COUNSELOR TOUCH AND GENDER AS RELATED TO NATIVE AMERICAN FEMALES' PERCEPTIONS OF COUNSELOR EXPERTNESS, ATTRACTIVENESS AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

Ву

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

People do not communicate by words alone. Humans have many sensory mechanisms that play a vital role in interpersonal communication (Birdwhistell, 1970). As communicators we are individuals of multidimensional capacities.

Communication is considered to be a core dimension of any counseling relationship (Ivey, 1977). The counseling relationship is a communicative process in which there is a complex interplay of verbal and nonverbal messages between the client and the counselor (Graves & Robinson, 1976).

Such a relationship is reciprocal in the sense that the communicative behavior of one affects the communicative behavior of the other (Loeffler, 1970). In the therapeutic relationship the counselor and the client mutually respond with two-way verbal and nonverbal behavior (Beir, 1966; Hansen, Stevic, & Warner, 1977). Since nonverbal behavior is believed to comprise approximately 80 to 90 percent of all communication (Ivey & Gluckstern, 1974; Mehrabian, 1972), the impact that various nonverbal messages have on the therapeutic relationship is worthy of investigation.

Investigations of the role of the counselor's nonverbal

behavior in establishing conditions that foster effective counseling suggest that nonverbal cues influence the message communicated (Hasse & Tepper, 1972; Smith-Hanen, 1977; Tepper & Hasse, 1978; Tipton & Rymer, 1978). Such studies have indicated that eye contact, trunk lean, body orientation, leg position, vocal intonation, and facial expression affect the ratings that are given to counselors by persons viewing and rating videotapes of counseling sessions. Although these other nonverbal behaviors have been studied in the counseling context, touch, a powerful nonverbal stimulus and communication medium, has received only modest attention (Driscoll, 1985; Hill & Gormally, 1977; Patterson, 1976; Tepper & Hasse, 1978). Prevalent humanistic models of counseling hold that some forms of touch may serve a therapeutic function in that they facilitate the development of openness, trust, and self-disclosure in a client's interpersonal communication (Jourard, 1966; Rogers, 1942). Furthermore, the literature suggests that touch facilitates the counseling process by increasing the client's positive evaluation of the experience (Alagna, Whitcher, Fisher, & Wicas, 1979; Fisher, Rytting, & Heslin 1976; Suiter & Goodyear 1985). Heppner and Heesacker (1982) suggest that the client's perception of the counselor was a more valid predictor of success in counseling than the counselor's actual training and experience level.

Researchers have found a difference in level of

nonverbal involvement between males and females in the counseling relationship (Foot, Chapman & Smith, 1977;
Greenbaum & Rosenfeld, 1980; Heshka & Nelson, 1972; Heslin & Boss, 1980). Pattison (1973) found that the use of touch by female counselors with female clients produced positive results, but did not affect the evaluation by male clients. Fisher, Rytting, and Heslin (1976) found similiar results. From this research several observations were made, including: (a) Females responded favorably to touch whether initiated by males or females, (b) males responded negatively to male touch, and (c) males responded either positively or negatively to female touch, depending on their expectation about the behavior of the female.

Strong (1968) applied research from the attitude-change literature in social psychology which resulted in the conceptualization of counseling as an interpresonal influence process. This early study has generated a considerable amount of research on interpersonal influence variables in counseling, particularly source variables such as perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness (Corrigan, Dell, Lewis, & Schmidt, 1980; Heppner & Dixon, 1981). Expertness has been defined as the client's belief that the counselor has the information and interpretative skills necessary to allow him or her to make the client's problems understandable and that the counselor will be able to find effective ways of dealing with the client's problems (Strong & Dixon, 1971). Trustworthiness is the belief that

the client holds about the counselor's openness, sincerity, and absence of a motive for personal gain (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975; Strong, 1968). Preceived attractiveness is the positive liking and admiration the client has for the counselor and a desire to be like the counselor as well as to gain the counselor's approval (Schmidt & Strong, 1971). Studies have examined the effects a variety of nonverbal behavior variables such as body position, body posture, smiles, head nods, eye contact, facial frowning, leg crossing and touch have on client's perception of counselor effectiveness (Dell, 1982; Dell & Schmidt, 1977; Kerr & Dell, 1976; LaCrosse 1975; Strong, Taylor, Bratton, & Loper 1971). Whereas the aforementioned studies have found nonverbal behavior to significantly increase client's perception of counselor effectiveness, there is a body of literature which has reported contradictory results concerning the effect of nonverbal interactions and the clients' perceived efficacy of the counselor (Bacon & Dixon, 1984; Fretz. Corn & Tuemmler 1979; Stockwell & Dye. 1980). The nonverbal behavior examined in these studies suggest that the client's evaluation of the counselor was not influenced by the counselor's nonverbal interaction. inconsistency in findings seems to warrant further research in the area of nonverbal behavior and its impact on the client's perception of counselor effectiveness.

The research has indicated that the bulk of a communication message is carried by nonverbal or a

combination of nonverbal cues (Ivey, 1977; Mehrabian & Weiner, 1967; Tepper & Haase, 1978). The results derived from previous research on perceived counselor effectiveness and nonverbal behavior cannot be generalized to minority groups (Haviland, Horswill, O'Connell & Dynneson, 1983; Porche & Banikiotes, 1982). Although problems associated with counseling minorities have received increased attention, the effects of nonverbal behavior on the counseling relationship has been relatively ignored (Sue & Sue, 1977; Vontress, 1971). The only minorities receiving much attention in the nonverbal literature are Blacks and Hispanics (Paurohit, Dowd & Cottingham, 1982; Porche & Banikiotes, 1982; Sanchez & Atkinson). Only limited research has been done regarding nonverbal communication with the Native American population (Haviland, Horswill, O'Connell, & Dynnesson, 1983; Littrell & Littrell, 1982). Studies focusing on minority populations and perceptions of counselor effectivenss have been limited to a few nonverbal stimuli such as race, dress cues, and counselor gender (LaFromboise & Dixon, 1981; Paurohit, Dowd & Cottingham, 1982; Rothmeler & Dixon, 1980; Strong & Schmidt, 1970).

Significance of the Study

Issues and concerns related to the provision of mental health services for minority populations have often been focused on the relationships between the professional and the client and the client's perception of the professional

(Griffith, 1977; Strong & Matross, 1973). There is a need for further research in the area of nonverbal communication and how it effects client perception of the counselor. Since most Native American students seeking counseling will be seen by Caucasian counselors, it is necessary to examine nonverbal communication and its effect on counselor effectiveness in this bi-cultural dyad (Dauphinais, 1981; Dauphinais, Dauphinais, & Rowe, 1981). Proponents of the social influence model have verified that the higher the levels of perceived counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness, the more likely the client will allow himself or herself to be influenced toward positive attitudes or behavior change (Strong & Dixon, 1971). the premature attrition rate for Native American college students in counseling has been found to be 55%, a need to increase counselor effectivenes with this population is warranted (Sue, Allen, & Conaway, 1978). A number of verbal and nonverbal counselor cues have been found to account for increased counselor social influence in the counseling relationship (LaCrosse, 1975; Siegel & Sell, 1978; Strong & Schmidt, 1970), however, few of these studies have been replicated with minority populations (LaFrombolse & Dixon, 1981). If the counselor is to be effective with culturally different clients, it would seem to be important to determine what communicative variables in the helping relationship enhance or facilitate success with these individuals. This study sought to examine the relationship

of the nonverbal behavior, touch, and client perceived counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness in Native American people. Research has shown that male/female reaction to touch is very different (Fisher et al., 1976). Research also has shown that females seek counseling more often than males and stay in counseling longer (Fischer & Turner, 1970; Phillips & Segal, 1969; Schneider & Laury. 1981). Therefore, this research focused only on female clients for the following reasons: (a) Women comprise a larger percentage of the client population and therefore. research on women will provide counselors with knowledge about their most commonly seen client. (b) since female response to touch is more consistent than male (Greenbaum & Rosenfeld, 1980) results will be more stable. (c) since so little has been done with the Native American client population, this study excludes males in an attempt to reduce obvious confounding variables, and (d) psychology and psychotherapy pertaining to women is a primary professional interest of the researcher.

Definition of Terms

Social Influence: The social power possessed by counselors to influence attitude and behavior change in clients (Strong, 1968).

Expertness: The client's perception that the counselor possesses the knowledge and interpretative skills necessary to allow the client to reach valid conclusions about and

deal effectively with their problems (Strong & Dixon, 1971).

Attractiveness: The positive feelings the client experiences toward the counselor. These include feelings of liking and admiration for the counselor, wanting approval and acceptance from the counselor, and desiring to be similar to the counselor (Schmidt & Strong, 1971).

Trustworthiness: The client's perception of the counselor's sincerity, openness and absence of motives for personal gain (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975).

Touch: Touch referred to the following behaviors as exhibited by the counselor: (a) counselor grasping (one or two-handed) the client's hand(s), (b) counselor placing hand on the client's back or shoulder, and (c) counselor briefly placing hand on the client's hand or knee.

Native American: Denotes ancestray to a people indigenous to North America sharing a common culture (Faherty, 1974).

Statement of Problem

A review of the literature indicated an absence of research in the area of the effects of nonverbal communication on the therapeutic relationship with Native Americans. The purpose of this study was to investigate one particular component of nonverbal communication, interpersonal touch, on Native American's perception of counselor's expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. The specific questions addressed in this study were: (a) Is there a relationship between touch and subject's perception

of Caucasian counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness with Native American students? (b) Will the interaction of gender of counselor and touch affect the subject's perception of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness with Native American students?

Null Hypothesis

It is hypothesized that there will be no significant interaction between the presence or absence of interpersonal touch and gender of counselor on the subject's (Native American) perception of counselor's expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness.

Limitations

One possible limitation of this study was that it did not control for cultural differences among the various Native American tribes. The Native American students who voluntarily participated in this study may not be representative of the Native American population attending the colleges and universities sampled, or of all Native American college students in general.

Since only female clients were used results may not be generalized to male clients.

Doctoral candidates enrolled in counselor preparation programs were used as counselors, therefore, the results cannot be generalized to a professional population, but can

only be generalized to counselors-in-training.

Since only Caucasian counselors were used, results can only be generalized to the Caucasian counselor/Native

American client dyad.

Since the cultural background of those identifying themselves as Native Americans was collected by means of self-report, it is recognized that all limitations of a self report instrument apply to this study.

Assumptions

It was assumed that Native American college students have primary contact with Caucasian counselors in university settings. Therefore, this study examined counselor-client nonverbal interactions using Caucasian doctoral level counselors-in-training to portray the counselors in the videotapes.

Another assumption was that the counselors used were representative of counselors-in-training.

While subjects were not true clients, it was assumed that they were representative of Native American college students who might be seen at a university counseling center.

It was assumed that the reliability and validity of the instruments were adequate for a study on Native Americans.

While video-tapes were not actual counseling sessions, but were role-played situations, it was assumed that they were representative of a true counseling sessions.

Organization of the Study

Chapter II includes a review of related literature.

Chapter III provides a description of the research design and methodology, the selection and description of subjects, instrumentation, data collection and analysis. The results of the data analysis are contained in Chapter IV. Finally, Chapter V includes the summary and a discussion of the results, the conclusions, and the recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

In reviewing the research pertinent to nonverbal communication in the counseling relationship and client perceptions of the counselor, it becomes apparent that both nonverbal cues as well as client perceptions have an impact on the effectiveness of counseling. While some nonverbal behaviors (e.g., eye contact) have received increased attention from researchers, others have been relatively neglected (e.g., touch). However, the limited studies that have examined touch in the counseling context have shown its utility in enhancing the counselor/client relationship. The present investigation attempted to add to the meager empirical findings of the therapeutic consequences of tactile gestures as well as examining the impact of touch in bi-cultural counseling relationships. Specifically, the present study examined the effect of counselor touch on Native American subjects' perception of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

The following review summarizes the research concerning nonverbal behavior as related to the counseling relationship. The focus narrows to specifically examine the

research on counselor touch and counseling effectiveness. Finally, the research pertaining to client perceptions of the counselor effectiveness: expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness is presented. In addition, the limited research conducted with Native American populations related to touch and counselor effectiveness is also reported in this chapter.

Nonverbal Behavior in Counseling

The counseling relationship places a premium on the communicative skills of the counselor and client (Carkhuff, 1969; Ivey, 1977). Of the verbal and nonverbal modes of interactions, the nonverbal behavior and nonverbal communications appear to play a significant role in the counseling process (Fretz, 1966; Gladstein, 1974; Haase & DiMattia, 1970). In fact, research has demonstrated that client's positive evaluation of counselor effectiveness is as much influenced by the counselor's nonverbal behavior as by the counselor's verbalizations (Haase & Tepper, 1972; LaCrosse, 1975; Seay & Altekruse, 1979; Siegel & Sell, 1978; Strahan & Zytowski, 1976; Tepper & Haase, 1978). Moreover, there is evidence that the counselor's nonverbal behavior may enhance or alter the message communicated depending upon its congruence or inconsistency with the verbal message (Reade & Smouse, 1980). Graves and Robinson (1976) found that inconsistent counselor messages were associated with greater interpersonal distances as well as with lower

ratings of counselor genuineness. Mehrabian (1968) indicated that as much as 55% of what is communicated in a message is nonverbal. Birdwhistell (1970) and Argyle, Alkema, and Gilmore (1971) report similar findings regarding the dominance of nonverbal behavior in the communication process. Similarly, Hasse and Tepper (1972) report that the nonverbal behavior of counselors accounted for more than twice as much variance in judged counselor empathy than did the verbal behavior.

A variety of nonverbal behaviors in the counseling context have received increased attention in recent years. Those nonverbal behaviors found to be correlated with counseling effectiveness include head nods (Hackney, 1974; LaCrosse, 1977; Sobelman, 1974); smiles (Bayes, 1972; Fretz, 1966); body orientation (Hasse & Tepper, 1972; LaCrosse, 1977; Solbelman, 1974); trunk lean (Genther & Moughan, 1977; Haase & Tepper, 1972; LaCrosse, 1977; Sobelman, 1974; Tepper & Haase, 1978). Even though these nonverbal behaviors have received a great deal of attention in the literature, there remains one very important nonverbal behavior that has received little experimental study. Specifically, this powerful nonverbal stimulus and communication medium was counselor touch (Hill & Gormally, 1977; Patterson, 1976; Tepper & Haase, 1978).

Touch and Counselor Effectiveness

Touch seemed to function most effectively to

communicate kinds of emotional meanings and to influence perceptions about the perceived power of communicators. As emotion cues, touch seemed to function best when it was used to provide comfort, caring, reassurance, and support to those in emotional need, and as a means of expressing warmth, affection, intimacy and sexual desire in interpersoal relationships (Major, 1981). Blondis and Jackson (1977) suggested that touch in nursing served a extremely important therapeutic role, more so than any other kind of verbal or nonverbal communication. They emphasized that our "...first comfort in life comes from touch—and usually our last..."(p.6). Patients who have lost all verbal capacity can ordinarily feel a gentle touch and be moved by the message of caring and reassurance that it represents

Touch probably functions most effectively to delineate the relative power and status of interacting individuals. Henley (1977) in her research has established that the frequency with which individuals touch and are touched by others is a reliable indicator of perceived power. Touch is so effective a medium for the communication of power that touchers are perceived to have more power and status than the touched, regardless of the gender of the toucher or the touched (Fisher, Rytting, & Hesslin, 1976). Touchers have consistently been perceived as more dominant and assertive than nontouchers (Major, 1981). Finally, subjects who have looked at photographs of male-female dyads, some who were

touching and some who were not touching, rated the touchers as significantly more powerful, strong, superior, and dominant (Fisher et al., 1976).

As previously indicated there is a definite lack of research in the area of touch and its impact on clients in counseling relationships. Although these findings may not be considered conclusive, there is some evidence that touch, when used appropriately, can have a significant positive impact on client's perception of counselor effectiveness.

Therapeutic touch as defined within the counseling context refers to the physical contact between the counselor's hand and the client's hands, arms, shoulders, legs, upper or lower back, and semi-embrace (Bacorn & Dixon, 1984; Suiter & Goodyear, 1985; Wheaton & Borgen, 1981).

Numerous researchers (Hubble, Noble, & Robinson, 1981;

Jourard & Friedman, 1970; Stockwell & Dye, 1980) consider this range of touching behavior to be therapeutic and nonerotic.

The research on therapeutic touch suggested that touch facilitates the counseling process by increasing the client's positive evaluation of the counseling experience. Appropriate touching (nonerotic) by the counselor was viewed as a desirable behavior (Alagna, Whitcher, Fisher, & Wicas, 1979). In other words, counselors who exhibited touching behavior were viewed as more expert, trustworthy, and attractive than those who do not touch (Claiborn, 1979; Hubble, 1980). However, in the traditional psychoanalytic

perspective touch has been considered to be detrimental and has been designated as taboo (Burton & Heller, 1964; Wolberg, 1967). Since these early writings, a number of empirical studies have been conducted in an attempt to resolve this debate on the constrasting views concerning the therapeutic utility of touch in counseling. These studies have reported both positive (Alagna et al., 1979; Hubble, 1980; Pattison, 1973; Suiter & Goodyear, 1985) and negative (Bacorn & Dixon, 1984; Stockwell & Dye, 1980) results.

Wilson (1982) suggested that "the most significant" use of touch in counseling is its potential to encourage self-disclosure. One of the earliest studies on the impact of touch in counseling (Pattison, 1973) found that touch positively influenced subject self-exploration. female undergraduate subjects in that study who were touched self-disclosed more than those who were not touched. Pedersen (1973) reported similar results from a study of 170 male college students. Willingness to self-disclose and body-accessibility with target persons (e.g., mother, father, best female and male friend) were measured. Significant correlations between touch and self-disclosure for all target persons were found. Jourard and Friedman (1970) discovered similar findings. In their study, it was determined that as personal distance was decreased between the interviewer and participants and touched was increased, the level of self-disclosure of the participants increased. In a more recent study conducted by Hubble et al. (1981) the

interaction between counselor touch, willingness to self-disclose, and perceptions of the conselor as expert, attractive, and trustworthy were examined. The results of the thirty-two college women who received the touch/no-touch treatment conditions indicated that those participants who received the touch condition perceived the counselors as significantly more expert when they were touched. These results are consistent with Corrigan, Dell, Lewis, and Schmidt's (1980) findings which suggested that touch may serve as an additional evidential cue of the counselor's expertness.

This author's investigation of the literature dealing with touch in children populations revealed a scarcity of empirical studies. Triplett and Arneson (1979) examined touch with 63 pediatric patients between the ages of 3 days to 44 months. When the children experienced distress they were responded to in one of two ways: Group A were given verbal comfort only (e.g., talking, humming, soothing sounds), and Group B received a condition of simultaneous verbal comfort and touching (e.g., patting, stroking, holding) as first signs of distress were noted. Group A (N=40) using verbal interventions only quieted 7 children, while the touch-verbal interventions, Group B (N=60) successfully quieted 53 of the participants. The researchers concluded that touching played a significant role in changing the infants distressed behavior.

Although important data have been added to the debate

on touch in counseling, there appears in the literature a small body of research which questions the efficacy of touch. In a recent study examining physical contact between clinicians and children in therapy, Cowen, Weissberg, and Lotycyewski (1983) discovered that various kinds of touch does not predict therapeutic outcomes. The authors suggest that the children's low level of response to being touch may be the result of a high frequency of touching behavior occurring between adults and children, thereby minimizing the personal meaning touch has for children.

Stockwell and Dye (1980) in their study of 56 male and 44 female undergraduate education students attempted a tighter study by controlling for other confounding nonverbal cues, such as eye contact and facial gestures. The subjects were asked to participate in an individualized vocational counseling session. The results indicated that touch had no significant effect on client evaluations of the counselor. Other researchers have found limitations to the use of touch in the counseling relationship (Bacorn & Dixon, 1984; Menninger, 1958; Wolberg, 1967). Some of these limitations included apprehensiveness to counselor touch, interference with transference, and possible adverse effects on the counseling relationship.

A review of the literature on touch indicated a void of information on the cross-cultural effects of touch on the counseling relationship. More specifically there were no studies which examined touch as a nonverbal faciliator of

the counseling process with Native American clients. Those nonverbal counselor characteristics which have received attention are limited to a few studies on counselor dress, race, and gender and their effects on client's preference (Haviland, Horswill, O'Connell, & Dynneson, 1983; Littrell & Littrell, 1982; Littrell & Littrell, 1983). The majority of the research with Native Americans has focused on verbal communciation (Dauphinais, 1981; LaFromboise & Dixon, 1981; Lockhart, 1981).

Touch and Gender

Gender appears to be an important variable in perceptual differences related to touching behavior. In same-sex interactions, a substantial amount of research indicates that females typically prefer higher levels of involvement with another than males do. This preference is reflected by females selecting closer distances than males, both in dyadic interactions (Alello & Aiello, 1974; Pellegrini & Empey, 1970) and in larger groups (Giesen & McClaren, 1976; Mehrabian & Diamond, 1971; Patterson & Schaeffer, 1977). In addition, touch seems to be more frequent and more positively evaluated among females than among males (Fisher, Rytting, & Heslin, 1976; Jourard, 1966; Whitcher & Fisher, 1976).

The normative expectation is that the most touching should occur among opposite-sex friends. In both intimate and professional relationships men are expected to touch

women much more frequently than they are touched by women. Male to female touch is the most frequent type of touch, even though females touch children of both sexes more frequently than do men (Majors & Heslin, 1982).

Furthermore, these authors have found that in same-gender interaction, touch among women is more frequent than among men. Whatever the gender of the touchers, the cultural norm dictates that the amount of touching may be increased as the relationship between the pair becomes more personal.

Several studies have investigated the interaction of client gender, counselor gender and touch on the client's perception of counselor effectiveness (Alagna et al., 1979; Hewitt & Feltham, 1982; Maier & Ernest, 1978; Suiter & Goodyear, 1985). Pattison (1973) found that the initiation of touch in a female counselor-female patient dyad produced increased self-disclosure by the client, but did not affect an evaluation of the counseling experience. The absence of a touch effect on evaluative judgements was clarified by a later study in which gender composition of counselor-client dyads was examined. Touch by the counselor produced a more favorable judgment of the counseling experience, but that effect was qualified by the sex composition of the dyad (Alagna et al., 1979). Specifically, the positive effect of touch was found only in cross-sex counseling dyads.

In an earlier study Silverthorne, Micklewright,
O'Donnell, and Gibson (1976) examined initial impressions of
male and female confederates initiating various levels of

touch (e.g., head nods only, firm handshake, firm handshake plus a squeeze on the subject's arm) when introduced to male and female subjects. It was found that increased touch produced positive impressions in all of the dyads except the female confederate—male subject pairs. As the degree of touch initiated by the female confederate toward the make subject increased, the female was viewed less positively. In general, female subjects' impressions of the male confederate became more positive as he initiated more touch, whereas male subjects' impressions of the female confederate became more negative as she initiated more touch.

In client evaluation of the counseling experience, the least amount of impact was noted when male counselors touched male clients. (Alagna et al., 1979). Similar findings were reported by Holroyd and Brodsky (1977) in their survey of psychologists revealing that they engaged in nonerotic hugging and affectionate touching more often in female dyads than in male dyads.

Preferences for counselors of the same gender have been reported among Black, Puerto Rican, and Causcasian college students (Gordon & Grantham, 1979). Until recently Native Americans have not been included in counselor preference research. Consistent with previous counselor research findings Littrell and Littrell (1982) reported a same gender preference for counselors among Native American high school students. The counselor preference research has only revealed one additional study dealing specifically with

Native American students preference for counselor gender. Haviland et al. (1983) examined the effects of Native American college students' preferences for counselor race and sex on the likelihood of frequencing a university counseling center. These authors found that both female and male Native American college students exhibited a strong preference for same race. Males preferred male counselors while females expressed a preference for same gender counselor only if the problem for which they sought counseling was of a personal nature. A positive correlation was found between preference of counselor and use of counseling center services by Native American students.

Client Perceptions of Counselor Effectiveness

With the amalgamation of social psychological concepts into counseling theory, Strong (1968) conceptualized counseling as an interpersonal influence process. This process involves the power of the counselor to implicitly or explicitly influence and facilitate changes in the actions, attitudes, and feelings of the client (Strong, 1968; Strong & Matross, 1973). This of course has been considered the primary goal of counseling (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). Strong (1968) from his early study of social psychology extrapolated three counselor characteristics (expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness) that appeared to be core conditions in counseling. Since that time numerous studies have examined counseling as a social influence

process in an attempt to determine what counselor characteristics and behaviors impacted on client perceptions of counselors' expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness, and how these variables directly influence client behavioral and attitudinal changes in counseling (Carter, 1978; Dell, 1973; Dell & Schmidt, 1976; Heppner & Pew, 1977; Heppner & Heesacker, 1982; Kaul & Schmidt, 1971; LaCrosse, 1975; Siegel & Sell, 1978). For ease of presentation the extentive literature related to the counselor variables of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness is presented independently.

Expertness

Strong and Dixon (1971, p. 562) have defined perceived counselor expertness as "the client's belief that the counselor possesses information and means of interpreting information which allow the client to obtain valid conclusions about and to deal effectively with his problems". Research has indicated that perceived expertness by a client is greatly influenced by (a) objective evidential cues of specialized training such as diplomas, certificates, and titles (Strong, 1968; Strong & Dixon, 1971); (b) behavioral demonstrations of expertness such as rational and knowledgeable arguments and confidence in presentation of ideas (Barak, Patkin, & Dell, 1982; Dell & Schmidt, 1976), as well as, certain counselor nonverbals such as eye contact and body position (Kleinke, Staneski, &

Berger, 1975; Tyson & Wall, 1983); and (c) reputational cues which includes information regarding the counselor's professional or social position (Brooks, 1974; Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977).

Several studies have examined the impact visual objective evidence of training and reputation has on perceived counselor expertness (Heppner & Pew, 1977; Siegel & Sell, 1978). Gelso and Karl (1974) in their study found that counselors were perceived by students as less competent and therefore, less likely to be helpful in solving personal problems when the word "psychologist" was omitted in their titles. In two later studies (Heppner & Pew, 1977; Siegel & Sell, 1978) which examined evidential stimuli, such as diplomas and awards which were hanging in a counselor's office, it was reported that the objective evidence enhanced students' perception of counselor effectiveness.

Some researchers have examined a combination of objective cues to determine if multiple stimuli is more effective in enhancing perceived expertness (Atkinson & Carskadden, 1975; Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977; Greenberg, 1969; Hartley, 1969; Spiegel;1976; Strong & Schmidt, 1970). The findings in all these studies consistently reported that combining prestigious introductions with expert titles increased expert ratings.

Another area that has been found to effect perceived counselor expertness is the characteristics associated with the counselor. Several researchers in examining the

influence process in counseling have investigated the impact attire, room furnishings, race, and gender have on ratings of expertness. Amira and Abramowitz (1979) and Stillman and Resnick (1972) reported that whether the counselor wore casual or formal significantly effected subject's rating of the counselor on the dimension of expertness. In the same study it was found that room formality affected higher ratings of counselor competence than informality of room furnishings. When office decor and counselor gender were manipulated, it was reported that subject ratings for a female counselors in traditional offices were percieved as more credible than those female counselors in a more humanistic office. The opposite held true for male counselors and room decor.

Gender and race have received attention in an attempt to determine their impact on perceptions of counselor expertness (Banks, Berenson, & Carkhuff, 1967; Gardener, 1972; Dell & Schmidt, 1976; Heppner & Pew, 1977; Heffernon & Bruehl, 1971; Cimbolic, 1972; Peoples & Dell, 1975). Dell and Schmidt (1976) examined counselor gender and did not find it to be significantly related to client perception of counselor expertness. In a later study by Heppner and Pew (1977) similar results were obtained. Conclusions about the effect of counselor race on client perception of counselor expertness are less consistent (Cimbolic, 1972; Peoples & Dell, 1975). Cimbolic (1972) found no relationship between race and perception of expertness. However, Peoples and

Dell (1975) found differential perceptions of expertness based on counselor race.

Schmidt and Strong (1970) were among the first to study behavioral cues associated with counselor expertness. These researchers found that a variety of nonverbal behaviors, such as hand gestures, body lean, head nodding, and eye contact, had a significant influence on perceptions of expertness. In this study behavioral cues which promoted perceptions of inexpertness were also identified. In similar investigations these behaviors consistently differentiated counselors on perceived expertness (Claiborn, 1979; LaCrosse, 1975; Siegel & Sell, 1978; Strong & Schmidt, 1970).

Counselor verbal behavior is another variable that has been shown to be significantly related to perceptions of counselor expertness (Atkinson & Carskadden, 1975; Claiborn, 1979; Merluzzi, Banikotes, & Missbach, 1978). Atkinson and Carskadden (1975) found that the use of psychological jargon increased client's perception of counselor expertness. In another study Claiborn (1979) found that the use of interpretative statements as opposed to restatement also increased expert ratings. Merluzzi, et al.(1978) found that while self-disclosed counselors were rated as more expert, talking level did not have a differential effect on perceived expertness.

Some studies have combined several sources of expertness in an effort to determine the effect on client

perception expertness (Atkinson & Carskadden, 1975; Heppner & Dixon, 1978; Merluzzi et al., 1978). Atkinson & Carskadden (1975) combined prestigious introductions and psychogoical jargon and reported a relationship to increase ratings of client perception of expertness. Two studies combined three sources of expertness: counselor behavior, titles, and prestigious introductions (Heppner & Dixon, 1978; Merluzzi et al., 1978). Both studies concluded that multiple expert cues did significantly affect client's rating of counselor expertness.

Research conclusively indicated that at least three sources of expertness (objective evidential cues, behavioral cues, and reputational cues) significantly influence clients' perceptions of counselor expertness. Research findings regarding differential effects of counselor race and gender on perceived expertness were not as conclusive (Cimbolic, 1972). Evidence did suggest that combinations of multiple sources of expertness have an additive effect on clients' perceptions of counselor expertness (Heppner & Dixon, 1978). The literature was void of studies which investigated perceived expertness in Native American populations.

Attractiveness

Perceived counselor attractiveness has been defined as the counselor's perceived similarity to a client, the client's perception of the counselor's positive feelings for him, desire to gain his approval, and desire to be more similar to him (Schmidt & Strong, 1971). Perceived counselor attractiveness was considered to be predominately under the influence of counselor's nonverbal and verbal behaviors within the counseling session (Strong, 1968). Research in the area of counselor attractiveness can be categorized into four major divisions: (a) Counselor nonverbal behaviors (Dell & Schmidt, 1976; Hasse & Tepper, 1972; LaCrosse, 1975; Suiter & Goodyear, 1985), (b) counselor verbal behaviors (Merluzzi et al., 1977; Nilsson, Strassberg, & Bannon, 1979), (c) counselor characteristics (Cash, Begley, McCown, & Weise, 1975; Lewis & Walsh, 1978), and (d) counselor presession introductions (Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977; Greenberg, 1969; Strohmer & Biggs, 1983).

Research has consistently shown that counselor active nonverbal behaviors are related to attributions made to her or him by subjects. Strong, Taylor, Bratton, and Loper (1971) found that couselors who manifested greater frequencies of movements in counseling sessions were rated by subjects as higher in perceived attractiveness than counselors who manifested low frequencies of movements. In a later study LaCrosse (1975) found that responsive nonverbal behaviors (e.g., smiles, head nods) increased the subject's perception of counselor attractiveness. Suiter and Goodyear (1985) studied community counselors' and clients' perceptions of videotaped counselor-client interaction that depicted different levels of counselor

touch. The authors concluded that the clients viewing the vignette rated the counselor across all conditions of touch as more expert, attractive and trustworthiness.

Within the area of interpersonal influence research, one counselor verbal behavior which has received a great deal of attention is self-disclosure. Hoffman-Graff (1977) found that perceived counselor attractiveness was enhanced as counselor's self-disclosures matched similar experiences, feelings, and attitudes of the subjects. In general, findings indicated that counselor self-disclosures significantly increased subjects' perceptions of counselor attractiveness (Merluzzi et al., 1978; Nilsson et al., 1979).

Another counselor behavior, professional and sophisticated language, was found to lessen the client's perceived similarity with the counselor and thus decreased perceived attractiveness (Atkinson & Carskaddon, 1975).

Kleinke and Tully (1979) investigated the effects of varying levels of counselor's talking on perceived attractiveness.

It was reported that low level's of talking rated higher on the attractiveness variable than talking in the medium or high range.

A number of studies have examined the effects of various counselor characteristics, such as age, gender, race, and physical attributes, on perceived counselor attractiveness (Cash, et al., 1975; Lewis & Walsh, 1978; Porche & Banikiotes, 1982). Cash et al. (1975) investigated

the differential effects of counselor physical attributes on male and female college students' perception of counselor attractiveness. These researchers reported that male and females subjects evaluated the physically attractive counselor as more intelligent, friendly, trustworthy competent, warm, and helpful. Although no differential effects on the gender variable were found in this study, two subsequent studies (Carter, 1978; Lewis & Walsh, 1978) reported that physical attractiveness exerted more influence for female counselors and clients. The physically attractive female counselors were perceived more positively by female clients. Porche and Banikiotes (1982) in their study investigating the effects of racial and attitudinal factors on Black adolescents perceptions of the counselor found that attitudinally dissimilar counselors were perceived lower in terms of attractiveness, trustworthiness. and expertness. In this same study, a significant main effect for race of counselor was reported for the attractiveness variable. These findings were counter to earlier findings which have supported a positive relationship between racial similarity and counselor attractiveness (Sue & Sue, 1977).

A few studies have demonstrated the effects of presession counselor introductions on perceived counselor attractiveness (Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977; Greenberg, 1969). Greenberg found that introducing the counselor as either warm or cold significantly affected the perceptions of

counselor attractiveness by students. The counselors who were introduced at being warm were rated higher on attractiveness than the counselors introduced as being cold. Claiborn and Schmidt (1977) found that prestigious introductions of counselors to college students had no affect on the attractiveness variable, but did influence perceptions of counselor expertness.

Nowhere in the social influence literature did there appear any research examining counselor influence variables and perceived counselor attractiveness with Native American client population.

Trustworth iness

Strong (1968, p. 222) specified behaviors that were seen to influence perceived counselor trustworthiness as "...paying close attention to the client's statements and other behavior, by communicating his concern for the client's welfare, by avoiding statements indicating exhibitionism or perverted curiosity, and by assuring confidentiality of all transactions". Evolving from Strong's (1968) earlier study, trustworthiness was defined as the belief that the client holds about the counselor's openness, sincerity, and absence of a motive for personal gain (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975; Strong, 1968).

Of the three interpersonal influence variable reviewed, trustworthiness has been the least researched. Researchers have had limited success in manipulating the behavioral cues

which affect the perception of trustworthiness (Corrigan, Dell. Lewis, & Schmidt, 1980). Studies examining counselor verbal and nonverbal behavior on perceived trustworthiness suggested that nonverbal behaviors greatly enhance perception of counselor trustworthiness (Claiborn, 1979; Heppner & Dixon, 1981; Kaul & Schmidt, 1971). Claiborn (1979) found that certain types of verbal responses in counseling sessions increased ratings of counselor trustworthiness. Interpretative statements were found to have a greater impact on perceived trustworthiness than did restatements. In that same study, nonverbal responsive behaviors such as smiling, leaning forward, hand and body movements, and head nodding were found to exert a great deal of influence on clients' perception of counselor trustworthiness. In their study examining counselor self-disclosure, Merluzzi et al., (1978) found an interactional effect with counselor gender. Low disclosing female counselors were perceived more trustworthy than high disclosing female counselors, while no differences were exhibited between high and low disclosing male counselors.

Perception of counselor trustworthiness appeared to be of particular importance in initial cross-cultural interactions (LaFromboise & Dixon, 1981). The reluctance to trust and disclose has been considered to be a barrier to effective counseling with culturally different clients (Vontress, 1969). LaFromboise and Dixon (1981) were able to operationally define counselor trustworthiness. Behaviors

which depicted a trustworthy counselor included: (a) Topic consistency, (b) accurate paraphasing, (c) mood and interest consistency. (d) confidentiality. (e) affirmation of sincere interest through behavioral follow-up, (f) cultural understanding, and (g) mutual sharing of information through self-disclosures. Other behaviors of a trustworthy counselor were counselor attentiveness and responsiveness to the client, giving direction and structure to the interview, and displaying respect for the client's culture. Nonverbal behaviors depicted in the trustworthy role included counselor-client eye contact similarity, erect positioning in chair, reference to time only at the end of the session, and an aura of confident humility. The role manipulation of trustworthy behaviors was successful. Counselors who enacted the trustworthy roles received higher ratings on perceived counselor trustworthiness by the Native American high school students.

Summary

The extensive literature examining counseling as a social influence process suggested that client perceptions of counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness affect client behavioral and attitudinal changes in counseling (Strong, 1968). A number of verbal and nonverbal counselor behaviors have been found to account for increased counselor social influence. Studies have also shown that counselor nonverbal cues have a tremendous impact

on perceived counselor effectiveness. Although several counselor nonverbal behaviors have been examined in the counseling context, touch, a very powerful nonverbal cue has received modest attention (Patterson, 1976; Tepper & Hasse, 1978). The research however, has not been expanded to Native American populations. This study sought to contribute to the knowledge of counselor touch and gender as related to subject's perception of counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness with the Native American population.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This chapter consists of a description of the experimental methods and procedures utilized in the study. Incorporated in this chapter are sections dealing with the following areas: (a) subjects, (b) instrumentation, (c) research design, (d) procedures and (e) vignettes.

Subjects

The sample used for this study was drawn from the undergraduate and graduate Native American student populations at 13 midwestern colleges and universities. All subjects were recruited during the spring and summer semesters of 1987. Subjects participated on a voluntary basis with no reinbursement for their services; however, donations were made to the universities' Indian Clubs. Contact with volunteer subjects was attained from the coordinators of the minority counseling services at the 13 midwestern colleges and universities. Informed consent was secured from each Native American student participant. A total of 120 female Native American subjects participated in this study, providing a power level of .80 (alpha .05 and

effect size of .35) (Cohen, 1969).

Demographic information was collected on each research participant. Information was gathered on the following variables: tribe, blood quantum, age, childhood residence, college, educational level, major, number in childhood household, and level of tribal acitivity. Descriptive statistics were used to describe the above variables. major tribes represented 59% of the sample as shown in Table Seventy-five per cent (75%) of the subjects reported being at least one half Native American (see Table 2). age of the participants ranged from 17 to 47 with a mean age of 23. Sixty-six per cent (66%) of the sample grew up in a rural setting, 25% in an urban area and 9% on reservations. The sample was drawn from 13 colleges and universities in the midwest with three major universities accounting for 84% of the sample. Subjects ranged from freshmen to Ph.D. candidates, however, 75% were undergraduates. Subjects reported 29 different majors with general studies representing 46% of the sample. The average number of persons residing in subjects' childhood household was 6. with a range of 3 to 13 individuals. Tribal involvement was measured on a 7 point Likert scale. The mean activity level was reported to be 4. Forty-seven per cent (47%) of the subjects reported their level of activity in tribal affairs to be between three and five. The questionnaire used to gather demographic information may be found in Appendix B.

Table 1
Tribal Affiliation

Tribe	Frequency	Percent of Sample
Cherokee	36	30.0
Creek	23	19.2
Osage	12	10.0
Navajo	9	7.5
Apache	5	4.2
Choctaw	5	4.2
Ponca	5	4.2
Zunì	4	3.3
Otoe-Missouri	4	3.3
Seminole	3	2.5
Houma	2 2	1.7
Kiowa	2	1.7
Tonkawa	2	1.7
Cheyenne	1	.8
Havasupai	1	.8
Iowa	1	.8
Pawnee	1	.8
Sauk-Fox	1	.8
San Felipe Pueblo	1	.8
Shawnee	1	.8
Winnebago	1	.8

Total 120 100.0

Table 2
Subjects' Blood Quantum

Blood Quantum	Frequency	Percent
1/64	2	1.7
1/32	3	2.5
1/16	3 5	4.2
1/8	7	5.8
1/4	12	10.0
1/2	24	20.0
3/4	17	14.2
Full	50	41.7
Total	120	100.0

Instrumentation

Counselor Rating Form

The Counselor Rating Form (CRF) was used (see Appendix A) to assess client perception of counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. The CRF (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975) is a 36-item instrument developed to measure Strong's (1968) identified dimensions of counselor influence with a client (expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness).

The CRF consists of 36 bi-polar adjectives which are divided into three dimensions with 12 items each. Using a seven point semantic differential scaling procedure, the subjects were asked to respond to each item. The responses were scored on a one to seven basis with the left most space being either one or seven as noted in the scoring sheet (see Appendix A). The scoring sheet also provides information explaining which items load under which variable. A subscale score ranging from 12 to 84 is provided for each of the three dimensions. Higher scores are interpreted as client's perceptions of greater counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness.

Norms. The CRF was originally normed on 202 introductory psychology students at Ohio State University (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975) by having the subjects rate the counseling behavior of Rogers, Ellis, and Perls after viewing the film "Three Approaches to Psychotherapy"

(Shostrom, 1966). LaCrosse and Barak (1976) replicated their earlier study using 127 undergraduates.

Validity. Validation studies on the CRF have included investigations of its construct, predictive, and concurrent validity. Barak and LaCrosse (1975) found adequate construct vadility through a factor analysis procedure for the instrument. The factor analysis yielded three distinct factors which were entitled expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. Predictive validity with a goal attainment scaling was found to range from .53 to .58 (LaCrosse, 1980). In the same study, concurrent validity coefficients were found to be slightly higher ranging from .47 to .62 when compared to the Counselor Effectiveness Rating Scale.

Reliability. Barak and LaCrosse (1975) assessed the reliability of the CRF utilizing a split-half analysis and obtained reliability coefficients ranging from .85 to .91. According to Atkinson and Wampold (1982) split-half reliability for the three factors of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness ranged from .87 to .91. Also related to the relability of this instrument, Barr, Goodnight, Sall, & Helwig (1976) reported internal consistency of the instrument (Cronbach alphas) which ranged from .86 to .91.

Research Design

The design utilized in this study was a Posttest-Only Control group design (Campbell & Stanley, 1966). Subjects were randomly assigned to one of the four treatment groups. The four treatment were female counselor/touch, female counselor/no touch, male counselor/touch and male counselor/no touch. The design controls for all threats to internal validity except mortality which was not a threat in this study since subjects were involved for only a brief period of time. Although subjects were randomly assigned to treatment groups, control for some threats to external validity were compromised since all subjects were volunteers.

Procedures

Permission to contact volunteers was obtained from the minority counseling coordinators and informed consent was secured from each student at the beginning of each data-collecting session. Only female Native American student volunteers were selected and randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups.

The data collection format used for this research involved showing each subject a short, videotaped vignette of a simulated counseling interview. The four vignettes were indentical in every sense except for the touch variable and the gender of the counselor. After viewing the vignettes, each subject was asked to complete the Counselor Rating Form

and a short demographic form. At the end of the data-collection session a debriefing report was disseminated to each participant which outlined the intent of the research.

Vignettes

Four vignettes of simulated counseling interviews were produced. Two vignettes portrayed a Caucasian female counselor working with a college-age Native American female client and the other two depicted a Caucasian male counselor working with the same college-age Native American female client. In order to minimize differences due to counselor-client interactions, the same Native American female client was portrayed in all four vignettes.

In the vignettes with the touch treatment, the counselor initiated a handshake at the introduction and placed her or his hand on the client's back as they moved to the counselor's office. During the interview, the counselor touched the client's knee or hand (duration of 4-5 seconds) three additional times.

The script for the vignettes portrayed a female Native
American student experiencing stress in college. The script
was the same in all four tapes.

In an attempt to control for confounding variables the two doctoral level counseling students chosen to role-play the counselors in the vignettes were similar in age, experience level and education. The two counselors received

training in delivery of the identical scripts and execution of correct touching behavior. Expert judges were utilized to determine the adequacy of the manipulation of the touch variable. The expert judges consisted of one faculty member from the counseling area, one Native American counselor with minority student services, one doctoral level counselor working in a university counseling center and two counseling psychologists. Three video recordings were required to acheive inter-judge reliability in which four out of six judges rated the tapes above five on a seven-point Likert scale. The dimensions measured were content of tapes, counselor competence, client participation and touch (See Appendix C). Ranges and means for each dimension are presented in Table 3.

Analysis of Data

A two-way multivariate analyses of variance (MANOVA) was performed on the data. MANOVA was selected for two specific reasons. First, MANOVA is specifically designed for research which utilizes multiple dependent variables. Second, MANOVA was selected over a series of ANOVA's because of the protection it affords against Type I error. Appropriate tests for evaluating the assumptions of multicollinearity, singularity, and homogeneity of variance was conducted. The hypothesis error rate was set at .05. Therefore, the experimentwise error rate was .15.

The three dependent variables were the subjects'

Table 3
Ranges and Means of Vignette Ratings by Expert Judges

Dimension	Range	Mean
Content	4 to 7	6.2
Counselor Competence	3 to 7	5.4
Client Participation	5 to 7	6.4
Touch	4 to 7	5.8

perception of counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness as measured by the CRF. The categorical independent variables were two-levels of touch (i.e., touch vs. no touch) and gender of counselor (i.e., female vs. male).

Summary

Subjects for this study were 120 female Native American college students at 13 midwestern colleges and universities. Procedures for data collection were provided along with a description of the instrument used. A discussion of the statistical procedures used to analyze the data was also presented. Details of the statistical techniques used and statistical findings are elaborated in chapter IV. Chapter V consists of results, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship of counselor's gender and use of touch with Native American females' perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. Subjects' perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness were obtained from the Counselor Rating Form. The research design involved showing the subjects one of four videotapes as follows: (a) Female counselor with touch, (b) female counselor with no touch, (c) male counselor with touch, or (d) male counselor with no touch. Subjects were requested to complete the Counselor Rating Form and a Demographic Questionnaire after viewing the videotape.

The null hypothesis and a summarization of the research findings are presented in this chapter. Both the multivariate and univariate analyses are included.

Null Hypothesis

It is hypothesized that there will be no significant interaction between the presence or absence of interpersonal

touch and gender of counselor on the subject's (Native American female) perceptions of counselor's expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness.

Research Findings

A 2 X 2 between-subjects multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on the three dependent variables: expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. The two independent variables were counselor gender (female and male) and counselor touch (touch and no touch).

The SPSSX-PC Statistical Program for MANOVA was used to analyze the data. The program examined the data for nonorthogonality. Assumptions of normality, homogeneity of variance-covariance matrices, multicollinearity and linearity were examined and found to be satisfactory. There were no within-cell outliers, therefore, the Total N of 120 subjects remained unchanged (p < .01).

Multivariate F's were examined for interaction between counselor gender and counselor touch as well as for the main effects of counselor gender and counselor touch. The combined dependent variables were significantly affected by both counselor gender ($\underline{F}(3, 114) = 3.41$, $\underline{p} < .05$) and counselor touch ($\underline{F}(3, 114) = 2.68$, $\underline{p} < .05$), but not by their interaction ($\underline{F}(3, 114) = 0.99$, $\underline{p} > .05$). Results are summarized in Table 4.

Subsequently, a univariate analysis was performed to investigate the effects of both main effects and their

Table 4 $\begin{tabular}{ll} Multivariate F's for Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness \end{tabular}$

Source	df	F Value Wilks Lambda
Counselor Gender X Counselor Touch	3	0.99
Counelor Gender	3	3.41-
Counselor Touch	3	2.68*

^{*}p < .05

interaction on the individual dependent variables. No significance was revealed for either the main effect of counselor gender or the interaction effect of counselor gender and touch (see Table 5). Although this is an unusual occurrance, Pedhazur (1982) has suggested that due to the intercorrelations among the dependent variables it is possible to acheive an overall statistically significant result in MANOVA without obtaining significant differences when each dependent variable is analyzed separately. However, the univariate analysis did reveal significance for the main effect of counselor touch and found expertness ($\underline{\mathbf{F}}$ (1, 116) = 4.62, $\underline{\mathbf{p}}$ < .05) to be the major contributor (see Table 4). The univariate stepdown analysis was not performed since only one dependent variables was judged to be significant.

A unique contribution to predicting differences in the subjects' perceptions of counselor characteristics was made by expertness ($\underline{F}(1, 116) = 4.62$, $\underline{p} < .05$). Counselors not utilizing touch were rated as more expert ($\overline{X} = 57.30$) than counselors who did touch their clients ($\overline{X} = 62.43$) as reported in Table 6.

Since mulitvariate F's were significant for both main effects of counselor touch and counselor gender, cell means were examined to determine the direction of the differences. An examination of combined means revealed that counselors not touching their clients were rated significantly higher $(\overline{X} = 62.56)$ than counselors who touched their clients $(\overline{X} = 62.56)$

Table 5 $\begin{tabular}{ll} Univariate F's for Expertness, Attractiveness and $Trustworthiness $ \end{tabular}$

Source	SS	SSe	MS	MSe	F
Univariate F: Co (1,116 D. F.)	ounselor	Gender X Co	unselor To	uch with	
Expertness Attractiveness Trustworthiness		19933.23		170.94 171.84 127.01	2.15 2.33 1.16
Univariate F: Co	ounselor	Gender with	(1,116 D.	F.)	
Expertness Attractiveness Trustworthiness					.93 .03 3.26
Umivariate F: Co	ounselor	Touch with	(1,116 D.	F.)	
Expertness Attractiveness Trustworthiness	60.21		60.21	170.94 171.84 127.01	4.62* .35 1.54

[~]p < .05

df = degrees of freedom

SS = Sums of Squares

SSe = Sums of Squares error

MS = Mean Square

MSe = Mean Square error

F = Wilks Lambda F value

Table $\ensuremath{\mathbf{6}}$ Means and Standard Deviations of Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness

	Counselor Female	Counselor Male	Gender Combined
Counselor Touch			
- .	N = 30	N = 30	N = 60
Exper <u>t</u> ness	56.70	57.90	57.30
X SD	15.75	14.01	14.88
Attractiveness	13.75	14.01	14.00
X	61.60	64.83	63.22
S	16.85	12.66	14.72
Trustworthiness	20100		
X	58.83	57.33	58.08
SD	13.28	12.24	12.76
Counselor No Touch			
	N = 30	N = 30	N = 60
Expertness			
ጃ	65.33	59.53	62.43
SD	9.65	12.09	10.87
Attractiveness		40.40	
X	66.67	62.60	64.63
SD	9.38	12.46	10.92
Trustworthiness	62 60	57.67	60.64
X SD	63.60 8.04	10.83	9.44
30	0.04	10.00	/ • • • •
Counselor Touch/			
No Touch Combined	N = 60	N = 60	N = 120
Expertness	11 - 00	11 - 00	11 - 12
X	61.02	58.72	59.87
SD	12.70	13.05	12.86
Attractiveness			
X	64.18	63.72	63.95
SD	13.12	12.56	12.84
Trustworthiness			
X	61.22	57.50	59.36
SD	10.66	11.53	11.10

59.69) regardless of counselor gender (see Table 6). Female counselors were given significantly higher ratings (\overline{X} = 62.12) than male counselors (\overline{X} = 60.14) regardless of whether or not touch was used. Further investigation of the univariate F's revealed a significance for the main effect for counselor touch. Expertness was revealed to be the major contributor, with higher ratings going to counselors who did not touch (\overline{X} = 62.43) than counselors who did touch their clients (\overline{X} = 57.30). Cell means and standard deviations are reported in Table 6. Eta square revealed that 6% of the variability of expertness was due to counselor touch. Since attractiveness and trustworthiness did not achieve statistical significance, eta square was not calculated.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship of counselor gender and counselor touch with subjects' perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. Multivariate analyses revealed significant results for the main effects of counselor touch and counselor gender, but not for their interaction. Subsequent univariate analyses revealed a significant main effect for counselor touch on the expertness variable only, but not for the main effect of counselor gender or their interaction.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effect of counselor gender and counselor touch on Native American females' perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. Both the main effects and their interaction effects were examined.

Research participants in this study consisted of 120

Native American female college students in the midwest.

Most of the subjects were undergraduate students majoring in general studies. The majority of the students grew up in rural areas and were moderately active in tribal activities.

Although 21 tribes were represented in the sample, most participants were from three tribes and were at least 50%

Native American.

Test data consisted of subjects' ratings of the counselor on the Counselor Rating Form (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975). A demographic questionnaire was completed by each participant in the study.

The null hypothesis for this study stated that there would be no significant interaction between the presence or absence of counselor interpersonal touch and counselor

gender on Native American females' perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness.

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was used to test the hypothesis. Alpha was set at .05. Multivariate analysis revealed significant main effects for both counselor gender and counselor touch but not for their interaction.

Subsequent univariate analysis revealed significant differences on only the expertness variable for the main effect of counselor touch. However, the main effect of counselor gender failed to achieve significance on any of the dependent variables. Due to these results it was not necessary to utilize the Roy-Bargman Stepdown F technique to analyze the data further.

Female counselors were rated significantly higher than male counselors regardless of the counselor's use of touch. In the same manner, counselors who did not touch were rated significantly higher than counselors who did touch regardless of the counselor's gender. Even though the interaction effect did not achieve statistical significance, an examination of cell means revealed that highest ratings were given to female counselors who did not touch their clients. There was very little difference among the other three cell means.

Conclusions

The results of this study suggest that both counselor gender and counselor touch affect Native American females'

perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. However, the interaction between counselor gender and touch does not seem to affect their perceptions. This would suggest that Native American female clients would be most comfortable with female counselors or counselors who did not use touch in their counseling sessions.

Female counselors were rated significantly higher than male counselors whether or not they utilized touch. One possible explanation for this difference is that only female Native American subjects were used in the study and sampling bias is confounding the results. Perhaps the findings of the present study is reflecting Native American students' choice for gender matching rather than a definite preference for female counselors. This is consistant with the findings of Littrell and Littrell (1982) which stated that Native American high school students preferred same gender counselors. If Native American male subjects had been included in the sample the results may have been more interpretable.

Counselors who did not touch their clients were rated significantly higher than counselors who did utilize touch with their Native American client. This is contrary to literature for non-Native Americans which stated that counselors who touched their clients were viewed as more expert, attractive and trustworthy than counselors who did not touch (Claiborn, 1979; Hubble, 1980; Suiter & Goodyear,

1985). In those studies only Caucasian counselor and client dyads were examined. Therefore, it appears that results of Caucasian studies concerning touch in the counseling relationship cannot be generalized to cross-cultural dyads involving Caucasian counselors and Native American clients. Based on the findings of the present study, Caucasian counselors working with Native American clients should be cautious in their use of therapeutic touch since it may negatively effect client perceptions of the counselor.

Univariate analysis indicated that the variable most impacted by the use of touch was expertness. Counselors who did not touch their clients were perceived as significantly more expert than those counselors who did touch. While Native American female subjects were unable to differentiate between touch and no touch on the attractiveness and trustworthiness variables, expertness was significantly compromised when touch was utilized. It would appear that the Native American subjects were more attentive to the counselor's expertness than the other two variables. Although trustworthiness did not achieve statistical significance, it appeared to be affected by counselor gender (p = .07).

Recommendations for Future Research

The following recommendations relate to research involving Native American females:

It is recommended that the present study be

replicated to include Native American male subjects in the sample to increase generalizablity.

- 2. This study does not coincide with previous research that examined touch and client's perceptions involving both Caucasian counselors and clients. Therefore, it is recommended that future studies involving client perceptions focus on the differences in perception of counselor by Native Americans as compared with Caucasians.
- 3. It is further recommended that future research examine Native American clients in cross-cultural counseling dyads with other than Caucasian counselors.
- 4. Since the Native American subjects in this study were most responsive to counselor expertness, future research is encouraged to determine what cues will increase Native American's perception of counselor expertness.
- 5. Since Native American students were used as subjects in this study, results can only be generalized to Native American college students who might be seen in a counseling center. Future research is needed utilizing actual Native American clients as subjects to determine further generalization of the study.
- 6. Finally, a replication of this study is warranted utilizing professional counselors to determine if results can be generalized to a professional population working with Native American clients.
- 7. Whereas trustworthiness failed to achieve statistical significance but did approach it, it is further

recommended that future studies examine this variable more closely to determine its role in the counseling dyad.

8. Finally, a more extensive questionnaire to gather demographic information regarding cultural background is recommended to insure the reliability of the demographic data. This demographic information could than be used as predictor variables in future Native American research.

Recommendations for Practitioners

The following recommendations are related to practical application:

- When counseling Native American college students it
 is recommended to consider gender matching to increase
 client perception of the counselor as a credible helping
 resource.
- 2. Therapeutic touch appears to be contraindicated when counseling Native American college students.

 Therefore, it is suggested that counselors refrain from using touch with Native American clients.
- 3. Since Native American students were most sensitive to counselor expertness, it is recommended that counselors attend to those cues which tend to increase client's perceptions of counselor expertness.

Hopefully this study has contributed to the fund of knowledge concerning counseling the Native American student. Since little research has been conducted using Native American populations, this study attempted to extend

generalizablity concerning what is known about the counseling relationship to the Native American population. Perhaps it will provide the stimulus and direction for future research involving counseling Native American clients.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

COUNSELOR RATING FORM

COUNSELOR RATING FORM

Listed below are several scales which contain word pairs at either end of the scale and seven spaces between the pairs. Please rate the counselor you just saw on each of the scales.

If you feel that the counselor <u>very closely</u> resembles the word at one end of the scale, place a check mark as follows:
fair <u>X</u> :::: unfair
fair:::::::unfair
If you feel that one end of the scale <u>quite closely</u> describes the counselor then make your check mark as follows:
rough:_X:::: smooth
or rough::::_X:: smooth
If you feel that one end of the scale <u>only slightly</u> describes the counselor, then check the scale as follows:
active::_X::: inactive or.
active:::_X:: inactive
If both sides of the scale seem <u>equally associated</u> with your impression of the counselor or if the scale is

Your first impression is the best answer.

irrelevant, then place a check mark in the middle space:

hard ___:__:___: X:___:__: soft

agreeable	:_	_:	:	:	:	::	disagreeable
unalert	:_	_:	:	:	:	::	alert
analytic	:_	_:	:	:	:	::	diffuse
unappreciative	:_	_:	.:	:	:	::	appreciative
attractive	:_	_:	.:	:	.:	::	unattractive
casual	:_	_; <u></u>	.:	:	.:	·:	formal
cheerful		_:	.:	:	.:	.::	depressed
vague	:_	_:	.:	:	.:	::	clear
distant	:_	_:	·:	:	.:	.::	close
compatible	:	·	·:	:	. :	.::	incompatible
unsure	:	:	<u>:</u>	:	_ :	.::	sure
suspìcìous	:_	_:	.:	:	- :	.::	believable
undependable	:_	_:	_:	:	- :	.::	dependable
indifferent	:_	_:_	_:	.:	- :	_::	enthuslastic
inexperienced	:-	_:	_:	.:	_:	-::	experienced
ìnexpert	:_	_:	_:	.:	_:	-::	expert
unfriendly	:_	_:	_:	.:	_ :	-::	friendly
1							dichonest

ìnformed	:-	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	ignorant
insightful	:_	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	insightless
stupid		_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	intelligent
unlikeable	:_	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	likeable
logical	:_	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	illogical
open	:_	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	closed
prepared	: _	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	unprepared
unreliable	:_	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	reliable
disrespectful	: _	_:_	_:_	_:_	_:_	_::	respectful
irresponsible	:_	_:_	<u>.</u> :	_:	_:_	_::	responsible
selfless	:_	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	selfish
sincere	:_	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	insincere
skillful	:_	_ : _	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	unskillful
sociable	:_	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	unsociable
deceitful	:_	:	_:	_:	_:_	_::	straightforward
trustworthy	:_	_:_	_:	_:_	_:_	_::	untrustworthy
genu ì ne	:_	_ : _	_:	_:_	_ : _	_::	phony
warm	:_	_:	_:	_:	_ :	_::	cold

Scoring the CRF

- 1. Number the items from 1 to 36
- 2. Score the answer to each item from 1 to 7. The left-most space is either 1 or 7 as follows:

1.	7	13.	1	25.	7
2.	1	14.	1	26.	1
з.	7	15.	1	27.	1
4.	1	16.	1	28.	1
5.	7	17.	1	29.	7
6.	7	18.	7	30.	7
7.	7	19.	7	31.	7
8.	1	20.	7	32.	7
9.	1	21.	1	33.	1
10.	7	22.	1	34.	7
11.	1	23.	7	35.	7
12.	1	24.	7	36.	7

3. Determine factor scores E, A, T, by adding the scores of the 12 items in each factor as follows:

E <u>xpertness</u>	<u>Attractiveness</u>	<u>Trustworthiness</u>
2	12	1
3	13	4
8	18	5
11	24	б
15	26	7
16	27	9
19	28	10
20	29	14
21	30	17
23	33	22
25	34	32
31	35	36

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

TRIBE:						
WHAT PART NATIV	E AMERICAN	ARE YOU	? (0	circle o	ne>	
1/64 1/32	1/16	1/8	1/4	1/2	3/4	Full
AGE:	MARITA	L STATUS	: (cir	cle one	M (s D
SEX:						
WHERE DID YOU	ROW UP?	(check	one)			
	Urban Rural Reser	(city (small vation	or larg	ge town) or count	ry)	
UNIVERSITY OR (COLLEGE NOW	ATTENDI	NG: _			
LEVEL OF EDUCAT	CION: (c	heck cur	rent de	egree pr	ogram)	
	Docto	lor's De r's Degr rate Deg (Pleas	ree gree			
CURRENT MAJOR;						
AVERAGE NUMBER WERE GROWING U		LIVING	IN YOU	R HOUSEI	HOLD WH	ILE YOU
HOW ACTIVE ARE	YOU IN TRI	BAL ACTI	VITIES	: (circ)	e one	number)
VERY I	ACTIVE 1 2	3	4	_	ACTIVE	AT ALL

PLEASE GIVE A BRIEF SUMMARY OF YOUR REACTION TO THE VIDEO TAPES. (USE BACK IF NEEDED)

IF YOU WOULD LIKE A ONE PAGE SUMMARY OF THE RESULTS OF THIS STUDY, PRINT YOUR NAME AND ADDRESS ON THE BACK OF THIS PAGE.

APPENDIX C

VIGNETTE RATING FORM

RATING FORM

Name	Tape #					
I am using four videotape recordings of what are supposed to be role-played counseling sessions. The four sessions are to be as similar as possible except for the gender of the counselor and the touch/no touch dimension. Please Judge the four sessions on the following dimensions:						
CONTENT: To what degree are these session? (circle one)	topic covered in the					
Not at all	Extensively					
12345	67					
Cultural conflict stated	1234567					
Lack of family support related to educational endeavors	1234567					
Educational and career goals	1234567					
Social involvement on campus	1234567					
Accepting an invitation to continue counseling	1234567					
COUNSELOR COMPETENCE: How competent does the counselor appear to be in working with this student? (circle one)						
Not at all	Extremely					
1234	5б7					
CLIENT PARTICIPATION: How active is counseling session? (circle one)	s the client in the					
Not at all	Extremely					
1234	567					
TOUCH DIMENSION: How visible is the counselor in this session? (circle						
Not at all	Extremely					
1234	567					
If touch occurs in this tape, how no	atural does it appear?					
Artificial	Natural					

APPENDIX D

VIGNETTE TRANSCRIPT

- Co: Hi Amber, I am (counselor's name).
- Cl: It's nice to meet you.
- Co: What can I do for you today?
- Cl: Well, I just...I just started here at the University and I kind of feel...oh...kinda alone I guess...you know because the way I was raised you don't go out and try to make friends. You just kind of take it as it comes. And my parents are kind of mad anyway because I was coming here.
- Co: Because you are going to college?
- Cl: Hum huh...
- Co: Yeah.
- Cl: Because...ya know...they...my mom kinda feels that I'm going to be kinda of "white washed" I guess, you know, pull away from my own traditions.
- Co: Yeah, so you are here in Oklahoma, away from your family and they are kind of angry with you.
- Cl: Huh, huh...
- Co: And you don't have any friends here.
- Cl: No...
- Co: So you are feeling pretty lonely, pretty isolated.
- Cl: Yep...I just...I don't know. I'm just not wanting to dive in and go up and say "Hi, I'm Amber". I just kind of sit back and it kind of gets hard.
- Co: This culture is a lot different than what you are use to.
- Cl: Uh-huh.
- Co: Yeah...it makes it doubly hard.
- Cl: Uh-huh.
- Co: It's hard to go away to school anyway, but to work under that double burden really makes it difficult.
- Cl: Yeah, I think if maybe when I left home, if uh...my mom had been more encouraging I would have felt better. But she felt like I was degrading myself instead of bettering myself. Because I was wanting to...I guess, lead more of a "white man's life". She kind of tells my sisters that for them to stay away from me, that I'm going to bring them down to my level.
- Co: Oh...
- Cl: Whatever she means by that.
- Co: Yeah...so even going home now is not very comfortable.
- Cl: Huh-uh...I just don't go home. I just stay here.
- Co: You feel lonely.
- Cl: Huh-uh.
- Co: It's not a very comfortable place to be.
- C1: My little sister...she dropped out of school this year and said that's what my mom kept telling her. She said don't be calling me, that I was going to degrade her and bring her down to my level. None of my other sisters even graduated from high school. I was the only one.
- Co: You graduated and went to college.
- Cl: Uh-huh.

- Co: So you feel different from the rest of them?
- Cl: Oh, yeah...in a sense, but I didn't come to college to compete with others. I done it for myself.
- Co: Yeah.
- Cl: Because you know I sat back and watched a lot of Indians just waste away. They just don't do nothing with themselves and I don't want... uh...They don't try to get jobs. They just want to lay around and drink. You know...party around. They stay up all night and raise cane and sleep all day. I just don't want to live that kind of lifestyle.
- Co: You want something different for yourself.
- Cl: Yeah...You know, I guess I always had dreams of having nice clothes, nice car, nice home, and you know, that if I just sat up there like the rest of them, I'd never have that. I don't want to just work in a department store or something. I want to go out and do something for myself.
- Co: It must be really have for you to follow your own dreams without the support of your own family.
- Cl: Yeah...uh...my dad, he's just kind of...he really hasn't said much of anything. It's really my mom. You know she went to an Indian school and she kind of...she always said, "I'll never marry an Indian", because she sat back and would see how they were and then she did anyway.
- Co: She married an Indian?
- Cl: Uh-huh...he's not full-blooded, but he has got Indian in him. He doesn't have any education and she's a nurse's aide. And even at that she only makes about \$4.00 an hour.
- Co: Yeah.
- Cl: It's not a lot. When I get out of college, I want to go back and help my own. I want to go into the schools and kind of be like a mediator between the schools and the Indian families. Because they don't have any Indian people to put in that kind of capacity to where they could help...to help the schools understand what the children are going through. That is where a lot of problems were when I was going to school. Yeah...because they didn't understand me. They didn't understand what I was trying to get at, or they thought I was just backward because I didn't say anything.
- Co: So you don't only want to follow your own dreams and do things for your own self, you're also wanting to do something for your people.
- C1: Uh-huh.
- Co: But your mom sees it as though you are turning your back on your people, or trying to be better than them.
- Cl: Uh-huh, it's kind of hard. There's lots of times I sit back and cry. I just want my mom to put her arms around me and say, "You know what Amber, I'm really proud of you". For some reason she can't do it. She can do it to my other sisters, but she couldn't do it

- to me. They were the ones who didn't do anything for themselves. It's really hard.
- Co: It hurts.
- Cl: Uh-huh...and I don't have anybody to talk to, so I just sit and a lot of times I just dwell on things like that that I forget about my school work. I get so caught up in it...I just don't think about anything else.
- Co: You could deal with the loneliness here if you had your parents support. Or, maybe you could deal with parents lack of support if you had more friends here. Trying to deal with both of them must be hard to do.
- C1: Yeah, they always try to say join the Indian Club and stuff, but you know even that...I'm just not an outgoing person...I just don't do that. I guess I just feel better off by myself because I don't have to explain my actions or have to worry about "Oh, am I going to make her mad, or him mad". I just worry about myself.
- Co: But that doesn't take care of the pain of not being approved of by your mother.
- Cl: She told them to wash their hands of me. She said if that's what you want, then don't come back. She even went as far as trying to take me off the roll that I am on. And so I called down there and sent letters and papers down there.
- Co: Yeah.
- Cl: She said, "If you want to be white, you be white all the way".
- Co: It really hurts not to be understood by the people we
- C1: Yeah...I don't think my mom ever did understand me though. She never gave me a chance. May be that's why I decided to do something for myself by going to school instead of staying like my sisters. I didn't have to worry about mom kicking me out because she didn't want to accept me.
- Co: You've got a lot going on right now. A lot of emotions that are hard to deal with. Anyone of them would be enough to cause someone to have some difficulties just getting their school work done. You've got so many different ones going around in your head, that it must be real difficult for you to concentrate in school. Which is what you're here to do. Maybe together what we can do is to sort out those emotions and help you look at them, one at a time, and try to deal with them. To try to work on the ones that you can and to put away those that you just can't work on right now.
- Cl: Uh-huh.
- Co: So at least you can concentrate on your school work and get something done.
- Cl: Yeah.
- Co: How would you feel about coming in here...like one day a week so we can work together on these things?
- Cl: Oh, I probably need to. It's just kind of hard.

- Co: It's hard to make yourself do it.
- Cl: Yeah...because I am not an open person.
- Co: Yeah...right.
- Cl: But I don't know...maybe it's something I need to do though because I think it's going to eventually effect me...you know...with my health.
- Co: It can be a gift that you can give yourself. You can tell yourself that you deserve this. That you don't deserve to operate under all these pressures. And that you deserve a break. Maybe here you can work on those feelings so that you can give yourself that break. And I'd be willing to help you anyway that I could.
- Cl: Okay.
- Co: So should be try it and see how it works?
- Cl: Yeah.
- Co: Okay...I'll enjoy that.
- Cl: Alright.
- Co: Thank you.
- Cl: Thanks.

VITA

2

Patricia Ann Lukosius Candidate for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: COUNSELOR TOUCH AND GENDER AS RELATED TO NATIVE AMERICAN FEMALES' PERCEPTIONS OF COUNSELOR EXPERTNESS, ATTRACTIVENESS AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

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