THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COUNSELOR AGE AND GENDER

AND THE SUBJECT'S PERCEPTION OF COUNSELOR

EXPERTNESS, ATTRACTIVENESS, AND

TRUSTWORTHINESS

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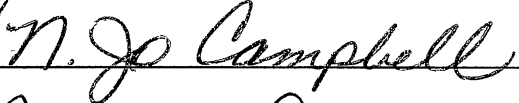DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
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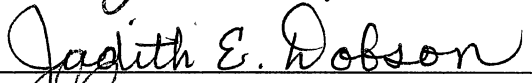
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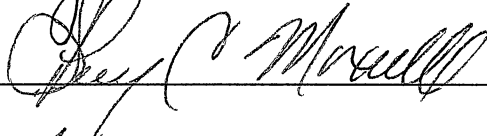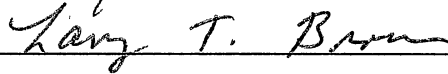
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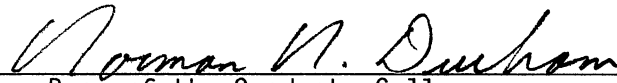
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This study is lovingly dedicated to the memory of my grandparents, Ruth and Edward Gendel.

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INTRODUCTION

Americans today may change careers several times in the course of their working lives. As the American society grows older, some of these changes will unavoidably be made by middle-aged or older persons not yet ready to retire. These older individuals may face increasing skepticism concerning their professional abilities and creativity in the youth-oriented society of the United States. Since many of the people who change careers later in life train to become helping professionals (Hine-stand, 1971), there is reason for serious concern that they may not find acceptance once reeducated. Therefore, one concern of the United States' aging, career-changing society is the acceptance of the older psychological counselor.

Siegel and Taeuber (1986) stated that the United States has a population which is rapidly growing older. The number of elderly citizens (65 years and over) has doubled from the year 1950 to 1984. In 1950, only 8% of the U.S. population was over 65 years of age, but by 1984, this number had risen to 12%. By the year 2020, experts predict that about 17% of the total U.S. population will be elderly. This is the same proportion that currently exists in the state of Florida, the state most identified today with senior citizens.

Increasing numbers of senior citizens have given rise to economic and social questions regarding the advisability of mandatory retirement (Greenough & King, 1977). Such regulation of employment may pose serious

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problems for those older persons whose lives and identities have been closely tied to work, family, and community roles that are unavailable during retirement (Nusberg, 1979). Further complicating the matter of enforced retirement are those individuals who have taken a less traditional road en route to their careers.

Super (1980, p. 283) defined career as ". . . a sequence of positions occupied by a person during the course of a lifetime." Today's dynamic and rapidly changing society makes it not only feasible but at times necessary to make career changes at mid-life. A growing number of middle-aged individuals are entering professional and graduate schools for full-time study (Gill, Coppard, & Lowther, 1983). This is due in part to the changes in the nature of professional and scientific occupations and careers. Instrumental also in these changes is the disruption of family life in connection with divorce, separation, or death of a spouse. Such loss may find men as well as women returning to school in the hope of establishing more satisfactory lives (Hinestand, 1971). However, there may not be a place for the senior professional in the work force today (Axelbank, 1972).

Axelbank (1972) stated that older persons from ages 45 to 65 and older may find unemployment to be a very real threat. However, serious age discrimination becomes apparent beginning at the age of 55. Society often views healthy, vigorous older workers as though they were no longer able to perform their jobs (Greenough & King, 1977). Therefore, the future of late starters may be in question when it comes to establishing the credibility needed to maintain a professional career (Hinestand, 1971).

Hinestand (1971) stated that "Older full-time students are equally divided between the sexes, they are more likely to be at the leading

universities, and they tend to be in the helping professions, social sciences, or humanities" (p. 23). Subsequently, many counselor-candidates may fall into this category of late starters. Since several studies (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975; Mahon & Altman, 1977) have supported the supposition that personal characteristics of the counselor are the most important variable in effective counseling, the question of perceived credibility of the older counselor is an important one.

Counselor characteristics have been examined often by researchers (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975; Mahon & Altman, 1977; Rowe, Murphy, & Cipkes, 1975). Various personality factors and individual characteristics have been evaluated in an attempt to discover what constitutes an effective counselor. Rogers (1957) spoke of the counselor's personality as the most essential component in effective counseling. He stated that counselors must empathically communicate their understanding of a client's emotions so that the client will feel listened to and accepted by the counselor.

Equally important to the therapeutic process are client perceptions of the counselor. Client perceptions of the counselor have been found to be more predictive of success in counseling than actual counselor training and experience level (Heppner & Heesacker, 1982).

Strong (1968) studied client perceptions of the counselor from a social influence model. This model suggests that counseling represents an interpersonal influence process. Three primary variables of client perception of the counselor emerged from this study; expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Counselors perceived by clients as expert, attractive, and trustworthy should be more influential with clients than counselors not perceived in this manner. Expertness was the client's belief that the counselor was sufficiently able to interpret and

understand the client's problem so that these problems may be dealt with in an effective way (Strong & Dixon, 1971). Attractiveness was defined as the client's positive feelings toward the counselor, such as respect and admiration. In addition, the client may desire to be similar to and gain the approval of the counselor (Schmidt & Strong, 1971). Trustworthiness was the belief that counselors were open and genuine in their interactions and that personal benefit was not a motive for the behavior (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975; Strong, 1968). Although there are some conflicting findings, most research supported Strong's (1968) original hypothesis that positive perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness are necessary in counseling to produce client change. The area of social influence has been widely researched, yet the impact of age of the counselor has not been fully examined. Therefore, no conclusions regarding age of the counselor can be drawn (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). In addition, studies which have examined the effects of counselor gender on client perceptions of counselor credibility have been inconclusive and contradictory (Lee, Hallberg, Jones, & Haase, 1980).

<p style="text-align:center">Significance of the Study</p>

The United States population is an aging one (Siegel & Taeuber, 1986). As the first baby boomers turned 40 in 1986, the media launched a campaign proclaiming that 40 is fabulous as long as people neither look nor feel their age (Siegel & Taeuber, 1986). Within this aging population, many adults have reentered universities to either upgrade or completely change their career status. Current research indicates that adults are making career changes several times within their lifetimes (Gladstein & Apfel, 1987). Subsequently, professionals are entering the work force at a much later age and may not be financially nor personally

ready for retirement at age 62 or 65. However, since seniors are often perceived and treated as incapable of logical thought, ridiculed or ignored (Gill et al., 1983; Gladstein & Apfel, 1987), one may wonder if seniors will be able to maintain the influence necessary to continue in their roles as counselors.

Sexual stereotypes of men aging with dignity and respect versus the stereotype of aging women becoming less necessary to society continues to exist (Williams, 1976). While several studies (Dell & Schmidt, 1976; Heppner & Pew, 1977) have examined clients' preferences for male or female counselors, results indicated that gender of the counselor does not consistently effect client perceptions of the counselor (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). In addition, few studies have examined the interaction effects of both gender and age on client perceptions of counselors (Helms & Simons, 1977; Simon, 1973; Simons & Helms, 1976). No studies were located which look at the impact of both of these characteristics on the social influence variables. More specifically, this study sought to examine the impact of counselor age and gender on the client's perception of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

Statement of the Problem

The question addressed in this study is: What is the relationship between counselor's age and gender and subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness? Interaction effects between counselor gender and age were also examined. The specific questions addressed in this study were the following:

1. Is there a relationship between counselor age and subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness?

2. Is there a relationship between counselor gender and subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trust-worthiness?

3. Is there an interaction effect between counselor age and gender that is related to subjects' perception of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness?

Definition of Terms

The following are terms which were utilized in this study:

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

Expertness. Expertness is 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. Attractiveness is the positive feelings the client experiences toward the counselor. These include the 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. Trustworthiness is the client's perception of the counselor's sincerity, openness, and absence of motives for personal gain (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975).

Senior Counselor. A senior counselor is a professional counselor who is 55 years of age or over. In this study, the senior counselors are portrayed by two actors 68 years old in a simulated, videotaped counseling session.

Young Counselor. A young counselor is a professional counselor who is 30 years of age or younger. In this study, the young counselors are portrayed by two actors 28 years old in a simulated, videotaped counseling session.

Major Hypotheses

The following hypotheses were tested using the .05 level of significance.

1. There is no significant relationship between counselor age and subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

2. There is no significant relationship between counselor gender and subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

3. Counselor age and gender do not interact to affect subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

Limitations of the Study

Subjects who agreed to participate in this study were from undergraduate classes in sociology and education at a large, southwestern university. Therefore, this sample may not be representative of all college students at the university, or of college students in general.

Since a student served as the client in the videotape and the situation was role-played, these sessions may not have been typical of an actual counseling situation with real clients. In addition, only a female was portrayed as the client in the videotaped vignettes. This

prohibited the examination of observer perceptions of counselor characteristics in a male-male dyad.

The use of only two senior counselors and two young counselors rather than a variety of individuals of different ages and appearances may have affected the subjects' perceptions of counselor characteristics.

Subjects who had received therapy prior to viewing the vignettes were not excluded. Therefore, they may have certain preconceived notions of counselor characteristics which may have affected their perceptions of the counselors they viewed on the videotapes.

Assumptions of the Study

This study utilized the methodologies of simulation research. Consequently, it is assumed that subject perceptions, although not equal to actual client responses, are possible measures of perceived counselor characteristics.

The individuals portraying counselors in the videotaped vignettes received 12 hours of training in counselor behavior and were provided with a script representative of an actual counseling situation. Therefore, it is assumed that the individuals used are accurately portraying counselors in a realistic manner.

Organization of the Study

Chapter I consisted of an introduction, significance of the study, statement of the problem, and major hypotheses. Also included were definitions, limitations, and assumptions of the study. Chapter II presents a review of related literature; Chapter III contains the methodologies and descriptions of the study. The results of the data analysis and a

discussion of the conclusions are contained in Chapter IV. Chapter V includes the summary, as well as recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

In reviewing the research related to counselor characteristics and client perceptions of the counselor (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975; Heppner & Heesacker, 1982; Mahon & Altman, 1977), evidence suggested that both have an impact on counseling effectiveness. This study was designed to extend the current findings to determine the relationship between a specific counselor characteristic and specific client perceptions of that counselor. The variables examined were counselor age and gender and client perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

The following review begins with research examining attitudes toward the aged. The specific counselor characteristics of gender and age are the next areas of focus. Finally, a review of research dealing with client perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness is reported.

Attitudes Toward the Aged

Attitudes about aging have typically been found to be negative (Axelrod & Eisdorfer, 1961; Bennett & Eckman, 1973; Hickey & Kalish, 1968; Tuckman & Lorge, 1953). Most studies find old people to be characterized in terms of low socioeconomic status, poor health, and loneliness (Bennett & Eckman, 1973; Slater, 1963). In addition, the process of growing

old is viewed negatively by young and old alike (Kogan & Shelton, 1962; Tuckman & Lorge, 1953).

Tuckman and Lorge (1953) stated that the elderly are expected to play a decreasingly active role in society. In an attempt to gauge attitudes about old people, the researchers administered a questionnaire consisting of misconceptions and stereotypes to 147 graduate students enrolled in a psychology class at a teachers' college. The sample consisted of 92 men and 55 women, ranging in age from 20 to 51 years of age. The questionnaire covered areas such as physical change, personality characteristics, and adjustment, including personality disintegration, conservatism, resistance to change, family relationships, activities, and interests.

Results of this study indicated that these graduate students looked upon old age as a period characterized by economic insecurity, poor health, loneliness, resistance to change, and failing physical and intellectual capabilities. The authors stated that the subjects' acceptance of such stereotypes was even more significant when viewed within the context of the subjects' sophistication and educational levels. They therefore concluded that these responses were a reflection of the cultural expectations regarding the activities, personality characteristics, and adjustments of the elderly.

Twenty-one years later, Thorson, Whatley, and Hancock (1974) found slightly different results. In an attempt to measure attitudes toward the aged, the researchers administered Kogan and Shelton's (1962) "Attitudes Toward Old People Scale" to 120 subjects. Of these 120 subjects, 61 were college students and 59 were practitioners in the field, working with the aged.

Because of this special sample, the findings of this study cannot be assumed to apply to the general population, but are still worthy of mention. Subjects were found to have a more negative attitude toward the elderly as a function of their more advanced age. Younger subjects (those under the age of 35) were found to view older people in a more positive way. Similarly, educational level appeared to have a direct effect on the subjects' attitudes toward the aged. The higher the level of educational level that subjects possessed, the more likely they were to view old people in a more favorable way. The authors suggested that possible reasons for these differences in attitude were that the older people in the sample may have given more thought to the negative aspects of aging, and those with less education may have had a different image of old age than did the better-educated group.

Employing more than one method of measurement, Weinberger and Millham (1975) investigated the nature of expressed attitudes of the young toward the elderly and the relationship of those experessed attitudes to prejudicial judgments of the aged. In addition, a behavioral component to approach or avoid the aged was utilized as a further measure of attitude expression.

Fifty-six male and 44 female subjects between the ages of 16 and 27 years completed both components of the experiment, unaware that each component was only part of one experiment. Interestingly, results of the attitude measure differed significantly from the judgment measure.

The attitude measure consisted of a questionnaire which assessed the subjects' attitudes with regard to two age groups: a representative 25-year-old and a representative 70-year old. This measure indicated that undergraduates believed the 70-year-old to be significantly less satisfied, possessing more negative personality characteristics and less

positive personality characteristics. In addition, the 70-year-old was viewed as being more dependent and less adjusted and adaptable than was the 25-year-old. However, when these same undergraduates were presented with autobiographical data of a 25-year-old and a 70-year-old, the results were different. This measure indicated that undergraduate students judged the 70-year-old to be significantly more self-accepting, more satisfied with life, more psychologically adjusted, more adaptable, and more appealing than was the 25-year-old.

The behavioral measure allowed the subject to choose between completing another questionnaire or meeting the elderly person described in the autobiographical data. A significant number of subjects chose to avoid meeting the older person. However, because the subjects were not given options of whom they could meet, the authors drew no conclusions from this outcome. The other two measures led the authors to conclude that young people feel conflicted with regard to the elderly. The conflict appears to exist between negative attitudes toward the group and a positive response tendency toward a personalized older person. This, the authors suggested, may be a result of a negative portrayal of the elderly by the media and positive feelings of the young toward elderly family members.

Bennett and Eckman (1973) suggested that negative views toward aging may influence young people's attitudes toward the elderly. Subsequently, this negative perception by the young further reinforces the elderly's negative perceptions of themselves.

Kogan and Shelton (1962) used a sentence-completion test to assess attitudes of both the young and the old toward the elderly. The researchers found that six items were significantly different between old and young people. In general, young people saw elderly people as needing

more assistance, as being more afraid of dying, as being less concerned with their physical appearance, and as resenting the young far more often than the elderly people's perceptions of themselves.

The authors of this study interpreted this data as being indicative of serious cross-generational conflict. They suggested that old people anticipate these feelings from the young and therefore do not act in an authentic way when they are around young people. Rather, they emphasize some of their characteristics and suppress others in an attempt to achieve acceptance and to ward off rejection by young persons. The data reflects a concern on the part of old people about being set apart, considered different, or rejcted. The authors stated that the parallel of these findings with research conducted on minority groups is very similar.

Collette-Pratt (1976) investigated the devaluation of the elderly by looking at the attitudes of three different age groups. One hundred and twenty-three subjects, ranging in age from 18 to 29, comprised the group labeled "young adults." "Middle-aged adults" were defined as those ranging in age from 30 to 59 years old, and consisted of 90 subjects. Group three, labeled "older adults," consisted of 108 subjects who were 60 years old and older. Attitudes were assessed by using semantic differential scales with seven-point bipolar adjective pairs.

Significant age differences were found for attitudes toward poor health, social isolation, financial insecurity, death, youth, middle age, old age, age in general, and devaluation of old age. In each case, the elderly subjects were most positive toward these concepts. For all other concepts, except social isolation and financial insecurity, the young subjects were the most negative. Middle-aged subjects were most negative toward social isolation and financial insecurity. Attitudes toward the

concepts of achievement, personal productivity, and independence consistently predicted devaluation of old age.

Perry and Slemp (1980) attempted to further investigate the attitudes of young adults, middle-aged persons, and elderly persons toward themselves, as well as their attitudes toward the typical person of the other three age groups. Following the findings of prior research, the authors hypothesized that the elderly age groups would be rated more negatively by persons of all ages.

Ninety subjects were categorized into three age groups, with 30 subjects per group. The three groups were classified as young (19 to 25 years old), middle-aged (35 to 55 years old), and an over 65 group labeled "old age." An attitude questionnaire which measured 10 aspects of life was administered to all subjects. The results showed that both younger groups (19 to 25 and 35 to 55 years of age) tended to rate the elderly less favorably than they did their own age groups, while at the same time rating the over 65 group more favorably than the elderly rated themselves.

Luszcz and Fitzgerald (1986) found similar results, except for the attitudes of the elderly toward themselves. Although the elderly still appeared to be more devalued than all other groups, individual elderly people often saw themselves as different than other old people. The authors suggested that, on an individual basis, the elderly are moving away from seeing themselves as ineffective and dependent, although they may still see their peers in this way. The authors stated that if the social distance were reduced between young people and the elderly, more attention might be paid to the assertions of elderly adults rather than to societally induced stereotypes. In an attempt to reduce this social distance, Doka (1986) reported the results of an oral history project

that used adolescents to interview elderly informants. The adolescents had considerable misinformation about aging and anxiety about the later stages of the life cycle. This anxiety centered on dying and death, physical and mental decline, loneliness, and victimization. The youth were not knowledgeable about the aging process and held negative stereotypes toward the aged. Although the adolescents who participated expressed enthusiasm for the project and admiration for the elderly they interviewed, participation in the project did not significantly impact upon beliefs and attitudes toward aging and the elderly.

Counselor Characteristics

Many researchers have examined the personal characteristics of the counselor to determine their relationship to counseling effectiveness (Mahon & Altmann, 1977; Rowe, Murphy, & DeCsipkes, 1975). Much of the literature supported the hypothesis that there is a relationship between counselor characteristics and counselor effectiveness (Helms & Simons, 1977; Russo, Kelz, & Hudson, 1964). However, other researchers have examined the topic and found no relationship (Rowe, Murphy, & DeCsipkes, 1975).

Two variables that clients can usually assess immediately, either before or during the first session, are the therapist's age and gender. Unlike many other important variables such as locus of control, academic aptitude and dogmatism (which are primarily psychological), age and gender of the therapist do not have to be inferred from behavior (Simon, 1973). Although not all counselor characteristics can be said to influence client perception of counselors, continued research on the age and gender of the counselor seems warranted (Karasu, Stein, and Charles, 1979; Simon, 1973; Simons & Helms, 1976).

Gender

Past studies of preferences for counselors have indicated that both male and female clients have expressed a preference for a male counselor rather than a female counselor (Boulware & Holmes, 1970; Fuller, 1964).

In a landmark study, Fuller (1964) stated that it was commonplace knowledge that the interaction between counselor and client is influential, but that researchers also suspected that client perceptions and expectations of counselors may be important. This study was one of the first to examine whether clients who referred themselves for treatment to a university counseling center had preferences regarding the sex of the counselor to whom they were assigned. Findings of this study indicated that both males and females stated a preference for male counselors rather than female counselors, and that preferences for male counselors remained more stable over time than did preferences for female counselors. These preferences held true for both vocational and personal concerns. Fuller attributed this preference to the greater prestige value of the masculine role in society.

Boulware and Holmes (1970) also found a preference for male counselors from both male and female subjects. Subjects' expectations were that male counselors would be more empathic, more knowledgeable, more experienced, and better adjusted than their female counterparts. These attributes presumably were the basis for favoring male counselors.

Tanney and Birk (1976) reviewed pertinent literature pertaining to female clients' preferences for same sex or other sex counselors. These authors stated that empirical evidence was sparse and that where such research did exist, the results were frequently contradictory and confusing. However, Walker and Stake (1978) reported that recent sex role

research suggested that formerly held notions about the superior competence of male professionals are disappearing. This information led the authors to explore possible changes in individual's preferences for male and female counselors.

Utilizing 290 undergraduates enrolled in introductory social science courses and 129 applicants to a university counseling service, two questions were explored. First, were subjects likely to have a preference regarding sex of their counselor, and second, were subjects more likely to state a preference for a male or for a female counselor? Results differed for clients and nonclients. Over 70% of the nonclients gave no preference, and of the 30% that did, only 12% preferred a male counselor. Within the client group, results differed with regard to male and female clients. Male clients tended not to give a preference, although among those that did, an approximately equal number stated a preference for each sex. Among female clients, half stated a preference, and more of these subjects preferred a female counselor. The authors therefore stated that most present-day undergraduates do not view male counselors as superior to female counselors and that this change suggests that female counselors are now being viewed more positively by applicants for counseling.

Studying counselor gender from a slightly different slant, Feldstein (1979) looked at the issue of same-sex pairing in the counseling relationship. She stated that advocates of the position believe that personal growth is enhanced by the male-male female-female dyad. However, Feldstein explored not only the gender issue but also the issue of sex role identity (i.e., "feminine men and masculine women," Feldstein, 1979, p. 438). Results of this study indicated that males disclosed most to feminine female counselors and disclosed least to masculine female

counselors, while females disclosed most to feminine male counselors and least to masculine male counselors. While Feldstein believed that these preferences suggested the effects of sex role stereotyping, she also stated that sex role behavior may have a more powerful effect than actual gender of the counselor.

Helms (1979) investigated the effects of sex-fair counseling. Sex-fair counseling is defined as clients receiving the same type of counseling regardless of their gender (i.e., "neutral counseling," p. 510). More specifically, Helms examined the effects of sex-fair counseling in the area of vocational counseling because previous research indicated that female counselors lack credibility in this area. In addition, subjects' perceptions of counselors who facilitated nontraditional career exploration were examined. The only significant findings of this study regarding perceptions of the counselors were that women anticipated that they would feel more comfortable with the counselors who facilitated nontraditional career exploration, while men did not. Helms stated that this result suggested that the sex-fair female counselor may have to contend with different types of relationship tensions.

Utilizing two scales of the "Counselor Rating Form," Lee, Hallberg, Jones, and Haase (1980) examined the effect of counselor gender on perceived credibility of the counselors. These authors began with the hypothesis that it is not counselor gender, per se, but rather the type of concern with which the client presents that may alter client perceptions of which gender has the most credibility. Subjects in this study were 248 college students who were asked to view videotapes of simulated counseling sessions. These counseling sessions involved both vocational issues and personal concerns. The subjects then rated counselors on perceived credibility. The data revealed that there was no significant

difference between male and female counselors in perceived credibility. However, a clear pattern emerged regarding the subjects' preferences for counselor gender. Both the male and female samples preferred the male counselor for the vocational concern, but preferred the female counselor for the personal problem. Thus, the authors concluded that gender did seem to make a significant difference, depending on the nature of the problem, but it did not seem to affect the perceived credibility of the counselor. Banikiotes and Merluzzi (1981) investigated the impact of female subjects' sex role orientation on the subjects' comfort in disclosing problems of either a sex role or nonsex role related nature. The counselors differed from the subjects in sex role orientation and gender. In addition, the subjects' perception of the counselors' attractiveness, expertness, and trustworthiness was also assessed. The authors hypothesized that on all measures, subject sex role orientation would interact with type of problem, counselor gender, and sex role orientation.

The subjects were 35 female undergraduates enrolled at a private midwestern university. They expressed significantly greater comfort in disclosing to female rather than male therapists. In additional, egalitarian rather than traditional counselors were preferred. The expected interactions with subject sex role orientation and with type of problem were not observed. In addition to comfort in disclosure, the subjects perceived significantly greater expertness and trustworthiness for female rather than male counselors, and for egalitarian rather than traditional counselors. The authors suggested that the failure of this study to find significant interaction with type of problem or subject sex role orientation warranted caution in presuming that different kinds of counselors can help different kinds of clients with different types of problems.

Hardin and Yanico (1983) investigated subject expectations for counseling as a function of counselor gender, problem type, and subject gender. Subjects for this study were 100 female and 100 male students enrolled in introductory psychology courses. Administration of the "Expectations About Counseling Questionnaire" was used to assess expectancies. No significant differences were found with regard to type of problem when subjects anticipated discussing a vocational concern or a personal problem. The authors stated that this result was unexpected in light of previous research.

Blier, Atkinson, and Geer (1987) examined the effects of client gender, counselor gender, and counselor sex roles on client willingness to see the counselor for specific areas of concern. Subjects were clients of a university counseling center and were comprised of 47 males and 60 females. Counselors were given descriptions which met the criteria of masculine, feminine, and androgynous sex roles. Questionnaires describing these counselors and 23 client concerns were given to subjects, who were asked to rate their willingness to see the counselor for each concern. Results indicated that subjects preferred to see the feminine counselor sex role over the masculine one for personal concerns, the masculine counselor sex role over the feminine one for assertiveness concerns, and both the masculine and androgynous counselor sex roles over the feminine one for academic concerns.

The authors stated that many counseling programs now train counselors with an emphasis on relationship skills frequently associated with the feminine sex role as operationalized for this study. They suggested, as a result of their findings, that counselors should also be trained in relationship skills and counseling techniques that are typically

associated with an androgynous or masculine sex role to best serve clients wtih assertiveness and academic concerns.

Bernstein, Hoffmann, and Wade (1987) designed a study to assess the extent to which female counselors are preferred over male counselors and to identify the clusters of characteristics that discriminate among potential clients who prefer male counselors, who prefer female counselors, and who have no preference. The authors hypothesized that subjects' sex role orientations would be more important than gender, age, race, and educational level in predicting preference for a counselor's gender, particularly in vocational/academic and personal/intimate areas of concern.

The subjects were 102 female and 67 male undergraduate and graduate students. The results indicated that between 53% and 70% of the subjects had clear preferences for counselor gender, depending on the nature of the concern. Preferences for male counselors were expressed more often for vocational/academic and social/interpersonal concerns, while female counselors were preferred more often for personal/intimate problems. In addition, the researchers found that linear combinations of subject variables such as sex, sex role, race, age, educational level, program of study, and client experience can be identified to describe these preference groups.

Age

Within the last few decades, researchers in counseling and related fields have begun to recognize that successful therapeutic outcomes require compatible counselor and client pairings (Simons & Helms, 1976). However, the question of how the counselor's age may affect the counseling process was virtually ignored until the late 1970's (Lasky &

Salomone, 1977). Within society as a whole, a person's age plays an important, if ambiguous, role in how that person is perceived by others (Karasu, Stein, & Charles, 1979). These authors found that the closer the age of the therapist to a depressed patient, the greater the likelihood of the patient remaining in treatment. Helms and Simons (1977) stated that, although the research in the area of counselor age was scant, client preferences for age of counselors, especially the college or university counselor, was a vital issue and one worthy of investigation.

Simon (1973) investigated age, sex, and title of counselors as determinants of clients' preferences. One group of subjects consisted of 102 females, with a mean age of 25.36 years. The other group of subjects consisted of 33 males and 34 females, with a mean age of 36.85. While the methodology of this researcher is questionable due to his lack of control for sex and age of the subjects, results of his study may still prove worthy of mention. In general, results indicated that male counselors were preferred to female counselors, and 40-year-old counselors were preferred to 55-year-old counselors who, in turn, were preferred to 25-year-old counselors.

Simons and Helms (1976) reported two studies whose purposes were to investigate whether or not college women and noncollege women shared counselor preferences. The "Counselor Evaluation Instrument" was utilized to assess the influence of sex, age, and marital status on the two groups of women. Results of the two studies indicated that college women preferred counselors who were single, while noncollege women did not view marital status as an important consideration. However, both groups of women preferred female counselors over their male counterparts. In addition, the subjects in this study not only preferred female counselors but

also preferred women within definite age ranges. College women preferred women counselors in the 35-45 and the 55-65 age ranges, while noncollege women preferred the oldest group (55-65). The authors stated that these results suggested that women seek counselors who are older than themselves.

In a study designed to examine the influence of counselors' ages and sex on college students' preferences, Helms and Simons (1977) utilized 32 male and 32 female university undergraduate students. The primary finding in this study was that college students did not evaluate counselors on the basis of sex alone. They did not anticipate that either sex would be more competent in delivering counseling services or would demonstrate any overt preference for either sex. Although students did not appear to have favored one sex over the other, they did anticipate that they would interact differently with male and female counselors of different ages. In general, both sexes indicated that they expected to verbally interact more with 25 to 35 and 35 to 45-year-old counselors of the opposite sex and 45 to 55-year-old counselors of the same sex. From these results, the authors suggested that counselor-client relationship tension may exist prior to the actual counseling interaction.

In an inpatient setting, Lasky and Salomone (1977) designed a study to assess the relationship between therapist-patient age similarity and therapist status on the dimension of interpersonal attraction. Interpersonal attraction, the authors stated, is generally agreed to be a necessary ingredient in a therapeutic relationship. Sixty volunteer male psychiatric inpatients from three Veterans' Administration Hospitals participated in this study. Subjects were given a 47-item objective questionnaire designed to measure each subject's attraction toward the therapist. Results of this study indicated that younger patients were

more attracted to the younger, low status therapist than to the older, low status therapist or the high status therapist. The authors stated that this result supported earlier research that relevant therapist-patient similarities lead to greater interpersonal attraction. Older patients (i.e., 46 years of age and older) were significantly more attracted to the high status therapist regardless of therapist age. This suggested that for the older patient, high status appears to be a more relevant variable than age similarity on a combination of therapist age and status.

Furchtgott and Busemeyer (1979) stated that although investigation into importance of age of the professional helper was sparse, the few studies which did exist suggested that some older individuals may prefer to receive services from older professionals. In addition, they strongly believed that the age of the professional helpers may be one of their most important characteristics. In a study which examined age preference for professional helpers, the authors obtained 621 interviews from subjects who ranged from 16 to 91 years of age. The data indicated that, in general, older individuals preferred professional helpers who were older than those who were preferred by younger individuals. The authors also suggested that this finding was a result of shared values among certain age groups which may be perceived by clients as a sign of competence.

Donnan and Mitchell (1979) designed a study to assess what impact facilitative behavior and counselor age has on the elderly client. Facilitative behavior was defined as exhibiting the attributes of empathy, respect, and caring in a reflective counseling interview. Nonfacilitative behavior was demonstrated by gathering information in an interrogative manner. Eight graduate students portraying counselors were divided into the two age groups: ages 20 to 25 and ages 45 to 55. Subjects

consisted of 52 males and 69 females who were 65 years of age and older. Female subjects were assigned to female counselors and male subjects were assigned to male counselors.

The findings of this study indicated that physical maturity can enhance the perceptions of the female counselor as being more experienced, wise, and mature. However, the data relative to male counselors found that the young facilitative male counselors can be perceived as wise, mature, experienced, and more effective than can a facilitative older counselor. Combining all counselor group results, the facilitative counselors accounted for the slightly more preferred counselor than did the older counselors. The authors suggested that age did appear to play an important role in counselor preference among older people. Forty-nine percent of these individuals perceived young counselors to be experienced, wise, and mature, versus 77% of the older counselors perceived to have these attributes. However, age alone did not account for the elderly's overall preference in the selection of counselors.

In direct opposition to most current research (Donnan & Mitchell, 1979; Simons & Helms, 1976), Robiner and Storandt (1983) found that the counselor's age, the client's age, and the similarity in age between counselor and client did not appear to exert a significant influence on client perceptions of the counselor's facilitative skills or client satisfaction with the therapeutic interview. The authors stated that previous research did not allow the subjects to directly interact with the therapists and therefore overemphasized the importance of age.

The authors utilized 32 women pseudoclients from each of two age groups (25 to 35; 60 to 70). Each pseudoclient was matched to one of four female crises counselors close to her own age. Subjects were administered both the female version of the "Barett-Leonard Relationship

Inventory" and the "Client Satisfaction Scale." As previously stated, no significant effects were found, leading Robiner and Storandt (1983) to conclude that the importance of counselor and client age may be less salient than previously suspected.

In a similar study, Schneider and Hayslip (1986) assessed interactions of counselor age and levels of presenting problem intimacy on clients' initial impressions of counselors. The authors expected the most negative perceptions from younger clients exposed to older counselors. Their subjects consisted of 48 married and 48 unmarried women, with mean ages of 21.9 and 26.3, respectively. All subjects were undergraduates enrolled in psychology classes. Three videotaped vignettes, differing in degree of intimate subject matter, were shown to all subjects, with each subject being exposed to only one counselor (young or old). Subjects were administered Corrigan and Schmidt's (1983) short version of the "Counselor Rating Form," as well as the "Client Satisfaction Form." No significant differences were found, except for the preference for younger counselors when dealing with mild topics such as transportation problems, academic problems, or part-time employment. The authors suggested that this may be a result of youthful clients' perceptions that these may not be salient issues in the lives of the elderly. In light of no other differences between groups, the authors suggested that age should not be a primary factor deterring selection of female candidates for training programs or staffing purposes.

In conclusion, the effect of counselor age on process and outcome variables has been the focus of several studies reported in the literature. Methods of obtaining this information varied widely and included the use of questionnaires, written descriptions of counselor ages, photographs, videotaped vignettes, and the use of pseudocounseling conditions

for personal contact. Unfortunately, variations in the manner in which the counselor age stimuli were manipulated made it difficult to compare across studies (Atkinson & Schein, 1986). Research in the area of counselor age is often unrecognized (Karasu, Stein, & Charles, 1979) and still sparse (Atkinson & Schein, 1986). However, continued research is necessary and may have far-reaching implications for both training programs and staff development (Furchtgott & Busemeyer, 1979).

Client Perceptions of the Counselor

A general goal in counseling of any sort is to facilitate change in the client (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). This goal implies that the counselor has the power to influence the behaviors and attitudes of the client (Strong & Matross, 1973). The process of one person influencing another and facilitating changes in that person has been labeled the "interpersonal" or "social influence" process (Strong, 1968).

The idea of counseling as an interpersonal influence process was initially conceived of by Strong (1968) as he combined social psychology with counseling theory. Since Strong's original work, much research has been done to determine what affects the interpersonal influence process in counseling. Many variables have been examined to determine what affects the counselor's ability to facilitate change in the client (Carter, 1978; Heppner & Pew, 1977; Kerr & Dell, 1976; LaCrosse, 1975; Scheid, 1976). Counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness are the three variables that Strong postulated as core conditions in psychotherapy. Following that theory, research then sought to determine what counselor characteristics, behaviors, and environmental conditions contribute to a client's perceptions of the counselor as expert, attractive, and trustworthy (Siegel & Sell, 1978; Strong & Dixon, 1971; Strong & Schmidt,

1970a, 1970b). Looking at the social influence variables independently might assist the reader in organizing the abundant literature in this area.

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 objective evidential cues of specialized training such as diplomas, certificates, and titles (Strong, 1968; Strong & Dixon, 1971); 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 reputational cues, which include information regarding the counselor's professional or social position (Brooks, 1974; Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977).

Several studies have examined the impact that visual objective evidence of training and reputation has on perceived counselor expertness (Heppner & Pew, 1977; Siegel & Sell, 1978). Gelso and Karl (1974) found in their study 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' perceptions of counselor effectiveness.

The combinaton of title and initial introductions has also been examined to determine the effect on client perception of counselor expertness (Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977). In that study it was shown that when the same counselor was introduced with expert credentials as opposed to inexpert credentials, the counselor was perceived as more expert. Scheid (1976) found that client characteristics confounded the results of such research.

Many researchers have looked further into the notion of characteristics that affect client perception of counselor expertness (Dell, 1982; Dell & Schmidt, 1976; Strong & Schmidt, 1970a). Counselor gender was examined by Dell and Schmidt (1976) and was found to have no effect on perceived expertness. Heppner and Pew (1977) found similar results. When gender and office decor were examined together by Bloom, Weigel, and Trautt (1977), an interaction effect was noted, and females in traditionally decorated offices were considered more expert than were females in humanistic offices. The reverse was discovered for male counselors.

Gender has received attention in an attempt to determine its impact on perceptions of counselor expertness (Banks, Berenson, & Carkhuff, 1967; Gardener, 1972; Dell & Schmidt, 1976; Heppner & Pew, 1977). 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.

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, 1970a).

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, Banikiotes, & Missbach, 1978). Atkinson and Carskadden (1975) found that the use of psychological jargon increased clients' perceptions of counselor expertness. In another study, Claiborn (1979) found that the use of interpretative statements as opposed to restatement also increased expert ratings. Merluzzi, Banikiotes, and Missbach (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 clients' perceptions of counselor expertness (Atkinson & Carskadden, 1975; Heppner & Dixon, 1978; Merluzzi, Banikiotes, & Missbach, 1978). Atkinson and Carskadden (1975) combined prestigious introductions and psychological 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, Banikiotes, & Missbach, 1978). Both studies concluded that multiple expert cues did significantly affect clients' ratings of counselor expertness.

Research conclusively indicated that at least three sources of expertness (objective evidential cues, behavioral cues, and reputational

cues) significantly influenced clients' perceptions of counselor expertness. Evidence did suggest that combinations of multiple sources of expertness have an additive effect on clients' perceptions of counselor expertness (Heppner & Dixon, 1978). The variable of counselor age and its impact on perceived counselor expertness has not been cited in the literature.

Attractiveness

Attractiveness has been defined as the client's "liking and admiration for the counselor, desire to gain his approval, and desire to become more similar to him" (Schmidt & Strong, 1971, p. 348). Strong (1968) stated that perceived attractiveness was based more on the counselor's behaviors within the session than on external cues. Specifically, behaviors expressing unconditional positive regard and accurate empathy increased counselor attractiveness (Rogers, 1957; Strong, 1968; Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). Also, direct self-disclosure of feelings, experiences, attitudes, and problems similar to those of the client increased client ratings of counselor attractiveness (Merluzzi, Banikiotes, and Missbach, 1978; Nilsson, Strassberg, & Bannon, 1979). A review of the literature revealed that there are at least four variables affecting client ratings of the counselor in the area of attractiveness: pre-session introductions of the counselor (Greenberg, 1969), counselor characteristics (Cash, Begley, McCown, & Weise, 1975), nonverbal counselor behaviors (LaCrosse, 1975), and counselor verbal behaviors (Strong & Dixon, 1971).

The effects on the pre-session description or introduction of the counselor has been shown to be significant in the client's initial perception of the counselor as attractive or unattractive (Greenberg, 1969). In that study, counselors were described as being either warm or cold.

Then students rated the counselors after meeting them. Students who were told that the counselor was warm, rated the counselor more attractive than did students who were told that the same counselor was cold. Prestigious introductions did not affect the perceptions of the clients in terms of attractiveness, but did in terms of expertness (Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977).

Research has also examined the relationship between counselor characteristics and perceived attractiveness. Specifically, physical attractiveness, counselor age, and counselor gender has been examined (Cash et al., 1975; Kerr & Dell, 1976). Cash et al. (1975) produced findings supporting the hypothesis that physically attractive counselors are rated as more interpersonally attractive than physically unattractive counselors. Carter (1978) found somewhat similar results. In that study, physical attractiveness was related to ratings of attractiveness only in female counselors and only by female clients. Carter (1978) postulated that it is the interaction of gender and attractiveness that accounts for the higher ratings on the attractiveness dimension. A study examining only counselor gender (Fretz, Corn, Tuemmlet, & Bellet, 1979) found no relationship between counselor gender and client ratings of counselor attractiveness. Kerr and Dell (1976) reported no relationship between counselor attire (casual versus formal) or office decor (professional or casual) and client ratings of counselor attractiveness. The age of the counselor differentially affects client perceptions of attractiveness in only limited areas (Lasky & Salomone, 1977). That study found that psychiatric inpatients under the age of 30 tended to view younger therapists as more attractive than older therapists. No other relationship between counselor age and client ratings were discovered in that study, since

older patients found higher status counselors more attractive regardless of age.

Research has consistently shown that counselors' active nonverbal behaviors are related to attributions made to them by subjects. Strong, Taylor, Bratton, and Loper (1971) found that counselors 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 trustworthy.

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 the 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, Banikiotes, & Missbach, 1978; Nilsson, Strassberg, & Bannon, 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 & Carskadden, 1975). Kleinke and Tully (1979) investigated the effects of varying levels of the counselor's talking on perceived attractiveness. It was

reported that low levels of talking rated higher on the attractiveness variable than did talking in the medium or high range.

In conclusion, the research suggested that several variables influenced client perceptions of counselor attractiveness (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). According to these researchers, nonverbal and verbal behaviors of the counselor accounted for most of the rating differences. Specifically, the nonverbal behaviors must be participatory (smiling, frowning, leaning forward, eye contact, gestures, and body movement) during the session (Fretz et al., 1979; LaCrosse, 1975). Specific verbal behaviors included self-disclosure of similar attitudes, experiences, feelings, and problems; and low levels of talking (Kleinke & Tully, 1979; Strong & Dixon, 1971).

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is the third variable postulated by Strong (1968) as important in counseling to produce client change. Trustworthiness is defined as the belief in the counselor's openness, sincerity, and absence of a motive of personal gain (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975; Strong, 1968). Less research has been done in this area than in the other two; therefore, results are less expansive (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). Verbal and nonverbal behaviors of the counselor are reported to have the greatest affect on client ratings of counselor trustworthiness (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). Counselor characteristics play a minor role (Merluzzi, Banikiotes, & Missbach, 1978).

Verbal behaviors of the counselor affect client perceptions of counselor trustworthiness (Strong, 1968). Specific verbal behaviors which increase trustworthiness ratings are ". . . paying close attention to the client's statements and other behaviors, communicating concern for the

client's welfare, avoiding statements indicating exhibitionism or perverted curiosity, and assuring confidentiality of all transactions" (Strong, 1968, p. 222).

Kaul and Schmidt (1971) found that while verbal behaviors did increase trustworthiness ratings, they had less impact than did nonverbal behaviors. However, Claiborn (1979) reported that nonverbal behaviors were especially impactful on client ratings when those behaviors were responsive behaviors (smiling, nodding, leaning forward, gesturing, frowning, and body movement).

Claiborn (1979) also investigated several verbal behaviors to determine which were more effective in increasing counselor trustworthiness. That study reported that interpretative statements by the counselor produced higher attractiveness ratings than did restatements by the same counselor. Low disclosing counselors were rated as more trustworthy in a study by Merluzzi, Banikiotes, and Missbach (1978). In that same study, however, an interaction effect between counselor gender and level of disclosing was noted. Low disclosing females were rated more trustworthy than high disclosing females. No differences were found for male counselors.

Although there is much less literature available on the trustworthiness variable, several conclusions have been reached (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). Responsive nonverbal behaviors and interpretative statements by the counselor both increase client perceptions of counselor attractiveness (Claiborn, 1979; Kaul & Schmidt, 1971). Verbal behaviors related to concern for client and assurance of confidentiality increase trustworthiness ratings (Strong, 1968). Few self-disclosures and, in some cases the gender of the counselor, also increase client perceptions of counselor trustworthiness (Merluzzi, Banikiotes, & Missbach, 1978). Nowhere in the

social influence literature did there appear any research examining the counselor influence variable of attractiveness and counselor age.

Summary

Although there is an extensive amount of research on the social influence variables of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness, research examining the effects of gender and age of therapist is sparse and inconclusive (Simons & Helms, 1976; Tanney & Birk, 1976). Sociological research suggests a negative view of the elderly is held in the American culture. Therefore, further research is warranted to determine if counselor age and gender is related to client perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

In this chapter, the experimental methods and procedures used in the study are described. Included in this chapter are sections dealing with the following areas: subjects, instrumentation, research design, procedures, and vignettes.

Subject Selection

The sample used for this study was 120 undergraduate students enrolled in education and sociology classes at a large southwestern university. Age was controlled for by eliminating nontraditional students over the age of 25. The 120 undergraduate students who participated in this study consisted of 44 males and 76 females between the ages of 19 and 24. The mean age of this group was 22.8 years of age. The educational level consisted of 75 seniors, 40 juniors, and 5 sophomores majoring in either education or sociology. Education majors outnumbered the sociology majors by 74 to 26%. Twenty-five of the 120 subjects indicated that they had received counseling at some time in their lives.

Instrumentation

Counselor Rating Form

In order to measure subject perception of the counselor, the

Counselor Rating Form (CRF) was used (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975) (Appendix C). This instrument is believed to be the most widely used measure in social influence research for assessing clients' perceptions of counselors (Dorn, 1984). The CRF is a 36-item instrument designed to measure Strong's (1968) identified dimensions of perceived counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

The CRF consists of 36 bipolar adjectives, which are divided into three dimensions with 12 items each. Using a seven-point semantic differential scaling procedure, the subjects are asked to respond to each item. The responses are scored on a one-to-seven basis, with the left-most space being either one or seven, as explained on the scoring sheet. The scoring sheet also tells what items go with what dimensions so that the end results are three divisions of 12 paired adjectives with a range on each dimension of 12 to 84. Higher scores are interpreted as clients' 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 students 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. The authors stated that these students were equally divided between the sexes, but did not provide any further demographic data.

Validity. The CRF has been shown to be useful as both a research tool and as an instrument with clinical utility (LaCrosse, 1980). Its construct validity was assessed by Barak and LaCrosse (1975), utilizing a factor analysis technique. The factor analysis yielded three distinct

factors: expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. LaCrosse (1980) assessed the predictive validity of the CRF. Predictive validity coefficients were found to range from .53 to .58. Also noted in that study, the concurrent validity coefficients were found to range from .47 to .62 when scores on the CRF were related to scores on the Counselor Effectiveness Rating Form.

Several authors have suggested that the CRF may be subject to a strong ceiling effect due to the client's reluctance to endorse items at the lower end of the seven-point rating scale (Corrigan and Schmidt, 1983; Panterotto & Furlong, 1985). Epperson and Pecnik (1985) stated that despite this shortcoming, the CRF probably has been the most commonly used and best validated instrument for assessing the three social influence attributes of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

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

Research Design

The design utilized in this study was a posttest-only control design (Campbell & Stanley, 1966). Subjects were randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups. The four treatment groups were senior female counselor, young female counselor, senior male counselor, and young male

counselor. This design controls for all threats to internal validity except mortality, which is not considered to be a serious threat in this study, since subjects were involved for only a brief period of time. Although subjects were randomly assigned to treatment groups, external validity was compromised due to the use of volunteer subjects.

Procedures

Permission to use subjects from classes in education and sociology was obtained from the Institutional Review Board and instructors of these classes. Informed consent was secured from subjects at the beginning of each data collection session. Volunteer subjects were randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups and an informed consent was secured from each student (Appendix A).

Demographic information was collected on each research participant (Appendix B). Information was gathered on the following variables; age, gender, educational level, major area of study, educational level of parents, and previous experience with therapy.

The format of the research involved showing each subject a 10-minute videotaped vignette of a simulated counseling interview (Appendix E). Each vignette was identical in every sense, except for the age variable and the gender of the counselor. Upon completion of viewing the vignettes, each subject was asked to complete the CRF and a short demographic form. Subjects were randomly assigned to view one of the four vignettes and viewed these vignettes in groups of five subjects each. The researcher monitored the viewing of these vignettes and the completion of the CRF. The subjects received the following oral instructions prior to viewing the tapes:

You are about to view one short videotaped counseling inter-
view. After viewing the tape, you will be given time to fill
out the CRF on the counselor. There are no right or wrong
answers. I am interested only in your impressions. Instruc-
tionss for filling out the form are printed on the first page
of the form. Please read that over now to make sure you under-
stand what to do.

After completion of the CRF, the subjects were told that the client
in the tape was role-playing and the problem was not real. The subjects'
CRF and demographic questionnaire were given a code number for scoring
purposes only. The subject were assured of confidentiality of all in-
formation gathered.

Vignettes

Four videotaped vignettes of simulated counseling interviews were
produced. Two vignettes depicted female counselors of two different ages
working with a female client; the remaining two vignettes were of male
counselors of two different ages working with the same female client. In
order to minimize differences due to counselor-client interactions, the
same female client was portrayed in all four vignettes. The script for
the vignettes portrayed a female student experiencing stress in college,
and was the same in all four tapes.

Before filming the videotapes, the individuals portraying the coun-
selors received 12 hours of training in order to conduct the counseling
sessions in a uniform manner. The training sessions included demonstra-
tions of counselor behaviors and several role-plays of the counseling
session to insure that the vignettes were identical except for the age
and gender variables. Expert judges were utilized to determine the

adequacy of the simulated counseling sessions. The expert judges consisted of one doctoral-level clinical psychologist, one doctoral-level counseling psychologist, and one doctoral-level student in counseling and development. All of these judges agreed that these simulated counseling sessions approximate real-life counselor-client interactions.

Analyses of Data

A two-way multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed on the data. MANOVA was selected for two reasons. First, MANOVA is specifically designed to be used with multiple dependent variables. Second, MANOVA was selected over a series of ANOVAs because of the protection it affords against Type I errors. Appropriate tests for evaluating the assumptions of independence of observations, normality, and homogeneity of covariance matrices were conducted (Stevens, 1986). The hypothesis error rate was set at .05. The experimentwise error rate was set at .15.

The three dependent variables were the subjects' perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness, as measured by the CRF. The categorical independent variables were two levels of age (age 55 and older versus age 30 and younger), and gender of counselor (female versus male).

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between counselor's age and gender and the subject's perception of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. The data consisted of subjects' perceptions of counselors' expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness as obtained from scores on the Counselor Rating Form (CRF). The procedure involved showing each subject one of four 10-minute videotaped vignettes of a simulated counseling interview. All vignettes were identical in every sense, except for the age and gender of the counselor. Subjects were asked to respond to the CRF after each videotaped counseling interview.

The following hypotheses were tested at the .05 level of significance:

1. There is no significant relationship between counselor age and subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

2. There is no significant relationship between counselor gender and subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

3. Counselor age and gender do not interact to affect subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

A 2 x 2 factorial design was utilized. The independent variables were gender (male, female) and age (young counselors 28 years old), (senior counselors 68 and older). The three dependent variables included the perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness of counselors.

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to determine whether or not age and gender influenced the perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness of the counselors. Two factor univariate analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were employed as post hoc procedures when warranted.

Multivariate Assumptions

Random assignment of subjects to the research packets allowed for assurance that the observations were in fact independent. By scanning a stem and leaf display, it was evident that each dependent variable conformed to the expected multivariate normality. Since the Box's M test was performed and found to be nonsignificant [X^2 (18 DF) = 26.13, p < .097], it was concluded that the population covariance matrices for the dependent variables were equal in each group. Because the basic assumptions for MANOVA were met, the correlation matrix for the dependent variables was examined to ensure that the dependent variables were intercorrelated enough to presumably form a construct. The correlations between each pair of dependent variables exceeded .30 (see Table 1). Therefore, it was assumed that the variables formed a construct.

Table 1

Correlation Matrix for Dependent Variables

Variable	Expertness	Attractiveness	Trustworthiness
Expertness	1.00	.81	.71
Attractiveness		1.00	.81
Trustworthiness			1.00

Tests of Hypotheses

Reported in Table 2 are the means and standard deviations for each of the three dependent variables. The numbers of subjects reported in Table 2 reflect the number of protocols collected from each of the groups represented in the study. An alpha level of .05 was used to evaluate the F ratios calculated to test the hypotheses.

Hypothesis One

The first hypothesis postulated that there would be no significant relationship between counselor age and the subject's perception of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. As indicated in Table 3, this null hypothesis was rejected. The results indicated that age does have an effect upon the perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness of counselors [Wilk's Lambda (3,114) = .93, p < .041]. The strength of effect assessed by (1-Wilk's Lambda) was determined to be .07, suggesting that 7% of the variance in the

dependent construct (perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trust-worthiness) could be accounted for by age.

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Dependent

Variables

Independent Variables	N	Dependent Variables					
		Expertness		Attractiveness		Trustwortiness	
		M	SD	M	SD	M	SD
Young							
Males	30	55.53	11.89	64.30	11.09	59.07	12.00
Females	30	63.77	12.73	66.30	11.30	60.37	11.71
Total	60	59.65		65.30		59.72	
Senior							
Males	30	59.23	12.32	63.60	11.95	57.20	9.54
Females	30	51.40	14.89	59.70	11.57	50.00	14.11
Total	60	55.31		61.65		53.60	
Totals	120	57.48	13.63	63.47	11.59	56.66	12.46

Separate two factor ANOVAs for each dependent variable were calcu-lated as a post hoc procedure to determine which variables were most affected by the counselor's age. These results are reported in Tables 4, 5, and 6, and indicate that the only significant difference due to age was evidenced on the variable of perceived counselor trustworthiness [$F(1,116) = 7.86$ $p < .006$] (see Table 5).

Table 3

Multivariate Tests of Significance for Expertness,

Attractiveness, and Trustworthiness

Effect	Test Name	Value	Approximate F	Hypoth. DF	Error DF	Significance
Gender	Wilk's Lambda	.96	1.41	3	114	.245
Age	Wilk's Lambda	.93	2.83	3	114	.004*
Gender x Age	Wilk's Lambda	.87	5.49	3	114	.001*

*$p < .05$

Table 4

ANOVA Summary Table for Perceived Expertness

of Counselor

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Age	1	563.33	563.33	3.33	.084
Gender	1	1.20	1.20	.007	.933
Age x Gender	1	1936.03	1936.03	11.44	.001*
Error	116	19623.40	169.17		
Total	119	22123.96			

*p < .05

Table 5

ANOVA Summary Table for Perceived Trustworthiness

of Counselor

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Age	1	1122.41	1122.41	7.86	.006*
Gender	1	261.07	261.07	1.83	.179
Age x Gender	1	541.87	541.87	3.79	.054
Error	116	16563.63	142.79		
Total	119	18488.98			

*p < .05

Table 6

ANOVA Summary Table for Perceived Attractiveness

of Counselor

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Age	1	339.67	339.67	3.03	.084
Gender	1	27.05	27.07	.205	.651
Age x Gender	1	261.07	261.07	1.98	.162
Error	116	15296.10	131.86		
Total	119	15923.89			

*p < .05

The strength of association as measured by Eta squares was .06, indicating that 6% of the variance was accounted for by the therapist's age. An examination of the group means revealed that young counselors ($\overline{X}$ = 59.72) were perceived as being more trustworthy than were senior counselors ($\overline{X}$ = 53.6) (see Table 2).

Hypothesis Two

The second hypothesis postulated that there would be no significant relationship between counselor gender and the subject's perception of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. The results of the MANOVA reported in Table 3 did not indicate the existence of a significant (p = .245) relationship between counselor gender and the

counselor's perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Therefore, this hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis Three

The third hypothesis postulated that counselor age and gender do not interact to affect subject's perception of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. The results of the MANOVA reported in Table 3 indicate that the interaction of age and gender had an overall significant effect upon the perceptions of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness of the counselor [Wilk's Lambda (3,114) = .87, p < .001] (see Table 3). The strength of effect, measured by 1-Wilk's Lambda, was determined to be .13. Hence, 13% of the variance in the dependent variables (perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness of the counselor) was attributable to the interactive effect of the age and gender of the counselor.

Although the MANOVA revealed that an interaction between age and gender was present, it did not specify wherein their combined influence was most pronounced. Therefore, univariate F tests (ANOVAs) were performed for each dependent variable (see Tables 4, 5, and 6). When considering the effect of age coupled with gender on each specific dependent variable, only the perceived expertness of the counselor was found to be significantly effected [F (1,116) = 11.44, p < .001] (see Table 3). Although the univariate test demonstrated that the interaction of age and gender significantly affected the perceived counselor expertness, it did not reveal the manner in which this combination impacted the perceived counselor expertness. The results of the Tukey's test for score data reported in Table 7 revealed that young female counselors were perceived as significantly more expert than senior female counselors). No other

pairwise differences are significant. The graph of the interaction of counselor age and gender on the subject's perception of counselor expertness is presented in Figure 1.

Table 7

Table of Ordered Means for Perceived

Expertness of the Counselors

	Senior Female 51.40	Young Male 55.53	Senior Male 59.23	Young Female 63.76
Senior Female		4.13	7.83	12.36*
Young Male			3.70	8.23
Senior Male				4.53
Young Female				

*Tukey critical range for pairs of means at alpha .05 = 8.76.

Summary

Statistically significant differences in perceived counselor expertness were found for the interaction effect of counselors' age and gender. More specifically, young female counselors were perceived as significantly more expert than senior female counselors. A significant difference was found for the main effect effect of counselor age in that

young counselors were perceived to be more trustworthy than senior coun-
selors. No statistically significant differences were found for the main
effect of counselor gender.
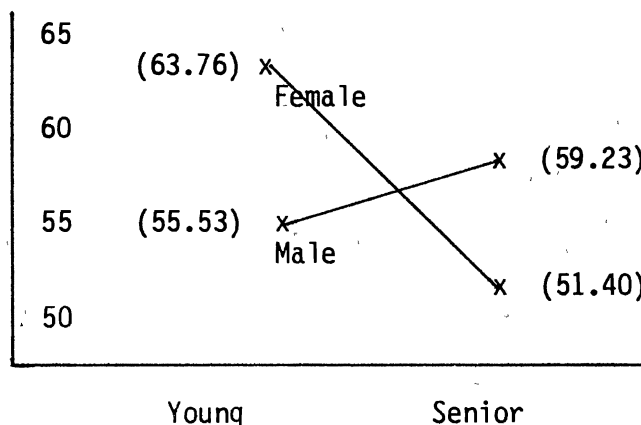
Figure 1. Effect of the Interaction of
Counselor Age and Gender
on the Perceived Expertness
of the Counselor

Discussion

The population of the United States is an aging one (Siegel & Taeu-
ber, 1986). In addition, more middle-aged men and women are making
career changes or upgrading their current professional status through
continuing education. Consequently, many individuals will not be emo-
tionally nor financially ready for retirement when they reach the tradi-
tional retirement age of 62 to 65. More importantly, many individuals
considering a mid-life career change tend to look at a career within the
helping professions as an appropriate and reasonable choice. The purpose
of this study was to determine whether older individuals, once educated,

trained, and ready to enter the counseling profession, will be accepted and perceived as credible by an undergraduate university population.

The results of this study are not encouraging for older (i.e., senior) female counselors. Utilizing the constructs of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness measured by the Counselor Rating Form (Strong, 1968), young female counselors were perceived as more expert, attractive, and trustworthy than senior female counselors. More specifically, young female counselors were perceived as significantly more expert (i.e., knowledgeable and skillful) than senior female counselors. Although not statistically significant, senior male counselors fared much better than their female counterparts, as they were perceived as second most expert, attractive, and trustworthy. Young male counselors scored higher than senior male counselors only when the variable of age was considered with the gender variable. In this instance, both young counselors were perceived by undergraduate students as more trustworthy (i.e., sincere) than either of the senior counselors. This may be due to the generation gap which has recently been noted to exist within the society of the United States.

Although a generation gap might exist within the society of the United States, older men do not appear to be afflicted by ageism in the same way that older women are affected. As evident in the media and television and film industries, older men are often portrayed and perceived as affluent, desirable, and distinguished. In contrast, older women are often portrayed and perceived as frumpy, desperate, or eccentric. Perhaps this influence contributes to the undergraduates' perceptions of positive or negative counselor characteristics of senior counselors.

Young female counselors were perceived as most expert, attractive, and trustworthy compared to all four groups. While this may be seen as a positive sign for female counselors and the feminist movement in general, this study suggests that as these young women age, they will lose credibility rather than gain dignity and respect. Adversely, young men were generally ranked third in all three measures, but can look forward to gaining professional respect and credibility as they age.

The question remains: Where is an appropriate niche for the senior female counselor? It has been suggested that she may find her place in counseling women her own age, but a glance at the current senior population suggests that even senior female clients seek out male service providers. Further research in this area is sorely needed to determine where the senior female counselor can make use of the education and training she has received and for which she has worked so hard to achieve.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter includes a summary of the major components of the study. In addition, an interpretation of the results and suggestions for further research are included.

Summary

Counselor characteristics and client perceptions of the counselor are an important concern when evaluating a therapeutic interaction. The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of counselor age and gender on the subject's perception of counselors' expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

The subjects in this study were 120 undergraduate students at a large southwestern university. Seventy-six subjects were female and 44 subjects were male. All subjects were volunteers and were selected from upper division courses in sociology and education. Subjects were randomly assigned to one of four treatment groups: Young female counselor (28 years old), senior female counselor (68 years old), young male counselor (28 years old), or senior male counselor (68 years old).

Test data consisted of scores compiled from the subjects' ratings of the counselor on the Counselor Rating Form (CRF). Subjects were randomly assigned into groups of five and were exposed to one of four videotaped vignettes depicting a counseling interview. Each vignette was identical

in every sense, except for the age and gender of the counselor. After viewing the vignette, each subject completed the CRF.

A multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was performed to determine whether or not age and gender influenced the perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness of the counselors. Two factor univariate analyses of variance (ANOVAs) were employed as post hoc procedures when warranted.

The following hypotheses were tested using the .05 level of significance:

1. There is no significant relationship between counselor age and subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Since results indicated that age does have an effect upon the perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness of the counselor, this null hypothesis was rejected. Separate, two-factor ANOVAs for each dependent variable were calculated as a post hoc procedure to determine which variables were most affected by the counselor's age. These results indicated that the only significant difference due to age was evidenced on the variable of perceived counselor trustworthiness and that young counselors were perceived as being more trustworthy than were senior counselors.

2. There is no significant relationship between counselor gender and subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. The results of the MANOVA did not indicate the existence of a significant relationship between counselor gender and the counselor's perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Therefore, this hypothesis was not rejected.

3. Counselor age and gender do not interact to affect subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. The results of the MANOVA indicated that the interaction of age and gender had an overall significant effect upon the perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness but did not specify wherein their combined influence was most pronounced. Utilizing univariate F tests (ANOVAs), only the perceived expertness of the counselor was found to be significantly effected. A post hoc test was performed to determine how the combination of age and gender affected the perceived counselor expertness. The results of the Tukey's test for score data revealed that young female counselors were perceived as significantly more expert than were senior female counselors.

Conclusions

Based on the results of this study, the following conclusions are presented:

1. The main effects of gender and age on the dependent variables were explored in the multivariate analysis. While the effect of counselor gender was not significant (p = .245), the variable of counselor age was found to have a significant (p = .04) overall effect upon perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Further exploration of these results utilizing a univariate F test disclosed that the only significant difference related to age was on the dimension of trustworthiness. Both young counselors of both genders were perceived as more trustworthy than were the senior counselors. This may be due to a generation gap which makes it easier to trust individuals closer to one's own age.

2. The results of the 2 x 2 factorial multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) indicated that a combination of age and gender had a significant overall effect upon the dependent variables of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. More specifically, a univariate F test revealed that the variable of expertness was found to be significantly influenced by the interaction of age and gender [F (1,116) = 5.49, p < .001]. A Tukey's (a) test for score data revealed that young female counselors were perceived as having a significantly higher level of expertness than senior female counselors. Since more than half of the subjects were young females, identification with the young female counselor may have contributed to higher scores in the area of expertness. In addition, an older female may evoke feelings of being mothered with which a college population may not feel comfortable.

Recommendations for Research

The following recommendations for future research are based upon the results of this study:

1. Future research should use a male as well as a female to play the role of the client in the vignettes. This would allow the observation of a male-male dyad which may affect the subject's perception of the counselor.

2. Future research should use middle-aged individuals (age 35 to 55) to play the role of counselors in the vignettes. This might allow middle-aged returning students to ascertain the probability of their success in working as counselors with a college-age population.

3. Future research should use an equal number of male and female subjects. The predominance of female subjects in this study could have

contributed both to the elevated scores of the young female counselor and the lower scores of the senior female counselor.

4. Further research should replicate this study, utilizing non-college students as subjects in order to ascertain whether the general public's views are similar to those of college students.

5. Further research should replicate this study using young children (elementary school age) as both the clients in the vignettes and the subjects viewing the vignettes. This might help to determine if age bias exists with young children, and if so, when age and gender bias begins.

6. Further research should replicate this study using current clients of a college counseling center as subjects. This might provide more accurate data relevant to a true counseling center client population.

7. Further research should replicate this study using current clients of a community mental health center as subjects. Needs and preferences regarding age and gender of counselors might be markedly different in this population than in a university counseling center.

8. Further research should replicate this study using senior citizens as subjects. In addition to administering the CRF, a measure of the subjects' self-esteem could be collected prior to viewing the videotaped vignettes. Correlation between these measures could be used to ascertain if female senior citizens devalue themselves, thereby devaluing other older women. In addition, seniors' perceptions of counselor characteristics might be different than those of a university population.

9. Further research should determine in which settings senior counselors, especially women, might be appreciated. This may enable individuals considering mid-life career changes to make appropriate decisions concerning future education and training.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

STATEMENT OF INFORMED CONSENT

STATEMENT OF INFORMED CONSENT

Thank you for volunteering to participate in this study. This question-naire is part of a study to understand how college students perceive and evaluate various interpersonal situations. In participating, we will ask you to complete a brief demographics form and then give your reactions to a brief counseling interview. Your participation is strictly voluntary; however, your decision to take the time to complete the study will pro-vide important information. You may withdraw from participating in this study at any time for any reason whatsoever.

All information will be gathered in strict conformance with APA guide-lines for human subjects participation. Your responses will be completely anonymous; no attempt will be made to attach your name to responses, and responses will not be shared with your instructors. The results of this study will only be reported as group data, not as indi-vidual responses. If you should have any questions about this study, please contact Dr. James Seals, Applied Behavioral Studies, Oklahoma State University, (405) 744-6036. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, please contact the Office of University Research Services, Oklahoma State University, 001 Life Sciences East, (405) 744-6991. We appreciate your cooperation and efforts.

*   *   *

I have read these instructions and understand my rights. I further understand that this sheet will be immediately removed from the rest of the packet and that I will receive a copy of this form outlining my rights as a research participant.

_____   _____
(Signed)   (Witness)

_____   _____
(Date)   (Date)

___ Check here if you want feedback regarding the results of this study when they are available. Include your mailing address only if you want this feedback. This page will be immediately detached from your responses.

                            _____
                            (Name)

                            _____
                            (Address)

                            _____
                            (City, State, Zip)

APPENDIX B

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

DEMOGRAPHICS QUESTIONNAIRE

AGE _____

SEX _____

LEVEL OF EDUCATION (Check current student class):

    UNDERGRADUATE STUDENT:

        Freshman   _____

        Sophomore   _____

        Junior   _____

        Senior   _____

    GRADUATE STUDENT _____

PARENTS' LEVEL OF EDUCATION:

    Mother
        Some High School   _____

        High School Graduate _____

        Some College   _____

        College Graduate   _____

        Graduate or Profes-
          sional Degree   _____

    Father
        Some High School   _____

        High School Graduate _____

        Some College   _____

        College Graduate   _____

        Graduate or Profes-
          sional Degree   _____

Have you ever received counseling? (Check one)

      Yes _____   No _____

APPENDIX C

COUNSELING 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 very closely resembles the word at one end of the scale, place a check mark as follows:

fair _X_:___:___:___:___:___:___: unfair
or
fair ___:___:___:___:___:___:_X_: unfair

If you feel that one end of the scale quite closely 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 only slightly describes the counselor, then check the scale as follows:

active ___:___:_X_:___:___:___:___: inactive
or
active ___:___:___:___:_X_:___:___: inactive

If both sides of the scale seem equally associated with your impression of the counselor or if the scale is irrelevant, then place a check mark in the middle space:

hard ___:___:___:_X_:___:___:___: soft

Your first impression is the best answer.

agreeable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: disagreeable

unalert ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: alert

analytic ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: diffuse

unappreciative ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: appreciative

attractive ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: unattractive

casual ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: formal

cheerful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: depressed

vague ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: clear

distant ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: close

compatible ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: incompatible

unsure ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: sure

suspicious ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: believable

undependable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: dependable

indifferent ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: enthusiastic

inexperienced ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: experienced

inexpert ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: expert

unfriendly ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: friendly

honest ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: dishonest

Informed ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Ignorant

Insightful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Insightless

stupid ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Intelligent

unlikeable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: likeable

logical ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Illogical

open ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: closed

prepared ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: unprepared

unreliable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: reliable

disrespectful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: respectful

Irresponsible ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: responsible

selfless ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: selfish

sincere ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: Insincere

skillful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: unskillful

sociable ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: unsociable

deceitful ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: straightforward

trustworthy ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: untrustworthy

genuine ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: phony

warm ___:___:___:___:___:___:___: cold

APPENDIX D

SCORING THE CRF

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
3.	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:

Expertness	Attractiveness	Trustworthiness
2	12	1
3	13	4
8	18	5
11	24	6
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 E

VIGNETTE TRANSCRIPT

Counselor: Hi Jennifer, I am (counselor's name).

Client: It's nice to meet you.

Counselor: What brings you here today?

Client: Well, I've been feeling kind of down and I heard that I
             could come here and talk to somebody.

Counselor: Can you tell me a little bit more about what's troubling
             you?

Client: It's just that I've been here at college for about two
             months and I feel kind of homesick and out of it up here.

Counselor: What was it like back home?

Client: Well, it's a lot smaller, so everybody knew everyone else
             in town and my high school class only had about 60 people
             in it, so we all knew each other and it was just real
             friendly. Up here it's just a lot bigger and seems kind
             of unfriendly.

Counselor: Uh huh, sounds like back home you felt like you really be-
             longed and fit in; it's a whole different environment here.

Client: Yeah it is, and I don't feel like--I have maybe one or two
             friends here, but they have boyfriends and it seems like
             they don't have time for me and I don't have a lot of people
             to hang around with like I did in high school. I go home a
             lot on the weekends, but I can't go home every weekend be-
             cause it's too far. So, I've just been feeling kind of
             lonely, especially at night and on the weekends.

Counselor: Seems like you're really having trouble feeling like you can
             fit in here and finding your own niche.

Client: Yeah, because--well, at home I was Student Counsel Vice-
              President and I did real well in school and I'm not doing as
              well here either.

Counselor: So, you're lonely, you're not adjusting well to the school
              work, you really aren't making friends with other people or
              carving out your niche.

Client: Yeah, that's what it is. I'm lonely and school's really a
              lot harder here. They always told us that college would be
              harder, but I didn't expect this much of a difference. I
              was an A and B student in high school and I'm just barely
              making C's in some of my classes, and in one of them I might
              even have a D. So, I'm starting to feel pretty scared that
              I won't be able to make it here, and you know, stay in
              school and graduate.

Counselor: That kind of even adds a whole other dimension, just the
              fear of survival.

Client: Yeah--yeah, and I feel lonely and I know that makes it worse
              because I don't have anyone to study with and it's not like
              high school where you know everyone in your class. Here you
              go to school and you don't know anybody in your classes and
              there's so many people. Some classes have like 200 people
              in them. So, there's no one to talk to and I feel like
              everyone else knows what they're doing and has friends and
              are doing well, and that I'm not.

Counselor: What an awful feeling.

Client: Yes, I feel really scared and sad. I was wondering whether
              I should even stay, or whether I should just quit and go
              home.

Counselor: And how have you sorted that out?

Client: Well, I'm not sure yet, but I know my parents would be
              really disappointed. They've really counted on me; from the
              time that I was little, I was told that I would go to col-
              lege. They would be so disappointed. I mean, because I was
              a good student in high school and it's just expected for me
              to do well.

Counselor: Do you know what you want for yourself?

Client: Well, I guess I want to go to college. I mean, that's what
              I've always thought I wanted was to be a teacher like my
              mother, but some of my classes are really hard for me.

Counselor: So, you have your parents' expectations and you don't want
              to disappoint them. And then, you yourself want to have a
              college degree.

Client: Well, yeah, I've always thought I did. I wouldn't even know
              what to do if I didn't go to college. It's just that when I
              was younger, going to college always seemed like it would be
              fun and exciting. But it hasn't worked out that way, and
              now I feel so down--not like myself at all.

Counselor: It's a lot different than you thought it would be?

Client: Yeah, it really is. People here are so unfriendly.

Counselor: Uh huh--seems like part of you really wants to stick it out,
              get that degree, and adjust to being here, and the other
              part's not so sure this is even where you want to be.

Client: Well, that's true, I guess, but I know I have to be here. I
              should go to college and I don't really feel like I have a
              choice in that. I feel like I have to go and I have to do

okay. I don't know what's going to happen when my grades come out. My parents are going to be real mad at me.

Counselor: So, you've got all that pressure you're putting on yourself besides everything else we've talked about.

Client: Yeah, I feel real scared and I don't know what to do. I haven't told my parents because I don't want to upset them.

Counselor: What do you mean, you don't know what to do?

Client: Well, how to improve my study habits—I mean, I'm so lost in my classes and bored at the same time. I mean, I haven't even gone to the movies or done anything that's fun.

Counselor: So, how do you work in some leisure activities for yourself?

Client: Well, I spend a lot of time just daydreaming and doing nothing. When I have my books open and I should be studying, I don't even know what I'm reading. I just read the same paragraph over and over. I'm just lonely because my friends are busy and I don't have many up here anyway. So, even if I took the time away from studying, I really don't have anyone to do anything with.

Counselor: When you say you don't have anyone at all to do anything with, do you mean no one?

Client: I do have one or two friends here, but I guess I feel guilty going out with them because my grades are so bad.

Counselor: So, actually you do have some people you could do some things with.

Client: Yes, but I'm used to having a lot of friends.

Counselor: It sounds like your life's a lot different for you here than it was back home.

Client: Yes, and I guess I just don't know how to handle that.

Counselor: I understand that you're going through a lot of changes right now and are feeling pressured. I'd like the opportunity to work with you so that maybe you can learn to handle these changes. How would you feel about doing that?

Client: I'd like that. It's been a relief today just to have someone to talk to.

Counselor: So, shall we meet again next week?

Client: Yes, thank you for your time.

Counselor: You're welcome. It's been nice meeting you.

VITA

Harriet Slater

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN COUNSELOR AGE AND GENDER AND THE SUBJECT'S PERCEPTION OF COUNSELOR EXPERTNESS, ATTRACTIVENESS, AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

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