (p. 167)

Arbuckle recommended that the supervisor be non-evaluative just as one is with a client. He does recognize the difficulty in this area in which the supervisor is ("with some justification") the evaluator of the trainee's effectiveness. He also recognizes the problem of the student's tendency to project oneself and the supervisor into the teacher-student role.

Arbuckle further suggested that the supervisor be doing therapy with clients as well, so that he is less apt to be critical when the trainee encounters difficulty with a client.

In summary, the experiential orientation sees the practicum as both an intellectual as well as an emotional experience. The emphasis is on the emotional growth and development of the trainee which is initiated through a facilitative and possibly therapeutic relationship with the supervisor. In many ways the supervisor is a therapist to the intern in which his dealings with

the student are similar in nature as his dealings are with a client; i.e., a helping relationship. The role of the supervisor is to facilitate the release of the intern's human potential for an increase in the potential for a heightening of human interaction which they feel is necessary for counseling. They downplay the importance of a straight teaching approach theory that human growth is gained through the experience of a facilitative relationship and not training.

Critique of Experiential Approach to Supervision:

One drawback to the experiential approach is the fact that the supervisor having worked with the trainee must evaluate him as mentioned earlier by Arbuckle. Bonny and Gazda (1966) discussed the dilemma that the supervisor is often in. There is the social responsibility of the supervisor to ensure that he or she does not grant professional degrees to individuals who could cause harm to an individual through incompetence. There is also the "authoritarian" atmosphere of a graduate education program which is often perceived by the student. The supervisor is put in the position of having constant and complete evaluation powers which may make a mere suggestion appear as a command to the trainee. A further tragedy may appear when the student hesitates in entering personal counseling due to the fear of being seen as weak by staff and peers. As Bonny and Gazda (1966) pointed out, the counseling community is small and respect of colleagues is highly valued.

There have been a number of suggestions on how to overcome the problem of evaluation by the supervisor. Arbuckle (1967) suggested that another supervisor rate the intern. Truax, Carkhuff and Douds (1964) suggested an evaluation of the trainee's performance via the use of scales which have been proven adequately reliable and valid. However, regardless of how well the supervisor has been removed from evaluation, the student will always be wondering how his supervisor feels about his performance.

Arbuckle (1967) later made the following comments:

No matter what scales are used, the supervisor,, in his human relationship with the student counselor, has an evaluative role. The stress should be on helping the student counselor to learn to be able to live, and to be honest, and to be free, in a human relationship which is therapeutic, but in which there is also an element of risk. The supervisor may be compassionate, warm and understanding, but openness and honesty with him is more risky. Self-congruence on the part of the supervisor surely demands that he does not deliberately lull the student counselor into a comfortable, but false sense of security. (p. 92)

In all, the experiential orientation places a strong emphasis on the experience the trainee encounters from the facilitative relationship offered by the supervisor.

Evaluation of Didactic and Experiential Approach:

The research of the two theoretical approaches has been inconclusive at best. Payne and Graliski (1968); Payne, Winter and Bell (1972); Payne, Weiss and Kapp (1972); Hansen and Warner (1971); Hansen, Pound and Petro (1976) made comparisons between the didactic

and experiential approach in terms of learning empathy. They found that trainees who were in the didactically oriented group learned empathy significantly better than those in the experientially oriented groups. However, Selfridge, Abramowitz, Abramowitz, Weitz, Calabria and Steger (1975) found that if one added an encounter group to the practicum, the trainees were able to give the "core facilitative conditions" significantly better than those who were not in the sensitivity group. This makes it obvious that although the understanding of a trainee is important, the intern needs instruction for therapy. They concluded that interpersonal learning occurs in a sensitivity context rather than in a didactic context. Silverman (1972) investigated the difference between the "didactic-behavioristic" approach and that of the "experiential-introspective" approach and found that the experiential approach was somewhat more successful in fostering an effective relationship. In reviewing the literature on supervision (1960 to 1969) Hansen and Warner (1971) said that we have learned very little from what has been done in the area due to poor forethought and design. They concluded that counselor-trainees do change during the practicum but the reasons are still unclear.

Summary of the Didactic and Experiential Approach:

Both didactic and experiential approaches appear to leave out important theoretical and empirical data in their view of what is essential to aiding a practicum-student to become effective. The

didactic approach does not take into consideration what importance the relationship between trainee and supervisor has in learning therapeutic skills. It also does not attend to the issue of undesirable techniques which are not due to a lacking of skills, but due to the trainee's personality. The experiential orientation postulates that the therapeutic relationship can overcome undesirable techniques due to personality characteristics but disregards the impressive empirical data demonstrating the effectiveness of teaching good therapeutic skills to "healthy" interns. A third orientation will now be discussed combining the two previous orientations.

Combined Didactic and Experiential Approach to Supervision:

There is a third theory on supervision which is a combination of the didactic and experiential approaches to supervision. Bales (1958), Buckheimer (1964), Ivey (1968), Mueller and Kell (1972) and Patterson (1964) all combine different aspects of the two approaches (Karr and Geist, 1977).

Patterson (1964) in studying the practicum said its value is dependent on two things: (1) the number and variety of patients and (2) the type of supervision which he receives. The value of the first is entirely dependent on the quality of the second. In reviewing the literature, he concluded that current supervision in general is "woefully inadequate and perhaps more harmful to the student" (p. 47). He stated that the purpose of supervision is not counseling or psychotherapy with the student but training. This

instruction, however, cannot be obtained in a classroom. Supervision should be like all good human relationships which is therapeutic and educational. It falls between teaching and therapy which should meet the individual needs of the student as well as include classroom instruction. Patterson concluded:

Supervision is a relationship. And, as in any relationship, including the counseling relationship, there is an element of threat. In fact, it is more threatening than many other relationships. This is something that must be recognized, since we know that threat inhibits and restricts learning, that it leads to defensiveness and resistance. If, then, we expect the student to change, to grow and develop, we must reduce threat to the minimum. This suggests that the methods or techniques of supervision are more similar to those of counseling and psychotherapy than they are to subject matter or didactic instruction. (p. 51-52)

Truax, Carkhuff and Douds (1964) also feel that an integration of the two approaches is warranted. In their article, they outlined a program noting the importance of each approach and how one could benefit from the other.

The experiential orientation should become aware of the role of the supervisor as a direct influencer and even controller, however subtly of behavior. (p. 243)

and:

On the other hand, the didactic school of thought should come to recognize the capacity of supervisor-offered conditions, or if you will, the therapeutic relationship, to elicit greater depth of self-exploration by the supervisee and thus the importance of experiential factors in the learning process. (p. 243)

In all, the authors emphasize the importance of the relationship:

It should be emphasized that these supervisor-offered conditions facilitate self-exploration in the trainee by providing the freedom and safety of the relationship and thus an openness to the trainee's experiencing and consequent experimentation. (p. 244)

Importance of Supervisory Relationship

In the review of the two approaches studied, there is a basic disagreement on what is emphasized in the supervisory relationship (teaching versus counseling). None of the two schools, however, have denied the importance of the relationship between the intern and supervisor. Mazer and Engle (1968) expressed the feeling that a student can learn without a relationship but gives no empirical data to back up the statement. Watson and Anchor (1974), however, imply that without a good relationship with the supervisor, the intern is not likely to learn and be effective regardless of what orientation is utilized. Fiedler (1951) reported that all different orientations report success in the literature. It is therefore proposed that it is not the orientation which is used in supervision which is important but the quality of the relationship between the intern and supervisor which is all important. Most authors, regardless of orientation, have said that the supervisory relationship is the key to the practicum (Hansen and Barker, 1964). If the supervisory relationship is positive, the intern will develop into an effective change agent regardless of orientation employed. The supervisory relationship will therefore be discussed in detail in the

next major section. Areas concerning the relationship (Trainee Expectations of the Relationship, Trainee Anxiety and Supervisory Methods for Handling Anxiety, and finally, Necessary Conditions for a Positive Supervisory Relationship) will be examined in the next section.

Trainee (Intern) Expectations

It has been found that pre-practicum students have a distorted view of the supervisor's role in the internship relationship (Hansen, 1965). They expect the supervisor to be moderately genuine in his relationship with the trainee and to have fairly low empathic understanding of their feelings with "conditional" positive regard for the trainee's behavior which, according to educators, is not the appropriate condition for an effective supervisory relationship (Delaney and Moore, 1966). Nevertheless, after the practicum, the trainees perceived the supervisors as having high levels of empathy, regard, genuineness and concreteness. The trainee also is reported to have expected a more didactic approach in the initial stages of the practicum. Towards the final stages of the internship, the intern strove for independence (Gysbers and Johnston, 1965). Anxiety can occur when the intern's expectations of the supervisory role are not met. Anxiety can also occur when the intern does not know what to expect from the supervisor at the initiation of the practicum. In conclusion, then, expectations can cause anxiety which can impair the supervisory relationship which may in turn impair learning. Expecta-

tions, therefore, not only play an important part in determining the supervisory relationship, but may also affect intern growth which is seen as being very important and will be examined in this research. The next section under trainee expectations will explore how anxiety can affect the important supervisory relationship as well as how a poor supervisory relationship can increase anxiety.

Anxiety:

The identification of student-trainee anxiety in the counseling session has been well documented (Bauman, 1972; Garter and Pappas, 1975; Guttman, 1973; Monke, 1971; Napier, Lee and Bourbonnais, 1976; and Pennscott, 1972). This anxiety in the session has also been shown to decrease the therapist's effectiveness (Bandura, 1956 and Luborsky, 1952). Anxiety also decreases the effectiveness of the trainee-supervisor relationship.

The teacher-learner relationship is of prime importance because teaching is mainly a problem in human relationships. The term "relationship" as used here means the nature of emotional interaction. In general, learning can take place best when the nature of such interaction is positive, when teacher and learner accept each other and are comfortably relaxed with each other. The level of participation is higher and anxiety is lower in the context of a positive relationship, facilitating learning. There are a number of additional factors which suggest the importance of a good relationship for educational supervision...

Not only must the learner be motivated to accept the content of what needs to be learned, but he must be motivated and ready to accept from the teacher. A worker resists accepting content offered by a supervisor he does not like and respect. The relationship, if positive,

is the bridge over which the material passes from teacher to learner. If the relationship is negative, communication is blocked...

A positive relationship intensifies the impact of the supervisor's educational efforts. There is considerable empirical support for the contention that the nature of the relationship is a powerful variable in determining the supervisee's openness and receptivity to the supervisor's efforts to educate toward change. (Kadushin, 1976, p. 148)

Therefore, if the supervisory relationship is positive in nature, the instructor has more impact on the intern. If the relationship is negative, there is less involvement in learning and more energy devoted towards detrimental defenses.

Kadushin (1968) gives many reasons for intern anxiety. One reason is that the purpose of the practicum is to promote change which in turn creates anxiety. The practicum requires the intern to give up familiar and comfortable habits for new and unfamiliar ones. Change is particularly hard for the adult student because it requires the alteration of behavior patterns which have become habit over the years and a rejection of old identified models and teachings of perhaps significant others.

Another source of anxiety is that if one is to re-learn, it constitutes an admission of dependence on teacher as well as an admission of ignorance in a certain area which could imply vulnerability. The question of inadequacy comes into the picture as well as possible supervisory disapproval (Kadushin, 1968, and Bauman, 1972). This may cause the student to "play games" in an attempt

to redefine the supervisory relationship so as to make it less threatening although less effective. It has been established that the intern's ability to communicate nondefensively with the supervisor is an important part of the supervisory process (Guttman, 1973). This ability to communicate is hampered if the supervisory relationship is not honest. Jacobson (1978) hypothesized, utilizing Transactional Analysis Theory, that the supervisee often goes into the "rebellious child." This sidetracks most of the intern's energy into being oppositional to the supervisor rather than spending the energy more constructively in learning. Therefore, anxiety can have a serious detrimental effect on the important supervisory relationship. The anxiety-supervisory relationship can also be circular in nature: anxiety can break down a relationship which can cause more anxiety making the relationship even worse. In other words, a poor supervisory relationship can cause anxiety, and anxiety can be detrimental to the supervisory relationship.

Supervisory Method of Handling Intern Anxiety

A supervisor can be helpful to the trainee by pointing out to him his behavior, thus enabling the intern to learn more appropriate and effective modes of nondefensive behavior. Many writers are in favor of open confrontation with the intern where defensive behavior is noted (Kadushin, 1968; Kell and Mueller, 1966; and Perls, 1966). Truax and Wittmer (1970) found that teachers and clients benefited from a training procedure in which defenses were pointed out.

Guttman (1973) found the same was true for practicum trainees. Supervisor reinforcement also appears to be a powerful aid in helping the trainee focus his attention on the client after a therapeutic session (Davidson and Emmer, 1971). Kelly (1971) also found supervisor reinforcement as the more effective means of learning micro-counseling when compared to trainee self-reinforcement. Here it is evident that the positive aspects (supervisor reinforcement) is a key to the trainee's ability to learn therapeutic skills.

One positive aspect of a good supervisory relationship is that it overcomes many problems of the supervisory evaluation discussed earlier by Arbuckle (1963). A good supervisory relationship acts as a buffer to the pain of criticism and makes the trainee more receptive to and acceptive of criticism (Kadushin, 1976). If the supervisor and trainee are at odds, there is a higher chance of a rejection of constructive criticism as being unjust. However, the trainee's anxiety and defenses are less if there is a good relationship with the supervisor. Anxiety in the supervisor can also have detrimental effects on the relationship with the intern. If the supervisor is not secure in the role as supervisor, a negative environment can occur in which scapegoating and a need to belittle or hurt comes in to play (Kadushin, 1976). An authoritarian approach may become apparent. The supervisor must know his or her role if all situations are to be dealt with effectively. The intern is trying to follow the example of the supervisor and is apt to model inappropri-

riate behavior and be less apt to admit to mistakes or ask for help causing a poor supervisory relationship and possible decrease in learning.

Thus far it has been demonstrated that trainee-expectations and trainee-anxiety can have detrimental effects on the supervisory relationship. In addition, a positive supervisor-trainee relationship can reduce existing anxiety in the intern. The next subsection will explore the components of a positive supervisory relationship.

Conditions Necessary for a Positive Supervisory Relationship

In 1967, Carkhuff developed a model from which the growth of therapeutic functioning of counselor trainees may be predicted. He demonstrated that there is a substantial body of evidence pointing to indicate the importance of a central core of facilitative conditions (empathy, regard, concreteness, genuineness) in a therapeutic relationship which are needed if counseling is to have any effect on the client (Carkhuff and Berenson, 1967; Truax and Carkhuff, 1967). Not only are these conditions in a therapeutic relationship necessary for counseling but these dimensions have importance in all meaningful relationships such as the one between supervisor and intern. Carkhuff's basic premise is that persons at higher levels of functioning (on the basic core condition) can, through a helping relationship, aid another person who is operating at a lower level of functioning (on the basic core conditions), to raise his/her level of functioning. In addition, Carkhuff states that it is highly unlikely that persons at a lower level of functioning can have a significantly

facilitative effect upon persons at higher levels of functioning. It is also suggested that a person can reach a level only as high as the helper's level.

Blane (1968) found that those trainees who were in a positive supervisory group (concentration on positive aspects of trainee performance) improved significantly in levels of empathy as compared to non-support group (concentrated on what intern did wrong) and a control group. Dowling and Franz (1975) found that the more facilitative the model in supervision, the more imitative learning occurs in the trainee. Pierce, Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) applying Carkhuff's model hypothesized that two groups of counselors-in-training would gain differently in their levels of functioning according to the level of functioning of the counselor-trainer, with those of the higher functioning trainers gaining the most. They defined higher functioning trainers as those offering higher levels of empathy, respect, genuineness, concreteness and self-disclosure to the trainee in a relationship. They found that interns with a low functioning trainer (poor supervisory relationships) made no changes in giving higher core conditions to clients. Those with the higher facilitative trainers (good supervisory relationships) demonstrated significantly higher facilitative conditions after training.

Pierce and Schauble (1970), using Carkhuff's model, said that the supervisor is directly responsible in dealing with the trainee therapeutically and has the most potential in producing a major impact on the functioning of the intern in regard to the level of facilitative

functioning. They were able to demonstrate this through a semester-long longitudinal study in which both the trainee and supervisor submitted tapes to be analyzed for facilitative conditions. They found that through time, the trainees attained the same level of functioning as the supervisor. Pierce and Schauble (1971) later replicated their earlier study with a larger sample (N=22) and a longer supervision period.

Wedeking and Scott (1976) replicated the Pierce and Schauble studies with the following modification. They rated the supervisor on core conditions by having independent raters study actual practicum session tapes with the intern (as opposed to therapy tapes given by the supervisor). They found no relation between the supervisor's empathy toward the intern and the performance of the intern with a client. Due to the discrepancy of their findings, they raised the question: "Do supervisors who apparently offer facilitative conditions to their supervisees offer the same to clients (and vice versa)? This question was partially answered by Lambert (1974) who said, "While the level of conditions in supervision may cause changes in training functioning, it seems quite possible that trainees change not because of the assumed level of conditions in supervision, but because supervisors are able to teach didactically only what they know." Lambert theorized that the core facilitative conditions could be learned didactically as well as experientially depending on the supervisor's ability to teach. Therefore, what a trainee is not able to learn experientially could be obtained by teaching. Lambert found

that the supervisor gave the same levels of respect and genuineness to their interns as they gave to their own clients. However, the supervisor was more specific and empathic with clients than with their interns.

Lambert said that a study of the relationship between the actual level of facilitative conditions (quality of relationship) offered in supervision and the quality of trainee offered relationship to the client has yet to be undertaken.

To this point there has been a description of a model for change as well as a review of the literature on supervision and trainee expectations. However, the actual change process has yet to be explained in a theoretical sense. It is felt that the Rogerian Self-Model (Rogers, 1942) best explains the actual process of change concerning the facilitative conditions.

A Model for Change

In order to explain the change process of the individual which Rogers calls "the self" it would be helpful to explain what the self is. Rogers defines the self as how the individual perceives himself, what he thinks of himself, how he values himself as well as how he attempts through various actions to enhance and defend the self. The basic motive of the self is to actualize, maintain and enhance the self. The goal of the self is to satisfy needs.

The self is developed from its perceptions of its environment. The self reacts to the environment as it is perceived and experienced. By experiencing, it is meant that the self's perceptions of reality is of major importance, even if the actual reality is different. A key factor in the development of the self is that a portion of the total self's perception becomes incorporated as the self. As a result of interaction with the environment, and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others the structure of the self is formed. It is a fluid but con-

sistent conceptual pattern of perception of characteristics and relationships of the "I" or the "Me", together with values attached to these concepts. For example, when a child is born, he or she learns to distinguish himself or herself as an object from the environment. He or she begins to build up a conception of his or herself in relationship to the environment. The concepts become invested with value, which may be either negative or positive.

Values accrue to the self picture as a result of direct experience. These values also influence other experiences as perceived by the organism.

That is, the values become attached to experience and thus part of the self structure resulting in some instances, distortions of individual perception of reality. As an example, the child finds pleasure in doing many things, for which he or she may be either rewarded or punished by the parents. The child who is punished for doing something he or she finds pleasurable is thrown into conflict between the desire to obtain pleasure and the desire to avoid pain. In resolving this conflict he or she may have to revise his or her self-image and his or her set of values in such a manner that the real feelings and values are distorted. The self builds up defenses against threatening experiences by denying them to consciousness. As it does so, the self-image becomes less congruent with reality, with the result that more defenses are required to maintain the false picture held by the self. The self thereby loses contact with the actual experiences of the organism, and the increasing opposition between reality and self creates tension. Consequently the person becomes more maladjusted.

In client-centered therapy the person finds himself or herself in a nonthreatening situation because the counselor is completely accepting of everything the client says via the facilitative conditions. This warm accepting attitude on the part of the counselor encourages the client to explore his unconscious feeling and bring them into awareness. Slowly

and tentatively he explores the unsymbolized feelings which threaten his security. In the safety of the therapeutic relationship threatening feelings can be dealt with in an effective manner and assimilated into the self structure. It is therefore the therapeutic facilitative conditions which enable the organism to explore the threatening perceived reality and make positive changes.

In terms of supervision the trainee through the supervisor's facilitation finds him or herself in a nonthreatening situation because the supervisor is completely accepting of everything the intern says. The warm accepting attitude on the part of the supervisor encourages the trainee to explore his or her feelings, bring them into awareness and create an openness. This openness enhances the trainee's ability to listen to both supervisor as well as client. The trainee has a greater ability to not only explore his or her own reality, but is more able to give facilitative conditions to the client so that the client can explore his or her feelings as well. The more facilitative the supervisor, the less anxious the trainee. If the trainee is less anxious, greater empathic and genuine responding will occur on the part of the trainee towards the client, (Napier, 1976)

Roger's theory does not explain the intern's level of satisfaction with the supervisor nor with the internship center as a component affecting the intern's performance. Anecdotal observations suggested that both these components are related to the intern's performance. Since no theoretical rationale could be found to support the anecdotal observation it was decided to attempt to obtain empirical evidence for this observation in the minor hypotheses II, III and V.

Conclusion

The review of the literature, therefore, implies that there are unresolved issues pertaining to what parts of the supervisory relationship are most facilitative to learning. Does the intern learn to be facilitative with a client via the supervisor's facilitation with the intern, or by the supervisor's ability to teach the facilitative conditions? Pierce and Schauble (1971) have found that interns become more facilitative if their supervisors are highly facilitative with clients. Wedeking and Scott (1976) examined actual practicum tapes between supervisor and intern and found that there was no relationship between the supervisor facilitativeness to the intern (as perceived by outside raters) and the intern. It has been found, however, that perceptions of different raters (interns, supervisors and clients) can be significantly different (Bishop, 1971; Brown and Cannaday, 1969). Perhaps it is the intern's perception of the supervisory relationship which is related to the trainee's ability to become facilitative.

Statement of the Problem

The study investigates the differential effects of the perception of graduate students in clinical psychology with regards to their trainers' level of facilitative responding and how it affects the trainees' growth as measured by their own level of facilitative responding.

The identification and definition of the core conditions (empathy, respect, etc.) in the first section provided the basis for a comprehensive model for helping and, consequently, training. The basis for the development of the helping model was described as a process of exploration, understanding, and action. The helping process is initiated by experiential exploration. Understanding then provides the mediating process which in turn leads to the behavior of the helpee. This process is recycled by concrete feedback which stimulates further exploration and leads to a more accurate understanding and effective action by the therapist.

The didactic experiential approach (Truax, Carkhuff and Douds, 1964) to counselor supervision incorporates the model of helping and thus emphasizes that the trainee learn to communicate empathy, non-possessive warmth, concreteness, and genuineness to clients. The helping model adds the dimension of effective interpersonal skills to the didactic approach to supervision.

Although the didactic experiential supervision approach has been compared to the didactic and experiential approach individually, there

is little evidence to assess the effects of the trainee's perceptions of 1) the trainer's level of facilitating responding and 2) supervisory counselor effectiveness on the trainee's level of facilitating responding. In other words, is there any difference in trainee effectiveness and facilitative responding among University of Ottawa graduate trainees in clinical psychology who receive supervision from a) trainers perceived to be high in facilitative responding, b) trainers perceived to be low in facilitative responding, c) trainers perceived to be high in counselor effectiveness, and d) trainers perceived to be low in counselor effectiveness?

In summary, the model of helping is based on exploration, understanding, and action which in turn depends upon the core conditions of empathy, unconditional positive regard, concreteness, and genuineness. The helping model is equally applicable to both the relationship between the therapist and client and the relationship between the trainer and trainee in graduate training programs in psychology. In the supervisory relationship between trainer and trainee, the effects of the trainee's perception of the trainer's counseling effectiveness and facilitative responding is postulated to affect the trainee's level of facilitative responding. In other words, the helping model would predict that the trainee's perceived level of interpersonal skills will directly influence, either positively or negatively, the level of the trainee's facilitating responding with clients. Having established the theoretical background, the following hypotheses have been postulated:

Hypothesis I

The level of supervisory facilitative responding perceived by the trainee will directly influence the trainee's facilitative responding with clients.

Hypothesis II

The degree of satisfaction perceived by the trainee in the trainer-trainee relationship will directly influence the trainee's facilitative responding with clients.

Hypothesis III

The degree of satisfaction perceived by the trainee in the trainer-trainee relationship will directly influence the trainee's facilitative responding with clients.

Hypothesis IV

a) There will be no difference on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a high level of facilitative responding.

b) There will be a difference in the direction of higher facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a high level of facilitative responding.

c) There will be a difference in the direction of lower facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding from trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a low level of facilitative responding.

d) There will be no difference on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a low level of facilitative responding.

Hypothesis V

a) There will be no difference on prepost measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as high in counselor effectiveness.

b) There will be a difference in the direction of higher facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as high in counselor effectiveness.

c) There will be a difference in the direction of lower facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as low in counselor effectiveness.

d) There will be no difference on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for interns with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as low in counselor effectiveness.

CHAPTER II

Method

Subjects: Twenty-six University of Ottawa clinical psychology graduate students, enrolled in a year-long clinical internship at three outpatient clinics (Psychological Services, Counseling Service and Guidance Center) were utilized as subjects for this study. The subjects are a sample of graduate students in Clinical Psychology who have had at least one year course work and had entered the practicum phase of their degree program (M.A. or Ph.D.). The settings were internship centers of the School of Psychology at the University of Ottawa. Of the twenty-six subjects in the study, six were eliminated due to change of their program or a failure to submit data.

Of the Ph.D. students who were subjects, there were three females and five males. Of those in the Masters Program, there were three females and nine males in the study. The University of Ottawa is a bilingual University, and there were five Francophone subjects all of whom were in the Masters Program. The ages of the subjects ranged from fifty-six years of age to twenty-three years with a mean of twenty-nine years. Previous counseling experience of the subjects ranged from no experience to twenty-five years of experience with a mean of two years prior counseling with adults.

Also involved in this study were eleven staff members of the University who were regular supervisors at the various internship

centers. All were clinicians experienced in supervising interns. Of the supervisors, there were two females and nine males, six being bilingual. The clients seen by the interns during the practicum were clients of one of three outpatient clinics at the University. The counseling problem presented at these clinics are mild to moderate pathological disturbances and in general all interns receive a good sampling of the counseling problems seen at the various clinics. The clients were aware that the therapy sessions were being taped by the subjects (interns). The explanation of the use of the tapes was left up to the discretion of each intern. The use of actual client sessions in research is abundant in the literature. The supervisors who were training the subjects or interns were aware of the nature of the research being conducted, but did not know which intern was rating which supervisory relationship.

Apparatus: Three questionnaires were employed in this study: the Relationship Inventory (RI) developed by Barrett-Lennard (1962), the satisfaction scales of the Client Evaluation Inventory (CEI) by Linden, Stone and Shertzer (1965) and the California Psychological Inventory (CPI) by Gough (1969). The RI and the satisfaction scale of the CEI were slightly modified in wording so that it would apply to the supervisor of an intern rather than to the counselor of a client. Two questions of the CEI were also deleted because the questions pertained to testing which did not apply to this study (See Appendix A).

Although the Francophone students were sufficiently bilingual to understand the questionnaires in their English form, directions

were given in both English and French. In addition, a French form of the CEI and the CPI were administered to the Francophone subjects.

Independent and Dependent Variables:

Since the independent and dependent variables can be confusing, it is felt that a short rationale for these measures as well as the scales employed to measure the variables is warranted.

Dependent Variables (obtained from client trainee therapy session):

As stated in the various hypotheses, this study will examine intern perceived variables in the supervisory relationship which are posited to affect the ability of the intern to be facilitative as well as the ability to be an active listener with his/her client in an actual therapy session.

The actual scales employed to measure the dependent variables are Peak Empathy, Global Empathy (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967) and Following Behavior (Napier, 1976). Although each scale is considered to measure a necessary condition which must be provided by the therapist in order to elicit a positive change in the client, it is important to note that a negative relationship between intern and supervisor will reduce the intern's ability to gain these necessary skills. These dependent variables also reflect the quality of the global relationship of the intern with the client in the therapy session.

Empathy (Peak and Global):

The reasons for the use of the empathy scale as a dependent variable are many. Empathy was originally popularized by Rogers (1957) as part of the facilitative conditions necessary for a therapeutic relationship which was later supported theoretically by Carkhuff and

Berenson (1967). As stated earlier, empathy has not only been utilized to measure the relationship between client and therapist but Pierce and Schauble (1970, 1971) have used the empathy scale to measure the relationship between supervisor and intern.

Another reason empathy was employed as a variable is that empathy is highly regarded in other theories of therapy such as in the Adlerian and Freudian schools of thought (Fiedler, 1950). In all, empathy appears to be indicative of not only a good therapeutic relationship, but of good therapy. The amount of published articles utilizing the empathy scale to measure the relationship is abundant.

The reason empathy alone was used to measure the relationship rather than another facilitative condition (or all of them) is due to the finding of Delaney, Long, Masucci and Moses (1969) who said that empathy alone was theoretically sufficient to measure the core conditions. Muehlberg, Pierce and Drasgow (1969) found that through a factor analysis the facilitative conditions are highly correlated. Since the empathy scale was found to be both theoretically and empirically related in the literature to measure the effects of therapy and relationships, it was employed in this study.

This research employed two measures of empathy (Peak and Global). Global or overall average of empathy that the trainee gives to a client in a therapy session is the most used empathy scale in the literature. However, a difficulty with the scale is that it can be a "narrow band" measurement (Jones, 1974; Napier, 1976). Myrick and Kelly (1971) stated that changes in an empathy level, although important, are hard to detect on a 5 point scale, especially when an average empathy level

is employed. It was therefore decided to employ another way to measure a trainee's empathy level during a therapy session. It was theorized that since there are other important facets of counseling besides being empathic (such as information gathering and answering questions), a therapist can be highly empathic (that is, give high levels of empathy), yet have a low overall empathy rating due to other needed facets of therapy. Since it has been demonstrated that empathy must be learned (Stollak & Lovas, 1966), therapists do not "get lucky" and gain a high empathy response every now and then. Rogers (1967) reported that the average empathy level of a therapist is often below 2.0 out of a possible 5.0. Therefore, peak empathy levels in a therapy session was used as the indicator of the therapist's ability to be facilitative with a client. The use of the empathy peak scale is not novel and has been used and accepted in literature before.

Attending or Following Behavior:

In 1971, Ivey postulated that it is of major importance to the counselor that he have the ability to attend to the content of the client's speech during a counseling interview.

Attention is central to the interaction between interviewer and client. Unless the interviewer listens and attends to the client, little in the way of understanding will occur. Too many beginning counselors and interviewers fail to listen to their clients. (Ivey, 1971, p. 40)

Ivey stated further that it is a key role of the supervisor to aid the trainee in learning how to attend to the client.

Most would agree that one of the basic tasks of any counselor supervisor is to help the neophyte counselor to relax, pay attention to the client, and refrain from jumping from topic-to-topic. (Ivey, 1971, p. 40)

It follows that if there is not a good relationship between trainee and supervisor, there is little chance that a trainee can relax and learn from the instructor during supervision, or relax in the therapy session and pay attention to the client because of the trainee's worry over what the supervisor will think. Napier, Lee, Bourbonnais (1976) demonstrated that if a therapist was anxious, he could not attend to or be empathic with a client. Kadushin (1976) states that part of the supervisor's job is to follow the intern in supervision rather than be authoritarian and directive. Whether an intern learns through an experiential or didactic mode, the intern's ability to follow the client in therapy should be related to the supervisor's ability to teach and follow what the intern has to say. Another reason the scale for following behavior was utilized in this study is due to past literature supporting the notion that when a therapist follows the content of the client's speech, he is able to get to know the client much better (Ivey, Normington, Miller, & Hansen, 1968). In this context, the therapist is a reinforcer of appropriate behavior, as are parents, teachers, or loved ones (Skinner, 1953). Therefore, the ability of the intern to gain the following behavior skill is theorized to be dependent on a good working relationship with the supervisor as well. Ivey, Normington, Miller, and Hansen (1968) theorized that the training process was designed for the trainee to model the behavior of the supervisor and the supervisor would reinforce the behavior once it

occurred. It is theorized therefore, that the scale for following behavior is relevant to the relationship between supervisor and intern as well as between intern and client. Unfortunately, there is no empirical data in the literature testing this hypothesis. There have been a number of scales constructed from Ivey's theory which are quite similar to the scale utilized in the research (Assid, 1977).

Independent Variables (taken from supervisory relationship):

The measure employed to measure the supervisory relationship will be the Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (Barrett-Lennard, 1962). The intern's amount of satisfaction with the supervisory relationship will be measured with a modified version of the Client Evaluation Inventory (Linden, Stone, & Shertzen, 1965). A five-point scale was constructed to measure the amount of intern satisfaction with the internship center.

Client Evaluation Inventory (Satisfaction):

The Client Evaluation Inventory (CEI) was developed by Linden, Stone and Shertzen (1965) as a criterion for evaluating the effectiveness of counseling. The authors found that past measurements lacked definitive and adequate measurements of effectiveness for assessing counseling activity. They felt that few studies utilized actual client ratings of counselors, something which is necessary for a comprehensive understanding of counseling. They therefore, developed the CEI to provide a scale to explore the value of client ratings of satisfaction as a criteria of counselor effectiveness. Validity and reliability was found to be acceptable (Linden, Stone, & Shertzen, 1965; Haase & Miller, 1968). This study hypothesized that since the

client's degree of satisfaction of the therapist is an important measure in assessing therapy, and since many authors equate supervision to therapy, then the trainee's satisfaction with the supervisor is a viable means of measuring supervisory effectiveness. In order to measure trainee satisfaction, the CEI wording was altered to measure supervision instead of therapy. Bishop (1971) had altered the use of the CEI with apparent success.

Relationship Inventory:

The Barrett-Lennard Relationship Inventory (RI) was utilized to measure the relationship between the supervisor and the trainee. The test was formulated from Rogers' (1957) work on the necessary and sufficient conditions needed for personality change. Four of the subtests were designed to measure empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard, and plus level of regard. After the RI was developed, Rogers, in turn, utilized it to demonstrate therapeutic change when the conditions were present. Since the scales' development, the test has been used in over fifty studies (Barrett-Lennard, & Jewell, 1966) to measure the therapeutic relationship between client and therapist. Kagan (1968), Desrosiers (1967) and Lanning (1971) used the scale to measure the degree of the relationship between trainee and supervisor and its impact on trainee change and growth.

Internship Center Satisfaction:

Although there are scales to measure satisfaction on individual relationships such as the one employed in this study, there were no scales available to measure satisfaction of a setting. A 5-point Likert scale was devised for the intern to use. Other studies have

used this approach with success (Karr & Griest, 1977). The rationale for this scale is similar for the use of the CEI scale. That is a trainee who is not satisfied with the overall amount of supervision will be less apt to learn how to be facilitative or be an active listener (Kadushin, 1976).

Procedure: All subjects were first randomly assigned a code number and were instructed to identify all data submitted with this code number to assure anonymity. They were then randomly assigned a supervisor from their training centers for which they would be filling out the questionnaires. (All interns had at least one case with each supervisor at their respective centers.) The subjects were also instructed to identify their supervisor via a randomly assigned code letter. After the assignment of their own code number, and their supervisor's code letter, data concerning age, sex, degree of program (PhD, or Masters), preferred language (French or English), and previous experience in doing therapy on a one-to-one level with adults was also obtained. They were also asked to rate their overall training expectations of the center on a five-point scale ranging from 1 (very high) to 5 (very low). Subjects were then instructed to submit one of their first therapy tapes before any actual supervision on any clients had taken place. (This was used as a baseline measurement.) Five weeks later, the interns were then requested to submit another therapy tape with a client with whom their assigned supervisor was supervising them. They were requested to submit a tape and a completed set of questionnaires at five week intervals for a period of twenty weeks (four collections of data). The tapes submitted by the

interns were to be of the interns' choice with the condition that they were actual therapy tapes done by the intern and that the session would be at least fifteen minutes in duration (most lasted over forty-five minutes in length). The clients on the tapes could be different but they had to be under the supervision of the assigned supervisor for that client.

Data Preparation: The questionnaires were all scored according to their respective manuals and the raw data transferred to computer cards. For the RI, the composite score was used and as mentioned previously, the satisfaction scale of the CEI was utilized.

The first step in obtaining the data from the tapes was to divide each taped session into thirds. Two three-minute segments were randomly extracted from the second third and last third of each tape and randomly put onto master tapes for rating. Two segments taken from the tapes insured that the subject would be rated twice in each taped session to enhance the possibility of getting a representative sample of the interview. The first third of the tape was eliminated due to the possibility that it consisted mostly of the formalities of getting acquainted and the presentation of the problem (Carkhuff, 1969). Twenty of the segments were randomly chosen and randomly put in the master tape to assess ~~intra-rater~~ reliability. (None of the raters gave any indication that they were aware of rating the same segment twice.)

Three bilingual raters were employed for the rating. Before any of the actual tapes were rated, all raters went through a thorough training period on the scales with the trainers. All raters had to

reach a criterion level of .70 (correlation with the criterion) in the use of the scales on therapy segments not employed in the study before they were given the actual tapes to rate.

When the training was completed, the raters were given a set of different tapes for each scale to be rated so as to prevent biasing of one scale onto the next. The order of the tape segments on each tape were in a different random order to prevent any anticipation of one segment onto the next.

Each rater was also given specially prepared forms to code data on, for each scale. Each set of judgements for each scale of each segment was placed on a separate form. All raters received ample amounts of forms and were instructed to put no more than one set of ratings for a segment on a form. The judges were also instructed to include the tape number (there were six tapes in all per rater), side number, track number and segment number for later identification. They were told to work alone and not to do more than a couple of hours of rating a day so that fatigue would not affect their ratings.

After the ratings were completed and collected, the forms were then assessed for inter- and intra-rater reliability.

If there was a disagreement between the raters, the following procedure was taken. If two raters agreed on a score, the agreed upon score was used and the disagreeing rater's score was omitted. If all three raters disagreed on a score, an average was obtained among the three scores and utilized. After the final scores for the second and third portions of the tapes were finalized, the two scores (second third and last third) were averaged and it was this score

which would be used to represent the tape. The obtained scores were then key punched onto computer cards for analysis. The manner of rating of the different scales was as follows:

Empathy-Peak: The measurement of empathy-peak was scored by Carkhuff's (1967) revised Empathic Understanding in Interpersonal Processes: A Scale for Measurement. Each rater was instructed to score every response given by the intern after the client had spoken. The scores were put on specially prepared sheets. The highest or peak score of each segment was then utilized in the analysis. As was the case in all scales employed, the rater could if wished, replay the segment at will and had a copy of the scale in case the rater wanted to refer back to them.

Empathy-Average: The same procedure for the empathy-peak was used for the empathy-average scale except the rater listened to the segment as a whole and then rated the segment globally as to the level of empathy presented to the client by the intern. Again, there were separate scoring sheets for each segment as well as a copy of the scales if referral was necessary.

Following Behavior: The scale for following behavior was scored by instructing the raters to determine if the interns followed the actual content of what the client had just said each time the client spoke (See Appendix A). If, for example, the intern changed the topic, this would have been scored as a non-following behavior response. If the counselor did follow, this was also tabulated. After each segment, the number of following, as well as non-following responses by the therapist were tabulated. A ratio was then constructed whereby the

percentage of following behavior compared to the total number of responses was obtained. As was the case of the empathy scales, the second third and last third percentage scores were averaged resulting in a single composite percentage for each particular tape submitted by the intern. The scale for following behavior is similar in both construction and theory to a number of other measurements which were also extrapolated from research by Ivey (1971).

Statistical Analysis: A correlation matrix was computed with descriptive data of the interns (CPI, age, sex, language, etc.) and the dependent variables (Empathy-Peak, Empathy-Average and Following Behavior). The correlations were examined to see if any significant relationships existed. If correlations exceeded $\pm .40$ with the relevant variables, then these variables were used as a covariate in the analysis. The analysis utilized to test Hypotheses I and II was one way a Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) or if there was a significant correlation in the analysis stated previously, a Multivariate Analysis of Co-Variance was employed. The independent variables were the scores from the RI and CEI which were broken down into high-low groups (as with all independent variables in the MANOVAS) via a median split procedure. The dependent variables or facilitative conditions offered by the intern were the Empathy-Peak, Empathy-Average and Following Behavior scores obtained from the tapes. There were four sets of one way MANOVAS (or MANCOVAS) because of the collection of tapes and questionnaires at four different periods. This meant that the hypotheses were tested four times. A one way Multivariate Analysis of Variance was utilized twice to test Hypothesis III. On the first analysis, the subjects were divided into two groups

(high-low) based on the scores of the five-point questionnaire on satisfaction with the total supervisory experience (independent variable). The conditions given by the interns (dependent variable) was measured by the scales Empathy-Peak, Empathy-Average and Following Behavior obtained at the last data collection. The second test of Hypothesis III was done by taking the difference from the expectation scale obtained in the beginning of the data collection and the total satisfaction scale obtained at the last data collection. The difference between the two scales was then broken into two groups (high-low) and compared to the dependent variables as was done in the first analysis of Hypothesis III. Ideally, each cell in the one way MANOVA will have an N of 10 which will be determined by a median split. If, however, there are two median numbers, the cells will be comprised of an N of 9 and 11. The cell with 11 will be determined by a flip of a coin.

To test Hypothesis IV a Mann-Whitney-U was employed. The subjects were divided into four groups: two groups were formed on the basis of their supervisory relationship (RI) as seen by the intern (high versus low); and two other groups were formed from the intern's baseline score of facilitative conditions (high versus low) offered to an actual client. Each group was tested to determine if the interns' therapeutic conditions increased or decreased after the six month period. Hypothesis V was tested in the same manner with the substitution of the CEI for the RI.

Because of the small sample size, it is felt that the Multivariate F in each MANOVA had to be significant to at least the .05 level before any hypothesis would be accepted.

Rationale for the use of Multivariate Analysis of Variance

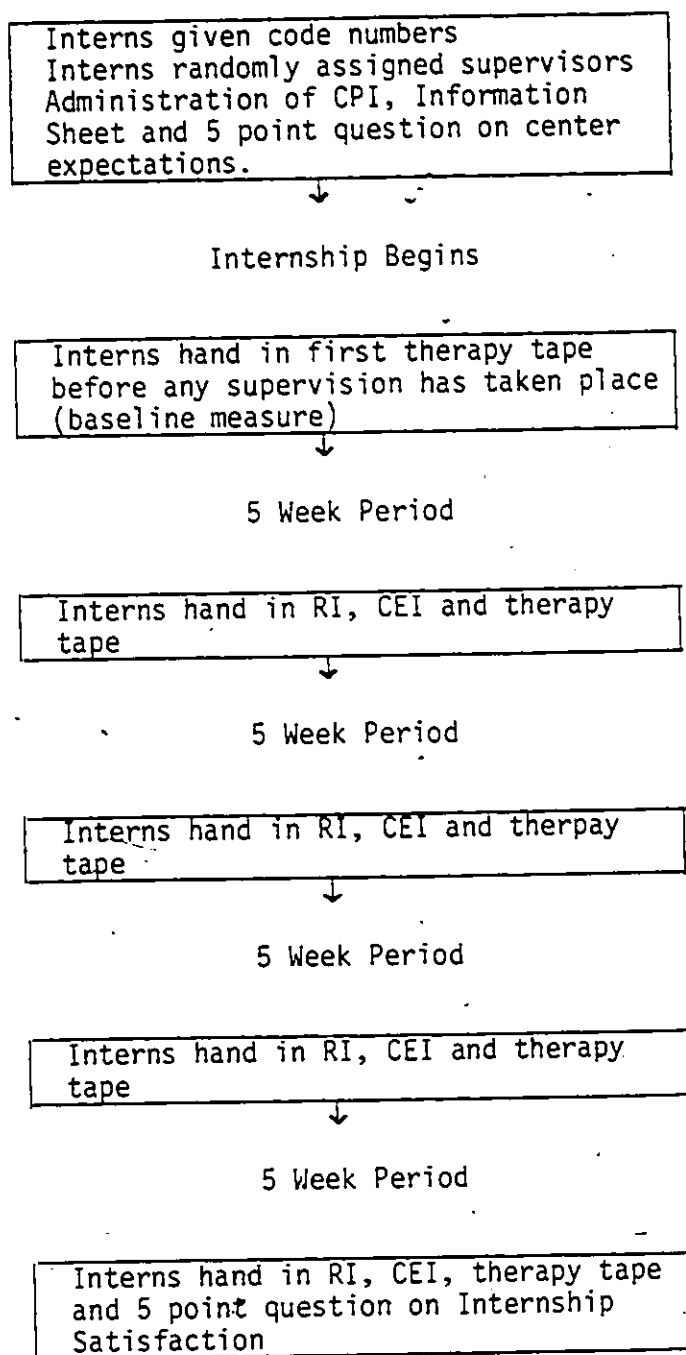
In the univariate analysis of variances, the effects of a series of treatments on a single criterion variable X is observed. In the multivariate analysis of variance each experiment unit is observed on several criterion variables. A treatment may have an effect upon several characteristics of an experimental unit. In the multivariate analysis of variance, the effect of the treatment on all criteria is observed simultaneously. Each observation is a vector rather than a scalar.

The analysis of variance fails to take into account the relationship between the variables. The simultaneous response of the experimental units to all variables, considered as a single response, generally contains more information about the total effect of the treatment than does the series of responses considered singly. The latter is what happens when one treats the multivariate data as a series of independent univariate data. (Winer, 1971).

For these reasons a multivariate analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was employed in this study.

Figure 1 presents a summary of the procedures in the form of a flow chart.

Figure 1



CHAPTER III

Results

This chapter consists of four parts. The first section deals with the inter- and intra-rater reliabilities and the reliabilities of the RI and CEI. The second section deals with the correlation matrix of the independent variables and the facilitative conditions offered by the interns (dependent variables). The third and fourth sections deal with the tests of the hypotheses.

Rater Reliability

The average inter-rater reliabilities among raters A, B, and C were as follows: $A-B = .74$, $A-C = .76$ (no correlations were lower than .71). The intra-rater reliability for all three scales (Empathy-Peak, Empathy-Average, and Following Behavior) were $A = .81$, $B = .73$, and $C = .71$.

Reliability of RI and CEI

Split-half reliabilities were computed for the four administrations of the RI. The corrected reliabilities were .87, .79, .93, .92, average = .88. Since the CEI satisfaction scale consisted of three items only, the reliability of these three items were examined by correlating each of the three items with each other. These correlations were calculated four times corresponding to the four periods in which the CEI was administered. The correlated reliabilities of the CEI were as follows: .38, .40, .52, .54, .74, .70, .69, .85, .68, .48, .78, .64, average = .62.

Correlation Matrix of Independent and Dependent Variables

There were no significant correlations between any of the independent variables ($r \leq .4$) other than those obtained at a chance level. There were no significant correlations between any of the dependent variables ($r \leq .4$) other than those obtained at a chance level.

Tests of the Hypotheses

Hypotheses I through III were tested with a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA).

Hypothesis I: The level of supervisory facilitative responding perceived by the trainee will directly influence the trainee's effectiveness and facilitative responding.

The supervisor's facilitative conditions perceived by the intern (independent variable) was measured by the RI. The subjects were divided into high-low supervision groups via a median split. The conditions given by the intern to the client (dependent variables) were measured by the scales (Empathy-Peak, Empathy-Average, and Following Behavior) taken from the tapes. Therefore, a multi-variate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and individual univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) were utilized.

In the first test of Hypothesis I (as was mentioned earlier, Hypothesis I was tested at the end of each five week data collection period) the multi-variate F-ratio for the differences between mean vectors was .71, $p = .56$ (See Table 1). Therefore, there was no significant difference between the two groups of interns (interns who perceived high facilitative conditions) in the levels of the three facilitative conditions given by the intern to the client.

In the second testing of Hypothesis I, the mean vectors were not equal, $F = 3.75$, $p = .03$, meaning that there was a significant

Table 1

Summary of Multivariate and Univariate Analysis of Variance for the Effects of The Facilitative Conditions (RI) as Perceived by the Intern in a Supervisory Relationship on the Level of Facilitative Conditions which the Trainee Offered the Client (N = 20)

Source	F-Ratio for Differences Between Mean Vectors and Means (for the Univariate F)	Actual Level of Significance	Power of Statistic (F)
First Data Collection	Overall F	0.71	.56
	Empathy-Peak	1.97	.17
	Empathy-Average	0.01	.92
	Following Behavior	0.35	.56
Second Data Collection	Overall F	3.75	.03
	Empathy-Peak	2.57	.12
	Empathy-Average	1.21	.28
	Following Behavior	6.08	.02
Third Data Collection	Overall F	1.65	.22
	Empathy-Peak	3.26	.08
	Empathy-Average	0.08	.77
	Following Behavior	1.67	.21
Fourth Data Collection	Overall F	2.44	.10
	Empathy-Peak	6.52	.02
	Empathy-Average	0.84	.37
	Following Behavior	0.35	.56

difference between the two groups (high-low) in the levels of the three conditions given to the client by the intern. The difference among the mean vectors was probably attributable to only one of the intern's facilitative conditions, following behavior, where the univariate F-ratio was found to be 6.08 ($p = .02$).

In the third testing of the Hypothesis I, the multi-variate F-ratio for the difference between vectors was 1.65 ($p = .22$). Therefore, there was no significant difference between the two groups (high-low) in the levels of the three facilitative conditions given to the client.

In the fourth testing of Hypothesis I, the multivariate F-ratio for the difference between mean vectors was 2.44 ($p = .10$). Therefore, there were no significant differences between the two groups (high-low) in the levels of the three facilitative conditions given by the intern in the client.

Of the four tests of Hypothesis I, only one of the MANOVAS was significant and, therefore, Hypothesis I was rejected.

Hypothesis II: The degree of satisfaction perceived by the trainee in the trainer-trainee relationship will directly influence the trainee's facilitative responding with clients.

The satisfaction of the intern (independent variable) was measured by the satisfaction scale of the CEI. The subjects were divided into high-low satisfaction groups via a median split. The condition given by the intern to the client (dependent variable) was measured by the scales (Empathy-Peak, Empathy-Average, and Following Behavior) taken from the tapes. Therefore, a multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) and individual univariate analysis of variance (ANOVA) were utilized.

In the first test of Hypothesis II (as was mentioned earlier, Hypothesis II was tested at the end of each five-week data collection period) the multivariate F-ratio for the difference between mean vectors was 1.42 ($p = .28$) (See Table 2). Therefore, there was no significant difference between the two groups (high versus low satisfaction with supervision) in the levels of the three facilitative conditions given by the interns to the client.

In the second test of Hypothesis II, the multivariate F-ratio for the difference between mean vectors was .83 ($p = .49$). Therefore, there was no significant difference between the two groups (high versus low satisfaction) as measured by the facilitative conditions given by the intern to the client.

In the third test of Hypothesis II, the multivariate F-ratio for the difference mean vector was 1.19 ($p = .34$). Therefore, there was no significant difference between the two groups (high versus low satisfaction) as measured by the facilitative conditions given by the intern to the client.

In the fourth test of Hypothesis II, the mean vectors of the MANOVA were not equal, $F = 4.08$ ($p = .02$), meaning that there was a significant difference between the two groups (high versus low satisfaction) in the levels of the three conditions given to the client by the intern. The difference among the mean vectors was probably attributable to only one of the intern's facilitative conditions which was Empathy-Average, where the univariate F-ratio was found to be 6.53 ($p = .02$).

Table 2

Summary of Multivariate and Univariate Analysis of Variance for the Effects of the Degree of Satisfaction (CEI) of the Supervisor as Perceived by the Intern on the Level of Facilitative Conditions which the Trainee Offered the Client (N = 20)

Source	F-Ratio for Differences Between Mean Vectors and Means (for the Univariate F)		Actual Level of Significance	Power of Statistic (F)
	Overall F			
First Data Collection	Overall F	1.42	.28	
	Empathy-Peak	0.06	.80	.26
	Empathy-Average	5.07	.03	.26
	Following Behavior	.71	.65	.38
Second Data Collection	Overall F	0.83	.49	
	Empathy-Peak	1.50	.23	.26
	Empathy-Average	0.50	.48	.17
	Following Behavior	0.58	.45	.26
Third Data Collection	Overall F	1.19	.34	
	Empathy-Peak	2.36	.14	.38
	Empathy-Average	1.07	.27	.26
	Following Behavior	0.12	.73	.36
Fourth Data Collection	Overall F	4.08	.02	
	Empathy-Peak	0.68	.42	.26
	Empathy-Average	6.53	.02	.38
	Following Behavior	3.54	.08	.26

Hypothesis III: The degree of satisfaction perceived by the trainee in the trainer-trainee relationship will directly influence the trainee's facilitative responding with clients.

The satisfaction with the total supervisory experience (independent variable) was measured in two different ways. The first measure was the five-point satisfaction scale obtained at the last data collection. The subjects were divided into high-low satisfaction groups via a median split. The facilitative conditions (dependent variables) were measured by the three intern facilitation scales (Empathy-Peak, Empathy-Average, and Following Behavior) taken from the last set of tapes collected.

In the first test of Hypothesis III, the multivariate F-ratio for the difference in mean vectors was $F = 1.38$, $p = .28$ (See Table 3). Therefore, there was no significant difference between the high and low groups (satisfaction with total supervisory experience).

The second test of Hypothesis III involved taking the five-point scale utilized in the first test for Hypothesis III (satisfaction scale) and subtracting it from the five-point scale on internship expectations administered to the interns at the beginning of the study. The difference was then broken up into high-low groups via a median split. In the actual analysis, the mean vectors of the MANOVA were not equal, $F = 5.48$ ($p = .01$) meaning that there was a significant difference between the high-low total satisfaction group on the three facilitative conditions given to the client by the intern. The difference between the mean vectors was probably attributable to the scales empathy-peak ($F = 7.05$, $p = .01$) and following behavior ($F = 6.83$, $p = .02$, See Table 4).

Table 3

Summary of Multivariate and Univariate Analysis of Variance for the Effects of the Amount of Satisfaction with the Internship Center as Perceived by the Intern on the Intern's Ability to Give Facilitative Conditions to the Client (N = 20)

Source	F-Ratio for Difference Between Mean Vectors and Means (for the Univariate F)	Actual Level of Significance	Power of Statistic (F)
Taken at Last Data Collection			
Overall F	1.38	.28	
Empathy-Peak	1.92	.18	.26
Empathy-Average	1.48	.24	.36
Following Behavior	0.71	.40	.17

Table 4

Summary of Multivariate and Univariate Analysis of Variance for the Effects of the Differences Between Expectations and Obtained Intern Satisfaction with the Internship on the Intern's Ability to Give Facilitative Conditions to the Client (N = 20)

Source	F-Ratio for Difference Between Mean Vectors and Means (for the Univariate F)	Actual Level of Significance	Power of Statistic (F)
Taken at First and Last Data Collection	Overall F Empathy-Peak Empathy-Average Following Behavior	5.48 7.05 0.21 6.83	.01 .01 .65 .02
			.36 .17 .26

Therefore, of the two MANOVAS used to test Hypothesis III, one was significant and, therefore, the hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis IV:

a) There will be no difference on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a high level of facilitative responding.

b) There will be a difference in the direction of higher facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a high level of facilitative responding.

c) There will be a difference in the direction of lower facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding from trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a low level of facilitative responding.

d) There will be no difference on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a low level of facilitative responding.

Each of the above hypotheses were tested as follows (only on example will be described). With regard to interns with a low baseline level of facilitative conditions, the intern's baseline level of facilitative conditions was compared to their final (after twenty weeks) level of facilitative conditions by a Mann-Whitney-U statistic. The statistic indicated if there was a clear separation of the rank order of the intern's facilitative conditions. In the cases where an increase in the level of facilitative conditions was expected, the rank orders of the facilitative conditions measured at the baseline period would be expected to be lower than the rank orders of the facilitative conditions measured at the final period.

Table 5 presents the test of Hypotheses IVa to IVd. With regard to Hypothesis IVa, it can be seen that the Mann-Whitney-U statistics

Table 5

Mann-Whitney-U Analysis for Test of Hypothesis IV a to d: Comparison of Baseline Level With Final Level of Facilitative Conditions for Four Intern-Supervisor Combinations and Three Measures of Facilitative Conditions (N = 20)

Hypotheses	Facilitative Scales	Mann-Whitney-U	Mean Direction (if significant)
Hypothesis IVa (High Baseline Level Intern High Level Supervisor)	Empathy-Peak (n=5) Empathy-Average (n=5) Following Behavior (n=5)	12 5 3	- - -
Hypothesis IVb (Low Baseline Level Intern High Level Supervisor)	Empathy-Peak (n=5) Empathy-Average (n=5) Following Behavior (n=5)	12 0** 12	- increase -
Hypothesis IVc (High Baseline Level Intern Low Level Supervisor)	Empathy-Peak (n=5) Empathy-Average (n=5) Following Behavior (n=5)	1* 1* 8	decrease decrease -
Hypothesis IVd (Low Baseline Level Intern Low Level Supervisor)	Empathy-Peak (n=5) Empathy-Average (n=5) Following Behavior (n=5)	6 14 9	- - -

* .05 level of significance

** .01 level of significance

were not significant, therefore, Hypothesis IVa was not rejected. That is, interns with a high baseline level of facilitative conditions who were supervised by supervisors with a high level of facilitative conditions did not show any significant changes in the three measures of facilitative conditions at the end of a twenty week period. This finding was expected.

With regard to Hypothesis IVb, it can be seen that two of the three Mann-Whitney-U's were not significant, therefore, Hypothesis IVb was rejected although there was mild statistical support (Hypothesis IVb and IVc were accepted if at least two out of three of the analyses were significant). That is, there was only partial support for the hypothesis that interns with a low baseline level of facilitative conditions who were supervised by supervisors with a high level of facilitative conditions did show significant changes in facilitative conditions at the end of a twenty week period. The one facilitative condition in which there was a significant change was Empathy-Average ($U = 0, p = .00$).

With regard to Hypothesis IVc, it can be seen that two of the three Mann-Whitney-U statistics were significant, therefore, Hypothesis IVc was not rejected. That is, interns with a high baseline level of facilitative conditions who were supervised by supervisors with a low level of facilitative conditions did show significant changes in two of the three measures of facilitative conditions at the end of a twenty week period. The significant scales were Empathy-Peak ($U = 1, p = .05$) and Following Behavior ($U = 1, p = .05$). This was expected.

With regard to Hypothesis IVd, it can be seen that the Mann-

Whitney-U statistics were not significant, therefore, Hypothesis IVd was not rejected. That is, interns with a low baseline level of facilitative conditions who were supervised by supervisors with a low level of facilitative conditions did not show any significant changes in the three measures of facilitative conditions at the end of a twenty week period. These findings were expected.

Hypothesis V: The fifth hypothesis consisted of four sub-hypotheses as follows:

a) There will be no difference on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as high in counselor effectiveness.

b) There will be a difference in the direction of higher facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as high in counselor effectiveness.

c) There will be a difference in the direction of lower facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as low in counselor effectiveness.

d) There will be no difference on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for interns with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as low in counselor effectiveness.

Each of the above hypotheses were tested as follows (only one example will be described). With regard to interns with a low baseline level of facilitative conditions who have supervisors with which they are satisfied, the interns' baseline level of facilitative conditions was compared to their final (after twenty weeks) level of facilitative conditions by a Mann-Whitney-U statistic. The statistics indicated if there was a clear separation of the rank order of

the intern's facilitative conditions. In the cases where an increase in the level of facilitative conditions was expected, the rank orders of the facilitative conditions measured at the baseline period would be expected to be lower than the rank orders of the facilitative conditions measured at the final period.

Table 6 presents the test of Hypotheses Va to Vd. With regard to Hypothesis Va, it can be seen that two of the Mann-Whitney-U statistics were significant, therefore, Hypothesis Va was rejected. That is, interns with a high baseline level of facilitative conditions who were supervised by supervisors with whom they were satisfied did show significant changes (decrease) in two to the three measures of facilitative conditions at the end of a twenty week period. The significant scales were Empathy-Average ($U = 0$, $p = .01$) and Following Behavior ($U = 1$, $p = .05$). This was not expected.

With regard to Hypothesis Vb, it can be seen that the Mann-Whitney-U statistics were not significant, therefore, Hypothesis Vb was rejected. (As was the case of Hypotheses IVb and IVc, Hypothesis Vb and Vc were accepted if at least two out of three analyses were significant.) That is, interns with a low baseline level of facilitative conditions who were supervised by supervisors with whom they were satisfied did not show significant changes in the three measures of facilitative conditions at the end of a twenty week period. This finding was not expected.

With regard to Hypothesis Vc, it can be seen that two of the three Mann-Whitney-U statistics were not significant, therefore, Hypothesis Vc was rejected, although there was mild statistical support.

Table 6

Mann-Whitney-U Analysis for Test of Hypothesis V a to d: Comparison of Baseline Level With Final Level of Facilitative Conditions for Four Intern-Supervisor Combinations and Three Measures of Facilitative Conditions (N = 20)

Hypotheses	Facilitative Scales	Mann-Whitney-U	Mean Direction (if significant)
Hypothesis Va (High Baseline Level Intern High Satisfaction Supervisor)	Empathy-Peak (n=6)	7**	-
	Empathy-Average (n=5)	0**	decrease
	Following Behavior (n=5)	1*	decrease
Hypothesis Vb (Low Baseline Level Intern High Satisfaction Supervisor)	Empathy-Peak (n=6)	12	-
	Empathy-Average (n=8)	27	-
	Following Behavior (n=8)	23	-
Hypothesis Vc (High Baseline Level Intern Low Satisfaction Supervisor)	Empathy-Peak (n=5)	8	-
	Empathy-Average (n=3)	0	-
	Following Behavior (n=4)	3*	decrease
Hypothesis Vd (Low Baseline Level Intern Low Satisfaction Supervisor)	Empathy-Peak (n=3)	3	-
	Empathy-Average (n=4)	6	-
	Following Behavior (n=3)	4	-

* .05 level of significance

** .01 level of significance

That is, interns with a high baseline level of facilitative conditions who were supervised by supervisors with whom they were not satisfied did not show significant changes in two of the three measures of facilitative conditions at the end of a twenty week period. The one scale that did support what was expected was Following Behavior ($U = 0$, $p = .05$).

With regard to Hypothesis Vd, it can be seen that the three Mann-Whitney-U statistics were not significant, therefore, Hypothesis Vd was not rejected. That is, interns with a low baseline level of facilitative conditions who were supervised by supervisors with whom they were not satisfied did not demonstrate significant changes in the three measures of facilitative conditions at the end of a twenty week period. This finding was expected.

CHAPTER IV

Discussion

Chapter four is divided into five different sections. The first section is a summary of each hypothesis and an elaboration of the results. Section two relates the findings to previous research. Section three deals with the theoretical implications of the study and section four presents suggestions for further research.

Elaboration of Results for Hypothesis I:

The level of supervisory facilitative responding perceived by the trainee will directly influence the trainee's facilitative responding with clients.

For Hypothesis I, it was expected that the intern's perceived level of facilitative conditions given to him by the supervisor would have an effect on the intern's level of empathy (both peak and average) and the ability to follow the content of the conversation of the client. It was expected that high facilitative conditions by the supervisor would (1) be a good model for the intern to copy when dealing with the client, and (2) offer conditions to enable the intern to develop his or her own therapeutic style and facilitative conditions toward the client. However, the data did not support this hypothesis. That is, the supervisor's facilitative conditions offered to the intern was not found to be related to the intern's mean level of facilitative conditions offered to clients. A possible explanation for the results is due to the time interns require to acquire skills which will be discussed in the section comparing the obtained data with the literature.

Elaboration of Results for Hypothesis II:

The degree of satisfaction perceived by the trainee in the trainer-trainee relationship will directly influence the trainee's facilitative responding with clients.

In Hypothesis II, it was expected that a factor other than the supervisor's facilitative conditions was required to affect the intern's facilitative conditions with a client. It was thought that perhaps the intern needed to be "satisfied" with his/her supervisor. If the intern was satisfied, then the facilitative conditions offered to the client would be expected to be higher than if the intern was not satisfied. Although the data did not support the expectation, it was felt that judgement should be suspended on this hypothesis because of the equivocal results. That is, the test of Hypothesis II at the first, second and third data collections did not support the hypothesis. However, Hypothesis II was supported at the .02 level in the fourth data collection. In other words, at the fourth data collection, the interns' satisfaction with the supervisory relationship, as measured by the CEI, had an effect on the interns' level of facilitative conditions offered to the client. This suggests that over a substantial period of time (twenty weeks), there is a relationship between intern satisfaction with the supervisor and the level of facilitative conditions which the intern offers the client. A possible reason why the hypothesis was not supported at the first, second and third data collections was that there was insufficient time for the effects of the supervisory relationship to have an influence on the intern.

Elaboration of Results for Hypothesis III:

The degree of satisfaction perceived by the trainee in the trainer-trainee relationship will directly influence the trainee's facilitative responding with clients.

This hypothesis was tested in two different ways. In the first method, the intern's overall degree of internship satisfaction was measured on a five-point scale. It was expected that those interns who reported the higher degree of satisfaction (when compared to other interns) of the overall internship experience would give the highest facilitative conditions to a client in a therapy session. These results were not obtained and the reason may be that the perceived satisfaction with the entire training center was not as important as the relationship with an individual supervisor. Another possible reason may be the initial training expectations (which will be discussed next) of the intern and the fulfillment of those expectations. The second test of Hypothesis III utilized the interns' expectations. It was hypothesized that not only the degree of overall satisfaction with the internship was important, but that the initial expectations of the intern were also important. It was expected (and found) that those interns who had high expectations of the internship with regard to teaching and quality of learning, and had those expectations met, tended to increase in facilitative level. It was also found that those who did not have their high expectations met, tended to decrease or remain at a low facilitative level. On the basis of these findings, the hypothesis was accepted. That is, there was some support for the importance of net internship satisfaction as a factor in producing

changes in the intern's ability to offer facilitative conditions to a client in a therapy session.

Elaboration of Results for Hypothesis IV:

- a) There will be no difference on pre-post measure of facilitative responding for trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a high level of facilitative responding.
- b) There will be a difference in the direction of higher facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a high level of facilitative responding.
- c) There will be a difference in the direction of lower facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding from trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a low level of facilitative responding.
- d) There will be no difference on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers with a low level of facilitative responding.

There were no significant differences in facilitative conditions for Hypothesis IVa as was expected. Hypothesis IVb had only partial support. It was expected that Hypothesis IVb would have been supported to a greater degree (more scales being significant). Hypothesis IVc was supported and Hypothesis IVd was supported. The results from both Hypotheses IVc and IVd were expected.

A plausible interpretation of the findings for Hypothesis IVa to IVd is that in a twenty week period, there is evidence that an intern moves in the direction which approximated the functioning level of the supervisor. A closer look at the data for Hypothesis IV shows that this trend is not apparent with all three measures. Rather, it appears that one aspect of the interns' functioning, peak empathy, is more easily increased, while other aspects, average empathy and following behavior, are more easily affected in a detrimental fashion. In other words, when a low-functioning intern is supervised by a high-functioning supervisor, the interns' peak empathy level is affected in a positive manner. That is, it appears that a low-functioning intern, supervised by a high-functioning supervisor, can learn to give "spurts" of very high empathy levels but appears unable to give a sustained increase in his overall empathy and following behavior levels. Reasons for this phenomena should be investigated.

In the case where the intern has a low-functioning supervisor, it appears that the interns' peak empathy level is strongly resistant to any detrimental effects of a low-functioning supervisor. However, the interns' average empathy and following behavior seems harmed by a low level supervisor. Again, these findings should be replicated and further studied for possible causes.

The results from Hypothesis IVa demonstrated that if the intern and supervisor are already at high facilitative levels, the intern will continue to maintain high levels of facilitative functioning. However, in Hypothesis IVc, those interns with high baseline levels of facilitative conditions and a perceived low facilitative supervisor

decreased significantly over a twenty week period toward the level of perceived supervisor facilitation. These decreases were found in average empathy and following behavior. Therefore, it appears that interns move in the direction of their supervisor's facilitative level. This interpretation is partially supported by the finding in Hypothesis IVb (empathy-peak).

Another implication from the data for Hypothesis IV concerns the important variable of time which was not taken into account in Hypothesis I. In Hypothesis I, the interns' facilitative conditions were measured at a given point in time, and were not compared to their baseline level. In essence, Hypothesis I was only concerned with the effects of the supervisor's facilitative level on the intern's facilitative level at one point in time. (Hypothesis I was replicated four times.) On the other hand, Hypothesis IV took into consideration the time variable by examining the interns' baseline and final (twenty weeks later) level of facilitative conditions. Apparently, even if an intern perceived his supervisor to be highly facilitative, he still requires time to acquire the facilitative skills. This supports the importance of a lengthy internship if the intern is to acquire minimal levels of facilitation (provided he has a facilitative supervisor).

Elaboration of Results for Hypothesis V:

a) There will be no difference on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as high in counselor effectiveness.

b) There will be a difference in the direction of higher

facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as high in counselor effectiveness.

c) There will be a difference in the direction of lower facilitative responding on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for trainees with a high level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as low in counselor effectiveness.

d) There will be no difference on pre-post measures of facilitative responding for interns with a low level of facilitative responding who have trainers perceived by the trainee as low in counselor effectiveness.

In Hypothesis Va, it was expected that those interns with a high baseline facilitative level, who are supervised by supervisors they were satisfied with, would remain at the same facilitative level after the twenty week period. However, the data reveals a significant decrease in the interns' facilitative level. It was concluded, therefore, that the degree of intern satisfaction with the supervisor is not an essential factor in maintaining a facilitative level. In the case of Hypothesis Vb, Vc and Vd, it also appears that intern satisfaction is not strongly related to facilitation. Perhaps the interns' satisfaction with the supervisor combined with the supervisors' facilitative level would have given a more definitive answer. However, because the sample size was not large enough, this type of analysis could not be undertaken.

One possible explanation for the obtained results in Hypothesis V may be found in the explanation of Hypothesis III. In Hypothesis III (which studied intern satisfaction of the internship center) significant results were obtained only when the interns' initial expectations were taken into consideration with their satisfaction with the internship. Perhaps the interns' original expectations of the individual supervisor is an important factor and should be further explored.

Present Results Compared to Previous Research

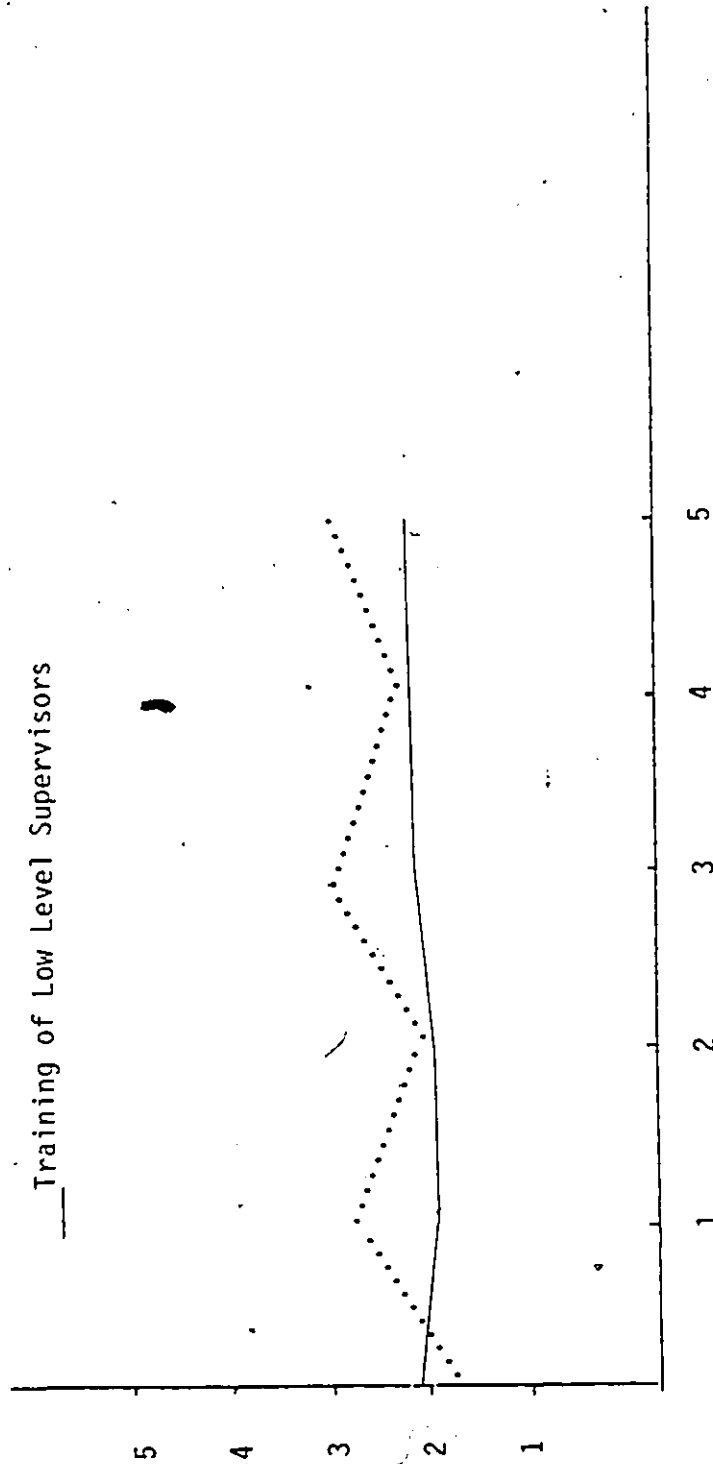
The only hypotheses studied in this research which can be compared to previous findings are Hypotheses I and IV.

In 1970, Pierce and Schauble published a similar study examining the supervisors' facilitative level. They measured the supervisor's facilitative level through actual therapy tapes of the supervisor with a client, rather than via questionnaires filled out by the intern on the supervisor. Their findings (Figure 2) demonstrated that those interns who had highly facilitative supervisors (in therapy sessions) attained an equivalent level of facilitative functioning as the supervisor. The graph also demonstrated that those interns who had a therapeutically low facilitative supervisor attained the approximate low level of their supervisor. The findings of this study (Figure 3) demonstrated similar findings. Instead of two groups of interns utilized by Pierce and Schauble, four groups were used at two different baseline facilitative levels. Figure 3 demonstrates that regardless of the baseline facilitative level, the intern will either change his/her facilitative level toward the level of the supervisor, or

FIGURE 2

... Training of High Level Supervisors

___ Training of Low Level Supervisors

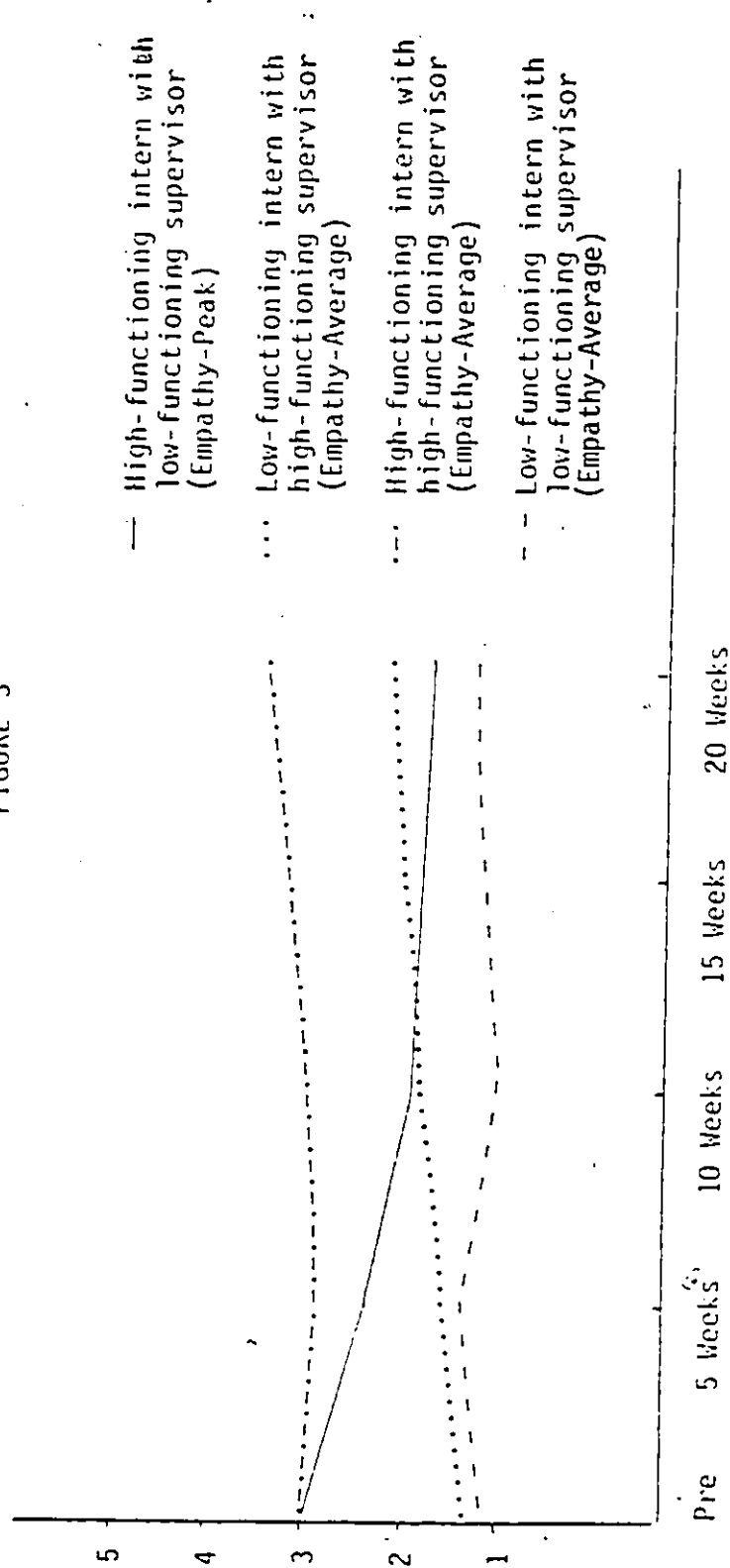


Pre (6 weeks) (12 weeks) (18 weeks) (24 weeks) (30 weeks).

Average movement across all the facilitative conditions (empathy, regard, genuineness, concreteness) for trainees of high and low-functioning counselor supervisors.

(Pierce and Schauble, 1970)

FIGURE 3



Movements across two empathy scales (average and peak) for training of high and low-functioning interns matched with high and low-functioning supervisor.

maintain the baseline level if he is initially functioning at the same level of the supervisor depending on the quality of the supervisory relationship.

It is felt that the rejection of Hypothesis I is not a contradiction to Pierce and Schauble's results because Hypothesis I did not take into consideration the time factor which was discussed earlier. It is apparent that the intern requires time to change his level of facilitation to the level of his supervisor, "for better or for worse". As was mentioned in Chapter I, some theoreticians feel that the supervisory relationship is, in many ways, similar to that of a therapeutic relationship. It is therefore reasonable to assume that it takes time for a client to change even under the best of therapeutic conditions; therefore, the intern should require time to change as well.

It is also important to note that both types of supervisor's facilitative conditions, that is, as perceived by the intern (measured in this study) led to similar results when related to intern facilitation. It is therefore suggested that the interns' perception of the supervisors' facilitative level is comparable to an outside raters' perception.

Another interesting aspect found in this research which was mentioned earlier was that some of the interns who started the study functioning at high levels of facilitation and who were supervised by low facilitative supervisors, decreased in their facilitativeness with a client. It is felt that this finding further supports the studies of Pierce and Schauble on the importance of high facilitative supervisors.

Theoretical Implications

Hypotheses I and IVa to IVb will be discussed together since, as was mentioned earlier, the only difference between the two is that Hypothesis IVa to IVd takes into consideration the need for the intern to go through a period of time for change. The concept of the need for time to change appears to have been neglected in past research. There are no research precedents which indicate the minimal amount of internship time required for attaining skills as an effective counselor. It is felt that the rejection of Hypothesis I and the failure to reject Hypothesis IVa and IVb is of significant importance. It implies that not only are facilitative conditions of the supervisor important in aiding the student in giving facilitative conditions to the client, but there is also an important time factor involved as well. Just how much time is required has yet to be determined. From the data obtained in this project, at least twenty weeks of practicum is needed to bring about improved intern facilitation.

Hypotheses II and Va to Vd will also be discussed together because like Hypotheses I and IV, the only difference between II and V is that Hypothesis V takes into account the twenty week period. In both cases, the hypotheses were rejected. Although there was no major pattern of significance obtained in Hypothesis II, there was some support found in the fourth data collection period (Table 2), which was interpreted as a justification for further investigation into the area. One of the possible problems with testing Hypothesis II was the CEI scale used to measure the amount of satisfaction. This will be discussed in section four under the limitations of the study.

Another factor which may have affected the results of Hypothesis II and V was the interns' expectation of the supervisor before training began. (This was examined in Hypothesis III where it was found that when there was a correspondence between the interns' expectations and satisfaction level, their facilitative levels increased.) Perhaps a high achieving intern who has high expectations of the supervisor and does not have those expectations met will be affected adversely in his ability to offer facilitative conditions to a client, while an intern who has his expectations met by the supervisor will be able to gain in his facilitative conditions. That is, the interns' expectations and the meeting of those expectations can set the whole climate for the learning relationship. If the intern is meeting the supervisor with a set of preconceived expectations, how receptive will he be for what the supervisor really has planned. The situation might be equated to expecting to learn about the Rorschach and being taught Desensitization. On the other hand, how conducive to teaching and guiding will the supervisor be if he picks up the intern's disappointment? This could lead to defensiveness on the part of both parties.

Hypothesis III was tested twice. In the first test, there was a failure to accept the hypothesis. That is, there was no relationship between the amount of intern satisfaction with the total internship experience and the intern's ability to offer facilitative conditions to a client. These results are similar to those found in Hypotheses II and V.

However, there was a significant relationship obtained when the

intern's initial expectations of the center was taken into account in addition to the final satisfaction level with the center. As was pointed out in the discussion of Hypotheses II and V, perhaps the important factor may not be intern satisfaction by itself. This must be considered in the light of the interns' expectations before supervision takes place. If a student has low expectations (which may reflect his attitude as well) about the counseling center, he may not be motivated to change himself toward being a more facilitative therapist.

Limitations of the Study:

A major consideration which must be taken into account when interpreting the data is the small sample size which greatly affects the power of the statistics employed to test the hypotheses. With a small N and the use of a multivariate statistic, there is a strong chance of making a type II error or a failure to reject the null hypothesis when it should be rejected. Failure to obtain possible existing significance is due to the power of statistical analysis which is considered to be low. That is, the ability of the statistical analysis to be sensitive to discern minimal trends or partial significance was weak. However, it was felt that the chance of obtaining this error rather than making a type-I error (getting a false positive) was the lesser of the two evils. It is hypothesized that even if some significance was obtained through the use of a conservative statistic, this would mean that there is at least some relationship and grounds for further research.

In order to obtain significance, a rather high F score must be

obtained. Therefore, there is an increased chance of not obtaining a significant statistic with a low N as well as the increased chance of not rejecting the null hypothesis. This is perhaps the case with Hypotheses I, II and IV in which some "significance" was obtained, but not enough to reject the null hypotheses.

It should be mentioned that there were, however, two hypotheses which were not rejected in spite of the more conservative statistical requirements. It is felt, therefore, that because significance was obtained, it can be said with more certainty that a relationship does exist as posited in Hypotheses III and IV.

Another factor which was taken into consideration about the use of the small N was the reality of the situation and the difficulty in obtaining an adequate population size. In the review of the literature, over ten articles were found to have an N of equivalent size or smaller to this research project. These studies, many of which were PhD dissertations from major universities, employed cells of 10 (or less). Hansen and Barker (1964) mentioned that research with practicum supervision will continue to be slow due to the low number of students enrolled in each program but nonetheless, should be continued. Although the internship time studied in this research took only twenty weeks, it took over a year of gathering data to obtain a sample size of twenty.

Another limitation in the study, as was mentioned earlier, is perhaps the scale used to measure the degree of intern satisfaction with the supervisor. The original satisfaction scale of the CEI consisted of five questions. However, two had to be removed because

they did not pertain to the study. Another problem with the idea of satisfaction is that the concept is perhaps too vague and should be more finely defined into areas such as instruction, relationship, orientation and even perhaps type of client. When a limited number of subjects are available for this type of research, the examiner is left with a number of possibilities: 1) Wait another year to collect data from a new batch of interns; 2) Gather more data outside of the university; or 3) Pick another topic. The first choice, although admirable and actually necessary for further research in this area, is not realistic for the scope of a PhD dissertation. The second choice would weaken the design due to less experimental control in terms of training the intern, types of client, types of supervision and goals of treatment. The third would not satisfy the requirement of badly needed research in this area.

Another objection to this research may be the imprecision of the self report measures utilized in this study. Most of the scales have been demonstrated to be reliable and valid as can be seen by past literature on the scale. Some of the scales have not been tested thoroughly. However, as can be seen from Chapter I and II, all the scales are based on theory and have been employed in accepted past research. Unfortunately, when we are dealing with human qualities and interactions, there will always be a difficulty in attempting to quantify and measure humans and their interactions to the exactness which one would like. This is, however, not seen as a reason to not attempt to empirically study and learn in this area of man.

It also may be noticed that there were small differences between

the various means utilized in this study. The difficulty lies partly with the empathy scales themselves as discussed in Chapter II. A difference of 2.0 in empathy scale ratings might appear to be statistically small, but it is significantly different in a therapy session, for it means the difference between offering a facilitate environment which is necessary for a client to change (level 3), and a non-therapeutic environment (level 1.0). Changes in empathy levels are often small, but can be theoretically very significant. It is felt the same applies to the scale for following behavior as well. Even just a few key phrases given by the intern which attends to the content and possible feelings of the client may mean significant differences in a more positive therapeutic change.

Suggestions for Further Research:

It is felt that this research further demonstrates the need for not only facilitative supervisors, but also a minimal amount of time of internship for the intern to acquire facilitative skills. As can be seen from Figure 3 of this study, plus data from Pierce and Schauble's study, Figure 2 change in facilitation is a gradual process. It appears that at least six months of intensive training is required to reach minimal levels of facilitation. It is felt, however, that one area which is worth further study is the amount of change which occurs in the intern in a practicum of a year's duration (which the intern at the University of Ottawa receives).

Another area which this research examined is the supervisor's facilitative conditions as seen by the interns' perspective and point of view (past research examined conditions via outside raters). It

must be remembered that it is the intern who is trying to change (or be changed) and perhaps examining issues from the intern's point of view is an important area which to some extent has been overlooked. In the debate between experiential versus didactic approaches to supervision, not one study was found which examined the students' point of view. Yet, in actual counseling, one of the first questions posed to the client is "how can I best help you?" Perhaps this approach has been overlooked.

Looking at the results of this research, it can be seen that the research findings are inconclusive and perhaps contradicting. As discussed in the limitations of the study, the sample size may lend to the confusion of the results. It is felt, however, that another factor which could influence the findings should be discussed. That is the concept that all students do not learn in the same manner. Mahon and Altman (1970) suggest that not all individuals respond equally to training and that skills learned in one situation do not necessarily transfer to another.

Too many studies suggest that newly acquired skills are more like appendages than purposeful behavior. If skill-training programs are to become more effective, at least some of the following kinds of questions need to be addressed: What is known about the entering level of trainees? What will be done to integrate the skills within the existing response system of the trainees? How will the skills be assessed? Will there be follow-up training or assessment? Many times these questions represent reasons used after training to explain lack of results; it is hoped they will become issues more carefully considered before training commences. (p. 49)

In order to change behavior, we must change underlying perceptions. Therefore, altering a behavior, without altering beliefs or values associated with that behavior is not likely to result in lasting behavior change. Thus skill training might indeed produce some behavior changes, but the

permanence of these changes will depend upon the extent to which they are accompanied by meaningful and relevant changes in perception. When perceptions do not change, newly acquired skills can be expected to fade out. This is very likely what happens in many skill training programs. By emphasizing just the acquisition of a behavior, the behavior remains unrelated to existing perceptions and eventually disappears. (p. 47)

After reviewing the immense body of literature, it is felt that although the training of technique is important, dealing with the intern as a human who can be molded into an effective change agent is very important. An important area to be looked at in a relationship is not only the intern or the technique, but the other half of the relationship, i.e., the supervisor. What criteria have we used in the past to say that a therapist is a good supervisor? Is it ethical to answer that because an individual is an "effective" therapist with a client, that he/she can also be an effective supervisor?

In all, it is felt there are two major areas which need to be examined if we are to reliably obtain an effective graduate training program for psychotherapy. First, is the intern and which variables enable him to be an effective change agent, and secondly, the supervisor, and which variables enable him to transfer the therapeutic process to the intern. If we do not have necessary and sufficient information on these two vital areas, then our graduate training for the practicing clinical psychologist is doomed to failure.

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Appendix A

Following Behavior

- 1) An open invitation to talk
 - open-ended questions
 - help client clarify own problems (not gain information for interviewer)
- 2) Encouragement to talk more - "um humm"
 - shows interest and involvement
 - also reinforcers for client's behavior
- 3) Reflection and/or summarization
 - I am with you...I am accurately sensing the world as you feel and perceive it.
 - Level 3 or above
- 4) Summarization
 - integrating the various responses of the client
 - re-statement of content (when stuck go back to something that was said previously)
- 5) None of the above

A characteristic of good following behavior is the interviewer's use of comments which follow directly from what the interviewer is saying. He does not jump from subject to subject or interrupts.

Attention is central to the interaction between interviewer and client. Unless the interviewer listens or attends to the client, little in the way of understanding will occur. Too many beginning counselors and interviewers fail to listen to their clients.

In order to engage in the skill of attending behavior, the person

must listen to content. To follow communication of feeling by appropriate statements, one must attend to the feeling that is being communicated. The person who is incongruent or attending to himself rather than the client will be unable to listen.

Verbal following behavior demands that the counselor respond to the last comment or some preceding comment of the client without introducing new data. Topic jumping or asking questions in a random pattern is a common occurrence among beginning interviewers.

(Ivey, 1971)

Following Behavior

Tape _____

Side _____

Tr _____

Seg _____

1) An open invitation to talk

- open-ended questions
- help client clarify own problems (not gain information for interviewer)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25

2) Encouragement to talk more - "um humm"

- shows interest and involvement
- reinforces client's behavior

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25

3) Reflection and/or summarization

- I am with you ...I am accurately sensing the world as you feel and perceive it
- Level 3 or above

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25

4) Summarization

- integrating the various responses of the client
- re-statement of content (when stuck go back to something that was said previously)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25

5) None of the above

- statements which distract client from stream of current
thought

- change of topic or attempt to gain information not connected
to current conversation

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10 11 12 13 14 15 16 17 18 19 20 21 22 23 24 25

Appendix B

Empathic Understanding in Interpersonal Processes:

A Scale of Measurement

Level 1

The verbal and behavioral expressions for the helper either do not attend to or detract significantly from the verbal and behavioral expressions of the helpee(s) in that they communicate significantly less of the helpee's feelings and experiences than the helpee has communicated himself.

EXAMPLE: The helper communicates no awareness of even the most obvious, expressed surface feelings of the helpee. The helper may be bored or disinterested or simply operating from a preconceived frame of reference which totally excludes that of the helpee(s).

In summary, the helper does everything but express that he is listening, understanding, or being sensitive to even the most obvious feelings of the helpee in such a way as to detract significantly from the communications of the helpee.

Level 2

While the helper responds to the expressed feelings of the helpee(s), he does so in such a way that he subtracts noticeable affect from the communications of the helpee.

EXAMPLE: The helper may communicate some awareness of obvious, surface feelings of the helpee, but his communications drain off a level of the affect and distort the level of meaning. The helper may communicate his own ideas

of what may be going on, but these are not congruent with the expressions of the helpee.

In summary, the helper tends to respond to other than what the helpee is expressing or indicating.

Level 3

The expressions of the helper in response to the expressions of the helpee(s) are essentially interchangeable with those of the helpee in that they express essentially the same affect and meaning.

EXAMPLE: The helper responds with accurate understanding of the surface feelings of the helpee but may not respond to or may misinterpret the deeper feelings.

In summary, the helper is responding so as to neither subtract from nor add to the expressions of the helpee. He does not respond accurately to how that person really feels beneath the surface feelings; but, he indicates a willingness and openness to do so. Level 3 constitutes the minimal level of facilitative interpersonal functioning.

Level 4

The responses of the helper add noticeably to the expressions of the helpee(s) in such a way as to express feelings a level deeper than the helpee was able to express himself.

EXAMPLE: The helper communicates his understanding of the expressions of the helpee at a level deeper than they were expressed and thus, enables the helpee to experience and/or express feelings he was unable to express previously.

In summary, the helper's responses add deeper feeling and meaning to the expressions of the helpee.

Level 5

The helper's responses add significantly to the feeling and meaning of the expressions of the helpee(s) in such a way as to accurately express feeling levels below what the helpee himself was able to express or, in the event of on-going, deep self-exploration on the helpee's part, to be fully with him in his deepest moments.

EXAMPLE: The helper responds with accuracy to all of the helpee's deeper as well as surface feelings. He is "tuned in" on the helpee's wave length. The helper and the helpee might proceed together to explore previously unexplored areas of human existence.

In summary, the helper is responding with a full awareness of who the other person is and with a comprehensive and accurate empathic understanding of that individual's deepest feelings.

(Carkhuff, 1969, 315-317)

Empathy

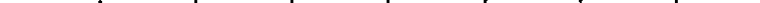
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Side _____

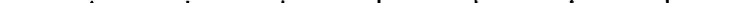
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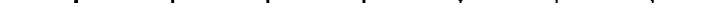
Seg _____

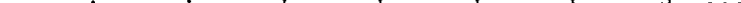
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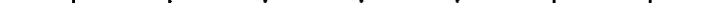
7) 

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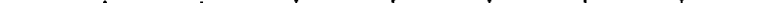
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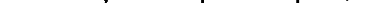
4) 

5) 

6) 

7) _____

8) 

9) 

10) _____

11) _____

12)

13)

14) _____

Appendix C

Code:

Date:

Relationship Inventory -- Form MO-F-64

*Below are listed a variety of ways that one person may feel or behave in relation to another person. Please consider each statement with reference to your present relationship with your supervisor.

Mark each statement in the left margin, according to how strongly you feel that it is true, or not true, in this relationship. Please mark every one. Write in +3, +2, +1, or -1, -2, -3, to stand for the following answers:

+3: Yes, I strongly feel that it is true.

+2: Yes, I feel it is true.

+1: Yes, I feel that it is probably true, or more true than untrue.

-1: No, I feel that it is probably untrue, or more untrue than true.

-2: No, I feel it is not true.

-3: No, I strongly feel that it is not true.

_____ 1. I respect her as a person.

_____ 2. I want to understand how she sees things.

_____ 3. The interest I feel in her depends on the things she says or does.

_____ 4. I feel at ease with her.

_____ 5. I really like her.

_____ 6. I understand her words but do not know how she actually feels.

_____ 7. Whether she is feeling pleased or unhappy with herself does not change the way I feel about her.

- _____ 8. I am inclined to put on a role or front with her.
- _____ 9. I do feel impatient with her.
- _____ 10. I nearly always know exactly what she means.
- _____ 11. Depending on her actions, I have a better opinion of her sometimes than I do at other times.
- _____ 12. I feel that I am a real and genuine person with her.
- _____ 13. I appreciate her as a person.
- _____ 14. I look at what she does from my own point of view.
- _____ 15. The way I feel about her doesn't depend on her feelings toward me.
- _____ 16. It bothers me when she tries to ask or talk about certain things.

Code:

Date:

Relationship Inventory -- Form OS-M-64

- ___ 1. He respects me as a person.
- ___ 2. He wants to understand how I see things.
- ___ 3. His interest in me depends on the things I say or do.
- ___ 4. He is comfortable and at ease in our relationship.
- ___ 5. He feels a true liking for me.
- ___ 6. He may understand my words but he does not see the way I feel.
- ___ 7. Whether I am feeling happy or unhappy with myself makes no real difference to the way he feels about me.
- ___ 8. I feel that he puts on a role or front with me.
- ___ 9. He is impatient with me.
- ___ 10. He nearly always knows exactly what I mean.
- ___ 11. Depending on my behavior, he has a better opinion of me sometimes than he has at other times.
- ___ 12. I feel that he is real and genuine with me.
- ___ 13. I feel appreciated by him.
- ___ 14. He looks at what I do from his own point of view.
- ___ 15. His feeling toward me doesn't depend on how I feel toward him.
- ___ 16. It makes him uneasy when I ask or talk about certain things.
- ___ 17. He is indifferent to me.
- ___ 18. He usually senses or realizes what I am feeling.
- ___ 19. He wants me to be a particular kind of person.
- ___ 20. I nearly always feel that what he says expresses exactly what he is feeling and thinking as he says it.

- ___ 21. He finds me rather dull and uninteresting.
- ___ 22. His own attitudes toward some of the things I do or say prevent him from understanding me.
- ___ 23. I can (or could) be openly critical or appreciative of him without really making him feel any differently about me.
- ___ 24. He wants me to think that he likes me or understands me more than he really does.
- ___ 25. He cares for me.
- ___ 26. Sometimes he thinks that I feel a certain way, because that's the way he feels.
- ___ 27. He likes certain things about me, and there are other things he does not like.
- ___ 28. He does not avoid anything that is important for our relationship.
- ___ 29. I feel that he disapproves of me.
- ___ 30. He realizes what I mean even when I have difficulty in saying it.
- ___ 31. His attitude toward me stays the same: he is not pleased with me sometimes and critical or disappointed at other times.
- ___ 32. Sometimes he is not at all comfortable but we go on, outwardly ignoring it.
- ___ 33. He just tolerates me.
- ___ 34. He usually understands the whole of what I mean.
- ___ 35. If I show that I am angry with him, he becomes hurt or angry with me, too.
- ___ 36. He expresses his true impressions and feelings with me.
- ___ 37. He is friendly and warm with me.
- ___ 38. He just takes no notice of some things that I think or feel.

- ___ 39. How much he likes or dislikes me is not altered by anything that I tell him about myself.
- ___ 40. At times, I sense that he is not aware of what he is really feeling with me.
- ___ 41. I feel that he really values me.
- ___ 42. He appreciates exactly how the things I experience feel to me.
- ___ 43. He approves of some things I do, and plainly disapproves of others.
- ___ 44. He is willing to express whatever is actually in his mind with me, including any feelings about himself or about me.
- ___ 45. He doesn't like me for myself.
- ___ 46. At times, he thinks that I feel a lot more strongly about a particular thing than I really do.
- ___ 47. Whether I am in good spirits or feeling upset does not make him feel any more or less appreciative of me.
- ___ 48. He is openly himself in our relationship.
- ___ 49. I seem to irritate and bother him.
- ___ 50. He does not realize how sensitive I am about some of the things we discuss.
- ___ 51. Whether the ideas and feelings I express are "good" or "bad" seems to make no difference to his feeling toward me.
- ___ 52. There are times when I feel that his outward response to me is quite different from the way he feels underneath.
- ___ 53. At times, he feels contempt for me.
- ___ 54. He understands me.
- ___ 55. Sometimes I am more worthwhile in his eyes than I am at other times.

- ___ 56. I have not felt that he tries to hide anything from himself that he feels with me.
- ___ 57. He is truly interested in me.
- ___ 58. His response to me is usually so fixed and automatic that I don't really get through to him.
- ___ 59. I don't think that anything I say or do really changes the way he feels toward me.
- ___ 60. What he says to me often gives a wrong impression of his whole thought or feeling at the time.
- ___ 61. He feels deep affection for me.
- ___ 62. When I am hurt or upset, he can recognize my feelings exactly, without becoming upset himself.
- ___ 63. What other people think of me does (or would, if he knew) affect the way he feels toward me.
- ___ 64. I believe that he has feelings he does not tell me about that are causing difficulty in our relationship.

Supervisory Evaluation Inventory

On the basis of your supervisory experiences with your present supervisor, rate each of the following statements: For each statement, choose your response, and fill in the corresponding blank on the answer sheet.

	<u>Always</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Some- times</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
1. I felt the supervisor accepted me as an individual.	a	b	c	d	e
2. I felt comfortable in my interviews with the supervisor.	a	b	c	d	e
3. The supervisor acted as though he thought my concerns and problems were important to him.	a	b	c	d	e
4. The supervisor acted uncertain of himself.	a	b	c	d	e
5. The supervisor acted cold and distant.	a	b	c	d	e
6. I felt at ease with the supervisor.	a	b	c	d	e
7. The supervisor seemed restless while talking with me.	a	b	c	d	e

- | | <u>Always</u> | <u>Often</u> | <u>Some-
times</u> | <u>Rarely</u> | <u>Never</u> |
|---|---------------|--------------|------------------------|---------------|--------------|
| 8. In our talks, the supervisor acted as if he were better than I. | a | b | c | d | e |
| 9. The supervisor's comments helped me to see more clearly what I need to do to gain my objectives. | a | b | c | d | e |
| 10. I believe the supervisor had a genuine desire to be of service to me. | a | b | c | d | e |
| 11. The supervisor was awkward in starting our interviews. | a | b | c | d | e |
| 12. I felt satisfied as a result of my talks with the supervisor. | a | b | c | d | e |
| 13. The supervisor was very patient. | a | b | c | d | e |
| 14. Other interns could be helped by talking with supervisors. | a | b | c | d | e |
| 15. In opening our conversations, the supervisor was relaxed and at ease. | a | b | c | d | e |

	<u>Always</u>	<u>Often</u>	<u>Some- times</u>	<u>Rarely</u>	<u>Never</u>
16. I distrusted the supervisor.	a	b	c	d	e
17. The supervisor gave the impression of "feeling at ease".	a	b	c	d	e
18. The supervisor insisted on being right always.	a	b	c	d	e
19. The supervisor acted as if he had a job to do and didn't care how he accomplished it.	a	b	c	d	e

Before starting my internship, my expectations of the internship center were:

- 1 - very high
- 2 - moderately high
- 3 - did not know what to expect
- 4 - moderately low
- 5 - very low

Please circle your response.

So far, my satisfaction with the internship is:

- 1 - very high
- 2 - moderately high
- 3 - fair
- 4 - moderately low
- 5 - very low

Please circle your response.

Table 7
Means for Hypothesis I

		High RI Group		Low RI Group	
		Mean		Mean	
First Data Collection	Empathy-Peak (n=20)	2.61		2.12	
	Empathy-Average (n=20)	2.01		1.67	
	Following Behavior (n=20)	0.65		0.37	
Second Data Collection	Empathy-Peak (n=20)	2.55		1.96	
	Empathy-Average (n=20)	2.02		1.52	
	Following Behavior (n=20)	0.67		0.37	
Third Data Collection	Empathy-Peak (n=20)	2.47		1.94	
	Empathy-Average (n=20)	1.97		1.57	
	Following Behavior (n=20)	0.65		0.48	
Fourth Data Collection	Empathy-Peak (n=20)	2.44		1.70	
	Empathy-Average (n=20)	2.14		1.52	
	Following Behavior (n=20)	0.47		0.51	

Table 8

Means for Hypothesis II

		Mean	
		High Satisfaction Group (CEI)	Low Satisfaction Group (CEI)
First Data Collection	Empathy-Peak (n=20)	2.54	2.22
	Empathy-Average (n=20)	1.79	1.88
	Following Behavior (n=20)	0.68	0.60
Second Data Collection	Empathy-Peak (n=20)	2.37	1.93
	Empathy-Average (n=20)	1.96	1.49
	Following Behavior (n=20)	0.51	0.53
Third Data Collection	Empathy-Peak (n=20)	2.42	1.78
	Empathy-Average (n=20)	1.97	1.37
	Following Behavior (n=20)	0.60	0.35
Fourth Data Collection	Empathy-Peak (n=20)	2.19	1.85
	Empathy-Average (n=20)	1.84	1.82
	Following Behavior (n=20)	0.56	0.93

Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations for Hypothesis III

	High Satisfaction With Internship Group (5 point scale)	Low Satisfaction With Internship Group (5 point scale)
	Mean	Mean
Empathy-Peak (n=20)	3.14	1.91
Empathy-Average (n=20)	1.95	1.76
Following Behavior (n=20)	0.54	0.46
	High Satisfaction With High Expectations	Low Satisfaction With Low Expectations
Empathy-Peak (n=20)	2.43	2.16
Empathy-Average (n=20)	1.76	1.56
Following Behavior (n=20)	0.61	0.40

Table 10
Means and Standard Deviations for Interns (n=20) Characteristics

Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation
CPI		
(Do)	30.40	5.42
(Cs)	22.40	1.90
(Sy)	27.30	4.33
(Sp)	42.15	4.38
(Sa)	22.55	2.54
(Wb)	38.15	3.11
(Re)	31.05	4.11
(So)	36.85	4.69
(Sc)	31.95	5.78
(To)	27.45	2.32
(Gi)	18.50	4.52
(Cm)	25.55	1.50
(Ac)	30.60	4.03
(Ai)	25.25	2.40
(Ie)	44.00	3.75
(Py)	16.65	9.12
(Fx)	14.10	3.43
(Fe)	21.65	3.70
Sex	1.45	0.51
Language	1.25	0.44
Level	1.40	0.50
Age	29.35	8.56
Experience	2.30	5.64
Center	1.55	0.82