THE EFFECTS OF EVIDENCE OF TRAINING, TITLE AND GENDER ON SUBJECT EXPECTATION AND PERCEPTION OF COUNSELOR EXPERTNESS, ATTRACTIVENESS AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

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Chapter Page

Hypothesis Four 65
Hypothesis Five 66
Hypothesis Six 72
Hypothesis Seven 73
Hypothesis Eight 73
Summary 74

V. DISCUSSION 77

Summary 88
Implications 89
Limitations 90
Recommendations for Further Research . . . 90

REFERENCES 93

APPENDICES 112

APPENDIX A - INFORMED CONSENT FORM 113

APPENDIX B - DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET 115

APPENDIX C - COUNSELOR RATING FORM-SHORT . . . 117

APPENDIX D - COUNSELING EXPECTATION INVENTORY 119

APPENDIX E - ATTRACTIVENESS SCALE 122

APPENDIX F - VIGNETTE SCRIPT 124

APPENDIX G - COUNSELOR EVALUATION RATING SCALE 127

APPENDIX H - STANDARDIZED INSTRUCTIONS 129

APPENDIX I - QUESTIONS ASSESSING EFFECTIVE MANIPULATION OF VARIABLES 131

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter		Page
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
	Definition of Terms	8
	Purpose of the Study	9
	Statement of the Hypotheses	10
	Limitations	11
	Assumptions	12
II.	REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	14
	Interpersonal Influence Process	14
	Expertness	18
	Attractiveness	22
	Trustworthiness	24
	Dimensional Independence	25
	Pretherapy Expectations	28
	Objective Evidence of Training	31
	Introduction	32
	Subject Gender	38
	Summary	39
III.	METHOD	42
	Introduction	42
	Subjects	42
	Instrumentation	43
	Counselor Rating Form-Short Version	43
	Counseling Expectation Inventory	47
	Stimulus Materials	49
	Procedures	53
	Research Design	53
IV.	RESULTS	55
	Introduction	55
	Descriptive Statistics	55
	Manipulation Check	56
	Statistical Analysis	57
	Hypotheses	57
	Hypothesis One	57
	Hypothesis Two	59
	Hypothesis Three	60

my loving grandfather, who missed witnessing the completion of this project by two months.

LIST OF TABLES

Table — Page

1. Multivariate Source Table for the Main and Interactive Effects of Objective Evidence of Training, Title, Counselor Gender and Subject Gender with CRF-S as the Dependent Variable . 58

2. Univariate Source Table for the Main Effect of Presence/Absence of Objective Evidence of Training with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables. . 61

3. Means and Standard Deviations for the Main Effect of Presence/Absence of Objective Evidence of Training with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables 62

4. Univariate Source Table for the Main Effect of Counselor Gender with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables 63

5. Means and Standard Deviations for the Main Effect of Counselor Gender with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables . . . 64

6. Univariate Source Table for the Main Effect of Subject Gender with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables 67

7. Means and Standard Deviations for the Main Effect of Subject Gender with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables 68

8. Univariate Source Table for the Interactive Effect of Subject Gender, Objective Evidence of Training and Counselor Gender with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables 69

Table Page

9. Means and Standard Deviations for the Interactive Effect of Subject Gender, Objective Evidence of Training and Counselor Gender with CRF-S Attractiveness as the Dependent Variables 70

LIST OF GRAPHS

Graph Page

1. Graph of Three Way Interaction Between Subject Gender, Counselor Gender and Objective Evidence of Training 71

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In 1952, a young psychologist named Hans J. Eynsenck completed a study on the efficacy of psychotherapy. His findings startled the psychological community. He reported that psychotherapy does not facilitate recovery from neurotic disorders. In his article, "The Effects of Psychotherapy" (1952), he indicated that his findings should challenge, psychologists' feelings of usefulness. He even proposed that psychotherapy actually tends to "...hinder the recovery of some clients" (p. 322).

This apparent indictment made by Eynsenck against the profession of psychology has met with some support (Buckley, Karasu, & Charles, 1981; Crown, 1983; Hadley & Strupp, 1976; Wood, 1986). However, by and large, the research shows that psychotherapy has proven to be beneficial to a majority of those who have received treatment (Luborsky, Singer, & Luborsky, 1975; Meltzoff & Kornreich, 1970; Smith, Glass, & Miller, 1980). Parloff (1982) reports that, "Nearly five hundred rigorously controlled studies have shown, with almost monotonous regularity, that all forms of psychological treatments - be they psychodynamic, behavioral, or cognitive - are

comparably effective in producing therapeutic benefits with particular disorders" (p. 720). This claim is rather sweeping when considering that there are over 250 different "types" of psychotherapy in use today (Herink, 1980).

The questions about the efficacy of psychotherapy have been brought into a more pragmatic and critical light with recent awareness of client rights to effective services. The consumer movement of the seventies, for example, reached the field of counseling. The client, as consumer, is becoming more aware of the issues of the efficacy and professional delivery of psychotherapeutic services (Gross, 1978; London & Klerman, 1982; Parloff, 1976). London and Klerman (1982) place the conservative estimate of the money spent on psychotherapy in the United States at one billion dollars annually. These financial costs alone have forced the issue of consumerism to be a necessary issue with which to deal (Parloff, 1982).

These issues have focused a great deal of attention on the need to study specific variables that affect psychotherapeutic outcome. The demand for scientific evidence and support of therapy outcome is becoming ever increasing (Eynsenck, 1952; Strong & Schmidt, 1970). London and Klerman (1982) cite Victor Raimy, when addressing the 1949 Boulder Conference on Graduate Education in Clinical Psychology as defining psychotherapy as "...an undefined technique applied to unspecified cases

with unpredictable results" (p. 709). To address this perceived state of affairs Smith and Glass (1977) indicate that psychologists as a profession need to determine, as scientifically as possible, what is effective and why.

As researchers have studied the elements of therapy that influence and help to determine positive therapy outcome, it has become apparent that there is more to "successful" counseling than simply the therapist's behavior, techniques or theoretical approach. LaCrosse and Barak (1976) caution against attributing too much causality for the consequences and outcome of therapy to the "...counselor's interviewing behavior" (p. 172). These authors add that it is possibly the client's perception of the therapist's behavior that contributes to the therapeutic outcome.

The importance of the client's perception of the therapist on treatment outcome is acknowledged by many in the field (Atkinson & Carskaddon, 1975; Heppner & Heesacker, 1983: Strong, 1968; Strupp, 1973). These client perceptions of the therapist have been examined in depth by Strong (1968). In this examination Strong and Schmidt (1970) proposed that, Counseling is an interpersonal influence process in which the objective is client attitude and behavior change. Strong (1968) initially conceptualized the Interpersonal Influence Process as being made up of three distinct and independent variables:

client's perception of the therapist's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. According to this model, counselors seek to increase their influencing power with a client by enhancing their perceived credibility and attractiveness. As a result of this process, "...the probability of client change in reaction to counselor influence attempts is maximized" (Strong, 1968, p. 223).

Perceived expertness has been defined 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" (Strong & Dixon, 1971, p. 562). Attractiveness is the client's positive feelings about the counselor, liking and admiration for, desire to gain the approval of, and desire to become more similar to the counselor (Schmidt & Strong, 1971). Trustworthiness has been defined as the belief in the counselor's openness, sincerity, and absence of a motive for personal gain (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975). Kelley (1967) adds that trustworthiness is determined by, "...the absence of irrelevant cause-factors in the person's statements" (p.204). These would include both personal motives and role demands.

Strong (1968) originally proposed that perceived counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness were separate and independent variables. As he continued to research the Interpersonal Influence Process, he began

to question whether, "...expertness, trustworthiness and attractiveness are perceived independently or are they inseparable?" (Strong, 1971, p. 109). Indeed, research has led many to claim that the three components are actually interrelated aspects of the same entity (Atkinson & Wampold, 1982; Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983; Heppner & Handley, 1981; LaCrosse & Barak, 1976; Zamostny, Corrigan & Eggert, 1981). However, there are some who feel that perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness are distinct and independent of each other and as such should be studied and measure separately (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975).

Strong (1968) suggested that of the three Interpersonal Influence Process components, perception of expertness and attractiveness combine to form a theoretical construct called, "source credibility" (p. 223). This perceived source credibility has been defined as, "An expectation of the client that the counselor possesses the knowledge of psychology, therapeutic skills, comprehension of the client's problem, and willingness to help the client that is needed for the client to deal effectively with his problems" (Atkinson & Carskaddon, 1975, p.181). This idea has found a great deal of support in the field of psychotherapy research (Atkinson & Wampold, 1982; Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983; Hartley, 1969; Hovland, Janis, & Kelley, 1953). For example, source credibility has been found to be, at least partially, responsible for enhancing attitude

change (Bergin, 1962; Bockner & Insko, 1966). It has also been found to influence therapy outcome (Beutler, Johnson, Melville, Elkins, & Jobe, 1975).

Many variables have been examined for their effects on source credibility. Evidence has been found to support the notion that such variables as counselor dress, office decor, and nonverbal behavior will affect subjects' perception of a therapist and of therapy quality (Dell, 1982; Dell & Schmidt, 1976; Kerr & Dell, 1976). For example, expertness has been found to be enhanced by objective evidence of the therapist's training, such as the visible presence of diplomas, books, and other tangible signs of professional expertise (Frank, 1973; Guttman & Haase 1972; Heppner & Pew, 1977; Kerr & Dell, 1976: Raven, 1965; Schofield, 1964; Siegel & Sell, 1978; Strong, 1968).

According to research done to date, therapists introduced as high-status professionals will be perceived as being more expert that counselors introduced as low-status professionals (Atkinson & Carskaddon, 1975; Bernstein & Figioli, 1983; Frank, 1959; Goldstein, 1962; Scheid, 1976). This evidence has led some to ask whether introducing a therapist simply as a "doctor" or as a "Ph.D. Psychologist" would be enough to imply the same thing as a high-status introduction. Attribution theory would suggest that certain characteristics and attributes will be assigned to individuals merely on the basis of role or

title. Specifically, attribution theory would predict that a therapist being called a "Doctor" or a "Ph.D. Psychologist", will be perceived as more expert merely due to the presence of the title or role (Hastorf, Schneider, & Polefka, 1970; Strong, 1970; Strong & Matross, 1973). Exploring this question, it has been found that manipulating a counselor's introduction by merely adding or deleting the title, "Doctor" (Guttman & Haase, 1972; Strong & Schmidt, 1970), or by adding or deleting the title "Ph.D Psychologist" (Browning, 1966; Gelso & Karl, 1974), will tend to enhance the subject's perception of the therapist as being more expert. Expertness has also been found to be affected by the gender of the counselor (Brooks, 1974) as well as the gender of the subject (Bernstein & Figioli, 1983).

Another important aspect of the therapeutic process that may be influenced by these variables is that of client expectations. It has been postulated that a client's expectations about psychotherapy will have an effect on the therapy relationship (Greenberg, 1969), as well as the outcome of the therapeutic encounter (Frank, 1959; Goldstein, 1962). This hypothesis has been both empirically supported (Wilkins, 1973) and refuted (Heppner & Heesacker, 1983). It appears from the literature that a relationship would be found if researched further (Duckro, Beal, & George, 1979).

In summary, the literature provides some support for the hypothesis that objective evidential cues of specialized training and counselor title both effect counselor credibility. However, there still remain some unanswered questions. For example, is there an interactive relationship between these two variables in their effect on perceived counselor credibility? Also, is there a relationship between a subject's perception of a counselor's credibility and the subject's expectations about counseling outcome?

Definition of Terms

Expertness: The client's perceptions of the counselor to be in possession of knowledge and techniques of interpreting information that allows the client to make conclusions and deal effectively with their problems.

Attractiveness: The client's positive feelings toward the therapist, such as liking and admiring the therapist, as well as the desire to be like and gain the approval and acceptance of the therapist.

Trustworthiness: The degree to which the client perceives the counselor as open, sincere, and free from motive of personal gain or role demand.

Counselor: (Therapist) One who provides counseling or therapeutic services.

Source Credibility: The perceived expertness and

attractiveness of the communicator.

Social Influence: The social power possessed by the counselors to influence attitude and behavior change in clients.

Objective Evidence of Training: Diplomas and certificates of training visible to the client.

High-Status Title: The introduction of the counselor to the subject as "Doctor Jones, a Licensed Psychologist."

Low-Status Title: The introduction of the counselor to the subject as, "Mister Jones, a counselor."

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to manipulate two variables that have been found to affect a subject's perception of a counselor's expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness (objective evidence of training and counselor title) and measure the subject's perception of the counselor, as well as the subject's expectations about counseling. Accurate and scientific conducting of the research should add to the understanding of variables that affect the Interpersonal Influence Process. The Interpersonal Influence Process has been shown to affect a client's perception of the therapist in terms of perceived level of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Some external variables such as objective evidence of training, counselor title, counselor gender and client

gender have been found to enhance the client's perception of the counselor's level of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. This enhanced perception has, in turn, been shown to have an effect on psychotherapy outcome. The question that remains to be answered is whether a discrete manipulation of the counselor title, from "Dr." to "Mr." or "Ms." and a discrete manipulation of the visible presence of diplomas and certificates will have a measurable effect on a subject's perception of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. Further, it has yet to be demonstrated empirically whether a manipulation of these variables will leave a measurable affect on a client's expectations.

Statement of the Hypotheses

H1: Subjects will rate counselors higher on expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness when observing a tape with visible presence of objective evidence of training.

H2: Subjects will rate counselors higher on expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness when observing a tape of a counselor with the title of "doctor".

H3: Subjects will rate counselors higher on expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness when observing a tape of a male counselor.

H4: Female subjects will rate counselors higher on expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness than male

subjects.

H5: Subjects will rate their expectations for the counseling process higher when observing a tape with visible presence of objective evidence of training.

H6: Subjects will rate their expectations for the counseling process higher when observing a tape in which the counselor has the title of "doctor".

H7: Subjects will rate their expectations for the counseling process higher when observing a tape in which the counselor is a male.

H8: Female subjects will rate their expectations for the counseling process higher than male subjects.

Limitations

A limitation of this study is the fact that it is designed to examine effects on the dyadic therapeutic relationship. However, it will be using a videotaped segment of a role-played counseling setting. A limitation presents itself with the generalizability of the use of a videotape, as opposed to a live analogue (Helms, 1976). A second limitation arises through the use of a role-played therapy session instead of a real therapy session (Zamostny et al., 1981). Undetectable yet significant variables will undoubtedly differentiate the role-played session from an actual session (Corrigan, Dell, Lewis, & Schmidt, 1980).

Another limitation of the study is represented by the

population of subjects used. Rather than using actual clients as subjects, the design is limited to the use of a student population from a large state university from the midwest. Differences between a client population and a student population may affect the generalizability of this study.

A final limitation of this study is exclusion of examining effects of client gender on the Interpersonal Influence Process. Specifically, no attempt will be made to replicate the videotaped counseling session for the purposes of manipulating gender differences of the client. While this may minimize some of the generalizability of the study, it is believed that gender variables in the dyadic therapeutic relationship are beyond the scope of the present study.

Assumptions

It will be assumed in the study that the videotaped segment of a counseling session, used as the independent variable, will authentically replicate an actual counseling session to the point that extraneous factors will not distract subjects in their assessment of the counselor in the videotape. Further, it is assumed that the independent variables will be manipulated enough to produce an appropriate effect size. Finally, it is assumed that the student sample used in the study will be representative of

a larger, more universal population of university students, so that the results could be at least generalized to students of the university.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

This chapter presents a review of the literature relevant to the theoretical constructs investigated in the proposed study. The review begins with a brief description of the need for research on various components of counseling and the counseling relationship. Included in the chapter is a literature review on two major aspects of counseling which have been identified as essential to the therapeutic relationship. These include the social influence process variables of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness, as well as the construct of client expectations. Lastly, research on the effects of objective evidence of training and introductions are reviewed.

Interpersonal Influence Process

The counselor-client relationship has been identified as an important aspect of the therapeutic process (Buckley et al., 1981; Rogers, 1942, 1957). This view has been largely embraced by the counseling profession (Atkinson & Carskaddon, 1975; Buckley et al., 1981; Strupp, 1973). A critical part played in the development of this counselor-client relationship is the client's perception of the

counselor. It has been suggested that the client's perception of the counselor is a more viable predictor of success in counseling than the counselor's actual training and experience level (Heppner & Heesacker, 1983). This idea is in direct support of Strong's (1968) contention that the characteristics of the communicator, as perceived by the audience, "...will affect the success of the influence attempts" (p. 215). Others have reached similar conclusions based on their research (Heppner & Heesacker, 1983; LaCrosse, 1980; Strong & Matross, 1973).

In attempting to describe and explain the counselor-client relationship Stanley Strong proposed that counseling is, "...an interpersonal influence process in which the objective is client attitude and behavior change. The counselor's task is to influence the client in helpful ways, and the client's task is to be influenced" (Strong & Schmidt, 1970, p. 81). He initially proposed the Interpersonal Influence Process as being comprised of three distinct and independent variables. These variables are the client's perception of the counselor's level of (1) expertness, (2) attractiveness, and (3) trustworthiness.

In developing this theory, Strong (1968) borrowed extensively from social psychology theory in his formulation of the theoretical construct, Interpersonal Influence Process, as it applies to counseling. Strong found Festinger's (1957) cognitive dissonance theory to be

helpful in explaining the need for client's to conceptualize the counselor as having certain characteristics. Zimbardo (1960) explains dissonance theory as, "...a basic tendency towards consistency of cognitions about oneself and about the environment" (p. 86). LaCrosse (1977) used the cognitive dissonance theory to explain why client's perceptions of counselors were determined, in part, by the interpersonal influence process. He stated that client ratings of counselors are often explained by, "...a cognitive dissonance model, that is, it is difficult to deprecate a source of help, especially when one is in a personal crisis" (p. 469). In summary, Festinger's theory of cognitive dissonance explains "why" the counseling relationship is affected by the Interpersonal Influence Process. The "how" may be addressed by Strong through attribution theory.

According to Strong (1970), attribution theory specifies how persons analyze actions to deduce the intended goals of affects, and actions, and how persons determine the cause of an action, and whether the action is attributable to properties of the actor or to properties of the environment. Strong believed the theory explained why clients would be compelled to attribute different characteristics to a counselor depending on contextual variables such as environmental cues or characteristics of the counselor. Indeed, it has been postulated that,

"Attribution research has always recognized the role of the situation in perception of behavior" (Schneider, 1973, p. 298). Heider (1958) made the point more cogent to the counseling relationship when he observed that the tendency to depend excessively on "impersonal attribution" (p. 249) actually implies that the individuals have some characterological deficits and will consequently find themselves seeking counseling.

Strong's (1968) Interpersonal Influence Process was not only developed with support from social psychology theory, but it also finds validation in other theories of behavior: "Impression Formation" theory proposed by Asch (1946), and supported by Gollin (1954); "Social Role" theory (French & Raven, 1959); and "Implicit Personality" theory (Jackson, Messick, & Selley, 1957). All of these theories are compatible with and in support of the Interpersonal Influence Process as a theoretical construct that explains why certain variables affect clients' perception of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

Since Strong's (1968) original work, a great deal of research has focused on the Interpersonal Influence Process (also called the Social Influence Process or the Social Influence Model) and its effects on various aspects of the counseling relationship (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). Wampold and White (1985), in a recent review of research themes in

counseling psychology found, "...the social influence model was the primary representative found for the Journal of Counseling Psychology's research into process and outcome" (p. 123). Further analysis by these researchers of published studies of 1974, 1977, and 1980 confirmed the social influence model to be what they called a "recurrent research theme" (Wampold & White, 1985, p. 123).

The importance of the Interpersonal Influence Process in counseling is seen not only in the degree to which it has been the subject of empirical research, but also in its inherent value to the therapeutic relationship. Zimbardo and Ebbeson (1970) consider the Interpersonal Influence Process to be the central core of social psychology. Research has supported the usefulness of the social influence model for conceptualizing client change in counseling (LaCrosse, 1980; Strong & Schmidt, 1970).

Expertness

Perceived counselor expertness has been defined 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 deal effectively with his/her problems" (Strong & Dixon, 1971, p. 562). The client's perception of the counselor's expertness, according to Strong and Schmidt (1970), is one of the factors which moderates the degree to which clients

will change their views to those of the therapist. This client-change definition is shared by others who have researched this topic (Guttman & Hasse, 1972; Simons, Berkowitz, & Moyer, 1970). The power of a client's perceived expertness of a counselor has been found to supercede the effects of the client "liking" the counselor. Both Patton (1969) and Schmidt and Strong (1971) found that the credibility of experts could withstand being disliked by the subjects.

The important role that perceived expertness plays in counseling has been well established. Perceived expertness is seen as a major component in the facilitation of client change (Beutler et al., 1975; Strong & Schmidt, 1970), client willingness to self-refer (Atkinson & Carskaddon, 1975), and general influence of the counselor on the client (Goldstein, 1971; Guttman & Haase, 1972). While investigating the Interpersonal Influence Process, LaCrosse (1980) came to the conclusion that initial perceptions of counselor expertness can be one of the most powerful predictors of therapeutic outcomes among the predictors that they studied. Client satisfaction with counseling has also been linked to the client's perception of the counselor as expert or inexpert (Zamostny et al., 1981).

Research has indicated that perceived expertness by a client is influenced by a number of external factors. These include (a) objective evidential cues of specialized

training such as diplomas, certificates (Heppner & Dixon, 1981; Strong, 1968; Strong & Dixon, 1971); (b) behavioral demonstrations of expertness such as convincing arguments and knowledgeable and confident presentation of ideas (Barak, Patkin, & Dell, 1982; Dell & Schmidt, 1976), as well as certain counselor nonverbal cues such as eye contact and body position (Kleinke, Staneski, & Berger, 1975; Tyson & Wall, 1983); and (c) reputational cues which includes information regarding the counselor's professional experience, achievements and position (Brooks, 1974; Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977; Corrigan et al.,1980; Heppner & Dixon, 1981).

Furthermore, there are a number of counselor characteristics that have been studied to determine their effects on the client's perception of counselor expertness. These variables include race (Cimbolic, 1972; Peoples & Dell, 1975; Sattler, 1970), counselor attire (Kerr & Dell, 1976), counselor behaviors (Dell & Schmidt, 1976; Strong & Schmidt, 1970).

Counselor Gender

A counselor characteristic which has received a great deal of attention is the gender of the counselor. The research results pertaining to the effects of a counselor's gender on the perception by a subject of that counselor's expertness has been mixed. Evidence from social psychology

suggests that women and men tend to devalue the performances of professional women (Goldberg, 1968; Lewin & Duchan, 1971). There has been research to support this. Corrigan et al. (1980) concluded, from their review of the literature, that aspects of a counselor that are immediately evident to a client, such as gender "...will affect the client's estimation of that counselor's expertness" (p. 399). It has been demonstrated that counselor status will affect subjects' perception of the counselor's credibility depending on the counselor's gender. For example, Brooks (1974) found high-status, as opposed to low-status, male interviewers were evaluated more favorably by subjects on the Counselor Evaluation Inventory (Linden, Stone, & Shertzer, 1965), whereas in the case of female interviewers the trend was reversed. Merluzzi, Banikiotes, and Missbach (1978) found female expert counselors were rated significantly more expert than male experts, male inexperts, and female inexperts. Bernstein and Figioli (1983) reported that while perceived expertness was more a function of the credibility introduction, female counselors' expertness was more sensitive to the credibility manipulation than the ratings of the male counselors.

Much of the research shows that there is little effect on the client's perception of counselor credibility when gender of the counselor is varied. Heppner and Dixon

(1981) reviewed the literature on the question of counselor gender on perceived counselor characteristics and concluded that there were no significant effects. Heppner and Pew (1977) found that counselor gender had no significant effect on perceived expertness of the counselor. Of importance to this study was the fact that Heppner and Pew were manipulating the expertness variable with the presence or absence of objective evidence of specialized training. Bernstein and Figioli (1983) found similar results when manipulating the introduction of the counselor to measure perception of counselor credibility. Dell and Schmidt (1976) examined counselor gender and did not find it to be significantly related to client perception of counselor expertness. Female subjects rate counselors higher on credibility than male subjects (Bernstein & Figioli, 1983), and also tend to seek out counseling more frequently than males (Hill, 1975), and tend to remain in counseling longer than males (Fisher & Turner, 1970; Phillips & Segal, 1969; Schneider & Laury, 1981).

Attractiveness

The second aspect of the Interpersonal Influence Process, according to Strong (1968), is perceived counselor attractiveness. Perceived counselor attractiveness has been defined as the counselor's perceived similarity to the client, the client's perception of the counselor's positive

feelings for the client, desire to gain the counselor's approval, and desire to be more similar to him or her (Schmidt & Strong, 1971). Research in the area of counselor attractiveness can be categorized into four major divisions: (1) counselor nonverbal behaviors (Dell & Schmidt, 1976), (2) counselor verbal behaviors (Merluzzi et al., 1978), (3) counselor characteristics (Lewis & Walsh, 1978), and (4) counselor presession introductions (Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977; Greenberg, 1969).

The role played by attractiveness in counseling has been recognized to be significant by many in the field. Brock (1965) mentions that studies of communication and attitude change have shown that attractiveness enhances the ability of the communicator to influence his/her audience. This idea is supported by others (Sapolsky, 1960).

There are those who would contend that perceived counselor attractiveness is not as important to the Interpersonal Influence Process as was originally thought. Patton (1969) found that manipulation of an attractiveness condition in a counselor did not affect attitude change in subjects. It has been further argued that perceived attractiveness is not very important in comparison to perceived expertness (Corrigan et al. 1980). Simons et al. (1970) state that, "...once a communicator has established his/her expertness, attractiveness is irrelevant" (p. 9). Schmidt and Strong (1971) found that,

"...social attractiveness may not be important in counseling when the client's problems require expert opinion and knowledge" (p. 350). When addressing the issue of self-referral, Corrigan (1978) concluded that subjects view expertness as more important than attractiveness for the professionals they would seek for help. In summary, it has been suggested that when comparing the theoretical constructs of perceived expertness and attractiveness, the expertness construct is more important and more powerful.

Trustworthiness

Trustworthiness is the third and final variable suggested by Strong (1968) as being important in the therapeutic relationship and the social influence model. Trustworthiness has been given different definitions by several researchers. Tyler, in Roberts and Renzaglia (1965), believed trustworthiness could be seen as, "...the confidence in the counselor, the assumption that he/she can believe what this person tells him" (p. 16). He goes on further to claim that this feeling of trust is actually, "...the essential foundation for the whole counseling process" (p. 16). A more frequently cited definition of trustworthiness is offered by Barak and LaCrosse (1975), who see it as the belief in the counselor's openness, sincerity, and absence of a motive for personal gain.

Less research has been done in this area of the

Interpersonal Influence Process than in the other two (expertness and attractiveness). As a result, the findings are less expansive and the scientific community knows very little about this construct (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). Corrigan et al. (1980) feel that less research has been done on the trustworthiness variable because of difficulties in isolating this characteristic.

Perceived trustworthiness has been successfully manipulated in only two studies (Kaul & Schmidt, 1971; Roll, Schmidt, & Kaul, (1972). With respect to these two studies, Corrigan et al., (1980) report that, "...other than that nonverbal manner seems more salient that verbal statements, the cues that contributed to this differentiation are not clear" (p. 435).

In terms of gender variables on perceived trustworthiness, the findings are inconclusive. Merluzzi et al., (1978) found that the gender of the counselor can affect perceptions of counselor trustworthiness. Kaul and Schmidt (1971) on the other hand, found gender to be of no significance.

Dimensional Independence of Social Influence Variables

As mentioned previously, Strong (1968) originally proposed that the Interpersonal Influence Process was comprised of three distinct dimensions; expertness,

attractiveness, and trustworthiness. However, he soon began to question this idea himself (Strong, 1971). There has been a subsequent debate over the independence or interdependence of the three constructs of perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. Barak and LaCrosse (1975) reported that their research justified studying the three dimensions separately. Corrigan and Schmidt (1983) concurred with this idea. They stated that the three dimensions were indeed distinct. However, they did suggest that there was an unavoidable element of interdependence between the three dimensions.

Most of the research supports the notion that expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness are actually components of the same dimension (LaCrosse, 1977; LaCrosse & Barak, 1976). In a thorough overview of rating scale instruments Ponterotto and Furlong (1985) found that the common practice of analyzing the three dimensions of the Interpersonal Influence Process may be unwarranted. They cite several studies in which there were very high interscale correlations, and thus a strong interdependence of the three dimensions (Atkinson & Wampold, 1982; LaCrosse, 1980; LaCrosse & Barak, 1976; Zamostny et al., 1981).

Due to the extensive questions that remain unanswered about the dependence or independence of the three dimensions of the Interpersonal Influence Process, there

has been some discussion that the three dimensions might actually be one. This dimension is suggested to be perceived counselor credibility. Credibility has been defined 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/her problems (Strong & Dixon, 1971). Atkinson and Carskaddon (1975) defined perceived counselor credibility similarly, with emphasis on the counselor's possession of knowledge specifically in psychology. Many believe that perceived counselor credibility is actually comprised of a combination of perceived expertness and perceived trustworthiness (Atkinson & Wampold, 1982; Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983; Hartley, 1969; Hovland et al., 1953). Even Strong (1968) suggested combining expertness and trustworthiness to form the dimension of credibility.

The perception of counselor credibility has been viewed by the scientific community to be very important in the counseling relationship. Perceived counselor credibility is seen as important in achieving client attitude change (Bergin, 1962; Schmidt & Strong, 1971; Strong & Dixon, 1971), opinion change (Bockner & Inska, 1966), and behavior change (Schmidt & Strong, 1971; Strong, 1968; Strong & Dixon, 1971; Johnson, 1966). Perceived counselor credibility is also credited with being necessary

for overall positive therapeutic outcome (Beutler et al., 1975; Frank, 1973; Strong, 1978; Strupp, 1973). In summary, it has been found that two of Strong's (1968) original constructs (perceived expertness and trustworthiness) can and have been conceptualized as actually combining to create a single construct called perceived credibility.

Pretherapy Expectations

While one of the foci of this study is centered on the client's perceptions of the counselor, a second important aspect of the study looks at the effects of objective evidence of training and title on client expectations. Client expectations have long been thought to have an impact on the various aspects of counseling. As far back as 1951, Postman hypothesized that the perceptual process actually begins with an expectancy. Almost forty years ago, Seeman (1949) posed the question about what role expectancies play in psychotherapeutic treatment. These expectancies may be important determinants of where a person seeks counseling (Snyder, Hill, & Derksen, 1972; Ziemelis, 1974), length of participation in counseling (Heilbrun, 1970, 1972), and the quality of the counselor-client relationship (Frank, 1959; Goldstein, 1962).

The question cogent to this study is whether a client's pretherapy expectations will affect therapy

outcome. According to Duckro et al. (1979), "The existence of client expectations per se is of little importance if the failure to acknowledge or confirm these expectations does not affect the therapy outcome or process" (p. 263).

Duckro et al. (1979) indicate that a problem area in the research on expectations has been the ambiguous definition of the term "expectation". Pope, Siegman, Blass, and Cheek (1972) define expectation, in their research, as the anticipation of some event. More specific to this research, Goldstein (1962) identified two major categories of expectations as they pertain to counseling research. One type is "participant role expectations" which is defined (Tinsley, Workman, & Kass, 1980) as, "expectations involving beliefs regarding the behaviors that will be displayed by the client and counselor" (p. 562). The second major category identified by Goldstein (1962) pertains to "prognostic expectations", which is defined (Tinsley et al., 1980) as, "...prior beliefs regarding the probability of success in counseling" (p. 562). When pretherapy expectations are examined in this study, this second category will be the definition with which the research is concerned.

With the Interpersonal Influence Process as an integral aspect of the counseling relationship, it is logical to accept Gustad's (1953) conceptualization of counseling as a one-to-one social learning relationship.

Tinsley et al. (1980) explain this to mean that, "...the counselor's and client's expectancies are one of the major determinants of their behavior in the counseling situation" (p. 561).

Pretherapy client expectations have been found to significantly affect therapeutic outcome (Apfelbaum, 1958; Goldstein, 1962; Kraus, Fitzsimmons & Wolf, 1969). Wilkins (1973) found that there was a direct relationship between a client's expectations and the eventual therapeutic outcome.

It is important to mention that there have been conflicting findings on the effect of pretherapy expectations on treatment outcome. Volsky, Magoon, Norman, and Hoyte (1965) indicated that they found no evidence in their data to support the position that clients' expectations have an impact on therapy outcome. This finding was supported by Heppner and Heesacker (1983). Duckro et al. (1979) made a comprehensive review of the available literature on the role that client expectations play on therapy outcome and concluded that, "...theses based on the so-called established relationship of disconfirmed expectations on negative effects in psychotherapy should be reexamined in light of the fact that their relationship is not as clearly understood as has been suggested" (p. 273). In summary, it has been hypothesized that pretherapy expectations will impact the therapeutic relationship as well as the treatment outcome.

Most of the research has supported this hypothesis.

Objective Evidence of Training

Research has supported the connection between objective evidential cues of training and perceived expertness. Heppner and Dixon (1981) concluded, based on their overview of the research on the Interpersonal Influence Process, that there is considerable evidence that certain stimuli, such as diplomas and awards will, in their words, "...cue perception of counselor expertness" (p. 543).

Heppner and Pew (1977) used a counseling analogue involving subjects who entered a counselor's office in which there were either diplomas and certificates visible to the subject or not visible to the subject. This was the only manipulation of the independent variable. Results indicated that, "Diplomas and awards significantly influence the subject's initial perception of counselor expertness" (p. 147). This lead Heppner and Pew to conclude that, "if credibility is a concern for counselors, they may do well to display their diplomas and awards" (p. 147). In a similar research study, Siegel and Sell (1978) used a videotaped counseling session to manipulate the variable of presence or absence of objective evidence of training. They felt that the use of a videotape analogue would be beneficial in controlling many of the confounding

variables which would be held constant. Results showed that, "the initial perception of a counselor as an expert source of information is significantly enhanced when diplomas and certificates are displayed" (p. 191).

Strong (1968) initially proposed that of the three aspects of the Interpersonal Influence Process (perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness), only perceived expertness is specifically effected by objective evidence of training. He based this proposition on the sociological theories of "expert power" (Frank, 1963; Schofield, 1964). According to this theory, evidence of expert power, such as diplomas and certificates will tend to enhance "interpersonal persuasion" (Strong, 1968, p. 221).

Introduction

The perceived status of the counselor by the subject has been suggested as being susceptible to manipulation by certain introduction variables. It is suggested in social psychology theory that the effectiveness of communication depends on the recipient's evaluation of the speaker (Aronson, Turner, & Carlsmith, 1963; Bergin, 1962; Hovland & Janis, 1959), and that this is often determined by the perceived status of the communicator. It has been further suggested that the status of the speaker can be enhanced merely by manipulation of the communicator's title

(Corrigan et al., 1980).

Research has been conducted in which a counselor introduction includes variation of counselor title. For example Claiborn and Schmidt (1977) manipulated the status of the counselor via introduction, with the title of the counselor being central to the independent variable. The high-status counselor was referred to as "Dr. (last name), a psychologist with a Ph.D.". The low-status counselor was represented by no title preceding the last name. Their results indicated that the introduction of the counselor and the counselor title significantly affected the perceived expertness of the counselor. These results were similar to those found previously by Brooks (1974).

Research has further specified the effects of varying the title of the counselor only. The study of Binderman, Fretz, Scott, and Abrams (1972) led to the conclusion that while neither status differences nor nonverbal cues of status differences were needed to obtain credibility effects, only the title (Ph.D.) of the person need be varied to significantly affect the client's perception of the counselor as an expert. Browning (1966) found that when counselors were given the title "Ph.D. Psychologist", they were perceived by the subjects as high-status individuals.

Atkinson and Carskaddon (1975) concluded, based on their research, that, "...any therapist that can be called

"doctor" is greatly respected since he usually directs the activities of other mental health workers..." (p. 185). Finally, Gelso and Karl (1974) concluded that, "... professional personnel would do well to inform their publics that they are counseling or clinical psychologists when appropriate" (p. 247). They mention that such titles tend to elicit more desirable perceptions of their personal characteristics by clients.

As the research has continued on the importance of the introduction of a counselor, questions have been asked about what aspects of the introduction actually are instrumental in this perception and its formulation. Strong (1970) has suggested that it is merely the role of the counselor which is communicated to the subject which will lead the subject to make certain attributions to the expertness of the counselor. LaCrosse (1980) reached the same conclusion based on his research. Corrigan et al. (1980) suggest that this is true because of what they call "stereotypic impressions" (p. 435). They speculate that clients tend to rely on these stereotypic impressions to make judgments about the counselor and his or her capabilities and that these impressions are affected, in part, simply by the role of the counselor. This counselor role is at times implied by title.

As previously mentioned, the literature of social psychology suggests that the manner in which a speaker or

counselor is introduced will have an impact on how that person is perceived by an observer. After an extensive review of the literature Corrigan et al. (1980) report that, "...in general, it appears that the manipulation of counselors' attributed status and experience via introductions differentially affects their perceived expertness" (p. 399). Aronson et al. (1963) found that the introduction of a person as an expert communicator allows him or her to deliver more discrepant information and still be judged effective by the audience. Atkinson and Carskaddon (1975) came to the conclusion that, "...individuals perceive a counselor as a more credible source if he is introduced as a highly prestigious professional" (p. 180). Bernstein and Figioli (1983) found that high versus low credibility introductions can be powerful in influencing a subject's initial perception of a counselor. This conclusion is supported by others (Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977; Guttman & Haase, 1972: Greenberg, 1969; Hartley, 1969; Jackson & Pepinsky, 1972; Scheid, 1976).

Most of the research has established the effect of presession introduction on the initial perception of the subject. It is believed that a first impression can be critical in determining the client's future involvement in counseling (Spiegel, 1976). A major question that remains unanswered is the effects of presession introduction on the

client's perception over time. While this answer is largely unknown, Hartley (1969) did find that differences in a client's perception of a counselor manipulated by introductions did persist for the duration of a series of 10 group sessions. However, for the most part, it is not known what the effect is on the client's long-term perception of the counselor.

The strength of presession introductions in their effect on perceptions of the counselor has been found to be rather significant. For example, Scheid (1976) found that, "...even in the face of clearly perceived non-facilitative or destructive counselor behavior, subjects rate the counselor high on expertness or competence if he has been given a high status introduction" (p. 507). This finding has been supported by other research (Aronson et al., 1963; Browning, 1966).

There has been some evidence which contradicts the theory that prestigious presession introductions will enhance a client's perception of the counselor's level of expertness. Strong and Schmidt (1970) found that a prestigious introduction alone was not sufficient to produce a statistically significant effect. Furthermore, Sprafkin (1970) and Binderman et al. (1972) found introductions to be of no significant importance.

Counselor Gender

There have been mixed results concerning counselor gender and high status introductions. Brooks (1974) found that subjects tend to be more self-disclosing in dyads that contain at least one female, and that the status of the counselor interacted with the gender variable. Specifically Brooks discovered that males disclose more to females but will disclose more to a high status clinician regardless of the gender of that clinician. Amira and Abramowitz (1979) manipulated office decor and counselor gender as independent variables and found that female counselors in traditional offices were rated as more credible while male counselors were seen as more credible in what they called a more humanistic office. In terms of counselor title no empirical evidence has been found about the effects gender plays on perceived counselor expertness when the counselor's title is manipulated.

The effects of presession introductions have been shown to be significant in the client's initial perception of the counselor as being attractive or unattractive (Greenberg, 1969). In Greenberg's study subjects rated counselors described as "warm", to be more attractive than counselors describes as "cold". On the other hand, Claiborn and Schmidt (1977) found that prestigious introductions did not affect the perceptions of counselor

attractiveness.

Subject Gender

Some theoretical factors inherent in the social influence process have lead researchers to question the impact of subject gender on the subject's attitudes toward the counselor, the counseling process and counseling outcome. Researchers have found, for example, that females seek counseling more often than males (Fisher & Turner, 1970; Phillips & Segal, 1969; Schneider & Lauryl, 1981). Female and male clients present different problems in counseling (Chesler, 1971; Howard, Orlinsky, & Hill, 1970). Once involved in counseling, female and male clients exhibit different levels and types of non-verbal involvement with the counselor (Foot, Chapman, & Smith, 1977; Greenbaum & Rosenfeld, 1980; Heshka & Nelson, 1972: Heslin & Boss, 1980).

Although the need for research on the effects of subject gender seem obvious (Bloom, Weigel & Trautt, 1977) it has been noted by many that this research has been sparce and contradictory (Bernstein & Figioli, 1983; Corrigan et al., 1980). Some research has shown no significant effect of subject gender on subject perception of the counselor and expectation of counseling outcome. Bernstein and Figioli (1983) and Cimbolic (1972) found that the subject's gender did not affect the subject's

perception of counselor expertness. Cash, Begley, McCown and Weise (1975) found that both female and male subjects rated counselors equally on attractiveness. Trustworthiness has also been found to be perceived equally by female and male subject (Kaul & Schmidt, 1971).

Some research has shown that the gender of the subject does impact the subject's perception of the counselor. It has been demonstrated that female subjects tend to rate counselors higher on attractiveness (Bernstein & Figioli, 1983; Lewis & Walsh, 1978). Additionally, it has been hypothesized that due to sociopsychologial factors inherent in our culture women would tend to perceive counselors as more credible and prestigious than would men (Gornick & Moran, 1971).

Summary

It has been shown in this review of the related literature that a key to the therapeutic relationship is the client's perception of the counselor as being expert, attractive, and trustworthy, and that this client perception is known as the Interpersonal Influence Process. The literature shows that this construct has substantial theoretical and empirical support. A subject's perception of a counselor as being expert can be enhanced by the presence of objective evidential cues of specialized training, such as diplomas, certificates of training and

awards. The research has also demonstrated a connection between perceived expertness and presession introductions implying high status of the counselor. These high status introductions can be actually reduced to a title communicated to the client. Perceived counselor attractiveness is not as strongly affected by external cues such as presession introductions, however the research does indicate that perceived counselor expertness is more important to the counseling relationship than perceived attractiveness. The review has also shown that perceived trustworthiness has been largely ignored by the scientific community due to difficulty in defining and isolating it as a theoretical construct. However, perceived trustworthiness has been combined with perceived expertness to form perceived counselor credibility which has been shown to be important in the counseling relationship. Finally, the review has shown that there has been some question about the dimensional independence of perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness.

The review has explored the concept of client expectations and the role played by these expectations in the therapeutic relationship. It has been shown that client expectations are an important aspect of the therapeutic relationship as well as treatment outcome.

The literature has shown that there are some unanswered questions about the affect that object

evidential cues of expertness and counselor title have on a client's perception of the counselor. What do these variables influence when manipulated together? Are the appropriate dependent variables perceived expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness or a more appropriate variable know as perceived counselor credibility? Further research is warranted to determine whether a subject's perception of a counselor and pretherapy expectations are altered by the presence or absence of objective evidential cues of training and when the counselor's title is manipulated to include or exclude the word "Doctor."

CHAPTER III

METHOD

Introduction

This chapter presents an extended examination of the research methodology used in the study. It discusses the participants used and describes the instrumentation. A description of the videotapes used as the treatment variables is also presented. The chapter concludes with the experimental design and procedures used in collecting and analyzing the data.

Subjects

The subjects used for this study were males and females drawn from the undergraduate student population from a large midwestern university. All subjects were currently attending courses offered by the university's department of Applied Behavioral Studies in Education. The subjects were asked to volunteer in this study and told that they would be involved in a research project aimed at examining characteristics of effective therapists. All subjects read an informed consent form prior to their participation. This form informed subjects of their right

to decline participation, to withdraw from the study at any time, and other rights and protections as defined by the American Psychological Association and the university's Institutional Review Board (See Appendix A). Subjects were given the opportunity to provide their name and address on a separate form allowing the researcher the means to mail information to the participant regarding the purpose, objectives and results of the study.

Demographic information was collected on each research participant. Appendix B provides a copy of the demographic data sheet and asks for information about race, age, gender, and academic year. In addition, subjects were asked if they have had any previous therapy and, if they have, what kind of therapy and the number of sessions.

Instrumentation

Counselor Rating Form-Short Version. The Counselor Rating Form-Short Version (CRF-S; Corrigan & Schmidt, 1983) was used to assess subjects' perception of counselor expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness (See Appendix C). The CRF-S was derived from a longer version [Counselor Rating Form (CRF)] which was developed and designed by Barak and LaCrosse (1975). The original CRF is a 36-item questionnaire made up of bi-polar adjective pairs with 12 items measuring each of the three dimensions of the interpersonal influence process (expertness,

attractiveness, and trustworthiness). The CRF has attracted a significant amount of attention. Its popularity is reflected by the fact that it has been the most frequently cited scale of its type in the counseling literature (Ponterotto & Furlong, 1985).

The CRF was found to have construct validity (Barak & LaCrosse, 1975; Barak & Dell, 1977) as well as predictive validity (LaCrosse, 1980). The instrument's reliability has been reported in the literature. Atkinson and Wampold (1982) found reliability measures for the expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness dimensions to be quite high (.82, .91, and .89, respectively). LaCrosse and Barak (1976) reported similar reliability measures (.87, .85, and .91, respectively).

In spite of the high reliability of the instrument, Atkinson and Wampold (1982) indicated that there was a need for an instrument with the reliability and validity of the CRF that would measure the same theoretical constructs but in a shorter form. In addition to the need for a shorter version, the research community (Epperson & Pecnik, 1985) assessed the CRF as requiring subjects to have excessively high reading level to successfully complete the instrument. An additional criticism of the CRF is a noted tendency for subjects to utilize only the upper limits of the seven-point continuum (Epperson & Pecnik, 1985). Ponterotto and Furlong (1985) indicated that this tendency of the CRF

lended it to an abnormally high ceiling effect and consequently rendered the instrument relatively insensitive to the effects of varying levels of the independent variables studied.

In response to the above criticisms, Corrigan and Schmidt (1983) developed a shortened version of the CRF which they called the Counselor Rating Form-Short Version (CRF-S). The CRF-S consists of 12 items selected from the CRF. There are four items for each of the dimensions of expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness. The items were chosen from the original 36 items based on their having the highest factor loadings as reported in previous factor analytic studies of the CRF. To compensate for the excessively high reading level required of the CRF, the items were rewritten to reflect an eighth-grade reading comprehension level. Lastly, in an attempt to encourage use of the full range of possible responses, and thus to minimize the ceiling effect, the items were rescaled using a "not very" to "very" response mode. This is in contrast to the bipolar opposites used in the CRF.

In examining the CRF-S for reliability, Corrigan and Schmidt (1983) found the split-half reliabilities for the expertness, attractiveness, and trustworthiness scales to be at least as high as those of the CRF (.90, .91, and .78, respectively). Indeed, these findings indicated that the reliabilities for expertness and attractiveness were higher

than their corresponding CRF subscales. Corrigan and Schmidt (1983) also found the new instrument to have high internal consistency, with a median measure of .91 across the three scales.

Epperson and Pecnik (1985) collected data simultaneously on both the CRF and the CRF-S and then directly compared the results from both instruments. First, these authors calculated coefficient alphas to measure the internal consistency for the CRF-S scales and found median measures of .82. Although these values were lower than those reported by Corrigan and Schmidt (1983) (median value of .91), these findings were still comparable to those of the CRF (Epperson & Pecnik, 1985). They did not find, however, that the CRF-S resulted in greater use of the lower end of the item rating scales. Lastly, Epperson and Pecnik (1985) calculated a factor analysis of the CRF-S data and found that expertness and trustworthiness items could be collapsed to form one factor.

The factor analytic results reported by Epperson and Pecnik (1985) are in contrast to the results of a factor analysis done by Tryon (1987). In a separate factor analytic study of the CRF-S, Tryon found an underlying structure of two factors. The first of these factors is composed of the attractiveness and trustworthiness items, while the second factor is composed of the expertness and

trustworthiness items. This finding confirmed the conclusion of Ponterotto and Furlong (1985) who completed a critical review of the CRF-S and in this review addressed the question of factorial independence. These researchers concluded that, "...the independence of the CRF-S Trustworthiness scale from the other scales is questionable" (Tryon, 1987, p. 123). Johnson and Prentice (1985) also conducted a factor analysis of CRF-S data and produced findings that indicated there was no separate Trustworthiness factor.

In summary, while there is some question concerning the dimensional independence of the CRF-S, the CRF-S reliabilities are reported to be comparable to those of the CRF. The advantages of the CRF-S over the CRF are in its relative brevity, ease of administration, and low reading skill required of subjects (eighth-grade).

Counseling Expectation Inventory. The Counseling Expectation Inventory (CEI; Turner & Schwartzbach, 1983) was designed to measure the expectations that subjects have for the counseling process. The CEI is a 14-item scale and is completed in a two-part process.

In the first part, subjects rate each of the items according to the probability that the outcome can be achieved by this counselor with this client. Examples of the items include, "counseling can help me to become more

self acceptant" and "counseling can help me get rid of disturbing behaviors." The rating for each item is based on a 10-point scale with one being "not at all likely" and 10 being "completely likely."

In the second part, respondents are asked to rate the importance of each outcome on a 7-point scale with 1 being "extremely unimportant" and 7 being "extremely important." A total expectation score is then generated by multiplying the probability rating by the importance ratings and then summing these products across all items, with total scores ranging from 14 to 980. A low score indicates that the subject believes the counselor will have difficulty in assisting the client, and a high score indicates that the subject believes that the counselor will most likely be able to help the client.

Turner and Schwartzbach (1983) established content validity by generating a large initial item pool from three separate sources. These sources were experts in the field, experienced college counselors and clients. They then randomly selected a smaller pool of items and administered them to approximately 300 students. This data was then factor analyzed and the items that had factor loadings greater than .50 were included in the instrument.

Turner and Schwartzbach (1983) report internal consistencies reliability for the CEI as ranging between .88 to .93 (coefficient alpha) and construct validity of

.36 for convergent and .48 for divergent validity. Currently no other psychometric data is available for the CEI.

For the purpose of this study the CEI was modified slightly in order to assist the subjects in more closely approximating the role and responses of an actual client. These modifications are primarily in the instructions for the CEI.

Stimulus Materials. Subjects observed one of eight videotape segments of a counselor/client interaction. The eight videotapes were differentiated by manipulations of counselor gender, counselor title, and objective evidence of training. Four of the vignettes portrayed a male therapist and a male client involved in a counseling interview, while four of the vignettes portrayed a female therapist and a male client involved in an identical counseling interview. The "counselors" as well as the "client" appearing in the vignettes were portrayed by mental health practitioners trained in the field of counseling and familiar with the roles which they played.

To control "attractiveness" variables between the female and male actors in the vignettes, photographs were taken of four female and four male acting candidates. Two different photographs of each candidate were mounted on a card labeled with a symbol similar to symbols used in the

Weschler Intelligence Scale for Children, coding sub-test (Weschler, 1974). Thirty four subjects (17 female and 17 male) were selected from the undergraduate student population from a large midwestern university. Each subject was given the eight cards (randomly ordered) and asked to evaluate the individuals photographed for "attractiveness" using a seven point Likert-type rating scale (See Appendix E). The female and male actors receiving the closest ratings were selected to depict the female and male counselors in the eight videotaped vignettes. Mean "attractiveness" scores for the female and male actors chosen were 6.1 and 6.0 respectively. Verbal variables were held constant through the use of a script memorized by the actors and followed verbatim in each vignette (see Appendix F).

Equivalent counselor performance across all tapes was assessed through the use of the Counselor Evaluation Rating Scale (CERS; Myrick & Kelly, 1971). The CERS is a 7-point (-3 to +3) Likert-type rating scale developed to obtain a global assessment of a counselor's effectiveness in counseling. The CERS was selected based on its ease of administration and scoring. It was developed specifically to offer a relatively standardized approach for conceptualizing the counselor's performance (Myrick & Kelly, 1971). Myrick and Kelly found the instrument to be reliable, with a split-half reliability of .95. In a pilot

study, 19 subjects chosen from the graduate and undergraduate student population of a large midwestern university rated the counselors' performances on one videotape depicting the female counselor and one videotape depicting the male counselor, each acting out the scripted, role-played counseling session. The counselors were rated with the CERS (see Appendix G) by the subjects. A Bartlett Test for Homogeneity of Group Variances yielded a t statistic of .536 and a probability of .599. These results supported the use of the two actors as appropriate and demonstrated a level of control over confounding counseling performance between the two actors.

In each of the videotapes the camera was positioned behind the client and was focused directly on the therapist. To manipulate therapist gender, one of the therapists was male, the other female. In all taped segments the gender of the client remained fixed (male).

To manipulate the counselors' objective evidence of training, the wall directly behind the counselor displayed two certificates of specialized training (one diploma and one professional license), or a framed oil painting. The camera was focused in such a way that the wall hangings were directly behind the counselor and visible to the viewer.

The "Title" variable was manipulated by introducing the counselor as either a Ph.D. Licensed Psychologist or a

counselor. The introduction of the counselor was as follows:

> Thank you for your participation in this research. You are about to view a short segment of a counseling session. The counselor, Dr. (Mr./Ms.) Robert (Roberta) Phillips, is a Licensed Psychologist (Counselor) and is working with a client whose identity will remain anonymous. Please watch Dr. (Mr./Ms.) Phillips closely. After viewing the counseling segment you will be asked to evaluate Dr. (Mr./Ms.) Phillips as a counselor and to make some guesses, as though you were the client, about how counseling with Dr. (Mr./Ms.) Phillips might turn out. Thank you again for your participation in this study.

The script for the vignettes portrayed a male business person experiencing stress in the work place. The script was held constant across all videotapes (see Appendix F).

To determine the degree to which the objective evidence of training variable and the title variable were manipulated by the research design, a manipulation check (see Appendix I) was utilized. The manipulation check allowed subjects the opportunity to demonstrate to the researcher whether they could accurately recall the objects on the wall behind the counselor in the videotape as well as the title of the counselor in the videotape.

Procedures

Subjects were randomly assigned to watch one of eight videotaped vignettes, as described above. They were tested in small groups of two to six subjects. To guard against examiner bias each testing session was conducted by one of two research assistants who was blind to the research goals and hypotheses being tested. These examiners presented standardized instructions to each subject (see Appendix H). As part of these instructions, subjects were instructed to read the Informed Consent sheet and then asked to complete the demographic information form.

After all subjects completed the demographic information form, they observed one of the eight videotaped vignettes. Immediately afterwards, subjects independently completed the CRF-S and the CEI. The two instruments were presented in random order. After completing these instruments, subjects answered two questions assessing the effectiveness of the manipulation of title and objective evidence of training in the videotapes (see Appendix I).

Research Design

The design utilized in this study was a Posttest-only Control group design (Campbell & Stanley, 1966). The research design is a 2(Subject Gender) x 2(Counselor Gender) x 2(Objective Evidence of Training) x 2(Title).

Data analyses included a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) with subjects' perceptions of counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness as dependent variables. A 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 analysis of variance (ANOVA) was also run with subjects' expectations for the counseling process as the dependent variable.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between a counselor's objective evidence of training, title and gender, and a subject's perception of counselor expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness, and expectations of the counseling process. This chapter presents the statistical analysis of data secured in the study. The procedure involved showing subjects one of eight videotaped counseling vignettes and asking the subject to rate the counselor using Counselor Rating Form-Short (see Appendix C) and the Counselor Expectation Inventory (see Appendix D). This chapter restates the hypotheses and summarized the results of the multivariate and univariate analyses.

Descriptive Statistics

The sample consisted of 182 undergraduate students at a large midwestern university. There were 110 females and 72 males. Their ages ranged from 18 to 48 with the majority (65%) falling within the 19 to 22 year old range.

The mean age was 24.07 (standard deviation=6.2) and the median age was 22. The class composition of the sample was as follows: Freshmen, one; Sophomore, nine; Juniors, 45; Seniors, 115; and Graduate Students, 12. The racial composition was: Black, two; Caucasian, 169; Hispanic, one; and Native American, 10. Of the subjects, 45 had received professional counseling services at one time in their lives. Of those who attended counseling, 17 attended for personal problems, three attended for career problems, nine attended for family counseling, four attended for marital problems, six dealt with substance abuse problems, and eight attended for academic related issues. The number of sessions that these subject had received counseling ranged from one to 99, with a mean of 11 and a standard deviation of 18.5.

Manipulation Check

To determine the effectiveness of the manipulation of the independent variables of objective evidence of training and counselor title, subjects were asked to recall their memories of these variables as presented in the specific videotape they observed (see Appendix I). Of the 182 subjects, 144 (79.19%) correctly recalled the visual background presented in the videotape as well as the title of the counselor. Due to the importance of the subjects' awareness of the variable manipulated, all further analyses

discussed will be limited strictly to the data from the 144 subjects who correctly responded to the manipulation check.

Statistical Analysis

There were two primary statistical analyses performed on the data. The first was a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 MANOVA with subject gender, presence or absence of objective evidence of training, counselor title and counselor gender as independent variables, and the CRF-S variables of expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness as dependent variables (see Table 1). The second analysis was a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA with subject gender, presence or absence of objective evidence of training, counselor title and counselor gender as independent variables, and the CEI variable of counseling expectations as the dependent variable. Information derived from these analyses will be presented relative to each of the eight hypotheses.

Hypothesis One

Subjects will rate counselors higher on expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness when observing a videotape with visible presence of objective evidence of training.

To test this hypothesis, a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 MANOVA was calculated with subject gender, presence or absence of objective evidence of training, counselor title and counselor gender as the independent variables and the CRF-S

Table 1

Multivariate Source Table for Main and Interactive Effects of Objective Evidence of Training, Title, Counselor Gender and Subject Gender with CRF-S as the Dependent Variable

Multivariate Test Statistice (Pillai Trace)

Value	F	DF	P
A = .087	4.01	3, 126	.009*
B = .012	.70	3, 126	.552
C = .060	2.70	3, 126	.049*
D = .147	7.23	3, 126	.000*
A x B = .002	.09	3, 126	.964
A x C = .041	1.78	3, 126	.155
A x D = .025	1.06	3, 126	.370
B x C = .022	.95	3, 126	.420
B x D = .031	1.37	3, 126	.254
C x D = .067	2.99	3, 126	.053
A x B x C = .029	1.29	3, 126	.280
A x B x D = .008	.32	3, 126	.804
A x C x D = .084	3.83	3, 126	.011*
B x C x D = .040	1.79	3, 126	.153

*p .05

A = Objective Evidence of Training

B = Title

C = Counselor Gender

D = Subject Gender

variables of expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness as dependent variables. Results revealed a significant multivariate effect for presence or absence of objective evidence of training, $F(3,126)=4.01$, $p<.009$. An examination of the univariate analyses revealed a significant difference only on expertness, $F(3,128)=10.38$, $p<.002$ (see Table 2). N2 revealed that 8% of the variance associated with the expertness rating was accounted for by the manipulation of objective evidence of training. Table 3 provides the means and standard deviations for these analyses. An examination of the means reveals that subjects who viewed the videotapes wherein visible presence of objective evidence of professional experience was present perceived the counselor as more expert than those subjects who viewed the videotape without visible presence of objective evidence of training. Thus, hypothesis one was partially supported.

Hypothesis Two

Subjects will rate counselors higher on expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness when observing a tape of a counselor with the title "doctor".

To test this hypothesis, a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 MANOVA was calculated with subject gender, presence or absence of objective evidence of training, counselor title and counselor gender as the independent variables and the CRF-S variables of expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness

as dependent variables. Results did not reveal a significant multivariate effect, $F(3, 126)=.7$, indicating that the presence of the title "doctor" does not significantly affect subjects' perceptions of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness or trustworthiness. Therefore, hypothesis two was not supported.

Hypothesis Three

Subjects will rate counselors higher on expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness when observing a videotape of a male counselor.

To test this hypothesis, a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 MANOVA was calculated with subject gender, presence or absence of objective evidence of training, counselor title and counselor gender as the independent variables and the CRF-S variables of expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness as dependent variables. Results revealed a significant multivariate effect for counselor gender, $F(3, 126)=2.7$, $p<.05$. An examination of the univariate analyses revealed significant differences on expertness and trustworthiness, $F(1, 128)=4.79$, $p<.03$, $F(1, 128)=7.44$, $p<.007$, respectively (see Table 4). N2 revealed that 4% of the variance associated with the expertness rating and 6% of the variance associated with the trustworthiness rating was accounted for by counselor gender. Table 5 provides the means and standard deviations for these analyses. An examination of the means reveals that subjects who viewed

Table 2

Univariate Source Table for the Main Effect of Presence/ Absence of Objective Evidence of Training with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables

Univariate F Tests

Variables	SS	DF	MS	F
CRF-S Expertness	192.54	1, 128	1.50	10.38*
CRF-S Attractiveness	198.42	1, 128	1.50	.51
CRF-S Trustworthiness	187.55	1, 128	1.46	3.46

*p<.05

Table 3

Means and Standard Deviations for the Main Effect of Presence/Absence of Objective Evidence of Training with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
Expertness		
Presence of Evidence	3.87	1.14
Absence of Evidence	3.27	1.23
Attractiveness		
Presence of Evidence	3.14	1.26
Absence of Evidence	3.17	1.22
Trustworthiness		
Presence of Evidence	4.23	1.10
Absence of Evidence	3.89	1.25

Table 4

Univariate Source Table for the Main Effect of Counselor Gender with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables

Univariate F Tests

Variables	SS	DF	MS	F
CRF-S Expertness	192.54	1, 128	1.50	4.8*
CRF-S Attractiveness	198.42	1, 128	1.55	.89
CRF-S Trustworthiness	187.55	1, 128	1.46	7.44*

*p<.05

Table 5

Means and Standard Deviations for the Main Effect of Counselor Gender with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
Expertness		
Male	3.79	1.26
Female	3.28	1.11
Attractiveness		
Male	3.18	1.16
Female	3.01	1.30
Trustworthiness		
Male	4.27	1.16
Female	3.80	1.18

the videotapes wherein the counselor was male perceived the counselor as more expert and trustworthy than those subjects who viewed the videotapes of the female counselor. Thus, hypothesis three was partially supported.

Hypothesis Four

Female subjects will rate counselors higher on expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness than male subjects.

To test this hypothesis a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 MANOVA was calculated with subject gender, presence or absence of objective evidence of training, counselor title and counselor gender as independent variables and the CRF-S variables of expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness as dependent variables. Results revealed a significant multivariate effect. $F(3, 126)=7.23$, $p<.0001$. An examination of the univariate analyses revealed significant differences on expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness, $F(1, 128)=10.3$, $p<.002$, $F(1, 128)=13.4$, $p<.0001$, $F(1,128)=20.2$, $p<.0001$, respectively (see Table 6). N2 revealed that 8% of the variance associated with the expertness rating, 10% or the variance associated with the attractiveness rating and 16% of the variance associated with the trustworthiness rating were accounted for by the gender of the subject. Table 7 provides the means and standard deviations for these analyses. An examination of the means reveals that female subjects

perceived the counselor as more expert, attractive and trustworthy than male subjects. Thus, hypothesis four was supported.

The MANOVA calculated to test the four preceding hypotheses revealed an additional three-way interaction not hypothesized. The data indicated that subject gender, counselor gender and objective evidence of training interacted significantly to affect subjects' perception of expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness, $F(3, 126)=3.8$, $p<.011$. An examination of the univariate analyses revealed a significant difference on attractiveness, $F(1, 128)=7.4$, $p<.007$ (see Table 8). N2 revealed that 6% of the attractiveness rating was accounted for by the combined manipulation of subject gender, counselor gender and objective evidence of training. Table 9 provides the means and standard deviations for this analysis. An examination of the means and Graph 1 reveals that the interaction can be explained by the tendency of male subjects to rate all counselors equally when the counselor appeared on tape with objective evidence of training. However, male subjects rated female counselors significantly lower than male counselors when either appeared on a tape with no visible evidence of training.

Hypothesis Five

Subjects will rate their expectations for the counseling process higher when observing a tape with

Table 6

Univariate Source Table for the Main Effect of Subject Gender with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables

Univariate F Tests

Variables	SS	DF	MS	F
CRF-S Expertness	192.54	1, 128	1.50	10.3*
CRF-S Attractiveness	198.42	1, 128	1.55	13.42*
CRF-S Trustworthiness	187.55	1, 128	1.46	20.12*

*p<.05

Table 7

Means and Standard Deviations for the Main Effect of Subject Gender with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables

Variables	Mean	Standard Deviation
Expertness		
Female	3.91	1.26
Male	3.35	1.10
Attractiveness		
Female	3.55	1.36
Male	2.81	1.11
Trustworthiness		
Female	4.59	1.23
Male	3.71	1.12

Table 8

Univariate Source Table for the Interactive Effect of Subject Gender, Objective Evidence of Training and Counselor Gender with CRF-S Expertness, Attractiveness and Trustworthiness as Dependent Variables

Univariate F Tests

Variables	SS	DF	MS	F
CRF-S Expertness	192.54	1, 128	1.50	1.17
CRF-S Attractiveness	198.42	1, 128	1.55	7.44*
CRF-S Trustworthiness	187.55	1, 128	1.47	.78

*p<.05

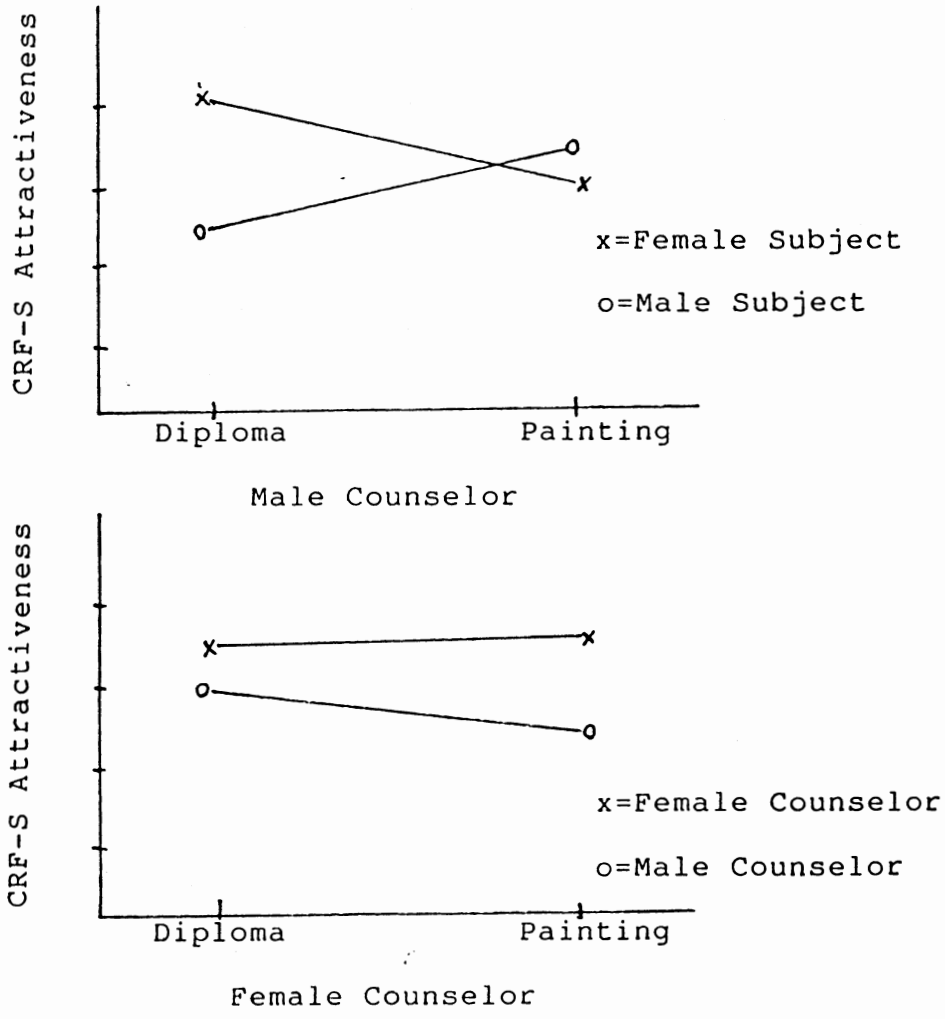
Table 9

Means and Standard Deviations for the Interactive Effect of Subject Gender, Objective Evidence of Training and Counselor Gender with CRF-S Attractiveness as the Dependent Variable

	Counselor Gender							
	Male				Female			
Subject	Diploma		Painting		Diploma		Painting	
Gender	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Female	4.05	1.19	3.14	1.15	3.47	1.54	3.52	1.35
Male	2.57	.84	3.31	1.16	2.93	1.19	2.26	1.17

Graph 1

Graph of Three-Way Interaction Between Subject Gender, Counselor Gender and Objective Evidence of Training



visible presence of objective evidence of training.

To test this hypothesis a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA was calculated with subject gender, presence or absence of objective evidence of training, counselor title and counselor gender as independent variables and counseling expectations, as measured by the CEI, as the dependent. variable. The univariate main effect for presence or absence of objective evidence of training was not found to be significant, $F(1, 128)=.24$, $p<.62$. This indicates that the presence or absence of objective evidence of training does not increase the subject's expectations about the counseling process. The hypothesis was not supported by the data.

Hypothesis Six

Subjects will rate their expectations for the counseling process higher when observing a tape in which the counselor has the title "doctor".

To test this hypothesis a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA was calculated with subject gender, presence or absence of objective evidence of training, counselor title and counselor gender as independent variables and counseling expectations, as measured by the CEI, as the dependent variable. The univariate main effect for counselor title was not found to be significant, $F(1, 128)=.01$. $p<.92$. This indicates that counselor title does not increase the subject's expectations about the counseling process. The

hypothesis was not supported by the data.

Hypothesis Seven

Subjects will rate their expectations for the counseling process higher when observing a tape in which the counselor is male.

To test this hypothesis a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA was calculated with subject gender, presence or absence of objective evidence of training, counselor title and counselor gender as independent variables and counseling expectations as measured by the CEI, as the dependent variable. The univariate main effect for counselor gender was significant, $F(1, 128)=6.5$, $p<.012$. The mean rating for counseling expectations with the male counselor was 43.97 with a standard deviation of 4.5, while the mean rating for counseling expectations with the female counselor was 40.23 with at standard deviation of 4.3. This indicates that subjects rate their expectations about the counseling process higher if the counselor is a male. The hypothesis was supported by the data.

Hypothesis Eight

Female subjects will rate their expectations for the counseling process higher than males.

To test this hypothesis a 2 x 2 x 2 x 2 ANOVA was calculated with subject gender, presence or absence of objective evidence of training, counselor title and counselor gender as independent variables and counseling

expectations, as measured by the CEI, as the dependent variable. The univariate main effect for subject gender was not found to be significant, $F(1, 128)=1.82$, $p<.18$. Thus indicating that the subject gender does not increase the subject's expectations about the counseling process. The hypothesis was not supported by the data.

Summary

This chapter described the demographic parameters of the subject population and provided the results of the manipulation check. The statistical analyses were identified and described. Each of the eight hypotheses were restated and identified as being either supported or not supported by the data.

Hypothesis One, which suggested that objective evidence of training would result in a counselor being rated higher on the interpersonal influence variables, was partially supported. Results showed that presence of objective evidence of training resulted in higher ratings of expertness. Hypothesis Two proposed that a counselor with the title "doctor" would be rated higher by subjects on the interpersonal influence variables. This hypothesis was not supported by the data. Hypothesis three stated that subjects would rate a male counselor higher than a female counselor on the interpersonal influence variables. Results showed that male counselors engendered higher

ratings on expertness and trustworthiness. This hypothesis was partially supported. Hypothesis Four proposed that female subjects would rate counselors higher on the interpersonal influence variables than male subjects. Female subjects gave consistently higher ratings to all counselors on expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. This hypothesis was supported. Furthermore, it was revealed that subject gender, counselor gender and objective evidence of training interacted with female subjects rating the female counselor lower, but male subjects rating female counselors lower unless flanked by objective evidence of training.

Hypotheses Five through Eight focused on subject expectations. Hypothesis Five suggested that subjects would rate their expectations of the counseling process higher if the counselor were viewed in the presence of objective evidence of specialized training. This hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis Six stated that counselors with the title "doctor" would elicit higher ratings of counseling expectations from subjects. This hypothesis was not supported. Hypothesis Seven proposed that male counselor counselors would cause subjects to rate their expectations for the counseling process higher than would female counselors. Results showed that male counselors elicited higher ratings for expectations of the counseling process. This hypothesis was supported.

Hypothesis Eight suggested that female subjects would rate their expectations for the counseling process higher than would male subjects. This hypothesis was not supported.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The current study was designed to investigate two social psychological theories as they apply to variables in the counseling environment. The first theory examined was the social influence process (Strong, 1968). Subject gender, counselor gender, counselor title and visible evidence of training were studied with respect to the effect of each on the social influence variables of expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness. The second social psychological theory concerns pretherapy expectations (Duckro, 1979). The effect of subject gender, counselor gender, counselor title and objective evidence of training on pretherapy expectations were also studied.

To explore these issues eight hypotheses were generated. What follows in this chapter is a discussion of the findings and implications of each of the seven hypotheses. In addition recommendations for further research are also presented.

The results for Hypothesis One, which dealt with the effects of visible presence of objective evidence of training on the social influence variables, revealed that the expertness variable was significantly affected by the

visible presence of objective evidence of training. However, there was no significant effect on the attractiveness and trustworthiness variables.

With respect to the effect of objective evidence of training on the interpersonal influence process the results of this study support the current body of literature. The theoretical importance of visual, objective evidence of training has been postulated (Frank, 1973; Raven, 1965; Schofield, 1964) and has been examined empirically. Heppner and Pew (1977) as well as Seigel and Sell (1978) found that specific stimuli, such as awards and diplomas did enhance a subject's perception of a counselor's expertness. The Heppner and Pew (1977) study utilized an analogue involving live "interview" situations whereas the current study utilized videotaped "counseling" situations. The Seigel and Sell (1978) study did involve videotaped counseling situations, however, the dependent measure used was the therapist credibility adjective checklist (Beutler et al., 1975). This instrument has not been utilized as extensively as the Counselor Rating Form-Short (Ponteretto & Furlong, 1985) which was used in the current study. As a result of this data it can be said that the finding of the current study has held up under empirical examinations using differing analogues and differing dependent measures.

The current findings which indicate that expertness is the social influence variable most significantly affected

by objective evidence of training is supported by the literature. Strong (1968) specifically proposed expertness as the social influence variable that would be influenced by objective evidence of specialized training. He based this proposition on the sociological theories of "expert power" (Schofield, 1964).

In essence, this study as well as the work of Heppner and Pew (1977) and Seigel and Sell (1978) have all supported the idea that the visible presence of objective evidence of training enhances the interpersonal influence components of the counseling relationship, and more specifically the perception of counselor expertness. Therefore, clinicians would be advised to be mindful of environmental variables that might act as objective evidence of training. The results suggest the potential benefits of appropriately displayed professional certificates, licenses or diplomas.

Hypothesis Two dealt with the effects of counselor title on the social influence variables. The counselor title was presented as either Doctor or Mr./Ms. The results for this hypothesis revealed that the social influence variables were not affected by the title of the counselor. The results did not support the notion that a "doctor" would be viewed as more expert, attractive or trustworthy merely as a function of the title. The hypothesis was drawn from research in which the combined

effects of title in conjunction with prestigious introduction resulted consistently in the counselor being viewed as being more expert and attractive (Atkinson & Carskaddon, 1975; Binderman et al., 1972; Claiborn & Schmidt, 1977; Greenberg, 1969). In the Atkinson and Carskaddon (1975) and Claiborn and Schmidt (1977) studies the prestigious presession introductions included, but was not limited to, the specific manipulation of the title "doctor". The current study was an attempt to refine the presession introduction variable to a simple title of "doctor". The question being whether the title doctor implicitly communicates a suggestion of counselor credibility. The Binderman et al. (1972) findings suggested that the current study should have produced significant results. However, it is important to note that the Binderman et al. (1972) study introduced the high status counselor as a Ph.D. counselor and the low status counselor was introduced as a psychology practicum student. It should be clear that the professional versus student comparison cannot be examined as identical to the manipulation of title. The results of the current study suggest that the lack of the title doctor should not necessarily be viewed as a detriment to the interpersonal influence process.

The third hypothesis dealt with the effects of counselor gender on the social influence variables. The

results for this hypothesis revealed that the social influence variables of expertness and trustworthiness were affected by the counselor gender. However, there was no significant effect on the attractiveness variable.

With respect to the effect of counselor gender on the interpersonal influence process, the results of the study support the current body of literature. It has been demonstrated that both males and females prefer male counselors (Boulware & Holmes, 1970; Fuller, 1964; Hill, 1975). Beyond preferences research has shown that male counselors are perceived as more competent (Amira & Abramowitz, 1979) and more helpful (Persons, Persons, & Newmark, 1974).

The whole arena of power and attribution tied to gender has been recently examined by sociologists and identified as a probable result of some of the sexist influences in society (Chesler, 1972; Gornick & Moran, 1971). The issue is particularly cogent to the field of psychology. The allegation has been made that the counselor is actually a covert agent of social control and the status quo (Hurvits 1973; Szasz, 1961, Whitley, 1979). It has been suggested that a majority of those seeking and receiving outpatient counseling are female and most counselors are male (Orlinsky & Howard, 1976). A direct implication of the results for this hypothesis would be for counselors to be aware of any potential sexist biases which

would act to alter the client's perception of the counselor's expertness and trustworthiness. It might be clinically facilitative to openly explore with the client what the gender of the counselor might mean to the client (Orlinsky & Howard, 1976).

The fourth hypothesis dealt with the effects of subject gender on the social influence variables. The results for this hypothesis revealed that all three social influence variables were affected by subject gender. Specifically, female subjects rated both male and female counselors higher in expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness.

With respect to the effects of subject gender on the interpersonal influence process the results of the study do support the body of literature. Gornick and Moran (1971) point to the way in which women are socialized to view themselves as relatively less competent and more dependent than men. As a result, this would explain the tendency of women to seek out authority figures, such as counselors and therapists. This, in conjunction with the tendency for females to report a greater "need for help" (Chesler, 1971A, p. 364), would help to explain the findings that female subjects perceived the counselors higher in expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness than the male subjects.

An alternative explanation for higher rating of

counselors by female subjects focuses on the tendency for female clients to be more receptive to several key aspects of the therapeutic alliance (Persons, Persons, & Newmark, 1974). As Bernstein and Figioli (1983) state, "females tend to seek out counseling for personal concerns more readily and feel more at ease with self exploration than males" (p. 511).

An implication of the results of this hypothesis would be for counselors to be especially sensitive to the approach to counseling taken by female clients. They should be particularly aware of female clients' perceptions of unhealthy hierarchical client/counselor differences and attributions of power implicit in the counselor role, or the lack of such power in the client role.

The MANOVA which was used to test the four previous hypotheses produced an interesting three-way interaction which was not hypothesized. According to the data, subject gender, counselor gender and objective evidence of training all interacted to affect the subjects' perception of counselor attractiveness. An examination of the cell means showed that females rated all counselors equally on attractiveness when the counselors appeared without the visible cues of professional training. However, in the presence of such cues, male subjects rated the female counselors significantly higher than male counselors for attractiveness.

This finding, while not hypothesized, is interesting in light of the notion of a growing preference among female clients for same-sex pairing in the clinical dyad (Bloom et al., 1977; Chesler, 1971B). In light of the current findings, it could be argued that the appearance of objective evidentiary cues of specialized training might act to override possible societal biases against the credibility of female professionals. Once these biases have been nullified by visual credentialing the female subject is freer to satisfy the need for same-sex clinical pairing and to attribute more positive qualities to the female counselor. An additional and complementary argument could be made about the male subjects. The current findings showed that male subjects rated female counselors lower, relative to the male counselors when there was no visible presence of objective evidence of training. This could suggest that objective evidence of training plays a significant part in the perception of female counselors by male subjects. The implication being that it is necessary for male subjects to be visually reassured of the training of female counselors, whereas this visual reassurance is not necessary when the counselor is male. This data might also suggest that in female subjects' eyes, credentials don't affect perceptions of female counselors. The female subjects consistently rated the female counselors lower. However, a male counselor with credentials is by far the

most revered. In the eyes of the male subjects, female counselors are only given a modicum of credibility, provided that there is some form of credentialing.

The fifth hypothesis dealt with the effects of objective evidence of training on a subject's expectations about counseling. The results for this hypothesis revealed that expectations about counseling were not affected by the presence or absence of objective evidence of training. The results did not support the notion that subjects would rate their expectations of counseling higher if the counselor was viewed flanked by visual cues of professional training. It has been demonstrated repeatedly that objective evidence of training enhances perception of a counselor's expertness (Heppner & Dixon, 1981). The findings from the current study also support this idea. Part of the hypotheses of the current study was for an extension of the subjects' enhanced perception of counselor expertness to be translated into higher expectations for counseling.

The failure to find significant results would indicated that expectations about counseling are not necessarily affected by the same variables that enhance the interpersonal influence process. Counseling expectations may be more complex than the interpersonal influence variables. Perhaps the client's expectations about counseling are more dependent on what the client brings to the counseling experience than some of the environmental

variables that would affect the client's perception of the counselor's expertness, attractiveness or trustworthiness.

The sixth hypothesis dealt with the effects of counselor title on the subject's expectations about counseling. The results for this hypothesis revealed that expectations about counseling were not affected by the use of the title "doctor". The results did not support the notion that clients would rate their expectations for counseling higher if the counselor were presented as a "doctor". This finding might not be surprising given that Hypothesis Two, concerning counselor title and the interpersonal influence variables, was also not supported. As mentioned earlier, prestigious introductions have been found to enhance the subject's desire to see a counselor (Atkinson & Carskaddon, 1975), confidence in a counselor (Bernstein & Figioli, 1983), and perception of a counselor's credibility (Binderman et al., 1972).

The question being asked with the current study is whether the title "doctor" alone can serve as a powerful enough prestigious introduction to enhance a subject's expectations of counseling. It can be assumed from the manipulation check procedure completed earlier in the study that subjects were aware of the title of the counselor which they observed in the videotape. However, as with Hypothesis Two, the study failed to support the notion of the importance of the counselor's title on the therapeutic

relationship. The results of the current study suggest that, in the counseling setting, the counselor is neither benefited nor handicapped by the use of the title "doctor".

Hypothesis Seven dealt with the effects of counselor gender on subjects' expectations about counseling. The results for this hypothesis revealed that expectations about counseling were affected by the gender of the counselor. The results supported the notion that subjects would rate their expectations for counseling higher if the counselor were male. This finding is certainly consistent with the existing literature. As Chesler (1971B) found, the most frequently cited reasons for clients' request for a male counselor were a greater respect for a man's mind, competence and authority. As the literature has demonstrated (Gornick & Moran, 1971), female competence has been consistently cast in a secondary position to that of male competence. It would make sense that subjects would rate their expectations for counseling higher when the counselor is male. The implications from these data seem to direct the professional community to listen to arguments presented about the needs for feminist therapy (Hare-Mustin, 1978) and the need for counselors to actively work to overcome societal sexist biases (Fitzgerald & Nutt, 1986).

Hypothesis Eight dealt with the effect of subject gender on the subjects' expectations about counseling. The

results for this hypothesis revealed that expectations about counseling were not affected by the gender of the subject. The results did not support the notion that female subjects would rate their expectations about counseling higher than male subjects. This finding is difficult to explain in light of the existing literature and the findings of the current study regarding the impact of subject gender on the perceptions of the interpersonal influence variables. It could again be argued that variables which affect the interpersonal influence process have less impact on client expectations and that these expectations are in fact more strongly influenced by what the client brings to the therapeutic relationship.

Summary

In general the current study found the interpersonal influence variables of expertness, attractiveness and trustworthiness more responsive to environmental variables than are counseling expectations to these same environmental variables. Three of the four hypotheses dealing with the interpersonal influence variables were supported by the data, while only one of the four hypotheses dealing with expectations was supported.

Objective evidence of training significantly increased subjects' ratings of the combined interpersonal influence variables as well as the expertness variable. However,

objective evidence of training did not enhance the subjects' expectations for counseling. The use of the title "doctor" did not result in higher interpersonal influence variable ratings or higher expectations about counseling. Male counselors were rated higher on the combined interpersonal influence variables as well as the expertness and trustworthiness variables. Male counselors also elicited higher expectations for counseling from subjects. Female subjects rated all counselors higher on the combined interpersonal influence variables as well as on each of the three variables separately.

Implications

The practical implications of this study suggest to the counselor practitioner that an appropriate display of diplomas, certificates and license may act to enhance the interpersonal influence relationship with clients. While these evidenciary cues of professional training may infer a title, such as "doctor", the title of "doctor" alone does not seem to be a necessary component in the client's perception of the counselor as being more expert, attractive or trustworthy. The implications drawn from the data surrounding the effects of counselor and subject gender would suggest to the counselor practitioner the need to address potential issues brought into the counseling relationship regarding gender issues. The counselor should

be aware of the potential advantages and dangers which might arise from clients making professional attributes about the counselor based, at least partially, on the counselor' gender.

Limitations

The generalizability of these findings is limited in several ways. First, this study utilized a videotape format, which may or may no generalize to a real therapeutic situation. Second, subjects were asked to make attributions immediately after viewing a rather short segment of a counseling session. These attributions were made based on a very short exposure to the counselor in question. Third, the counselors appearing in the videotaped counseling vignettes were not professional counselors and as such may have been limited in their ability to convey to the subjects a feel for a genuine therapeutic encounter. Finally, the subject pool was college students, and as a result, the findings are only generalizable to that group.

Recommendations for Further Research

As with any analogue study, generalizability to clinical research and practice is not always guaranteed. The results and conclusions must be viewed as tentative and further research is needed. First, further research needs

to be done in the area of the social influence variable. Specifically, to date there has been no research to establish the effective parameters of the effect of objective evidence of training on the counseling relationship. In the current study the objective evidence of training was limited to two items (one diploma and one license). Previous research has often not specified the number of items of objective evidence of training necessary to significantly alter subjects' ratings of interpersonal influence variables. The question remains to be asked, at what level does the display of object evidence of training become excessive and begins to become deleterious to the counseling relationship?

Further, specification is needed for the connection between counselor title and the interpersonal influence process and expectations. The current study's failure to find counselor title to influence either the interpersonal influence process or counseling expectations indicates that more needs to be known about the connection between prestigious introduction, counselor title and the counseling relationship. Perhaps subjects have a generalized perception of what a "counselor" is, and the title is not important in this conceptualization.

Finally, the significant findings surrounding counselor and subject gender and their impact on the interpersonal influence process and expectations of

counseling suggests the need for research into the extent gender influences the counseling relationship as well as treatment process and outcome.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Researcher: Daniel Stockley

Dissertation Director: Mark Johnson, Ph.D.

You are being asked to be part of a study examining characteristics of effective counselors. In participating in this study you will be asked to provide limited and brief demographic information about yourself, then watch a short videotaped segment of a counseling session and finally to complete two questionnaires about the counselor in the videotape. Your participation in this study should not exceed 10 minutes.

Your participation is strictly voluntary and you may withdraw your involvement with this study at any time for any reason whatsoever.

All information will be gathered in conformance with APA guidelines for human subjects participation. Your responses will be completely anonymous; no attempt will be made to attach your name to your responses. The results of this study will only be reported as group data, not individual responses.

Thank you for your cooperation, time, 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.

_____ (signed) _____ (witness)

_____ (date) _____ (date)

_____ Check here if you want feedback regarding the results of the 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

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

Please provide the following demographic information by checking the appropriate blanks.

1. Sex _____Male
   _____Female

2. Age _____

3. Year in college:
   _____ Freshman
   _____ Sophomore
   _____ Junior
   _____ Senior
   _____ Graduate Student

4. Ethnicity:
   _____ Asian American
   _____ Black
   _____ Caucasian
   _____ Hispanic
   _____ Native American
   _____ Other: _____

5. Have you ever received professional counseling?
   _____ Yes, if yes, answer #6
   _____ No

6. Prior Counseling Experience: Check if you have received

	Approximate number of sessions:
_____ Personal counseling	_____
_____ Career counseling	_____
_____ Family counseling	_____
_____ Marital counseling	_____
_____ Substance abuse counseling	_____
_____ Academic Counseling	_____

APPENDIX C

COUNSELOR RATING FORM-SHORT

The purpose of this inventory is to measure your perceptions of the counselor by having you react to a number of concepts related to counseling. In completing this inventory, please make your judgments on the basis of what the concept means to you. For example, "EXPERT" may mean different things to different people, but we want you to rate the counselor based on what "EXPERTNESS" in counseling means to you.

Below you will find 12 concepts and beneath each concept a scale on which to record your reaction to the counselor on the videotape. Mark an "X" where you would rate the counselor on each of the 12 concepts.

FRIENDLY

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

EXPERT

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

HONEST

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

LIKEABLE

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

EXPERIENCED

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

RELIABLE

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

SOCIABLE

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

PREPARED

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

SINCERE

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

WARM

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

SKILLFUL

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

TRUSTWORTHY

very_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____:_____not very

APPENDIX D

COUNSELING EXPECTATION INVENTORY

Please use the level of importance scale provided below to decide the importance that you would give to each desired outcome if you were the client on the tape. Circle the number that represents your choice. For example, if you felt that a particular outcome was neither important or unimportant you would circle number 4.

I would want the counselor to help me to...	EXTREMELY UNIMPORTANT	MODERATELY UNIMPORTANT	SLIGHTLY UNIMPORTANT	NEITHER IMPORTANT OR UNIMPORTANT	SLIGHTLY IMPORTANT	MODERATELY IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT
1. Become more self acceptant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2. Trust myself more	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3. Understand myself more	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4. Be able to accept uncertainty in life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5. Become more independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6. Relate better to others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7. Be able to take risks	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8. Gain a better prespective on life	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
9. Reduce my depency on others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Develop more tolerance for others	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Get rid of disturbing behavior	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. Reduce symptoms	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. Understand obstacles to further growth	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Change my personality	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

DO NOT TURN TO THE NEXT PAGE UNTIL YOU HAVE ANSWERED ALL PREVIOUS QUESTIONS

For each item, circle the percentage that you believe accurately reflects the probability that this counselor will help the client achieve the desired outcome. As you answer, put yourself in the place of the client and respond as if this counseling session had actually involved you.

For example, if you felt on a given item that there was a 50% probability, you would circle the "50%".

If I were this client working with this counselor I believe this counselor would help me to...

	VERY UNLIKELY								VERY LIKELY
1. Become more self acceptant	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
2. Trust myself more	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
3. Understand myself more	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
4. Be able to accept uncertainty in life	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
5. Become more independent	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
6. Relate better to others	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
7. Be able to take risks	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
8. Gain a better perspective on life	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
9. Reduce my dependency on others	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
10. Develop more tolerance for others	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
11. Get rid of disturbing behaviors	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
12. Reduce symptoms	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
13. Understand obstacles to further growth	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%
14 Change my personality	10%	20%	30%	40%	50%	60%	70%	80%	90%

APPENDIX E

ATTRACTIVENESS SCALE

Thank you for your participation in this research study.

You will be shown eight (8) cards. Four (4) cards will contain photographs of women and four (4) cards will contain photographs of men.

Rate each person pictured for attractiveness on a scale of 1 to 7 (1 being "not attractive" and 7 being "very attractive"). The cards will be given to you in a random order, as such, it will be necessary to record the symbol coinciding with each card.

SYMBOL	not attractive			moderately attractive			very attractive
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____
	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____	_____

APPENDIX F

VIGNETTE SCRIPT

Client: I guess the thing that concerns me is that I get this way every two or three years.

Couns: I'm not sure I understand what you're saying.

Client: Well, I just get this way. It's kind of like I get bored. I start dreading going into work. I start calling in sick. I just..... It's like I can't be happy at a job for longer than two years. It kinda scares me. At 35 years of age you would think... well, you would think it was about time that I grew up. What do you think?

Couns: About...

Client: About not being satisfied with a job for longer than a couple of years. Don't you think it's a little immature or something?

Couns: You feel like you should be satisfied with a job for a longer period of time.

Client: Obviously.... Most people..... Well, a lot of people I know..... Okay, my father worked for the same bank for....God, I think it was like thirty years.

Couns: He was satisfied with one job for thirty years so how does that translate to your life? What are you struggling with?

Client: Well don't you think..... alright, I just feel this pressure to settle down and um...(pause, client sighs). My father worked his whole life at the bank... (pause)...but you know, I always had this feeling that he wasn't very happy. But he never said anything. He just went to work everyday, he'd come home for supper.... It was like he wasn't really fired up about his job....he didn't like his job, but he did it. And I think I should be willing to do the same thing.

Couns: Work, retire, and die.

Client: (pause)

Couns: You should be willing to work, retire and die, just like your father did.

Client: No, it's not.....Yeah.....Yeah, that's kinda what it sounds like..... Doesn't it? It's like I feel as though whatever job I'm at better be the job.

Couns: How are things going at work now?

Client: Well, people are starting to bug me. I get... I'm getting impatient with the other guys at the office. And the way it shows.....well, like other jobs I've had, I just lose interest, it gets boring and I end up losing my job, unless I quit first, which is what I want to do now.

Couns: Jim, if you were to quit your job now, would you be letting people down?

Client: Yes!

Couns: Who? Who would <u>you</u> be letting down if <u>you</u> quit <u>your</u> job?

APPENDIX G

COUNSELOR EVALUATION RATING SCALE

Thank you for your participation in this research.

After you have viewed a brief video-taped segment of a counseling session, please complete the following evaluation.

Below are listed some statements pertaining to the counselor. Please consider each statement with reference to the counseling session you have just seen.

Mark each statement in the left hand blank according to how strongly you agree or disagree. Do not mark in parentheses. Please mark each statement. Write in +3, +2, +1, or -1, -2, -3, to represent the following:

+3	I strongly agree	-1	I slightly disagree
+2	I agree	-2	I disagree
+1	I slightly agree	-3	I strongly disagree

____ 1. Demonstrates an interest in client's problems.

____ 2. Tends to approach clients in a mechanical perfunctory manner.

____ 3. Tends to talk more than client during counseling.

____ 4. Is sensitive to dynamics of self in counseling relationships.

____ 5. Is genuinely relaxed and comfortable in counseling session.

____ 6. Is aware of both content and feeling in counseling session.

____ 7. Tends to be rigid in counseling behavior.

____ 8. Lectures and moralizes in counseling.

____ 9. Can be spontaneous in counseling, yet behavior is relevant.

____ 10. Lacks self-confidence in establishing counseling relationship.

____ 11. Can express thoughts and feelings clearly in counseling.

____ 12. Verbal behavior in counseling is appropriately flexible and varied, according to the situation.

____ 13. Applies a consistent rationale of human behavior counseling.

APPENDIX H

STANDARDIZED INSTRUCTIONS

Thank you for your participation in this research. A researcher has invested a great deal of time to prepare this project, however, the success of this project depends upon the donation of your time and energy. It is anticipated that we will not take more than ten minutes of your time.

You have before you an Informed Consent Form which must be read and signed in order to insure the protection of your rights and also to comply with guidelines established by the American Psychological Association. After you have signed the Informed Consent Form please fill out the Demographic Information Form.

You will now be watching a brief videotape of a counseling session. After viewing the videotape please complete the questionnaires you have received.

> (At this time the research assistants will show the videotape and then allow time for subjects to complete the CRF-S and the CEI. After collecting the two instruments the research assistants will proved the subjects with a sheet containing questions assessing the effectiveness of the manipulation of title and objective evidence of training in the videotapes.)

There are two more questions that need to be answered in this study. Please fill out this sheet, and thank you again for your participation.

APPENDIX I

QUESTIONS ASSESSING EFFECTIVE MANIPULATION OF VARIABLES

1. Circle the title that best fits the counselor you just viewed in the videotape:

   Ms.

   Mr.

   Dr.

   Do not remember.

2. What was on the wall directly behind the counselor in the videotaped counseling session?

   A picture.

   A diploma.

   Nothing.

   Do not remember.

VITA

Daniel Mark Stockley

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Thesis: THE EFFECTS OF EVIDENCE OF TRAINING, TITLE AND GENDER ON SUBJECT EXPECTATION AND PERCEPTION OF COUNSELOR EXPERTNESS, ATTRACTIVENESS AND TRUSTWORTHINESS

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Personal Data: Born in Elmhurst, Illinois, January 21, 1957, the son of Robert and Rovena Stockley.

Education: Graduated from Wheaton Central High School, Wheaton, Illinois, in May, 1975; received Bachelor of Arts degree in Social Work from Oral Roberts University, Tulsa, Oklahoma, in May, 1979; received Master of Science degree in Counseling Psychology from Northeastern State University, Tahlequah, Oklahoma, in May 1986; completed requirements for Doctor of Philosophy degree at Oklahoma State University in July, 1989.

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