RELATIONSHIP OF SEX ROLE ORIENTATION TO PREFERENCE
FOR TYPE OF RESPONSE IN COUNSELING

DISSERTATION

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By

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This study compared beginning and advanced counselor education students on self-reported sex-role orientation and preference for selected counseling responses. It was assumed that sex-role socialization leads to restrictive attitudes that make it difficult for students to acquire and use selected interpersonal counseling skills. It was anticipated that counselor education training programs would provide a means for students to overcome the limitations imposed by sex-role socialization practices.

Subjects in this study were 87 counselor education graduate students, 34 advanced students enrolled in the final two courses required for the master's degree and 53 beginning students enrolled in the first course in the master's degree sequence.

Based on scores obtained from the Bern Sex-Role Inventory, subjects were divided into three groups: (1) feminine, (2) androgynous, (3) masculine. The Response Alternatives Questionnaire was used to determine subjects' preference for counseling responses.
Beginning counseling students did differ from advanced counseling students in preference for counseling responses. Univariate F-tests revealed the significant differences were in the beginning students' preference for reassuring and supporting responses. Subjects did not differ by sex-role orientation in preference for counseling responses.

Beginning counseling students did not differ from advanced counseling students by sex-role orientation in preference for counseling responses. Gender of subjects was not a significant factor in preference for type of counseling response.

Regardless of sex-role orientation or gender, the subjects in this study showed greatest preference for paraphrasing and understanding responses and questioning and probing responses. Subjects, regardless of sex-role orientation or gender, least preferred advising and evaluating and reassuring and supporting responses. Suggestions for further research related to acquisition of counseling skills are recommended.
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Researchers recently have reestablished an interest in the personality correlates of effective counselors (Carlozzi & Hurlburt, 1982; Hirsch & Stone, 1982). A counselor's own personality has come to be recognized as the integrating basis for learning and using specific counseling skills (i.e. when to use one type of response as opposed to another). Mahon and Altmann (1977) have argued that personal qualities underlying counseling skills should receive as much or more emphasis as the skills to be learned; and, Borders and Fong (1985) have indicated the need to attend to restrictive attitudes associated with sex-role orientation which limit counselors' objectivity, flexibility, creativity, and effectiveness in responding to clients.

Sex-role orientation, the classification used to characterize a person as masculine, feminine, or androgynous as a function of his or her endorsement of masculine and feminine personality characteristics (Bem, 1974), is one personality characteristic that has been used to examine differences in perceptions and behaviors. Research has
shown that persons with androgynous, masculine, and feminine sex-role orientations do differ in their interpersonal behavior and cognitive processing (Borders & Fong, 1985). The androgynous individual is more self-assured, adaptive, flexible, accepting, and competent in interpersonal interactions than a sex-role restricted person. In a study of 32 male and 32 female college students Cristall and Dean (1976), using the t-ratio method of classification found a significant relationship between sex-role orientation as measured by the Bem Sex-Role Inventory and self-actualization. Individuals who were highly self-actualized were androgynous or free from strong sex-role stereotypes. These results led Cristall and Dean (1976) to entertain the possibility of androgyny allowing for more flexibility in self-expression.

Cook (1985) posited that androgynous individuals' behavior was more difficult to predict because of the broader repertoire of behaviors to choose from and their skill in perceiving situational demands. Spence and Helmreich (1979) stated that predicting sex-role related characteristics across variable domains, such as personality characteristics to sex-role attitudes or behaviors was difficult to accomplish with any accuracy.

It has often been taken for granted that masculine qualities provide adequate problem solving skills.
Alternate methods of dealing with problems that encompass such traditional feminine qualities as emotional responsiveness, thoughtful pondering, achievement of personal goals not related to power, status, and prestige, human concern, soft persuasiveness, and striving toward incremental changes have not been considered viable (Wong, Davey, & Conroe, 1976). Yet these qualities that have traditionally been assumed to be feminine are considered to be facilitative in many client-counselor interactions.

Although counseling research has frequently studied the impact of gender alone on trainees' performance of selected skills, the findings are inconclusive and little attention has been given to the relationship between sex-role orientation and counselor performance (Borders & Fong, 1985). Feldstein (1979) found that sex-role behavior had a greater effect on counseling effectiveness than biological sex. O'Neil (1981) has recommended that counselor training programs should include formal course content dealing with sexism, sex-role socialization, and sex-role conflicts to sensitize counselors-in-training to the problems that may occur due to their restrictive notions of masculinity and femininity. Counselors must understand their own feelings and beliefs about masculinity and femininity in order to more effectively help others (O'Neil, 1981).
Statement of the Problem

Based on the assumption that the character of sex-role socialization may lead to restrictive attitudes that make it difficult for students to acquire and use selected interpersonal counseling skills and on the scarcity and inconclusive results of research in the area, the relationship between sex-role orientation and the acquisition and use of interpersonal skills typically taught in counselor education courses appeared to warrant further research. It was anticipated that counselor education training programs would provide a means for students to overcome the limitations imposed by sex-role socialization practices. This study compared beginning and advanced counselor education students on self-reported sex-role orientation and preference for selected counseling responses.

Synthesis of Related Literature

The review of literature pertinent to this research is presented in these subsections: (1) Sex-Role Socialization Practices and Pressures; (2) Components of Male Sex-Role; (3) Components of Female Sex-Role; (4) Counseling Responses, and (5) Summary.
Sex-Role Socialization Practices and Pressures

Parents begin to apply sex-role expectations to their child at the moment of sex determination (Basow, 1980). Rubin, Provenzano, and Lauria (1974) interviewed 30 first-time parents within 24 hours after their child's birth and found that significant sex typing had already begun. Although hospital records indicated no difference on any health or physical measures, girls were described as softer, finer, and smaller while boys were defined as firmer, stronger, and more alert. Development of a child's sex role begins shortly after birth when the child is assigned certain colors due to gender (Chapman, 1978). A standard birth announcement has either a pink or blue color theme along with the corresponding sex and name of the new-born; a sex related message. Dressing a child in blue invests a child with masculinity; in pink, with femininity. In this way, the responses of the world toward a child are differentially mobilized (Stone, 1965). People handle a child dressed in pink differently than a child dressed in blue. A child dressed in pink is identified as "darling," "beautiful," "sweet," or "graceful"; while a child dressed in blue is "handsome," "strong," or "agile." At a very early age the investiture of a child provides the materials out of which the reflected sexual identity and its qualifications are formed (Stone, 1965).
In four separate studies (Block, 1973), mothers and fathers of children of different ages --early childhood, middle childhood, adolescence, and youth-- were asked to describe their child-rearing attitudes and behaviors pertaining to a specific child in the family, using the Child-Rearing Practices Report. The four samples were all heterogeneous with respect to educational levels of parents, socioeconomic backgrounds, and ethnicity. The samples were described as follows: (1) parents of nursery school children --age range 3-4 years; mothers, N = 90; fathers, N = 77; (2) parents of children with physical illnesses (diabetes, asthma, congenital heart disease, hay fever) --age range 3-11 years; mothers, N = 75; fathers, N = 44; (3) parents of high school students --age range 15-17 years; mothers, N = 120; fathers, N = 119; (4) parents of university students --age range 17-20 years; mothers, N = 183; fathers N = 156. From these studies, Block concluded that socialization of boys emphasized agentic qualities of achievement, competition, control of feelings and concern for conformity to rules while socialization of girls emphasized communal aspects of expression of feelings and development and maintenance of close interpersonal relationships. Key parent-child issues differed by sex of child with relatedness, protection, and support being associated with females and authority and control being male issues (Block, 1973).
Demands that boys conform to social notions of what is masculine come early and are enforced stringently (Hartley, 1959). Girls can wear pants, skirts, and dresses; they can wear any color. Boys can not wear skirts, dresses, and certain colors. Girls can play with anything, but they are especially encouraged to play with dolls. Boys can have dolls, but they cannot have Barbie dolls. While females' roles appear to be less defined, it's clear that males are socialized to more limited, specific activities (Lague, 1985). Children soon learn what's male and what's female.

By the time children are 18 months old, adults are expecting clear sex differences in their behavior. If boys do not exhibit masculine behaviors, adults become concerned that a problem exists. The problem may be formalized into a label of deviance such as bad boy, bully, sissy, crybaby, softie, or trouble maker (Chapman, 1978). If girls exhibit masculine behaviors, the labels are not as negatively defined, i.e. tomboy (Locksley & Douvan, 1979). Boys are taught to compete and to win. Shame, ridicule, punishment, and guilt are heaped on the loser, the cryer, the softie (Wong, et al., 1976). Until puberty, females experience some degree of bisexual socialization with desirable feminine terms including compliant, charming, thoughtful, helpful, giving, achievement oriented, and competitive (Locksley & Douvan, 1979). During adolescence, females are
confronted with society's goals of marriage and motherhood for women. The peer group provides negative connotations to competitiveness, assertiveness, and achievement orientation. Training that females had during elementary school in achievement and independence yields to dependency, deference, and definition of self through attachment and perceptions of others (Locksley & Douvan, 1979).

If males fail to hide their emotions, they are likely to have difficulty assuming the competitive role designed by society, and to be liked less than those who refrain from disclosing (Chelune, 1976; Derlega & Chaiken, 1976). Females are more favorably evaluated when they are personally open and sharing (Chelune, 1976) and judged to be better adjusted when disclosing than when refraining from disclosing (Derlega & Chaiken, 1976). Boys learn to avoid being thought of as sensitive, thoughtful, effeminate, and a sissy (Wong et al., 1976). The male role has insidiously but clearly defined conditions for acceptance with transgressance being punished severely through ridicule, love withdrawal, and ostracism (Wong et al., 1976). Expectations are based on reasons impossible for a child to appreciate, and enforced with threats, punishment, and anger by those who are close to the child; thus creating a nearly perfect condition for inducing anxiety (Hartley, 1959).
Sex-connected social roles are defined by forces outside the individual without any consideration given to native endowment (Hartley, 1959). From parents, teachers, brothers, sisters, and peers, and from social forces of language, play, media, school, religion, and work, children acquire a gender identity and a clear picture of distinct sex roles (Basow, 1980).

The culture defines acceptable masculinity more narrowly than it defines acceptable femininity (Locksley & Douvan, 1979). Boys are likely to have more conflict than girls with socializing agents because of society's narrower prescriptions regarding acceptable male behavior and because of developmental pacing (Locksley & Douvan, 1979). Males develop at a slower rate both physically and intellectually than females while expectations of performance are equal (Gove, 1979). Sex-role strain appears high for boys during childhood when socialization pressures to conform to their sex role are most stringent (Eme, 1979) and acceptable behavior is closely monitored (Basow, 1980). Boys are encouraged to be aggressive and to value large motor development and then told to sit quietly and behave themselves in the classroom (Brody, 1978). Frequently masculine behavior is negatively defined in the form of what males should not do with appropriate behavior remaining nebulous (Hartley, 1959). Boys are told not to show their
feelings and emotions while girls are praised for their successes in relationships with people and for showing their feelings and emotions (Derlega & Chaikin, 1976).

Although boys generally have some intimate friendships during adolescence, these friendships frequently are concerned less with interpersonal intimacy and sensitivity than are those of girls (Strommen, 1977). For boys, friends serve as a source of support in case of conflict with adults while for girls, friends serve as a source of emotional support in personal crisis. Surface oriented relationships of males tend to extend into adulthood where male friendships tend to focus on shared activities while relationships between females focus on shared feelings.

Throughout childhood, boys consistently have higher rates of learning disorders, adjustment problems, antisocial disorders, and gender-identity disorders (Eme, 1979). Boys were most often referred to counseling for aggressive, antisocial and competitive behaviors; while girls were referred for personality problems consisting of excessive fears, shyness, and inferiority feelings (Chesler, 1971; Gove & Herb, 1974; Locksley & Douvan, 1979). High femininity in females was found to be correlated with high anxiety, low social acceptance, poor self-esteem, dependency, and self-denial by Gall (1969) in a study of 1217 male and 979 female college freshman who completed the
Omnibus Personality Inventory; by Sears (1970) whose sample consisted of 74 males and 82 females who completed the California Psychological Inventory and by Bem (1975; 1976) whose sample consisted of 500 male and 331 female students enrolled in introductory psychology who completed the Bem Sex-Role Inventory.

Through a combination of modeling, rewards, and punishment, boys are taught how to be men and girls are taught how to be women. Sex-appropriate behaviors are reinforced and thus encouraged, while sex-inappropriate behaviors are punished or ignored (Derlega & Chaikin, 1976).

**Components of Male Sex-Role**

Bem (1974) has characterized masculinity as being associated with an instrumental orientation where importance is placed on concern for task and goal achievement. Masculine personality characteristics listed in the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) include acts as a leader, aggressive, ambitious, analytical, assertive, athletic, competitive, defends own beliefs, dominant, forceful, has leadership abilities, independent, individualistic, makes decisions easily, masculine, self-reliant, self-sufficient, strong personality, willing to take a stand, and willing to take risks. Jourard (1971) seemed to support these same characteristics in his statement that males are trained to ignore their own feelings in order more adequately to pursue the instrumental aspects of manliness.
Many men believe that talking about feelings requires relinquishing power and control, with the risk of feeling weak and vulnerable (Rice, 1978). According to male sex-role edicts, showing emotions is "weak" and must be avoided (Basow, 1980). Self-disclosing males are frequently considered poorly adjusted (Basow, 1980). In eight separate samples (N = 1404), general psychology college students completed the BSRI and several attitudinal, personality, and behavioral measures. Subjects were classified as masculine, feminine, or androgynous using the t-ratio method of scoring the BSRI (Jones, Chernovetz, & Hansson, 1978). In comparing masculine male subjects with feminine male subjects, feminine males were less secure, less flexible, less effective, and more vulnerable to influence in areas such as self-esteem, problems with alcohol, sensitivity to criticism, neurotic conflict, and locus of control (Jones, et al., 1978). According to O'Neil (1981), men considered being honest, open, and expressing feelings as dangerous since sharing emotions is synonymous with loss of control. Unexpressed feelings relating to fears, uncertainties, insecurities, and loneliness appear to be byproducts of a constricted male role (Wong, 1978).

Wong, et al. (1976) listed as masculine values rugged physical conflict; forbearance, aggressiveness, and adventure; an aura, however feigned, of self confidence and
assuredness; quick, forceful decision-making; charisma, dynamism; an active striving for power; exigency, efficiency, and expedience; concrete, tangible results; material objects, and rewards; sexuality and sexual conquest; and 'stone wall' stoicism in the face of adversity.

Based on a study of 74 male and 80 female undergraduate psychology students, Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz (1972) found the following stereotypic masculine sex-role characteristics considered desirable: very aggressive, very independent, not at all emotional, almost always hides emotions, very objective, not at all easily influenced, very dominant, likes math and science very much, not at all excitable in a minor crisis, very active, very competitive, very logical, very worldly, very skilled in business, very direct, knows the way of the world, feelings not easily hurt, very adventurous, can make decisions easily, never cries, almost always acts as a leader, very self-confident, not at all uncomfortable about being aggressive, very ambitious, easily able to separate feelings from ideas, not at all dependent, never conceited about appearance, thinks men are always superior to women, and talks freely about sex with men. Characteristics found to be less desirable were: uses very harsh language, not at all talkative, very blunt, very rough, not at all aware of
feelings of others, not at all religious, not at all interested in own appearance, very sloppy in habits, very loud, very little need for security, does not enjoy art and literature at all, and does not express tender feelings at all easily.

Crites (1969) described the ideal man as standing alone; being independent, strong, logical, fearless, controlled, and unemotional. He is stalwart and steadfast under stress, imaginative and ingenious when solving problems, and dedicated and persevering in accomplishing tasks. He is expected to deal successfully with the "outer world" and to not have to cope with the "inner world."

Four themes of the stereotyped male role have been theorized by Brannon (1976): (1) No Sissy Stuff: the need to be different from females, rejecting all "feminine" behaviors and traits; (2) The Big Wheel: the need to be superior to others through acquiring success and status; (3) The Sturdy Oak: the need to be self-reliant and independent by being strong and competent; and (4) Give 'em Hell: the need to be more powerful than others by demonstrating aggressiveness and daring.

The process of identification with male sex-roles may be only minimally available to many boys because their fathers are frequently absent from the children's environment. With the father absent, much of male behavior
must be learned by trial and error with peers and siblings serving as role models (Hartley, 1959). Since the young are frequently good observers but poor interpreters, information may often be distorted and complete role-model information may be lacking (Hartley, 1959).

Hartley (1959) interviewed 41 boys (8 and 11 years old) and found they held the following beliefs about what grown-ups expected of boys: to be noisy; to get dirty; to mess up the house; to be naughty; to be "outside" more than girls are; not to be crybabies; not to be "softies"; not to be "behind" like girls are; and to get into trouble more than girls do. The boys interviewed for Hartley's study gave these opinions about male sex-role expectations for adult men: men need to be strong; ready to make decisions; able to protect women and children in emergencies; have more manual strength than women; know how to carry heavy things; able to fix things, and have a "good business head." Men were viewed by these boys as the ones to do the hard, dirty, rough, and unpleasant work in addition to being able to fix things (Hartley, 1959).

If a male is tender, weeps, or shows weakness behind his facade, he is likely to regard himself as inferior to other men (Jourard, 1971). Consistent with this belief, males tend to be low in self-disclosure--beginning to hide their emotions as early as age four (Basow, 1980). If a
male believes that he must continually be alert, tense, and opaque when around others so that he does not expose his feelings and emotions, energy is constantly consumed by this endeavor (Jourard, 1971). Manliness seems to carry a chronic burden of stress and energy expenditure which could be a factor related to man's relatively shorter life-span (Jourard, 1971).

Mottoes such as "Take it like a man," "Big boys don't cry," and "Keep a stiff upper lip" perpetuate the belief that boys must hide their feelings and handle their own problems (Basow, 1980). Male sex-role stereotypes implanted through socialization practices include emphasis on suppression of feelings and self-disclosure, an instilled fear of homosexuality, and an emphasis on competition and autonomy (Basow, 1980).

Components of Female Sex-Role

Bem (1974) characterized femininity as being associated with an expressive orientation where importance is placed on affective concern for the welfare of others. Feminine personality characteristics listed on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory are: affectionate, cheerful, childlike, compassionate, does not use harsh language, eager to soothe hurt feelings, feminine, flatterable, gentle, gullible, loves children, loyal, sensitive to the needs of others, shy, soft spoken, sympathetic, tender, understanding, warm, and yielding.
Broverman et al. (1972) in their study of sex-role stereotypes found the following stereotypic feminine sex-role characteristics considered desirable: doesn't use harsh language at all, very talkative, very tactful, very gentle, very aware of feelings of others, very religious, very interested in own appearance, very neat in habits, very quiet, very strong need for security, enjoys art and literature, and easily expresses tender feelings. Characteristics found to be less desirable were: not at all aggressive, not at all independent, very emotional, does not hide emotions at all, very subjective, very easily influenced, very submissive, dislikes math and science very much, very excitable in a minor crisis, very passive, not at all competitive, very illogical, very home oriented, not at all skilled in business, very sneaky, does not know the way of the world, feelings easily hurt, not at all adventurous, has difficulty making decisions, cries very easily, almost never acts as a leader, not at all self-confident, very uncomfortable about being aggressive, not at all ambitious, unable to separate feelings from ideas, very dependent, very conceited about appearance, thinks women are always superior to men, and does not talk freely about sex with men.

Hartley (1959) found that the 8- and 11-year old boys in her study held the following beliefs about girls: they have to stay close to home; they are expected to play
quietly and be gentler than boys; they are often afraid; they must not be rough; they have to keep clean; they cry when they are scared or hurt; they are afraid to go to rough places like rooftops and empty lots; their activities consist of "fopperies" like playing with dolls, fussing over babies, and sitting and talking about dresses; they need to know how to cook, sew, and take care of children, but spelling and arithmetic are not as important for them as for boys. The boys viewed women as: indecisive; afraid of many things; make a fuss over things; get tired a lot; very often need someone to help them; stay home most of the time; are not as strong as men; don't like adventure; are squeamish about seeing blood; don't know what to do in emergencies; cannot do dangerous things; are more easily damaged than men; die more easily than men, are "lofty" about dirty jobs; feel themselves above manual work; are scared of getting wet or getting an electric shock; cannot do things men do because they have a way of doing things the wrong way; are not very intelligent; can only scream in an emergency where a man would take charge; keep things neat and tidy and clean up household messes; feel sad more often than men; make children feel good but make boys carry heavy loads, haul heavy shopping carts uphill, keep them from going out when they want to go, or demand that they stay out when they want to come in.
During childhood, the sexes perceive different achievement behaviors in the models presented to them in the media, at home, and at school while being rewarded differentially for different behaviors (Basow, 1980). Generally girls have more readily available role models; however, they are less likely to be motivated to imitate these models since they view the role as more confining and less rewarding than masculine roles (Weitzman, 1982). Children learn at an early age about the differential worth of the sexes (Weitzman, 1982). Girls learn to repress their energy and curiosity and to adjust to "appropriate" roles as dictated by school, books, media, peer groups, and family (Weitzman, 1982). Girls generally receive less encouragement for independence, more parental protectiveness, nurturance, and restrictiveness, and fewer models of female achievement (Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977; Hoffman, 1972) while at the same time, during adolescence, females are encouraged to develop social skills. Girls are shown affection and given comfort and reassurance more often than boys. Issues between parent and son related to authority and control while parent-daughter issues reflected an emphasis on relatedness, support, and protection (Block, 1973). As a result, many girls remain dependent upon others, developing neither confidence nor adequate achievement skills (Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977; Hoffman,
1972). By college age, females who are intellectually equal or superior to male peers may suppress their abilities due to learned interest in affiliation (Donelson & Gullahorn, 1977; Komarovsky, 1946).

From grades 6 through 12, females experience increasingly greater restrictiveness which may cause role conflict and strain (Donelson, 1977; Katz, 1979; Locksley & Douvan, 1979). Girls are pressured subtly to give up outside interests like sports and academic achievement to concentrate on finding a mate (Basow, 1980). For many females, sex-role stereotypes have led to a negative self-image and to inhibitions about achieving in male-defined areas (Basow, 1980). The traditional female role is depreciated in society and perpetuates low self-esteem which leads to lower aspirations and to reduced achievement, thus reinforcing lower self-esteem (Lasky, 1982).

Twenty-four upper-class women and 113 women enrolled in beginning psychology completed several achievement motivation measures and the 38-item Wellesley Role Orientation Scale (Alper, 1974). From these responses, Alper found that women with traditional female orientations, attitudes, and beliefs scored lower on achievement-motivation measures than did women with nontraditional female orientations.
Majors (1979) found a significant negative relationship between androgyny and fear of success. Major's research was based on a sample of 218 female undergraduates enrolled in introductory psychology who were classified as masculine, feminine or androgynous using the median split method of scoring the Bem Sex-Role Inventory.

One hundred and nine female and 76 male university students completed the Personal Attributes Questionnaire, an achievement motivation measure, and an objective measure of fear of success (Olds, 1979). Comparison of the measures revealed a significant negative relationship between masculinity and fear of success in women. Sadd, Miller, & Zeitz (1979) also found a significant negative relationship between masculinity and fear of success in women. Their research was based on a sample of 106 social psychology students and 550 introductory psychology students who completed an objective measure of fear of success and were classified as masculine, feminine, or androgynous using both the t-ratio and median split methods of scoring the BSRI. In general, the more masculine characteristics an individual claimed, the fewer achievement conflicts he or she was likely to have.

In research conducted by Block (1973), (see pages 5 & 6 for description of sample) socialization of girls was found to include emphasis on developing and maintaining close
interpersonal relationships, talking about their troubles, and reflecting on life. Bem (1976) stated that sex-role stereotyping leads females into being afraid to express anger, assert their preferences, trust their own judgments, and take control of situations. This restrictive socialization tends to narrow the options available to females (Block, 1973).

Counseling Responses

The literature indicates distinct differences in socialization practices and pressures applied to males and females, and therefore, it would appear that general ways of responding to others would be affected by this socialization and the selection of counseling responses would reflect such practices. According to DeLaney & Eisenberg (1977), the primary goals of counseling relationships were to assist a person to effectively cope with an important concern, to develop a plan, to acquire information about self and environment, and to explore and consider available options. To accomplish goals such as these, counselors must first look to themselves because their personalities are the principal tools of the helping process (Brammer, 1979).

Effective counselors are skillful at reaching out due to their demeanor and underlying views relating to people (DeLaney & Eisenberg, 1977). Effective counselors are aware of feelings they experience, the source of those feelings,
and have the ability to relate those feelings to what is occurring in the counseling relationship (DeLaney & Eisenberg, 1977).

Counselors must react to new stimuli instantly with little or no thought ahead of time (Brammer, 1979). In a series of studies on how individuals communicate with each other, Rogers & Roethlisberger (1952) observed small groups and concluded that categories of evaluative, interpretative, supportive, probing, and understanding statements encompassed 80 percent of all the messages sent between individuals. The other 20% of the statements were incidental and of no real importance. If a person used one category of response as much as 40% of the time, then other people saw that person as always responding that way (Rogers & Roethlisberger, 1952).

Johnson (1981) used these five categories of responses in developing counselor training exercises. Advising and evaluating responses were found to be the most common type of responses chosen by beginning counseling students (Johnson, 1981). These responses were also found to communicate an evaluative, corrective, suggestive, and moralizing attitude to clients. If the advice was timely, it was helpful, but often advice built barriers because clients became defensive. Giving advice and being evaluative often led clients to believe that they were
inferior and encouraged rejection of responsibility for their own problems. Advice and evaluation generally reflected counselors' values, needs, and perspectives as opposed to the clients' concerns.

When counselors analyzed and interpreted clients' responses, the intent was usually to teach the meaning of what was said and define a relationship between various aspects of the concern (Johnson, 1981). Analyzing and interpreting responses were insight oriented and aimed at providing understanding to clients. However, counselors were perceived by clients as having all the answers and as being unwilling to appreciate the uniqueness of the situation. Analyzing and interpreting responses led to clients' defensiveness and impeded greater depth.

Reassuring and supporting responses indicated to clients that counselors wanted to reduce the intensity of clients' feelings by sharing them (Johnson, 1981). If counselors were too quick to offer reassurance and support, clients would be too quick to dispense with overt emotions without examining them in depth. However, there were times when clients needed to be reassured as to their worth and/or supported for their reactions and feelings.

Questioning and probing responses indicated that counselors wanted to get additional information, guide the discussion along certain lines, and/or lead clients to
certain conclusions (Johnson, 1981). Open questions encouraged clients to answer in greater depth and length while closed questions usually required a simple yes or no and led nowhere. Asking questions was an essential part of helping clients examine their concerns.

Paraphrasing and understanding responses indicated that counselors understood clients' statements and feelings. Through use of these types of responses, counselors checked on perception of presentation. Paraphrasing often provided the client with a clearer understanding of self and situation.

Two important factors that determined the effectiveness of counseling responses were the actual phrasing of the responses and the intentions and attitudes behind the responses (Johnson, 1981). Underlying intentions and attitudes reflecting acceptance, respect, interest, liking, and a desire to help were all factors affecting effectiveness of counseling responses. Johnson did not examine sex-role orientation and type of response, therefore, this study was undertaken to examine that relationship.

Summary

In summary, socialization for males tends to emphasize instrumental options such as aggressiveness, risk-taking, problem-solving, and competitiveness, while discouraging
anything related to femininity. The socialization process for females reinforces the nurturant, docile, submissive, and conservative aspects of the traditionally defined female role and deprecates personal qualities conventionally defined as masculine: independence, self-assertiveness, and achievement orientation. The literature indicates distinct differences in socialization practices and pressures applied to males and females. The evidence has shown that sex-role stereotypes had a variety of negative consequences which affected self-concept, behavior, and mental and physical health. Restrictive attitudes due to sex-role orientation which limit counselors' objectivity, flexibility, creativity, and effectiveness in responding to clients, tend to inhibit constructive problem-solving, open communications and expression of personal issues. It appears that general ways of responding to others would be affected by this socialization and the selection of counseling responses would reflect such practices.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER II
PROCEDURES

This chapter presents the hypotheses for the study, definition of terms, a discussion of subjects, instrumentation, and data collection.

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested for this study.

1. Subjects will differ by sex-role orientation in their preference for counseling responses: advising and evaluating; analyzing and interpreting; reassuring and supporting; questioning and probing; and paraphrasing and understanding.

2. Beginning counseling students will differ from advanced counseling students in preference for counseling responses: advising and evaluating; analyzing and interpreting; reassuring and supporting; questioning and probing; and paraphrasing and understanding.

3. Beginning counseling students will differ from advanced counseling students by sex role orientation in preference for counseling responses: advising and
evaluating; analyzing and interpreting; reassuring and supporting; questioning and probing; and paraphrasing and understanding.

4. Gender of subject will not be significantly related to preference for type of counseling response.

Definition of Terms

For this study, the following terms have specific meanings.

Androgynous - the flexibility to engage in both masculine and feminine behaviors as the situation warrants. For this study, androgynous was defined as a t-score of $-1.00 < t < +1.00$ on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory.

Masculine - endorsement of masculine attributes and rejection of feminine attributes. For this study, masculine was defined as a t-score of $t < -1.00$ on the Bem Sex-Role Inventory.

Feminine - those who endorse feminine attributes and reject masculine attributes. For this study, feminine was defined as a t-score of $t > 1.00$ on the Bem Sex Role Inventory.

Sex-typed - the extent that the androgyny score reflects the greater endorsement of "sex-appropriate" characteristics than of "sex-inappropriate" characteristics. For males, a
t-score of $t < -1.00$ on the Bem Sex-Role inventory and for females a t-score of $t > 1.00$ defined each gender as sex-typed.

Sex-role Orientation - Classification used to characterize a person as masculine, feminine, or androgynous as a function of his or her endorsement of masculine and feminine personality characteristics.

Subjects

The subjects in this study were counselor education students enrolled in a 48-hour master's degree program at a large state university during Fall Semester, 1985. Advanced students had completed at least 42 semester hours and were enrolled in the final two courses required for the master's degree, Practicum I, Practicum II. Beginning students were enrolled in the first course in the master's degree sequence, Introduction to Counseling Theories. These courses were chosen to allow comparisons between students just beginning the master's level counseling program and those within six hours of completing counselor education training. The sample consisted of 87 students, 53 beginning students and 34 advanced students. Sixty-four subjects were females and 23 were males.

Based on scores obtained from the Bem Sex-Role Inventory, subjects were divided into 3 groups: (1)
feminine, (2) androgynous, and (3) masculine. A feminine sex-role orientation indicated endorsement of feminine attributes and rejection of masculine attributes ($t > 1.0$). An androgynous sex-role orientation indicated nearly equal endorsement of feminine and masculine attributes ($-1 < t < +1$). A masculine sex-role orientation indicated endorsement of masculine attributes and rejection of feminine attributes ($t < -1.00$).

**Instrumentation**

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI) (Bem, 1974), is a self-report scale designed to measure the extent of an individual's identification with desirable masculine and feminine traits. The BSRI consists of 60 personality characteristics, previously scaled as being desirable traits for males (masculine items), for females (feminine items), or for both males and females (neutral items). Each scale contains 20 personality characteristics (see Appendix A) responded to on a 7-point Likert-type scale (Bem, 1974). Scores range from 60 to 420. A low score indicates that a subject consistently views the items as being not self-descriptive. A high score indicates that a subject consistently views the items as being self-descriptive.

In developing the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI), 100 Stanford University undergraduate students (50 males and 50
females) evaluated 400 personality characteristics as to the desirability of each characteristic for a man and for a woman. Since the BSRI was based on the idea that a sex-typed person is someone who has internalized society's sex-typed standards of desirable behavior for men and women, the personality characteristics were selected on the basis of sex-typed social desirability and not on the basis of differential endorsement by males and females (Bem, 1974). After analyzing the data, Bem retained 20 items that described masculinity, 20 items that described femininity, and 20 items related to social desirability. The 20 personality characteristics related to social desirability were considered neutral items with respect to sex and were used to insure that the inventory would not simply tap a general tendency to endorse socially desirable traits (Bem, 1974).

A personality characteristic qualified as masculine or feminine if it was judged independently by both males and females to be significantly more desirable for one sex than the other (p < .05). A personality characteristic was selected for the social desirability scale if it was judged independently by both males and females to be no more desirable for one sex than for the other (t < 1.2, p > .2) and if male and female judges did not differ significantly in their overall desirability judgments of that trait (t < 1.2, p > .2) (Bem, 1974).
The BSRI was chosen as the instrument for determination of sex-role orientation because it treats masculinity and femininity as two orthogonal dimensions rather than as two ends of a single dimension. Femininity and masculinity each represents a positive domain of behavior on the BSRI rather than femininity being defined as the absence of masculinity.

The BSRI has received the most experimental attention and validation of all the sex role inventories (Kelly & Worell, 1977). Wiggins and Holzmuller (1981) described the BSRI as based on the best available combination of orthogonal interpersonal scales for measuring sex role stereotypy. In addition, Wiggins and Holzmuller (1978; 1981) reported that the BSRI scales reflect generalizable dimensions of interpersonal behavior.

The Response Alternatives questionnaire, published in Reaching Out, by David W. Johnson (1981) includes client statements and counselor responses. The instrument was developed to help individuals determine the types of responses they use in responding to others. Permission to reproduce these materials was granted by the author (David W. Johnson) and publisher (Prentice-Hall, Inc.) (see Appendix C).

To establish face validity for the Response Alternatives questionnaire, the researcher asked five counselor education faculty members to classify each of
Johnson's responses into one of the following categories: 1. Advising and evaluating, 2. Analyzing and interpreting, 3. Reassuring and supporting, 4. Questioning and probing, and 5. Paraphrasing and understanding. Directions to the panel of judges included a description of each type of response and no mention was made that Johnson (1981) had designed each set of response alternatives to contain one of each type of response. A total of 12 situations with 5 alternative responses per situation was submitted to each judge for validation. An 80 percent agreement in item classification was required for including a response item in the research instrument. Upon tabulation of the judges' responses, 10 of the 12 sets of response alternatives met the 80% agreement requirement and therefore were used in this study (see Appendix B). The 10 situations contained in the Response Alternatives questionnaire were randomly ordered through use of a random numbers table.

**Scoring the Bem Sex-Role Inventory**

Different methods exist for scoring the BSRI. The original method as described by Bem (1974) was labeled the balance model by Spence and Helmreich (1979). The masculinity and femininity scores indicate the extent to which individuals subscribe to masculine and feminine personality characteristics. An individual's masculinity score is the mean self-rating for the 20 masculine items
(sum of self-ratings on the 20 masculine items divided by 20). An individual's femininity score is the mean self-rating for the 20 feminine items (sum of self-ratings on the 20 feminine items divided by 20). The difference between each individual's femininity and masculinity score (labeled androgyny) is converted into a t-score by multiplying by 2.322. This multiplication factor was derived empirically by Bem (1974) using a sample of 917 students at two different colleges. This procedure resulted in a continuous distribution of t-scores. The t-ratio conversion allowed for comparison of an individual's endorsement of masculine and feminine attributes to different populations. In using the t-ratio method (Bem, 1974), no distinction was made between androgynous and undifferentiated individuals.

The second method as labeled and described by Spence and Helmreich (1979) is the absolute method. Medians on masculinity and femininity of a normative group are used to classify individuals into one of four groups: (1) Androgynous - above the median for the normative group on both masculinity and femininity, (2) Masculine - above the median on masculinity and below on femininity for the normative group, (3) Feminine - above the median on femininity and below on masculinity for the normative group, or (4) Undifferentiated - below the median on both.
masculinity and femininity for the normative group. The
normative group can be the group being tested or any other
group chosen for comparison reasons. Bem (1979)
acknowledged this alternative method of evaluation and
agreed that individuals who subscribed equally to masculine
and feminine attributes at a high level differed from those
who subscribed equally to masculine and feminine qualities
at a low level. Pedhazur and Tetenbaum (1979) cautioned
that using the absolute (median split) method could lead to
variation in classification of some respondents because the
comparison group may differ from the normative sample.

Bem (1975) administered the Bem Sex Role Inventory to
375 males and 290 females to compare the results obtained
using the t-ratio (Bem, 1974) with the median split (Spence
et al., 1975) methods of scoring. Eighty-eight percent of
the women and 80% of the men who were classified as feminine
using the median split method were also classified as
feminine or near feminine using the t-ratio method.
Similarly, 87% of the women and 96% of the men classified as
masculine using the median split method were also classified
as masculine or near masculine using the t-ratio. Since the
median split method allowed for partitioning out
undifferentiated respondents from androgynous respondents
while the t-ratio method did not, Bem concluded that a
researcher's choice of method of scoring was dependent upon
the importance placed on distinguishing between androgynous and undifferentiated subjects.

For this study, the difference method using the t-ratio was used to score the Bem Sex-Role Inventory. The comparison group was the original norming group used by Bem (1974). Androgynous and undifferentiated individuals are alike in not being sex-typed (Bem, 1977), thus it was justifiable to use a single classification.

**Scoring the Response Alternatives Questionnaire**

Subjects were asked to respond to each of 10 situations, by evaluating each of the response alternatives on a 7-point Likert-type scale with "definitely would not use" as one extreme and "definitely would use" as the other. Each set of response alternatives contained one of each of the following types of responses:

1. Advising and evaluating
2. Analyzing and interpreting
3. Reassuring and supporting
4. Questioning and probing
5. Paraphrasing and understanding.

Tabulations were made for each subject on the five alternative response categories. Scores indicated preferences for type of counseling responses. The possible range of scores was from 10 to 70 for each response alternative (advising and evaluating, analyzing and
interpreting, reassuring and supporting, questioning and probing, and paraphrasing and understanding). A low score indicated a reluctance to endorse use of a particular response category while a high score indicated a preference for a response category.

Collection of Data

The researcher met with all instructors of the classes from which subjects for this study would be selected to discuss and explain the proposed study and request their cooperation. One of the advanced groups completed their forms during the second class session. The researcher met with the remaining five classes during the third class session to present the research project and encourage participation in the study. Two students from one of the sections of Introduction to Counseling Theories declined to participate in the study and were allowed to take a break while the remaining 26 students completed the research materials. Both the Bem Sex-Role Inventory and the Response Alternatives questionnaire were administered during the same class session.

The researcher read the instructions aloud to the total group and answered questions. Subjects were asked to read the instructions on the cover sheet of each instrument and then to proceed. Instructions which appeared on the front page of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory are included in Appendix
A. Instructions which appeared on the cover page of the Response Alternatives questionnaire are included in Appendix B. The researcher was present during the administration and answered questions that arose during completion of the instruments.
REFERENCES


CHAPTER III
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This chapter presents the analysis of data, findings, discussion, and conclusions.

Analysis of Data

Hypotheses 1, 2, 3, and 4 were tested by the multivariate analysis of variance technique to determine whether counselor education students differed by sex or by sex-role orientation in preference for types of responses and whether beginning counselor education students differed from those within six semester hours of completing counselor education training.

Hypotheses 1, 2, and 3 were tested using a 2 x 3 design: the two levels were beginning and advanced students, the three groups were determined by sex-role orientation (masculine, feminine, and androgynous), and the five dependent variables were the five response alternatives (advising and evaluating, analyzing and interpreting, reassuring and supporting, questioning and probing, and paraphrasing and understanding). The hypothesis associated with a multivariate analysis of variance assumes that the
population mean vector (a series of five means, one for each dependent variable) for each of the three groups is the same. Further investigation determined which of the groups and/or the levels differed from one another in terms of mean scores on the five response alternatives.

Hypothesis 4 was tested using a one-way multivariate analysis of variance. The two groups were male and female and the five dependent variables were the five response alternatives (advising and evaluating, analyzing and interpreting, reassuring and supporting, questioning and probing, and paraphrasing and understanding). Simultaneous confidence intervals were used to determine on what specific responses the two groups differed.

Findings

Hypothesis 1 stated that subjects will differ by sex-role orientation in their preference for counseling responses: advising and evaluating; analyzing and interpreting; reassuring and supporting; questioning and probing; and paraphrasing and understanding.

The sex-role orientation of the 87 subjects in this study is shown in Table I.

The masculine category consisted of 7 beginning females, 3 beginning males, 1 advanced female and 1 advanced male. The androgynous category consisted of 12 beginning females, 6 beginning males, 15 advanced females, and 6
TABLE I
SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY SEX

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CLASSIFICATION</th>
<th>SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION</th>
<th>LEVEL OF EDUCATION</th>
<th>MALE - FEMALE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Androgynous</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td></td>
<td>11</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>87</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

advanced males. The feminine category consisted of 19 beginning females, 1 beginning male, 10 advanced females, and 1 advanced male.

The mean ratings of preference for response category by sex-role orientation are shown in Table II.
### TABLE II

**MEAN RATINGS OF PREFERENCE FOR RESPONSE CATEGORY BY SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE TYPE</th>
<th>SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>MASCULINE (n = 17)</td>
<td>ANDROGYNOUS (n = 39)</td>
<td>FEMININE (n = 31)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>-------</td>
<td>-------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrasing and understanding</td>
<td>44.76</td>
<td>51.62</td>
<td>52.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning and Probing</td>
<td>48.76</td>
<td>45.46</td>
<td>48.84</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing and Interpreting</td>
<td>36.05</td>
<td>35.00</td>
<td>37.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reassuring and Supporting</td>
<td>21.18</td>
<td>17.31</td>
<td>19.16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advising and Evaluating</td>
<td>20.41</td>
<td>17.26</td>
<td>16.48</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hotelling's multivariate trace criterion yielded $F = .99, (2, 81 df), p < .458$; therefore Hypothesis 1 was not confirmed. Subjects do not differ by sex-role orientation in preference for counseling responses.

Hypothesis 2 stated that beginning counseling students will differ from advanced counseling students in preference for counseling responses: advising and evaluating; analyzing and interpreting; reassuring and supporting; questioning and probing; and paraphrasing and understanding.

The mean ratings of preference for response category by level of education are shown in Table III.
### TABLE III

MEAN RATINGS OF PREFERENCE FOR RESPONSE CATEGORY BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE TYPE</th>
<th>Beginning (n = 53)</th>
<th>Advanced (n = 34)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advising and Evaluating</td>
<td>18.87</td>
<td>15.62</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing and Interpreting</td>
<td>34.45</td>
<td>38.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reassuring and Supporting</td>
<td>21.23</td>
<td>14.82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning and Probing</td>
<td>49.51</td>
<td>43.88</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrasing and Understanding</td>
<td>48.34</td>
<td>54.06</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Possible range of responses was 10 - 70.
Note: The higher the mean, the greater the preference.

Hotelling's multivariate trace criterion yielded $F = 2.67$, $(1, 81 \text{ df})$ $p < .03$; therefore Hypothesis 2 was confirmed. Beginning counseling students do differ from advanced counseling students in preference for counseling responses.

Univariate $F$-tests revealed the significant differences were in preference for reassuring and supporting responses, $F = 6.68$, $(1, 81 \text{ df})$, $p < .01$ with beginning students (mean = 21.23) expressing a greater preference for reassuring and supporting responses than advanced students (mean = 14.82).
Hypothesis 3 stated that beginning counseling students will differ from advanced counseling students by sex-role orientation in preference for counseling responses: advising and evaluating; analyzing and interpreting; reassuring and supporting; questioning and probing; and paraphrasing and understanding.

The mean ratings of preference for response category by level of education by sex-role orientation are shown in Table IV (see additional mean tables in Appendix C).

**TABLE IV**

MEAN RATINGS OF PREFERENCE FOR RESPONSE CATEGORY BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION BY SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE</th>
<th>MASCULINE</th>
<th>ANDROGYNOUS</th>
<th>FEMININE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Advising and evaluating</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning</td>
<td>20.80</td>
<td>19.22</td>
<td>17.10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>17.50</td>
<td>15.57</td>
<td>15.36</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing and Interpreting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning</td>
<td>35.87</td>
<td>31.72</td>
<td>35.85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>37.50</td>
<td>37.81</td>
<td>39.18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reassuring and Supporting</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning</td>
<td>22.13</td>
<td>20.39</td>
<td>21.30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>14.00</td>
<td>14.67</td>
<td>15.27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning and Probing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning</td>
<td>47.80</td>
<td>49.61</td>
<td>50.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>56.00</td>
<td>41.90</td>
<td>45.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrasing and Understanding</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beginning</td>
<td>43.60</td>
<td>46.44</td>
<td>53.60</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advanced</td>
<td>53.50</td>
<td>56.05</td>
<td>50.36</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hotelling's multivariate trace criterion yielded $F = 1.35$, $(2, 81 \, \text{df}), p < .21$; therefore Hypothesis 3 was not confirmed. Beginning counseling students do not differ from advanced counseling students by sex-role orientation in preference for counseling responses.

Hypothesis 4 stated that gender of subject will not be significantly related to preference for type of counseling response.

The mean ratings of preference for response category by sex are shown in Table V.

**TABLE V**

**MEAN RATINGS OF PREFERENCE FOR RESPONSE CATEGORY BY SEX**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>RESPONSE TYPE</th>
<th>Females $(n = 64)$</th>
<th>Males $(n = 23)$</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Paraphrasing and Understanding</td>
<td>52.22</td>
<td>46.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Questioning and Probing</td>
<td>47.72</td>
<td>46.17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Analyzing and Interpreting</td>
<td>35.47</td>
<td>37.22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reassuring and Supporting</td>
<td>17.91</td>
<td>21.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advising and Evaluating</td>
<td>16.78</td>
<td>19.87</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hotelling's multivariate trace criterion yielded $F = 1.14$, $(1, 81 \, \text{df}), p < .35$; therefore Hypothesis 4 which was stated in the null form was not rejected. Gender of
subjects was not a significant factor in preference for type of counseling response.

Related Findings

Overall, beginning counseling students did not differ from advanced counseling students by sex-role orientation in preference for counseling responses. However, univariate analysis revealed differences between beginning and advanced students by sex-role orientation in preference for paraphrasing and understanding responses, $F = 3.25$, $(2, 81 \text{ df}), p < .04$ and questioning and probing responses, $F = 2.58$, $(2, 81 \text{ df}), < .08$. A simple-effects design was performed to investigate this interaction. Each individual response category was compared with each sex-role orientation (masculine, androgynous, and feminine) and with beginning and advanced categories (see Table IV on p. 52).

Within the androgynous category, beginning students differed significantly from advanced students in preference for analyzing and interpreting responses, $F = 4.88$, $(1, 81 \text{ df}), p < .03$. Advanced students classified as androgynous (mean = 37.81) expressed a greater preference for analyzing and interpreting responses than beginning students classified as androgynous (mean = 31.72). Within the androgynous category, beginning students also differed significantly from advanced students in preference for reassuring and supporting responses, $F = 4.44$, $(1, 81 \text{ df}), p$
Beginning students classified as androgynous (mean = 20.39) expressed a greater preference for reassuring and supporting responses than advanced students classified as androgynous (mean = 14.67). Within the androgynous category, beginning students differed significantly from advanced students in preference for paraphrasing and understanding responses, $F = 6.63$, $(1, 81$ df$), p < .01$. Advanced students classified as androgynous (mean = 56.05) expressed a greater preference for paraphrasing and understanding responses than beginning students classified as androgynous (mean = 46.44).

Within the feminine category, beginning students differed significantly from advanced students in preference for reassuring and supporting responses, $F = 4.03$, $(1, 81$ df$), p < .05$. Beginning students classified as feminine (mean = 21.30) expressed greater preference for reassuring and supporting responses than advanced students classified as feminine (mean = 15.27).

Students differed significantly in preference for paraphrasing and understanding responses by sex-role orientation by level of education, $F = 3.25$, $(2, 81$ df$), p < .04$. Within the beginning category, students differed significantly by sex-role orientation in their preference for paraphrasing and understanding responses, $F = 4.04$, $(2, 81$ df$), p < .04$. Beginning students classified as feminine
(mean = 53.60) expressed a greater preference for paraphrasing and understanding responses than beginning students classified as androgynous (mean = 46.44) or masculine (mean = 43.60).

Within the advanced category, students differed significantly by sex-role orientation in their preference for paraphrasing and understanding responses, \( F = 3.10, (2, 81 \text{ df}), p < .05 \). Advanced students classified as androgynous (mean = 56.05) expressed a greater preference for paraphrasing and understanding responses than advanced students classified as masculine (mean = 53.50) or feminine (mean = 50.36). Within the advanced category, students differed significantly by sex-role orientation in preference for questioning and probing responses, \( F = 6.79, (2, 81 \text{ df}), p < .00 \). Advanced students classified as masculine (mean = 56.00) expressed a greater preference for questioning and probing responses than advanced students classified as feminine (mean = 45.45) or androgynous (mean = 41.90).

Univariate analysis revealed a difference by sex in preference for advising and evaluating responses, \( F = 5.91, (1, 83 \text{ df}), p < .02 \). Males (mean = 19.87) expressed a greater preference for advising and evaluating responses than females (mean = 16.78). Subjects differed by sex in preference for reassuring and supporting responses, \( F = 4.16, (1, 83 \text{ df}), p < .05 \). Males expressed greater
preference (mean = 21.00) for reassuring and supporting responses than females (mean = 17.91).

Discussion

This study examined the relationship between sex-role orientation and preference for selected counseling responses. Beginning Master's level counseling students were compared with students within six semester hours of completion of their master's program to examine effects of training and sex-role orientation on preference for counseling responses.

As has been pointed out, persons with androgynous, masculine, and feminine sex-role orientations have been found to differ in their interpersonal behavior and cognitive processing. The restrictive attitudes associated with sex-role orientation, then, was predicted to limit counselors' objectivity, flexibility, creativity, and effectiveness in responding to clients.

The total group of subjects in this study, however, do not differ significantly in their preference for counseling responses by sex-role orientation. Response preference by individuals classified in this study as androgynous varied little from those who were classified as masculine and feminine. In fact, the order of response preference was identical for groups classified as androgynous and feminine. Regardless of sex-role orientation, the subjects in this
study showed greatest preference for paraphrasing and understanding responses and questioning and probing responses. Subjects, regardless of sex-role orientation, least preferred advising and evaluating and reassuring and supporting responses.

Results of this study do not support the suggestion by Cristall and Dean (1976) that androgyny may allow for more flexibility in self-expression or the hypothesis by Cook (1985) that androgynous individuals' behavior was more difficult to predict. The findings of this study, however, do seem to support Spence and Helmreich's (1979) caution against predicting sex-role related characteristics across variable domains. In this study, sex-role orientation is not related to preference for counseling responses.

The beginning counseling students in this study significantly differ from advanced counseling students in preference for counseling responses. Although reassuring and supporting responses are not preferred by either beginning or advanced students, beginning students reveal a significantly greater preference for reassuring and supporting responses (mean = 21.23) than advanced students (mean = 14.82). It could be that beginning counseling students are more likely than advanced counseling students to prefer reassuring and supporting responses because of their own feelings of inadequacy and/or uncertainty or
because reassuring and supporting responses serve to reduce counselor anxiety as well as client anxiety. These findings appear to be consistent with Johnson's assertion that use of reassuring and supporting responses indicated that counselors wanted to reduce the intensity of clients' feelings by sharing them. Johnson also pointed out, however, that if counselors were too quick to offer reassurance and support, clients would dispense with overt emotions without examining them in depth. In the education of counselors-in-training, counselor educators concede that first-time counselors are typically unaware of what is expected of them relative to their behaviors as counselors.

Paraphrasing and understanding responses are preferred by both beginning and advanced students in this study. Advanced students prefer paraphrasing and understanding responses (mean = 54.06) while beginning students rank paraphrasing and understanding responses (mean = 48.34) second behind questioning and probing responses (mean = 49.51). Results of this study do not support the assertion by Johnson (1981) that advising and evaluating responses were the most common type of response chosen by beginning counselors.

In this study, beginning counseling students do not differ from advanced counseling students by sex-role orientation in preference for counseling responses. One
possible explanation for the lack of a significant interaction could be the low number of subjects in some of the cells when the sample was divided into six groups. To test Hypothesis III, the sample was divided by sex-role orientation by beginning and advanced and there were only two subjects in the advanced masculine category. Univariate analysis indicated significant results in preference for counseling responses within the androgynous, feminine, beginning, and advanced categories while multivariate analysis did not confirm these results. The limitations of cell size on the results must be taken into consideration when interpreting the findings.

In this study, gender of counselors is not a significant factor in determining preference for counseling responses. The sample was approximately 74% females (n = 64) and 26% males (n = 23). The beginning category was 72% females and 28% males while the advanced category was 76% females and 24% males. The ratio of females to males seems to be constant from beginning to completion of the program. Females and males prefer paraphrasing and understanding and questioning and probing responses. Advising and evaluating and reassuring and supporting responses are least preferred by males and females. These findings seem to lend support to the idea of Borders and Fong (1985) that factors other than gender are more significant in counselor training.
Variability exists between what people report they would do and their actual behavior (Bem & Allen, 1974). Subjects in this study who expressed preference for certain types of responses might not use these responses in actual counseling situations. In future research, actual taped responses of subjects to given situations could be used to determine whether subjects behave as they report they would.

Although sex-role orientation has been shown to be related to interpersonal behavior and cognitive processing, it may be that sex-role orientation is unrelated to how people learn. Counselor training is designed to inform; therefore, whether counselor trainees are influenced by it may be more a function of learning than of a personality characteristic like sex-role orientation. Indeed, the results of this study indicate no difference in response preference according to sex-role orientation. However, counselor education training does influence response preference as evidenced by significant differences in response preference of beginning and advanced students.

Based on the findings and conclusions of this study and a review of the literature, some recommendations seem warranted. First, it appears that a longitudinal research project to determine whether individuals’ response preferences change from the beginning of counselor education training until completion of the program could provide
information about stability of sex-role orientation and preference for counseling responses.

Second, the disparity in number of students classified as masculine, feminine, and androgynous in the beginning group compared to the advanced group leads to several questions that could be analyzed. Fifteen individuals (28%) in the beginning counselor category in this study were classified as masculine while only two individuals (6%) in the advanced counselor category were classified as masculine. Twenty individuals (38%) in the beginning category were classified as feminine while only eleven individuals (32%) in the advanced category were classified as feminine. Eighteen individuals (34%) in the beginning counselor category in this study were classified as androgynous while twenty-one individuals (62%) in the advanced group were classified as androgynous. Is this disparity in sex-role orientation an unique situation in this study, or does counselor education training affect sex-role orientation, or do individuals classified as masculine or feminine drop out of the training program? Perhaps individuals classified as highly masculine or highly feminine are less inclined to stay in a counselor training program.

Continued research into restrictive attitudes, including sex-role orientation, which may make it difficult
for counseling students to acquire and use selected interpersonal counseling skills typically taught in counselor education courses appears to be warranted. The goal of skills training in counselor education is not to define correctness and the best response (Ivey, 1986). The goal is to equip counselors with a response repertoire to use for various client needs. This goal requires flexibility so that a tactic that appears unworkable can readily be replaced with another alternative. Sex-role orientation warrants further research as a variable which may affect flexibility in learning and use of counseling responses.
REFERENCES


Appendix A

BEM SEX-ROLE INVENTORY

Indicate how well each of these 60 personality characteristics describes you.

(1) Never or almost never true
(2) Usually not true
(3) Sometimes but infrequently true
(4) Occasionally true
(5) Often true
(6) Usually true
(7) Always or almost always true

CIRCLE THE NUMBER THAT CORRESPONDS TO HOW YOU WOULD DESCRIBE YOURSELF FOR EACH OF THE FOLLOWING CHARACTERISTICS.

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1. Self-reliant
2. Yielding
3. Helpful
4. Defends own beliefs
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1 2 3 4 5 6 7 35. Eager to soothe hurt feelings
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 36. Conceited
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 37. Dominant
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 38. Soft spoken
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 39. Likable
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 40. Masculine
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 41. Warm
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 42. Solemn
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 43. Willing to take a stand
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 44. Tender
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 45. Friendly
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 46. Aggressive
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 47. Gullible
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 48. Inefficient
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 49. Acts as a leader
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 50. Childlike
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 51. Adaptable
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 52. Individualistic
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 53. Does not use harsh language
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 54. Unsystematic
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 55. Competitive
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 56. Loves children
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 57. Tactful
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 58. Ambitious
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 59. Gentle
1 2 3 4 5 6 7 60. Conventional
Appendix B

RESPONSE ALTERNATIVES QUESTIONNAIRE

Read each of the following situations and alternative responses. Each of the alternative responses would be considered helpful at one time or another. None of the responses can be labeled effective or ineffective. All have their place in helping other people deal with their concerns. We are interested in your preference. Circle the number beside each response alternative that indicates how likely you would be to use that response.

1. I definitely would not use this response.

2. I am very unlikely to use this response.

3. I probably would not use this response.

4. I am uncertain whether I would use this response.

5. I probably would use this response.

6. I am very likely to use this response.

7. I definitely would use this response.
David. "I'm determined to be a success, and I know I can do it if I just work hard enough. I may have to work eighteen hours a day and stay chained to my typewriter, but if that's what it takes, I'll do it. My home life and my family may suffer, but it will be worth it in the end. I will be a success, and that's all that matters."

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 a. You seem to be a person who wants badly to succeed at your job. That is understandable, but it may stem from your insecurity about your own competence and ability.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 b. I guess we all, at some time or other, go through a period where we want to achieve success. Lots of people worry about whether their family will suffer while they work so hard. I'm sure everything will turn out all right for you and your family.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 c. I think you are right. Hard work always pays off. Keep at it!

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 d. You see yourself as a very ambitious person. Yet you're unsure about whether you want your family to suffer because of the long hours you believe you will have to work in order to be successful.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 e. Can you tell me a little more about why success is important to you? What will you do when you've achieved this success? Will you be happy? Will it give you all that you want out of life?
Roger. "I never seem to have enough time to do the things I enjoy. Just as I'm ready to go enjoy a nice game of golf or tennis, my brother reminds me of some writing I need to do, or my wife saddles me with household chores. It's getting harder and harder to have the fun out of life that I expect to have. It's depressing!

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 a. Wanting to have fun is OK, but don't you think you should do some work too? I certainly wouldn't play golf if I thought that later I would regret not having worked. Life does have responsibilities.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 b. It's upsetting that your work and household responsibilities are increasing to the extent that you don't have time for fun and recreation you want.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 c. Maybe your leisure activities are just a way of getting out of the unpleasant jobs you should do.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 d. I'm curious. How much time do you spend on your favorite sports?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 e. You're in a busy time of your life right now. I bet you will have more leisure time as you get older.
Frank. "I never have any luck with cars. Every car I've ever gotten has been a lemon. Not only have I paid handsomely for the cars, but just when they are out of warranty, something major goes wrong. The car I have now needs a new engine. What's wrong with me? Why should I have all the bad luck?"

a. You're wondering if it is your fault somehow that every car you own breaks down and has to have costly repairs. All the money you have to pay for car repairs depresses and angers you.

b. Your anger about the poor quality of the cars you have owned is being turned against yourself and experienced as depression. Aren't the companies that made the cars to blame?

c. What kind of cars do you buy? How many cars have you owned?

d. Everyone has bad luck sometimes. I'm sure the next car will be more reliable. It's really not your fault the cars have turned out to be lemons. No one can tell how much repairs a car will need when he first buys it.

e. You're always buying foreign cars. What you need is an American car that has a good warranty.
Helen. "When I was younger, I used to fight my parents because I wanted to get married. Now I'm married and I keep thinking of how good it was to be single and have no responsibilities to tie me down. I can't go anywhere without a bunch of kids clinging to me. It's rough, and there's nothing I can do about it."

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 a. I understand how you feel. I often feel that way too. But before long your children will grow up and then you will have all the freedom you want.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 b. Let's explore how you arrange your time. How often do you wish to go somewhere without your children? How often do you hire babysitters?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 c. You feel resentful and trapped because being married and having children don't allow you the freedom to go places and do things when you want to.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 d. You say you fought your parents to get married. Now you feel resentful about the loss of freedom. Could it be that you are really angry at your parents for not stopping you from getting married in the first place?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 e. Sounds to me as if you are stuck. You will just have to put up with the situation until your children are grown.
Keith. "I'm really depressed. I have a good job and I make an adequate salary, but I'm not happy. I guess working is not all it is cracked up to be. I have some money saved. I did not do too well in school before, but maybe I will quit work and go back to school. I don't know what I should do."

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 a. How long have you felt this way? Have the feelings just started recently, or have you always felt depressed about what you were doing?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 b. In other words, you're depressed and puzzled because your job isn't fulfilling, but school wasn't either, and they are the only two alternatives you see yourself as having.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 c. Depression is often anger turned against oneself. Perhaps you're angry at yourself for not feeling fulfilled by what you are doing.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 d. If you didn't do so well in school before, you probably won't do any better now. You should be satisfied with having a good job: many people don't you know.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 e. Lots of people have trouble making up their minds. There are a lot of people who don't like their jobs and who really don't want to go back to school. You don't need to feel depressed.
David. "All this work is driving me crazy! It seems as if I spend every waking moment working. I don't have any time to relax with my friends and family. No matter how hard I work I never seem to get caught up. I have so many responsibilities. I don't know how I'm going to get everything done."

a. Don't feel so bad. I'm sure that if you just keep at it, you'll get things done and have the leisure you need.

b. You're obviously trying to do too much. What you need to do is cut down on your commitments so you'll have more free time.

c. You feel frustrated and angry that your work doesn't get finished and you can't enjoy your family and friends more; you work hard, but your responsibilities always seem to increase faster than your ability to meet them.

d. Can you tell me more about the specific nature of your responsibilities, the way you schedule your time, and how you acquire new responsibilities?

e. How you spend your time probably reflects your true values. Perhaps you prefer your work over your family and friends. Could it be that you consider your work more important than enjoying life?
Roger. "I never seem to get anywhere on time. I don't know why. People bug me about it and sometimes they get pretty angry. I try to keep a schedule, but it never seems to work out. I have an important golf game coming up and I'm afraid I'm going to be late for it. I don't know what to do to change."

1. In other words, you feel frustrated with yourself because you always seem to be late and somewhat worried about the way other people react to your lateness.

2. I'm wondering if you have investigated ways of managing your schedule more effectively. How often are you late? Are there some things you are always late for and other things you are never late for?

3. You are obviously not very organized, and of course people will be angry when you treat them with such inconsiderateness. Perhaps you should ask someone more punctual to pick you up when you have an important engagement.

4. I really wouldn't worry. Being late is not bad. I'm sure that no one is really angry about such a little thing as arriving late.

5. Being late is sometimes caused by passive-aggressiveness, where you want to punish other people but also are afraid to take responsibility for your actions.
Frank, "I just never seem to have any money. I have a good-paying job, but it seems as soon as I get my pay check, it's gone. Then I have to scrimp and save the rest of the month. Now my car needs a new engine and I don't know where I'm going to get the money to pay for it."

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 a. Tell me more about how you manage your money. Have you tried budgeting? What are your major expenses?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 b. You're feeling depressed on account of your chronic lack of money and your unsureness of how you are going to pay for your needed car repairs.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 c. You may be wasting money on nonessentials. I think if you tried keeping a budget, you would be able to manage much better.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 d. I'm sure the money for your new car engine will turn up. Don't worry. You have always managed in the past.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 e. Depression such as you are experiencing often comes from a feeling of being helpless to solve your problems. Once you feel that you have some control over your financial problems, you'll feel better.
Edythe. "I just hate to bring my dates home to meet my family. I don't mind my boyfriends meeting my parents, but I wish there was some way to keep my older brothers out of the act. The way they give my dates the third degree scares my dates away. It's embarrassing."

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 a. Embarrassment is often caused by older siblings, especially when they view you as a little girl. We have to plan to get them to see you as an adult and start treating you as one.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 b. It sounds as if they are pretty inconsiderate. Most people have siblings who embarrass them at some point, but your brothers sound as if they are really out of line.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 c. Just wait. I bet that soon you will meet someone who won't be scared off by your brothers.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 d. You feel angry about the way your brothers embarrass you by questioning your boyfriends, and you want to avoid such situations while at the same time allowing your parents to meet your dates.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 e. Just what do your brothers do to your dates? What specific questions do they ask?
Frances. "I don't know about my children. David works too hard, Roger plays too much, Frank is always broke, Edythe married someone none of us have met, Helen got married too early, Keith quit school to work and now wants to quit work to go to school, and Dale isn't close to graduating after six years of college. You do your best and look how they turn out! It's enough to make a person give up."

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 a. You are worried about your children and yet feel helpless to change them. Each child seems to have some problem and you are unsure how well their lives will turn out.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 b. Can you explain further how you feel about your children?

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 c. Don't worry. I'm sure they will turn out all right. All parents must worry about their children some time or another.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 d. Tell your children to straighten out. Either they listen to their mother or else they aren't worth talking to.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 e. You have certain expectations for each of your children, and they aren't living up to what you expect. These expectations are upsetting you.
Appendix C

MISCELLANEOUS FORMS

LETTERS REQUESTING PERMISSION TO USE MATERIALS

LETTERS OF PERMISSION TO USE MATERIALS

DIRECTIONS TO JUDGES

PANEL OF JUDGES REPLY FORM
July 16, 1985

Prentice-Hall, Inc.
Englewood Cliffs, N.J.

Dear Sir:

I am a graduate student working on my doctoral degree in Counseling and Student Services at North Texas State University. I am writing for permission to use the questions and responses on pages 146-150 in the 1981 edition of *Reaching Out* by David W. Johnson. I am interested in comparing gender orientation with variability of response for my dissertation research.

Please let me know the results of any validity or reliability studies conducted on this exercise.

Thank you.

Sincerely,

William J. Workman
2128 Emerson Lane
Denton, TX 76201
(817) 387-1936
July 16, 1985

Dr. Sandra L. Bem
Department of Psychology
Uris Hall
Cornell University
Ithaca, N.Y.

Dear Dr. Bem:

I am a graduate student working on my Ph.D. in Counseling and Student Services at North Texas State University. I am writing for permission to use the Bem Sex-Role Inventory as one of the instruments in my research. I plan to compare sex-role orientation with variability of counselor response to given situations.

Since so few people fall into the undifferentiated category on past research using the BSRI, it is my plan to exclude them from this research. Naturally, an alternative would be to include them with the androgynous group. Would you recommend either alternative over the other?

Thank you for any assistance you can provide.

Sincerely:

William J. Workman
2128 Emerson Lane
Denton, TX 76201
(817) 387-1936
July 16, 1985

Dr. David W. Johnson
330 Burton Hall
University of Minnesota
Minneapolis, MN

Dear Dr. Johnson:

I am a graduate student in the Ph.D. program in Counseling and Student Services at North Texas State University. I would like to use the questions and responses on pages 146-150 in the 1981 edition of *Reaching Out* as one of the instruments in my research. Subjects will be asked to rank order the responses from (1) most likely to respond, to (5) least likely to respond when presented with the information provided by the client. Could you provide me with information that describes how the questions and responses were developed in addition to any reliability and/or validity studies conducted on this exercise?

Thank you for any assistance you can provide.

Sincerely,

William J. Workman
2128 Emerson Lane
Denton, TX 76201
(817) 387-1936
August 13, 1985

William J. Workman
2128 Emerson Lane
Denton, TX 76201

Dear Mr. Workman:

We are very glad to give you permission to quote from our book(s), REACHING OUT: Interpersonal Effectiveness and Self-Actualization, by Johnson in accordance with the conditions outlined in your letter of 7/16/85. Permission is granted for your dissertation use only. Please give credit to the author(s), the title(s), and the publisher with copyright year date(s). Our usual credit line appears below:


Sincerely,

Mary Lopes
Mrs. Mary Lopes, Asst.
Permissions Editor
9/1/1988A
Dear Colleague:

The Original BSRI, the Short BSRI, and the BSRI Manual can now be obtained only from Consulting Psychologists Press. Note that the inventory itself is available in a 60-item format only; however, the items have been rearranged so that the first thirty items now constitute a Short BSRI. Note also that the BSRI Manual provides all relevant information about reliability and validity for both the Original and the Short BSRI.

The cost of the BSRI is as follows: Specimen Set: $8.00; Manual: $7.50; Key: 75¢; Computer Scoring Instructions: $5.00. Expendable inventories: package of 25 -- $2.75; 4 to 19 packages -- $2.50/pkg; 20 or more packages -- $2.25/pkg. Please order directly from Consulting Psychologists Press:
577 College Ave.
Palo Alto, CA 94306
(415) 857-1444

Prices are plus 10% UPS Postage, 25% for Air Mail, and anything under $15 must be prepaid. Allow 3 weeks (or ask for Air Mail). All students should have orders signed by their professors.

Sandra Lipsitz Bem
August 16, 1985

William Workman
2128 Emerson Lane
Denton, Texas 76201

Dear Mr. Workman:

You have permission to use the Listening and Response Alternatives Exercise taken from *Reaching Out* (1981) for your research. The exercise is based on research from Rogers and Roethlisberger (1952). No statistical data are available for the exercise.

Sincerely Yours,

Dr. David W. Johnson
Professor of Educational Psychology

DWJ: jb
Panel of Judges Reply Form

Name: ________________________________

Address: ________________________________

Telephone Number: ________________________________

[ ] I am willing to participate as a member of the panel of judges for establishing face validity of the Response Alternative questionnaire to be used by William Workman.

[ ] I cannot participate as a panel member.

Comments, remarks, or questions: ________________________________

Signed ________________________________
Read each of the following situations and response alternatives. After reading each of the response alternatives, place the corresponding number associated with the type of response on the line preceding the response.

Response descriptions are based on Johnson (1981).

1. Advising and evaluating - giving advice and making a judgment as to the relative goodness, appropriateness, effectiveness, and rightness of what the client is thinking and doing.

2. Analyzing and interpreting - clarifying, describing, defining, explaining, diagnosing, and sorting out of ideas, intentions, and feelings.

3. Reassuring and supporting - agreeing with clients' positions and perceptions, reassuring, sympathizing, and comforting.

4. Questioning and probing - asking for additional information, leading the discussion to greater depths, scrutinizing.

5. Paraphrasing and understanding - rewording of thoughts or meaning; mutual comprehension of ideas, intentions, and feelings.
TABLE VI

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR ANALYZING AND INTERPRETING RESPONSES BY SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

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### TABLE VII
MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR REASSURING AND SUPPORTING RESPONSES BY SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

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### TABLE VIII

MEANS AND STANDARD DEVIATIONS FOR ADVISING AND EVALUATING RESPONSES BY SEX-ROLE ORIENTATION BY LEVEL OF EDUCATION

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### TABLE X

Means and Standard Deviations for Questioning and Probing Responses by Sex-Role Orientation by Level of Education

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