

COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT AND ITS RELATIONSHIP
TO EXPECTATIONS AND PREFERENCES FOR COUNSELLING:
A TEST OF TWO MODELS

by

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M.A., Dalhousie University, 1966

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Dear David,

Thanks for your February 18 letter about your dissertation. Congratulations on completion and having your oral exam scheduled for next month!

You have my permission to include the MER in the appendix of your dissertation assuming you include the entire instrument, including the cover page that contains the copyright information. I would be delighted to have a copy of your dissertation. Disk would be the easiest and least expensive method I believe. I do not require hard copies of the raw data or MER protocols. I am simply interested in your analysis and findings. I use Microsoft Word 5.1 but can also translate IBM formats.

Again, congratulations and best wishes for a successful oral exam! Thanks for updating me on your progress. I will look forward to receiving your text on disk.

Sincerely,

Marcia B. Baxter Magolda, Ph.D.
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February 24, 1996

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Good luck in your future research and a new career. And give my regards to Vancouver, my favorite city in North America.

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**Cognitive Development and Its Relationship to Expectations and
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ABSTRACT

It has been suggested by counselling theorists and practitioners that counselling process and outcome will be enhanced by a close matching of counsellor and client on certain variables. One client variable of recent interest has been developmental level. The present study takes the position that certain adult developmental models may be especially relevant in predicting expectations and preferences for counselling, and thus serve as a guide to counselling practice. Two models, the Perry Scheme of intellectual development, and the Conceptual Systems Theory of social-cognitive development, were examined. Previous research on the two models, on general client/counsellor matching, and on counselling expectations was reviewed. The relationship between developmental level as conceptualized by the two models, and expectations and preferences for counselling was examined.

In Phase One of the study, 189 post-secondary students were administered two developmental measures: the *Measure of Epistemological Reflection (MER)*, which is based on the Perry Scheme, and the *This I Believe Test (TIB)*, derived from Conceptual Systems Theory. Expectations about, and preferences for, counselling were recorded on the *Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B)*. In Phase Two, students viewed a videotape which showed examples of two counselling approaches (Person Centred and Rational Emotive Therapy) which differed in structure and directiveness, and gave preference and helpfulness ratings for each approach. In Phase Three, students viewed selected counsellor responses from the videotape, and were asked to identify and give a helpfulness rating for each counsellor response.

A significant correlation was found between intellectual and social-cognitive development. Multivariate analyses of covariance (with age,

education, and gender as covariates) were employed to test the relationship between developmental level and pre- and post-videotape ratings. It was found that precounselling expectations were not related to level of intellectual development, while stage of social-cognitive development was a predictor of a number of precounselling expectations. In terms of precounselling preferences, those students at lower levels of both intellectual and social-cognitive development had a stronger preference for counsellor directiveness and expertise. After viewing the videotape, those at Stage One of social-cognitive development showed a greater preference for the directive approach. Intellectual development was related to accuracy of identification of selected counsellor responses, as well as to helpfulness ratings for counsellor self-disclosure.

Methodological limitations of the present study were noted, and suggestions for future research were made. The relationship between intellectual and social-cognitive development was discussed at some length. It was concluded that it is especially important to make a distinction between counselling expectations and preferences, and that the Perry Scheme is less useful than Conceptual Systems Theory in predicting counselling-related behaviors.

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I began this study as a media novice, and so am particularly grateful to Linda Hof, of the Centre for Educational Technology, who gave me invaluable assistance in filming and editing the videotaped counselling sessions. Thanks also to Charlaine, Tina, and Steve for their great acting job!

Not to be overlooked are the many students who gave their time and cooperation to participate in my study.

Finally, my continuing debt to my wife Barbara who gave up a complete weekend to assist me in the grueling task of data entry, and who, throughout an almost eight-year period showed amazing patience and understanding. Without her, none of this would have been possible.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The counselling relationship is a complex and unusual one in that two strangers come together to share often intimate details of the life of one of the individuals. The client may have specific concerns and a more or less accurate conception about what will occur in the relationship; the counsellor will have a degree of experience and expertise and a more or less accurate conception of appropriate treatment strategies. The counsellor and the client will also bring to the counselling situation differing backgrounds, experiences, and personalities.

Much research has focused on the effect of these client and counsellor variables on counselling process and outcome (Garfield & Bergin, 1986). Some authors have suggested that the more closely matched the counsellor and the client are on certain variables, the more facilitative the conditions will be, the less the likelihood of premature termination, and the more beneficial the outcome of the treatment (for example, Carr & Posthuma, 1975; Goldstein, 1962). Others (Berzins, 1977) have been less sanguine about the evidence for the benefits of matching.

Ivey (1986), and Ivey and Goncalves (1988) propose another kind of matching. They suggest that it may be time to move forward from the focus on disparate, surface variables to a consideration of underlying processes. More specifically, they state that "counsellors need to begin with client constructions of real events rather than their own theories of counselling" and "it is possible to identify cognitive-developmental levels in the processes that clients use to construct their knowledge and ways of being in the world" (p. 407). Ivey and Goncalves use Piagetian developmental theory as a point of

departure for viewing the client in the counselling relationship. Just as children move through stages (sensori-motor, concrete operational, formal operational) in their thought structures and their way of construing reality, clients may be seen as going through a similar progression: " a key assumption in the developmental therapy position is that adolescents and adults repeat analogues of these early forms of cognition throughout life" (p. 407). The authors describe characteristics of clients at each of the three Piagetian stages, and add a fourth stage (dialectical thinking). They suggest that counsellors are likely to be more effective if they can "shift" their counselling style to employ therapeutic approaches which are appropriate to each developmental stage. Thus, for Ivey and Goncalves it is especially important that the counsellor consider the client's developmental level in planning treatment strategies. Much of the theoretical background for their position is provided in Ivey (1986). In general, Ivey and Goncalves (1988) present a model which is both logically and intuitively appealing.

Although the focus here has been on the work of Ivey and his colleagues, it should be mentioned that a number of other writers have suggested that therapeutic intervention should be guided by knowledge of a client's developmental level. Leva (1984) describes how the therapist can use Piagetian principles in helping the client gain and apply knowledge to bring about developmental (therapeutic) change. Weinstein and Alschuler (1985) state that cognitive structures can be inferred from "systematic differences" in clients' "self knowledge." They posit four stages of self knowledge: elemental, situational, pattern, and transformational (which correspond closely to the Piagetian and dialectic stages used in Ivey's work). A client's stage, and appropriate intervention, can be inferred from the client's verbal

description of their experience. Finally, Howard, Nance, and Myers (1986) also present a model (which is discussed in more detail in Chapter 2) for matching therapist approach to the general developmental needs of the client.¹

Ivey, however, has given the most complete description of what he calls Developmental Counseling and Therapy (DCT), and has written more extensively on methods for integrating theory and practice.

Ivey and Goncalves' conclusion in 1988 was that no empirical studies had yet been done to validate this model. In a later work (1991), Ivey still presented little empirical evidence, but he did cite unpublished research by himself and his colleagues, showing that after a small amount of client verbalization in an interview, a counsellor is able to determine a client's developmental level. Ivey (1991) also offers much detail about approaches to use for each developmental level. In this later work more emphasis is given to the counselling needs of clients at the stage of dialectical thinking, but Ivey seems to have been unaware of, or neglected a considerable body of relevant research concerned with this later stage of development. This research is described in Chapter 2.

In the present study, my intention was to investigate Ivey's general claim that knowledge of a client's developmental level can inform clinical practice. Ivey and his colleagues have argued persuasively concerning the relevance of the Piagetian model for developmental counselling and therapy. However, my position is that there are other developmental models which may

¹Carlsen (1988) also takes a developmental approach to therapy. However, her approach places less emphasis on matching therapeutic approach with client developmental level; rather, the therapist's understanding of developmental theory is seen as an aid to understanding the client. For her, one of the goals of psychotherapy is also "the stimulation and encouragement of *dialectical thinking patterns*." (Her italics, p. 69), but the influence of Piaget is only indirect through Kegan (1982). Her major influences are Basseches (1984), Erikson (1964), and Kegan (1982).

be more appropriate and relevant for working with adult clients who are dealing with complex, ill-defined problems. Further, as will be seen, there is evidence to suggest that the appropriate point at which to begin the investigation is prior to the counselling intervention, at the level of client expectations about counselling. My position is similar to that presented by Kelly (1955): " From the client's conceptualization of psychotherapy comes the role he expects to play, and the role he expects the therapist to play. His behavior as a patient should be seen in this light" (p. 575).

The present study then, was designed to extend and refine knowledge about the relationship between adult cognitive development and expectations and perceptions of counselling. Within this context, two models of cognitive development -- the Perry Scheme (Perry, 1970) and Conceptual Systems Theory (Harvey, Hunt, & Schroeder, 1961) -- were tested.

The Perry Scheme is concerned with the changes in intellectual development which occur in post-secondary students. For Perry, exposure to post-secondary education and the complex and often conflicting viewpoints found in this environment, serve as catalytic agents that bring about changes in students' "ways of knowing". Thus, Perry's Scheme is concerned with developmental change within an (admittedly relatively small subset of) adult population. As will be seen in Chapter 2, Perry has incorporated certain Piagetian concepts into his Scheme. There is however, evidence of differences between the Piagetian and Perry models. For instance, B. Perry, Donovan, Kelsey, Patterson, Statkiewicz, and Allen (1986) found a correlation of .35 between Perry ratings and Piagetian scores, and concluded that "the two developmental measures may not be addressing similar areas" (p. 74), and that

"the independence of development . . . suggests that development in either theory does not proceed nor depend on development in the other" (p. 80).

Although the Perry Scheme is concerned primarily with intellectual development in an academic setting, there has been speculation (Moore, 1990), but little empirical evidence, of the relevance of the Perry Scheme to counselling practice. If such a relationship could be demonstrated, this finding would be of considerable interest to post-secondary student personnel workers and counsellors.

Conceptual Systems Theory (CST); (Harvey, Hunt, & Schroeder, 1961) was developed from an integration of a broad range of evidence from many areas of psychology. The theory is more global in scope than the Perry scheme, and is concerned with developmental changes from childhood to adulthood. Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder contend that it is important to understand variations in the structure and functioning of individuals' conceptual systems in order to understand differences in interpersonal behavior. Structure has to do with how information from the outer world is processed; in other words, how a person thinks is as important as what a person thinks.

According to CST, the major structural dimension on which individuals differ is that of concreteness-abstractness. Change from concrete to abstract thinking is determined by the individual's interaction with various aspects of his/her social environment. As with the Perry Scheme, a major assumption of CST is that conceptual conflict (exposure to discrepant information about a familiar concept) is a prerequisite for conceptual development. Development is also said to occur along a dependence-independence dimension. CST is primarily concerned with social-cognitive development which is manifest in interpersonal functioning. There is a body of research concerning the

relevance of CST to counselling practice, and a fuller description of this research, and the theory itself, is given in Chapter 2. One intention of the present study was to add to the existing knowledge about CST and counselling.

Research Questions

The present study addressed the following questions:

- (1) Is there a significant relation between level of cognitive development as measured by the Perry Scheme and Conceptual Systems Theory?
- (2) Do the two models of development predict similar or different patterns of precounselling expectations and preferences?
- (3) Is there a difference between expressed precounselling expectations and precounselling preferences, and if so, is this difference mediated by level of cognitive development?
- (4) Will preferences for different therapeutic approaches be related to level of cognitive development?
- (5) Is the accuracy of perception of counsellor behaviour related to level of cognitive development?
- (6) Are the same counsellor behaviours perceived as being differentially helpful by individuals at different points on the developmental spectrum?

In the next section, I present a review of the literature on the two models of cognitive development, counselling-related research in this area, and the literature on client expectations about counselling.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Adult Cognitive Development: Two Models

Since Piaget's original work on the cognitive development of children and adolescents, a number of theorists have extended this work to investigate the intellectual and cognitive development of adults. Arlin (1975), Commons, Richards, and Armon (1984), Riegel (1973), and others have suggested that there may be a level of development beyond formal operations (variously termed postformal thought, relativistic or dialectical thinking), and that whereas Piaget's work was concerned with problems of a hypothetico-deductive nature, thinking at the relativistic or dialectical level may be more suited to dealing with "ill-structured problems" (Frederiksen, 1984, p.366) which occur in daily life and interpersonal situations. Among those whose work has generated considerable research in adult intellectual and social-cognitive development are Perry (1970) and Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder (1961).

The Perry Scheme

William Perry began his work at Harvard in the late 1950s. Through a series of year-end interviews with Harvard undergraduates, he was able to chart the development of students' thinking and assumptions about reality, knowledge, and values. He identified nine "positions" in the growth of "conceptual hierarchies" and four major orientations in thought which characterize how students make sense of their environment. In Dualism, knowledge is perceived in absolute, black-and-white terms, and is seen as

external to the knower and held by authorities. By the stage of Multiplicity, there is some acknowledgement of a diversity of viewpoints, although it is still assumed that uncertainty about the right viewpoint is temporary. With Relativistic thought comes the awareness that rational criteria exist for the evaluation of knowledge, and that all assumptions, including one's own, can be examined and compared using these criteria. At the stage of Commitment, students have gained a sense of agency and control which prepares them to make reasoned decisions and commitments about choices, events, and relationships in their own lives. As with all cognitive developmental theories, there is a progression in thinking from the concrete to the abstract, from the tendency to perceive stimuli in relatively undifferentiated, categorical ways to the ability to integrate diverse and sometimes opposing elements into one's thinking. There is also a tendency to increasing independence and a sense of self-agency.

According to Perry, transition from one position to the next is brought about when the individual is exposed to diverse viewpoints and the discrepant information cannot be incorporated into his/her existing cognitive structure. Thus, to explain transitions, Perry essentially uses the Piagetian concepts of assimilation and accommodation. If faced with too much discrepancy without an accompanying support from the environment, an individual may be arrested at a certain position or temporarily regress to lower levels of functioning.

Assessment of the Perry Scheme.

In Perry's work, theory developed from his observations and interviews, and although his work is rich in the kind of detail not usually found in most empirical research, the assessment of developmental level using

the Perry method can be very time-consuming. In an attempt to provide more economical and less time-consuming measures, a number of researchers have developed other instruments. Some of these include the KneWi (Knefelkamp, 1975; Widick, 1975), the Reflective Judgement Interview (King, 1977; Kitchener, 1977), Dimensions of Epistemological Thought (Benack, 1982), the Scale of Intellectual Development (Erwin, 1983), the Measure of Epistemological Reflection (Taylor, 1983), the Measure of Intellectual Development (Moore, 1988), and the Learning Environment Preferences scale (Moore, 1989). (See Jones, 1990, for a review of these instruments).² Almost all of these instruments have restricted assessment to the first five positions of the Perry Scheme, as there has been general consensus that these positions are more concerned with epistemological issues and are more empirically demonstrable.

The above instruments have measured development with varying degrees of success and may be classified as either production or recognition instruments. In the former, data are generated by the respondent (usually in an interview or essay task), whereas the latter elicit an individual's responses through answers to multiple choices or Likert ratings of specific items. Production instruments are acknowledged to provide a more accurate estimate of level of cognitive development, and to reflect more adequately the complexity of an individual's thinking. The Measure of Epistemological Reflection (Taylor, 1983 [now Baxter Magolda]) seems to be one of the most carefully researched instruments, and one which has retained a production format while achieving some degree of standardization of scoring (Baxter

²Buczinski (1993) has also developed an instrument to assess the developmental changes studied by Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule (1986). Belenky et. al.'s work was itself based partially on Perry's scheme, but focused exclusively on women's development.

Magolda, 1987a, 1987b; Baxter Magolda & Porterfield, 1985, 1988). For these reasons, it was the instrument of choice in the present study. It will be described more fully in the Methods section of this proposal.

Research on the Perry Scheme

Much of the research based on Perry's work has been concerned with charting the changes in intellectual development associated with differences in educational level. In an unpublished meta-analysis by Jones (1989), 33 of the 57 studies located were concerned with longitudinal or cross sectional studies of cognitive development as a function of educational level. I found that studies comparing the differences in cognitive development between freshmen and seniors yielded a mean effect size of .72. In the main, comment on this kind of research has focused on the kind of benefits to be derived from higher education. Although the effects of maturation have not been completely accounted for, there is some evidence that cognitive development is not just a function of age, and that the university environment fosters development in this area.

Some studies have examined the efficacy of specific interventions in fostering cognitive development. Several have demonstrated that programs which are well designed and based on developmental principles can be successful in promoting significant growth (Stephenson & Hunt, 1977; Stonewater & Daniels, 1983; Touchton, Wertheimer, Cornfield, & Harrison, 1977). Successful programs, whether in a regular classroom or in a career planning course, involved the measured introduction of diverse points of view, provision of the proper degree of "support and challenge" (Sanford, 1962), and meeting the needs for structure of students at each developmental

level. All of the above studies operated on the assumption that, initially, dualistic students need a higher degree of structure.

Other studies using the Perry Scheme have focused on individual differences in perceptions, attitudes, or performance as a function of level of cognitive development. In these studies, then, level of development became the independent variable. Among the findings of these studies was evidence that Dualists showed more of a need for "clarity and specificity in completing classroom tasks," and for order and organization in the classroom (Hadley & Graham, 1987). It was also found that Dualists interacted less effectively on DISCOVER, a computerized career decision-making system, took a less active role in working with the system, and expected the computer to provide them with answers more frequently than did students at Multiplistic or Relativistic levels (Rosselle & Hummel, 1988).

Of most relevance to the present proposal, and one of the few programs of research using the Perry Scheme in a counselling context, is a series of studies by Benack (1988). She hypothesized that, according to theory, Relativists would be more adept at taking the perspective of others, and would thus display more empathy in simulated counselling interviews. She found that among students in a graduate counselling course, Relativists showed less directiveness and more accurate empathy in an audiotaped, role-played counselling session. In a related study, with undergraduates without formal counselling training, she found that 83% of the participants gave predominantly directive responses and that 79% "never expressed empathic understanding" in a hypothetical counselling situation. Benack concluded that "most of these students believe that helping people means actively attempting

to solve their problems" (p. 229). However, of the few participants who did give spontaneous, nondirective responses, most were relativistic thinkers.

Although there has been a relatively small number of studies where level of cognitive development has served as the independent variable, Perry's scheme has had considerable influence in post-secondary student theory. The Perry Network Cumulative Bibliography (Moore, 1990) lists 497 references which include published studies, dissertations, unpublished papers, and conference addresses. In addition to longitudinal and cross-sectional studies, many of these references offer suggestions about appropriate classroom instructional approaches in various disciplines for students at different positions on the Perry Scheme. Those papers which relate to counselling are mainly in the areas of advising and career counselling (Baxter Magolda & Porterfield, 1988; Gordon, 1981; Kitchener, 1982; Schmidt & Davidson, 1983; and Welfel, 1982), and speak in a general way of the expectations and needs of students at different developmental levels.

There have been theoretical papers suggesting how counsellors and counsellor trainees might use the Perry Scheme to understand their own responses to the diversity of counselling theories and approaches (Brabeck & Welfel, 1985; Cooper & Lewis, 1985). Surprisingly, however, there are no empirical studies which explore a match of therapeutic approach with client's developmental position.³ The absence of such studies might be attributed to the

³There is another body of work that also is concerned with epistemological orientation. Wilkinson (1989) compared Perry's work with that of Royce (Royce, 1964; Royce & Powell, 1983). While acknowledging the differences between the two models (Perry's model speaks to the definition of knowledge and is developmental; Royce's model pertains to the acquisition of knowledge and sees orientations as being relatively stable preferences), Wilkinson suggests the two models may be interrelated. Two studies which are based on Royce's work (Lyddon, 1989; and Neimeyer, Prichard, Lyddon & Sherrard, 1993) suggest a relationship between epistemological orientation and counselling preferences.

relative newness of the Perry Scheme. However, it seems more likely that there are at least two reasons for the reluctance to extend the Perry Scheme into the interpersonal realm: (1) the scheme is concerned with epistemological aspects of cognitive development; and (2) following from (1), most of the assessment instruments ask subjects to respond to items concerned with academic matters or abstract, impersonal knowledge.

And yet, in response to (1), the Perry Scheme is also concerned with attitudes towards authority, decision-making strategies, and the development of self-agency. These are all issues which are most germane to the kinds of concerns dealt with daily in interpersonal situations and in counselling sessions. The intervention studies cited above also speak of the necessity of personal support, and instructor-controlled structure in fostering development.

As far as (2) above is concerned, a study by McCarthy, Shaw, and Schmeck (1986) may be instructive here: They found that individuals who were classified as deep-elaborative or shallow-reiterative learners on Schmeck's (1983) Inventory of Learning Processes, displayed verbal behaviour which mirrored their learning style when they were in a counselling interview. Specifically, "deep-elaborative processors spent more time exploring the meanings of [details pertinent to their problems] rather than simply listing them. . . they were more conclusion oriented, attempting to formulate hypotheses about the underlying dynamics or causes of their problems" and " their verbalizations were more personalized" (p. 253). Of most pertinence to this proposal is the fact that the Inventory of Learning Processes is an instrument originally developed to assess an individual's strategies for dealing with academic material, but which appears to have

relevance for making inferences about an individual's information processing in a counselling interview. It seems possible that the Perry Scheme might have a similar relevance. In fact, Schmeck (1988) even suggested a link between shallow processing and Perry's dualistic position, such that "the shallow learner would define learning in a 'dualistic' fashion. In a reciprocal fashion, it should be noted that Perry (1981) has also speculated on the possible developmental aspects of what have generally been thought of as stable learning styles. (For a description of the development and validation of the Inventory of Learning Processes, and work linking learning processes to personality characteristics, see Schmeck, 1983 and 1988).

In 1977, Widick asked:

What is the range of the Perry scheme? What are its limits? Does the scheme outlined by Perry describe all personality functioning or is it restricted to certain 'content' areas or vectors? . . . Is an individual who is dualistic in his/her view of knowledge also dualistic in his/her way of viewing interpersonal relations, religion or career issues? (p. 37)

Widick's questions have not yet been answered. It was one of the purposes of the present study to provide at least a partial test of the Perry scheme, and in so doing, determine if knowledge of a client's "Perry position" might better inform counselling practice.

Conceptual Systems Theory

In his 1970 book, Perry commented on the similarities between his work and that done on Conceptual Systems Theory.

In respect to the first half of our scheme, I wish to refer briefly to parallels in the work of Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder (1961), and especially Hunt (in Harvey, 1966). . . A major significance of the parallels derives

from the fact that we were ignorant of their publications until after our own formulations were complete in 1960. . . The several schematic parallels, while in no case precise, are striking. (p. 205).

As may be seen from Figure 1, there are similarities between the stages and positions of the two theories. However, unlike Perry's work, the main focus of Harvey et al.'s theory is on social-cognitive development, and it specifically speaks to the interpersonal domain. Only two studies have been located (both doctoral dissertations) which have examined the relationship between the Perry scheme and Conceptual Systems Theory (CST). Widick (1976) found a correlation of .51 between scores on the Perry scheme and conceptual level. Position on the Perry scheme was determined by responses on the KneWi, an instrument which combines essays and sentence completion items. Conceptual Level was assessed by the Paragraph Completion Method (Hunt, Butler, Noy, & Rosser, 1978). Widick suggested that "while a definite relationship exists, the Perry and conceptual level categories are not mutually exclusive," and that "inconsistencies [between the two] may be due to imprecise measurement," or "it is possible that they indicate different patterns of cognitive development" (pp. 119 and 120). Wester (1985) also compared the Perry scheme, and Conceptual Level, but although raw scores were presented in her dissertation, no correlations were reported.

THE PERRY SCHEME CONCEPTUAL SYSTEMS THEORY

Dualism: Division of meaning into two realms--Good vs. Bad, Right vs. Wrong, We vs. They. All that is not success is failure and the like. Right answers exist somewhere for every problem, and authorities know them. Right answers are to be memorized by hard work. Knowledge is quantitative. Agency is expressed as "out there" in authority, test scores, the right job.

Multiplicity: Diversity of opinion and values is recognized as legitimate in areas where right answers are not yet known. Opinions remain atomistic without pattern or system. No judgements can be made among them so 'everyone has a right to his own opinion', 'none can be called wrong'.

Relativism: Diversity of opinions, values and judgements derived from coherent sources, evidence, logics, systems and patterns, allowing for analysis and comparison. Some opinions may be found worthless, while there will remain matters about which reasonable people will reasonably disagree. Knowledge is qualitative, dependent on contexts.

Commitment: An affirmation, choice or decision (career, values, politics, personal relationship) made in awareness of Relativism (distinct from lower case 'c' of commitments never questioned). Agency is experienced within the individual. (Perry, 1981, p. 79-80)

Stage I (Unilateral Dependence)
Characterized by external control, seeking external criteria for evaluating behaviour. Lack of differentiation between a rule and its purpose. Acceptance of externally derived concepts and the absolutistic nature of concepts. Answers accepted as absolutes. Thinking more concrete. Behaviour characterized by immediacy, greater sensitivity to limits, to what is right and wrong, tolerated and not tolerated.

Stage II (Negative Independence):
Functioning is negatively related to external constraints. Initial budding of external control. Testing of the limits of absolute solutions and rules. Oppositional quality. Avoidance of dependence. More abstract concepts. Provides the basis for the development of mutuality, dependence and later interdependence.

Stage III (Conditional Dependence and Mutuality): Learning about one's relationship to the environment in a more objective way. Taking a more empirical approach. Holding alternative views of self, of events and of others simultaneously with a minimum concern for ambiguity. Seeing the locus of causality residing primarily in his own behaviour. Mutuality . . . and empathy replace unilateral functioning.

Stage IV (Interdependence): Positive interdependence . Integration of mutuality and autonomy. Increasing reliance on internal causation. Greater self-awareness. Abstract standards developed through exploration of alternative solutions against a variety of criteria. (Harvey, Hunt and Schroder, 1961. pp.94-108)

Figure 2.1. A comparison of stages on the Perry Scheme and Conceptual Systems Theory

It is evident from Figure 1 that the levels on the two models do not coincide exactly, nor are the constructs exactly the same, so it is difficult to say wherein lies the common variance found by Widick (1976). It seems likely that the similarities probably exist at the extremes. In both models the first levels or positions are characterized by a lack of differentiation of concepts, categorical judgements, and a reliance on external authority. At the highest levels there is more of an ability to consider multiple viewpoints, to judge evidence more objectively, to think more abstractly, and to act autonomously. For both models, the dynamic aspects are in the transitions between levels. A major difference occurs at the second level. In Multiplicity, individuals may become aware that different viewpoints exist, and so begin to question the omniscience of authority, but opposition to authority is not stated as strongly as the "negative independence" of stage 2 of CST. Other similarities or differences will become evident through a more detailed description of Conceptual Systems Theory.

In their theory, Harvey et al. (1961) proposed a broad developmental-interactionist model of personality based on Lewin's (1935) formulation that behaviour is a function of the person and the environment ($B=f[pe]$). Central to their model is the assumption that, for the person, concepts are essential for understanding the world. Concept formation always involves a comparison between some internal referent or standard and an external referent. The comparisons initially are between extremes of some aspect of the environment, and are subsequently refined and differentiated.

For Harvey et al. then, conceptual development progresses from the less differentiated (the concrete) to the more differentiated (the abstract). Individuals at higher levels of abstraction are seen as being capable of

entertaining alternatives, of being able to integrate seemingly disparate elements of the environment and to deal with ambiguities. In contrast, concrete individuals are seen as being more likely to have single referents central to their conceptual functioning in any one area and to feel uncomfortable with ambiguity.

The other major dimension along which development is assumed to occur is that of dependence-independence. The progression here is from dependence on external, absolute criteria and authority, to a form of independence (actually termed interdependence) where a number of points of view can be considered, empirically evaluated, and employed in an autonomous assessment of the environment. This dimension adds an interpersonal element to the model.

Development is seen as passing through recognizable (but not necessarily discrete) stages, so that an individual's stage of development will determine how reality is interpreted, evaluated, and structured by that person. (See Figure 1 for a description of the stages.) Like most developmental theories, a central tenet of CST is that under optimal conditions, the natural course of development is to "higher" stages. The interactionist aspect of the theory comes into play with the consideration of the environmental conditions (referred to by Harvey et al. as "training conditions") which are optimal to foster conceptual development. The authors conceptualize these training conditions as occurring along a number of different dimensions (unilateral-interdependent, reliable-unreliable, protective-informational).

The foregoing is an extremely brief summary of a comprehensive theory of personality which incorporates both cognitive and interpersonal variables, which synthesizes much past research, and which in the 30 years

since its formulation has itself generated much theory-testing research. (See Miller, 1981 for a more extensive summary of the theory, and Miller [1978], and Miller and Wilson [1979] for a critical discussion of CST.)

Assessment and CST

As with measurement of the Perry scheme, instruments developed for the assessment of conceptual functioning have been of both the production and recognition variety. In his critical review of Conceptual Systems Theory, Miller (1978) reviewed four of the instruments then in existence. His general criticism of assessment instruments was that they had not moved beyond making "gross" distinctions in assigning people to the four "generic" systems. There seems to have been little change in assessment techniques since Miller's review.

The two production instruments both use a semi-projective sentence completion format: The Paragraph Test (Gardiner & Schroder, 1972; Schroder, Driver, & Streufert, 1967) employs six sentence stems (e.g., "When I am in doubt. . .) and is designed to be a " 'content-free' measure of integrative complexity, primarily in the general area of interpersonal affairs," and focuses on "areas of interpersonal conflict and uncertainty" (Gardiner & Schroder, 1972, p. 959). The This I Believe Test (Greaves, 1971; Harvey, 1967) places more emphasis in its stems and scoring on content ('This I believe about . . . followed by stimulus words such as 'the American way of life,' 'marriage,' 'friendship').

The objectively scored recognition instruments, the Interpersonal Topical Inventory (Tuckman, 1966) and the Conceptual Systems Test, (Bower & Anderson, 1970; Harvey & Hoffmeister, 1971) are both multiple-item, forced-choice instruments, the former being more structure-oriented and the latter

being more content-oriented. Both have been used far less in the published research than the more semi-projective instruments.

A third instrument, not reviewed by Miller is the Paragraph Completion Method (Hunt, Butler, Noy, & Rosser, 1978). This test, in its sentence stems (When I'm not sure. . .) and scoring criteria, is virtually identical to the Paragraph Completion Test. However, scoring of the Paragraph Completion Method results in placement of an individual at one of four stages.

Unfortunately, most of the studies in the counselling literature have placed little emphasis on stage allocation. Instead, individuals are placed in high or low CL groups based on a median split of scores on the PCM.

Both Miller (1978) and Miller and Stoppard (1985) have discussed a common distinction that is usually made between all of the above tests, that is, whether the tests measure and are scored on the basis of structure (the way individuals think) or content (the stimuli, usually interpersonal, to which beliefs or thinking is directed). Although the PCT and the PCM are usually considered "structural" tests, and the TIB has been criticized for mixing structure and content, Miller (1978) concluded that , in fact, scoring in all of the sentence completion measures uses both structure and content criteria. Miller saw the criticism of Harvey's TIB as being unwarranted, as Harvey's purpose in developing the test was to be able to classify based on "both the structural and functional characteristics outlined in the theory, rather than 'structural' inferences alone" (p.105). Stoppard and Miller (1985) pointed out that it is somewhat of an "embarrassment" to the theory that the two measures (the PCM and the TIB) "do not intercorrelate to a significant degree" (p. 48).

It should be mentioned that in almost all of the counselling-related research cited below, either the Paragraph Completion Test or the Paragraph

Completion Method was the instrument of choice. Of 35 studies mentioned, 28 used either the PCT or the PCM, five used one of the objective measures, and only two (Lutwak & Hennessy, 1982; and MacLachlan, 1977) used the TIB.

Research on CST

Although CST's main emphasis has been on social cognition or cognitive development in the interpersonal domain, the original authors felt that the dimension of concreteness-abstractness (at least) had general applications to other aspects of the environment:

Concreteness and abstractness are equally relevant to functioning directed towards problems or tasks and functioning directed towards politics, religion or other people. In all of these, progressive development can be described in directional terms, as proceeding from the concrete to the abstract. It should be noted, however, that there is a great need for more research to shed light on the concrete-abstract dimension. (p.110).

One of the original authors, David Hunt, has subsequently restricted his work to the concrete-abstract dimension (Conceptual Level or CL), and examined its implications for educational practice. A considerable body of work has been done relating CL to other variables, and Hunt (1971) gave a summary of this work. Among the findings reported are that the correlation between CL and measures of intelligence tend to decrease with age (in adolescence), there is a middle class superiority in CL and more variability in CL at lower socioeconomic social class levels, there is a suggestion of female superiority in CL which may have disappeared by high school, CL is generally, although not "strongly related" to academic achievement, and there are significant positive correlations between CL and moral and ego development.

Casting his research in interactionist terms, Hunt (1971) characterized educational environments as being more or less structured, and investigated the outcomes when individuals of varying conceptual levels are placed in structured or unstructured environments, that is, subjected to various models of teaching. Hunt (1971) postulated that "low CL learners profit more from high structure, and high CL learners profit more from low structure, or in some cases are less affected by variations in structure" (p. 44). During the 1970s, Hunt and others carried out a number of studies to test this "matching hypothesis" in traditional classroom situations. (As will be seen later, all of the counselling related research is also driven by this matching hypothesis.) Hunt (1966, 1971) also proposed a more elaborate matching model, which hypothesized a curvilinear relationship between environment and behaviour. It has been suggested (Miller, 1981) that the model, as opposed to the hypothesis, can only be tested by using at least three levels of environmental structure. Most previous studies, however, have used only two levels ("high" and "low") of environmental structure.⁴ Hunt's research, of course, is in the classic "aptitude-treatment interaction" mould, and is acknowledged as such by Cronbach and Snow (1977), who, after a brief review of Hunt's work, concluded that the research supports, "though weakly and inconsistently" (p. 381), the matching hypothesis.

Miller (1981) has done the most comprehensive review of the research concerned with testing the matching hypothesis in academic settings. Miller examined in some detail 29 studies which seemed relevant to hypothesis testing

⁴Although research using CL is still being done, Hunt himself has moved on to other areas such as learning styles (Abbey, Hunt, & Weiser, 1985), and more practice-based theory-building (Hunt, 1987). He explains the change in focus as resulting from a feeling about ". . . the incompleteness of such single variables as CL and the necessity for building an understanding of persons-in-relation on a complete version of a person" (Hunt, 1987, p.33).

and he categorized the studies as to whether outcome variables were related to social cognition, affective response, or academic achievement. He reported 19 CL main effects, 14 treatment (instructional method) effects, 12 ordinal interactions, and 9 disordinal interactions. Although the results seem to offer some support for at least the matching hypothesis, Miller's general conclusion was that, because only a few (five) of the studies reviewed met what he considered the proper criteria for design adequacy, neither the matching model nor the matching hypothesis had been conclusively tested. He also questioned the appropriateness of using academic outcomes for testing a theory which is primarily concerned with the interpersonal domain.

Counselling and Conceptual Level

Much of Hunt's own work was concerned with traditional classroom outcomes with subjects in the 12 to 18 year age range. However, there has been a number of other studies which use older subjects (typically university students) and which examine the role of conceptual level in the counselling process. Concerned as they are with interpersonal functioning and behaviour, these studies appear, by Miller's reasoning, to provide a better test of the matching hypothesis and are more relevant to the present proposal.

Almost all of the research in this area is covered by two reviews, one narrative (Stoppard & Miller, 1985) and one quantitative (Holloway & Wampold, 1986), and it is these two reviews which will be discussed here.⁵ Although there is considerable overlap in the research examined in the two reviews-- 10 of the same studies are included in both reviews--it seems appropriate to report their findings separately, because the reviews differ in their overall approach and emphasis.

⁵A paper by Van Hesteren, Sawatzy, and Zingle (1982) gives a less extensive, historical overview of the conceptual level/counselling research.

Stoppard and Miller review (1985) Of the 15 studies included here, three involved clients from inpatient or residential populations (Brill, 1978; McLachlan, 1972, 1974); three involved subjects who were volunteer clients in counselling (Henri & Stoppard, 1983, later published as Stoppard & Henri, 1987; Lamb, 1978; and Malkiewich & Merluzzi, 1980); and four were analogue therapy designs (Bachman, 1977, Studies I and II; Berg & Stone, 1978; Stein & Stone, 1978). The other five studies employed subjects who were counselors, counsellor trainees, or individuals receiving training in counselling skills (Berg & Stone, 1980; Heck, 1971; Heck & Davis, 1973; Kimberlin & Friessen, 1977; and Rosenthal, 1977). Stoppard and Miller gave as a rationale for the inclusion of these latter five studies the fact that they "can be viewed as analogous to the therapy situation, one in which a client (counsellor trainee) is engaged in interaction with a therapist (supervisor, trainer) about the communication style of the former" (p. 54). The rationale seems to be sufficient justification for inclusion as a test of the general matching hypothesis, but findings from these studies probably have limited or questionable generalizability to a client population. In other words, studies using counsellor or counsellor trainee CL as the independent variable have less relevance for the present study.

Stoppard and Miller found that only three of the 15 studies (Berg & Stone, 1978; Kimberlin & Friesen, 1977; Malkiewich & Merluzzi, 1980) failed to report any effects due to matching. For the other studies, if subjects were matched with therapists or therapeutic approaches which provided appropriate levels of structure, the outcomes were more favourable for these matches than were outcomes for subjects in mismatched conditions. In only one study (Henri & Stoppard, 1988), on one of the outcome measures, were the direction of the interaction and the matching effects opposite to that which

would be predicted from Hunt's matching hypothesis. Even here, on measures of client satisfaction, the expected results were found for low CL clients.

In general, interaction effects were more likely to be found in studies in which the dependent variable was some measure of satisfaction, or changes in social cognition or behaviour. This finding reinforces the point made by Stoppard and Miller that in the $B = f(P,E)$ equation, the behaviour must be criterion relevant, that is, consistent with the theoretical assumptions on which the matching hypothesis is based.

Stoppard and Miller's general conclusion was that the findings from the reviewed studies did offer some support for Hunt's contemporaneous matching hypothesis. However, they cautioned that this conclusion must be tempered by an evaluation of the "conceptual and methodological adequacy" of the studies. To this end they offered a "design index" of the nine design features which they considered most important for an adequate test of the matching hypothesis.

Adequacy of range and separation of subjects on CL; control for sex of subject; control for verbal ability; adequacy of the range and level of structure on the environmental variable; consistency with which treatment variables were applied; appropriateness of treatment duration; control of extraneous treatment variables (e.g., group composition); precision of matching achieved; and the criterion relevance of dependent measures. (p.62)

By allocating one point for each of the above features attended to in the reviewed studies, Stoppard and Miller concluded that the overall quality of the studies was "quite modest" (scores ranged from 3 to 7 with a mode of 4).

However, there were five studies which met most of the criteria (scores of 6 or 7) and these studies all reported findings in support of the matching hypothesis. Two of these studies involved volunteer clients who attended four sessions dealing with test anxiety reduction (Lamb, 1978) or assertion skills training (Henri & Stoppard, 1983). Two studies employed one session procedures which varied the structure of initial interview (Stein & Stone, 1978) or supervision structure (Berg & Stone, 1980). The other high score study (Bachman, 1977) used a videotape analogue procedure which is most similar in design to that used in the present study.

Bachman divided subjects into high and low CL groups on the basis of their scores on the Paragraph Completion Method. Both high and low CL groups then viewed two videotaped examples of counselling sessions involving Rational Emotive Therapy. In the high structure tape, "a rule-example sequence of presentation was used," with Ellis's ABC model of emotions serving as the rule. In the low structure condition, the rule was presented last. Results showed general support for the matching hypothesis, with ratings of counsellor comfort and client satisfaction being significantly higher for low CL matched groups, but not for high CL matched groups.

In the Bachman study, environmental or treatment structure was manipulated by variations in the process of one particular therapeutic approach. This manipulation was apparently successful, as subjects were able to perceive differences in structure between the two approaches. However, as Stoppard and Miller (1985) emphasized, manipulation of environmental structure has continued to be problematic in studies which test the matching hypothesis, as it is difficult to assess environmental structure with a high degree of precision. In 1974, Hunt and Sullivan offered a quotation from

Shulman which pessimistically commented on the situation to that point:

"Aptitude-treatment interaction will likely remain an empty phrase as long as aptitudes are measured by micrometers and environments by divining rods" (Shulman, 1970, p. 374).

In the counselling/conceptual level literature, differences in environmental structure have been cast in terms of differences in either counsellor CL (McLachlan, 1972) or treatment approaches, typically along a directive-nondirective continuum (Malkiewich & Merluzzi, 1980). As reported earlier, this latter study was one of the three reviewed which did not show effects due to matching. It seems possible that the absence of effects could be attributable to the lack of difference in the two treatments used-- systematic desensitization and cognitive restructuring, designated in the study as high and low structure respectively. The Malkiewich and Merluzzi findings highlight the need for special attention to the design feature having to do with what Stoppard and Miller refer to as the "adequacy of the range and level of structure on the environmental variable" (p. 62). Stoppard and Miller suggested the incorporation of the client's perception of the degree of structure (such as in Bachman, 1977; and Stein & Stone, 1978) as a way of at least partially checking, and increasing support for, the validity of environmental manipulations.

In general, Stoppard and Miller's (1985) review provides a thorough critical analysis of some of the research and highlights issues of importance in the application of aspects of CST to the counselling area. More importantly, they provide a number of suggestions for increasing design adequacy, and many of these features were incorporated into the design of the present study.

Holloway and Wampold meta-analysis (1986). This review, which provides a quantitative analysis of 24 studies done up to 1983, also confirmed that conceptual level is a mediator of the behaviour of counsellors or clients, and may affect their perceptions of the counselling process. Eight of these studies, which were concerned with "the effect that an individual's CL had on a task relevant to the counseling process" (p. 311) were labeled Type A studies. For Type A studies, Holloway and Wampold hypothesized that high CL individuals would perform better on counselling related tasks and that CL discrepancy (between high and low CL individuals) would be positively correlated with effect size for CL. Both hypotheses were confirmed: the average effect size for CL was a robust 1.07 (SD = 1.27), and the correlation between discrepancy and effect size was .38. Overall, Holloway and Wampold concluded that for Type A studies, the more ecologically valid the study and the better the design, the smaller the effect size.

Of the Type A studies, only two were concerned with client CL. Bruch, Heisler, and Conroy (1981) found that higher CL clients had fewer maladaptive cognitions in assertive situations than did low CL clients. Bruch, Juster, and Heisler (1982) found that high CL clients were more likely to make internal attributions in (simulated) academic failure situations and low CL clients tended to have more maladaptive cognitions in similar situations. All other Type A studies were concerned with the behaviour of counsellors or trainees.

There were 16 Type B studies in the review, and according to Holloway and Wampold, these "examined the behavioral performances of counselors, clients or both of different CLs under different counseling or training conditions that had various levels of environmental structure and were two-way factorial designs where one factor was the level of CL and the other was

environmental structure" (p. 311). Type B studies provided a more direct test of the matching hypothesis, and are more relevant to the present proposal.

The mean effect size for CL in the Type B studies was negligible ($ES=.02$, $SD = .59$), while the mean effect size for the environment was small but significant ($ES=.24$, $SD = .93$), as was the interaction effect size ($ES= .15$, $SD = .40$). In other words, in Type B studies, subjects generally performed better when the environment was more highly structured and when there was an appropriate match between CL and environmental structure (low CL and high structure or high CL and low structure). Population studied had a moderate relation ($r = .43$) to effect size, indicating that the effect size in studies involving counsellors was larger than that in studies involving undergraduates or counsellor trainees.

It should be pointed out that only half of the Type B studies (8) were concerned with non-counselor/trainee CL or behaviour. Of these, six have already been discussed in the Stoppard and Miller review (Bachman, 1977; Berg & Stone, 1978; Lamb, 1977; Mclachlan, 1972; Malkiewich & Merluzzi, 1980; Stein & Stone, 1978). Of the remaining two, one (Roth & Kuiken, 1975) has implications for communication in counselling dyads, but does not, strictly speaking, involve a counselling situation. The final study (Larimer, 1978) which used groups in which client and counsellor CL were either matched or mismatched, reported partial support for the matching hypothesis.

Holloway and Wampold concluded that there is support for the matching hypothesis, that is, that low CL individuals perform better under conditions of high structure, but they also speculated that "at some point, highly structured environments will become aversive to high CL persons. . . ." (p. 317). Although they did not reveal the other criteria by which they evaluated design

adequacy, like Stoppard and Miller, Holloway and Wampold also commented on the lack of a normative scale on which to measure and compare environmental structure. As a side issue, it is possible that the interaction effect sizes found would have been somewhat different if the Type B studies had been divided between those studies which used counsellors or trainees and those which did not. A close reading of the meta-analysis reveals that there was a great deal of variability in effect sizes for individual studies, and those studies which involved counsellors/trainees seemed to show a greater number of nonsignificant results.

As a final comment, it should be mentioned that of those studies cited in the meta-analysis, only two (McLachlan, 1972; and Parsons, 1977) used actual counselling or therapy situations in their design; all others were analogue studies.

Other counselling/CL studies Although they are not included in either of the above reviews, there is a number of other studies which examined the effects of CL on counselling-related tasks. Among those studies examining counsellor CL, it has been found that high CL counsellor trainees are superior in the clarity and quality of hypothesis formation, and ask more divergent questions in a counselling interview (Holloway and Woolleat, 1980); show higher levels of empathic responding (Lutwak and Hennessy, 1982);and "show a somewhat greater degree of response variability following client antecedent responses" (Lichtenberg & Heck, 1979, p. 20). Simek-Downing (1982) found an increase in conceptual level as a result of microskills training in counselling, an outcome which suggests the role of certain experiences in fostering developmental growth. In an analogue study which examined client responses to counsellor's use of metaphor, Suit and Paradise (1985) found that there were

no differences "between cognitively simple and complex subjects in their perceptions of counsellor attributes" (p.27), but that cognitively complex subjects were better able to identify the intent of a complex metaphor when used by a counsellor. A study by Johnson and Holloway (1988), although it does not use a counselling design, is somewhat instructive. Johnson and Holloway found that groups of bulimic women were lower in conceptual level than a normal group, and the authors speculated that highly structured behavioural methods may have been more successful with eating disordered clients because of the high need for structure of these clients who are functioning at a more concrete level.

Conclusions

The foregoing evidence seems to justify the conclusion that CST has considerable relevance for counselling. The matching hypothesis is supported in counselling studies in which proper attention is given to certain design features, and criterion-relevant measures (client satisfaction and social cognition or behavior) serve as the dependent variables. Although none of the above studies examined the relationship, it seems reasonable to assume that client expectations and preferences for counselling would also be in the direction predicted by the matching hypothesis: low CL clients would have an expectation and a preference for a greater degree of structure and directiveness from a counsellor than would high CL clients.

Person Perception and Conceptual Level

There is another variable which may be pertinent to client behaviour in the counselling situation, and which may also help to explain some of the results in the CL matching studies: the degree of accuracy with which the client views counsellor behaviour. None of the counselling studies cited above

considered this variable, except in a general way, as in perception of empathy (Parsons, 1977) or perception of structure in an interview (Bachman, 1977; Stein & Stone, 1978). However, there are other studies which may be relevant.

CST predicts that individuals at the higher stages of development will show more capacity for seeing different viewpoints and taking on the roles of others. (Benack [1988], using the Perry Scheme, also found that relativists showed more empathy than dualists.) Several studies were located which examined the relationship between level of conceptual functioning and interpersonal discrimination or person perception. The results were mixed. Three of the studies used pencil-and-paper measures of person perception. Two of these were in the direction predicted by the theory: Carr (1965) found that higher CL individuals showed greater differentiation in the perceptions of salient others; and Halverson (1970) found that CL was positively related to greater tolerance for inconsistencies or discrepancies in assumptions about others. On the other hand, Houlihan (1968) found no differences between high and low CL's in their perception of similarities between themselves and their parents.

Two other studies examined "veridical" person perception. LeCann (1969) showed films of persons being interviewed and rated the viewers' accuracy of person perception by having them fill out four 'judgement instruments.' LeCann found no differences in accuracy between high and low CL viewers. Among his recommendations for future research, he advocated the use of semi-projective measures of cognitive complexity, rather than the objective Conceptual Systems Test which he used. (All other studies reported here used semi-projective measures of conceptual level.) In a similar design to LeCann's, Wolfe (1974) asked high school students to view films of teachers

being interviewed. The students were then asked to predict how the filmed individuals would answer the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF). Wolfe found main effects for CL and sex, with more abstract individuals and females being more accurate in their perceptions.

These latter two studies have been reported in slightly more detail, because in their use of filmed excerpts, their design is closer to that employed here. However, neither Wolfe nor LeCann seems to have asked participants to identify specific behaviours in the films, as participants were required to do in the present study. In spite of the contradictory results from the two studies just cited, there seems to be justification for testing this relationship once more in the context of the present study. The prediction from CST would be that differences in accuracy of person perception will be associated with differences in cognitive development, with those at higher levels showing greater accuracy.

Related Matching Studies

There is a number of other 'matching -type' studies, which, although not using cognitive developmental levels as the independent variable, do use similar, related constructs and which also attempt to manipulate environmental structure.

In spite of previous inconsistent findings on authoritarianism and client preference for therapist, Fernbach (1973) hypothesized that (1) authoritarian clients would like all types of therapy less than would nonauthoritarian clients, but that (2) authoritarians would prefer a more directive therapist than would nonauthoritarians. Fernbach formed authoritarian and nonauthoritarian groups based on subjects' scores on the

California F Scale⁶ and had each group view films of Carl Rogers and Albert Ellis interviewing the same client. (In a pilot study where students viewed the film Three Approaches to Psychotherapy, students had rated Rogers as the least directive and Ellis as the most directive of the three therapists.) In the main experiment, both groups were asked only to rate the therapist on a 7-point like-dislike scale. Hypothesis (1) was not confirmed. Hypothesis (2) was confirmed: authoritarians preferred Ellis over Rogers, and nonauthoritarians tended to prefer Rogers over Ellis ($p < .10$). The author admitted that directiveness and therapist were confounded in this study, but the comments made by subjects suggested that in their ratings, they were responding to therapist approach and not to the therapists themselves.

Abramovitz, Abramovitz, Roback, and Johnson (1974) randomly assigned participants to one of four groups (three "relatively" directive and one "relatively" nondirective), all led by the same therapist and which met for 90 minutes twice a week for 5 weeks. Group members' internal-external locus of control was assessed on selected items on Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, and dichotomized at the median into internally- and externally-oriented subsamples.⁷ On overall outcome as measured on 10 outcome scales, the results were in the expected direction. Outcome was more favourable when externals were matched with a directive group, and internals with a non-

⁶ It should be mentioned that Harvey (1967) reported that "the F Scale. . . provides a fairly reliable measure of System 1 functioning, but not of the other systems" (p.210). High F scorers (high authoritarians) then, may be assumed to be quite similar to low CL individuals; the reverse assumption cannot be made about low F scorers, as both System 2 and System 4 individuals may be low F scorers.

⁷ A study by Crommet (1983) was based on the assumption that locus of control would be associated with cognitive development on the Perry scheme. Crommet found that in a career development course based on developmental principles, participants increased in both internality and level of cognitive development.

directive group than when the opposite (mismatch) occurred. In speculating on which group processes might have mediated the differential outcomes, the authors mentioned McLachlan's (1972) postulation of relationship variables. However, Abramovitz et al. observed that in their own study, "patients assigned to a 'preferred' modality did not perceive the therapist as more helpful in a Rogerian sense. . . than did patients who underwent a 'non-preferred' treatment" (p. 852). Other variables were not specifically examined in this study. Abramovitz et al. do seem justified in their conclusion that "the study's unique contribution . . . is the demonstration that two verbal therapies conducted by the same leader can have different effects depending on the client's personality" (p. 852).

Finally, an analogue study by Neufeldt (1978) is suggestive, but may not be as relevant as other studies mentioned in this section, as she actually used Piagetian tasks to divide subjects into groups of concrete and abstract thinkers. However, her description of the problem-solving approach of the two types of thinkers is quite similar to what would be expected from individuals at the higher and lower positions on both the Perry and CST models.

Formal thinkers are able to consider problems at an entirely verbal level, to think about several problems and solutions at once, make hypotheses to test, and think about their thinking. Concrete thinkers lack many of these abilities which are usually taken for granted in insight counselling. Instead, they rely on concrete experience, and proceed in an inductive fashion to solve one problem at a time, with little reflection on their mental processes. (p. 185)

Subjects (age range 17-56) were presented with 3-page scripts of insight and behavioural counselling sessions and asked to imagine that they were the clients, and to rate the sessions on a number of dimensions, including preference. Neufeldt found that subjects who showed a preference for the insight counsellor also showed more of a capacity for formal thought than those who preferred the behavioural counsellor. However, all subjects rated the behavioural counsellor's statements as "more personal, pleasing and clear," and saw the behavioural counselling experience as being more positive. The insight sessions were seen as being more complex by all subjects.

General Conclusions from Matching Studies

In general, the findings from the literature reviewed demonstrate that: (1) those individuals who tend to view reality in more categorical, absolute terms, who are less able/willing to consider alternative interpretations of reality or approaches to problem-solving, and who place more reliance on external authority are more likely to benefit from more structured treatment or instructional approaches, and (2) those who display the opposite tendencies are more likely to benefit from less structured approaches, although the evidence is not as strong for this group. Certain CST-generated hypotheses have been fairly extensively tested in counselling research, but there is a paucity of research which specifically relates the Perry Scheme to counselling practice. Consequently, predictions about outcomes in counselling with the Perry Scheme can be made with less certainty. However, there is some evidence which would lead one to expect that matching clients and therapeutic approaches based on clients' position on the Perry Scheme would lead to similar outcomes to those found with the conceptual level research: dualists would benefit more from structured approaches than would relativists.

One of the purposes of the present study, of course, was to determine if the counselling-related predictions from one theory (CST) might also apply to the other (Perry Scheme).

With the exception of a study by Craig and Hennessy (1989), to be discussed later, there has been no research which examines how level of cognitive development affects one's precounselling expectations and preferences for counselling. It is to the expectations literature that I now turn.

The Literature on Client Expectations about Counselling

In 1958, Patterson, in a brief review of recent studies, commented on a general finding that clients seemed to prefer counsellors who were not client-centered or non-directive. Patterson suggested that this finding is one expression of a culturally learned expectation that the proper role of authority figures is to guide, advise, and tell us what to do, and that the proper stance to authority is one of passivity or dependency. Patterson felt that it was the task of counselling to help clients to unlearn this attitude, and to become independent and to take responsibility for their behaviour. He noted that the expectation to see the counsellor as an omniscient, directing authority was particularly prevalent among the young and those of lower socioeconomic background.

Other authors have commented on the lack of success of traditional "talk" therapy with lower SES clients, often because of the lack of congruency in expectations between therapists and clients. Heine and Trosnan (1960) found that clients who expected to "actively collaborate" in treatment were more likely to persist in therapy past 6 weeks than those who expected to "passively collaborate." Goldstein (1962) extensively reviewed both patient and

therapist role expectancies, and developed an approach (Structured Learning Therapy) specifically designed for working with the poor (Goldstein, 1973).

Overall and Aronson (1963) cited statistics from their clinic showing that 57% of lower SES clients did not return for treatment after the initial interview. They suggested that one reason for the early termination was related to the discrepancy between clients' expectations and the reality of the initial interview. Overall and Aronson referred to Hollinghead and Redlich's (1958) conclusions about the expectations of lower SES clients.

The most frequent source of difficulty between the lower status patient in therapy and the therapist is the patient's tacit or overt demand for an authoritarian attitude on the part of the psychiatrist (italics added) and the psychiatrist's unwillingness to assume this role because it runs counter to certain therapeutic principles. (p. 345)

In their study, Overall and Aronson (1963) found that lower SES clients expected psychiatric (and not just medical/physical) issues to be raised in the interview, but that there was otherwise a gap between expectation and reality such that the therapist's behaviour was generally less active, medically-oriented, or supportive than the patient expected. The greater the discrepancy between the client's expectations and his/her actual perceptions of the interview, the less likely the client was to return for treatment.

Therapist Role Expectations

Some researchers have focused on specific role expectations which clients might have for therapists, regardless of client SES level. Goldstein (1962) reported Apfelbaum's (1958) study of client expectations of therapists derived on the basis of clients' transference needs. In the Apfelbaum study, cluster analysis of client Q sort responses revealed three 'relatively

independent' clusters or dimensions of client role expectations. Clients expected therapists to be either nurturant (giving, guiding, and protective), a model (well-adjusted, diplomatic, non-evaluative, and permissive), or critical (critical, analytical, and expecting the client to assume considerable responsibility). Consequently, depending on the role that the client expected the therapist to play, the client would expect to be either taken care of (nurturant role), straightened out (critical), or helped to help oneself. Apfelbaum stated that these clusters were "apparently associated with interpersonal expectations which are related to general personality functioning and consequently to the subsequent character of the therapist-patient relationship" (p. 77).

Rickers-Ovsiankina, Berzins, Geller, and Rogers (1971) extended Apfelbaum's work and suggested that these sets of expectations were developmental in nature: A major outcome of therapy would be movement from more dependent expectations (nurturant) to a less dependent expectancy set (model). Rickers-Ovsiankina et al. also proposed a fourth role expectation--Cooperative--which would be the result of the client becoming autonomous and working on equal terms with the therapist and which would occur only towards the end of treatment.

Tracey and Dundon (1988) reported Berzins' (1971) factor analytic studies of the responses on the Psychotherapy Expectancy Inventory (originally developed by Rickers-Ovsiankina et al., 1971). Berzins (1971) concluded that the original Apfelbaum labels might not be the most appropriate, and he relabeled them "approval-seeking (from nurturant), advice-seeking (from critic), audience-seeking (from model) and relationship-seeking (from cooperative)" (Tracey & Dundon, 1988, p. 6). Using

the Psychotherapist Expectancy Inventory-Revised, Tracey and Dundon examined, among other things, changes in client role expectations and preferences over the course of counselling (for more than 10 sessions). They found that for all clients, anticipations and preferences for advice decreased over the course of counselling, but audience and relationship expectations increased. Also, for successful outcome groups, expectations for approval increased up to the middle sessions, but decreased towards termination. The opposite pattern was evident for unsuccessful outcome groups.

Richert (1983), based on his clinical experience and his reading of the literature, made a distinction between client expectations or anticipations, and client preferences. The latter have to do with "clients' pre-therapy beliefs about what therapist behaviors will be helpful" (p. 323). Richert tentatively postulated four types of client role preferences for the therapist. He felt that these preferences were based on the crossing of two dimensions of client assumptions about the therapist. One dimension had to do with client assumptions about therapist power and status (i.e., preference for a therapist who is either a "powerful, aloof expert or a warm peer"). The other dimension is related to the therapist's orientation to problems, to whether the therapist focuses directly on solving clients' problems, or places more emphasis on attending to the client's feelings and subjective experiences. The four role preferences are: the Medical Modeler (high on authority with a problem focus); Revelationist (high on power with a focus on client feeling and experience); Problem-Solver (low on authority, but problem focused); and Explorer (low on authority, but much exploration of feelings). In the first two roles, the preference is for the therapist to take a more active, directive role,

and in the last two roles, the preference is for the therapist to serve almost as a co-worker, with the client taking a more active role.

Although Richert also offered prescriptive therapeutic approaches based on these preferences, he cautioned that the prescriptions are probably most appropriate in the early stages of therapy, as client preferences may well change with growth in therapy. Nevertheless, he felt that "attempts by therapists to match their approaches to client role preferences during the initial phases of therapy should promote the formation of a better therapeutic relationship and ultimately a more positive outcome" (p. 325).

A model which ties therapist role or behaviour to client developmental "readiness" is the Adaptive Counselling and Therapy (ACT) model presented by Howard, Nance, and Myers (1986). In this model, therapist behaviour is characterized by varying combinations of direction and support in response to client needs. Howard et al. proposed four categories of therapist styles: Telling (high direction-low support); Teaching (high direction-high support); Supporting (low direction-high support); and Delegating (low direction-low support). For Howard et al., an effective therapeutic style is one which is adapted to the particular maturity level of the client; it is also assumed that client maturity level will vary at particular points in the client's life or in the course of therapy, or for particular content areas. For instance, for clients at a low level of maturity, the Telling style (Rational Emotive Therapy being an example of this style) might initially be appropriate. The goal of therapy, of course, is to help clients move to a higher readiness level. It may be seen then, that the ACT model, although couched in broader terms, operates very much on the same principles as the matching hypothesis.

As with the role expectations reported above by Apfelbaum (1958) and Rickers-Ovsiankina et al. (1971), the major underlying issues for Richert (1983) and for Howard et al. (1986) are questions of control and responsibility. In other words, how directive or active is the therapist expected/preferred to be, and how much responsibility does the client expect to take in his/her treatment? With the exception of Apfelbaum, who looked at the relationship between client MMPI profiles and their role expectations, none of the other studies examined how different client variables might affect their expectations. Some of this research is reported below.

General Client Expectations

In general, authors have claimed that client expectations have an effect on help-seeking behaviour (Tinsley, Brown, de St. Aubin, & Lubeck, 1984), persistence in therapy (Heine & Trosman, 1960; Overall & Aronson, 1963), and process and effectiveness of therapy (Goldstein, 1962; Ziemelis, 1974). These studies have stressed the importance of the client entering therapy with the appropriate expectations.

As an example of research which attempted to change client expectations, Heitler (1973) had therapeutically unsophisticated lower SES clients participate in an "anticipatory socialization interview" prior to entering treatment. He found that after this interview, clients entered treatment with more realistic expectations of the treatment process, demonstrated more facilitative behaviours in treatment, and established a better working alliance with their therapists. Tinsley, Brown, and Ray (1988) reviewed 46 studies which attempted to manipulate client expectations in five categories: counsellor qualities, prognosis for therapy, therapist behaviour or type of therapy, client behaviours and role expectations, and counselling

process and procedures. Tinsley et al. (1988) identified many methodological problems in the research, but concluded that "audiotape or videotape interventions are most likely to be effective [in changing client expectations to more realistic and appropriate levels]" (p. 105).

In a review of the expectancy research since 1962, Duckro, Beal, and George (1979) stated that the underlying assumption of most studies is that "disconfirmation of client role expectations has been demonstrated to be a negative in psychotherapy" (p. 260). After their review of 43 studies (21 of which supported the hypothesized relationship, and 22 of which did not), Duckro et al. concluded that there was less than unequivocal support for the disconfirmed expectations--negative effects hypothesis. They suggested that the ambiguous findings may have been due to three factors: (1) expectations in the literature have been either imprecisely defined or globally assessed; (2) up to that point, there had been a lack of clarity as to whether the term 'expectation' meant anticipation or preference; and (3) the consequences of the disconfirmed expectations might be bipolar, with consequences dependent on the direction as well as the intensity of the discrepancy.

Research With The Expectations About Counseling Form

In a continuation of the work begun by Tinsley and Harris (1976), Tinsley, Workman, and Kass (1980) set out to remedy at least the first criticism made by Duckro et al. about the imprecision of assessment. Tinsley et al. developed the Expectations About Counseling questionnaire (EAC) which contains 17 scales assessing clients' expectations in five areas: their own attitudes and behaviours, counsellor attitudes and behaviours, counsellor characteristics, characteristics of the counselling process, and the quality of the counselling outcome. (See Table 4.2 for a list of EAC subscales.) During

administration of the EAC, subjects are asked to respond to from 53 to 66 items (on the brief form--the EAC-B) and indicate their expectations on a 7-point scale from not true to definitely true. Factor analysis of items yielded four factors.

The factor labelled Personal Commitment (expectancy that the client would be responsible, open, and motivated; the counsellor would be attractive; and the experience would be characterized by concreteness and immediacy) accounted for the greatest variance. Women had a higher expectancy of personal commitment than men. The authors suggested that lower scorers on this factor "may be characteristic of clients who naively expect the counsellor to 'cure' them without (them) having to make an effort" (p. 567). Factor two, Facilitative Conditions, accounted for the next highest proportion of variance. On this factor, the expectancy was that the counsellor would be genuine, accepting, trustworthy and tolerant, would sometimes confront the client, and that the experience would be characterized by concreteness. Women also had a higher expectancy than men that facilitative conditions would be present in the interview. High scores here were seen as being "inversely related to the view of the counsellor as just an information-giver and question-answerer." Factor three, Counselor Expertise, had to do with an expectancy that the counsellor would be directive, empathic and expert, and was more likely to be expected by men than by women. Tinsley et al. speculated that high scorers on this factor may display a form of "magical thinking," expecting the counsellor to have all the answers, and to solve the client's problems in just a few sessions. On Factor four (Nurturance), clients showed an expectancy that the counsellor would be accepting, self-disclosing, nurturing and attractive. Women showed a slightly lower, but not significant, tendency to expect

nurturance. A later construct validation study (Tinsley, Holt, Tinson, & Tinsley, 1991) confirmed the above finding of four components. However, they concluded that "the fourth component (nurturance) was, however, obtained by splitting the first component into two components" (p. 109).

Most studies since 1980 have used the brief form of the EAC (EAC-B) to measure client expectancies. Research has included investigation of the expectations of international and American students (Yuen & Tinsley, 1981), the role of counsellor gender and type of problem in expectations (Hardin & Yanico, 1983), and counsellor gender and subject sex (Subich, 1983), differences in expectations held by students for various campus help providers (Tinsley, Brown, de St. Aubin, & Lubeck, 1984), differences between student clients and nonclients and nonstudent clients (Hardin & Subich, 1985), expectations of clients and nonclients for group and individual treatment modes (Subich & Coursol, 1985), expectations in relation to subject gender types (Sipps & Janaczek, 1986), expectations of rational, intuitive, and dependent decision-makers (Leong, Leong, & Hoffman, 1978), the effects of confirmation or disconfirmation of expectations (Prospero, 1987), the relation of expectations to premature termination (Hardin, Subich, & Holvey, 1988), and counselling psychologists' perceptions of the effects of unrealistic expectations (Tinsley, Bowman, & Barich, 1993). In efforts to increase understanding of the EAC-B itself, Hayes and Tinsley (1989) demonstrated that the EAC-B "measures something different" than what is measured by instruments which examine perceptions about counselling. Tinsley and Westcot (1990) have even done an analysis of the cognitions of subjects while they are completing the EAC-B.

The findings from some of the EAC-B studies suggest that certain variables have an effect on the pattern of expectations demonstrated by subjects. Because some of these variables have implications for the design of the present study and for the external validity of future findings, a more detailed analysis of selected studies follows. It should be mentioned, that unless otherwise specified, subjects used in the studies below were not clients, that is, they had not made an appointment, or otherwise indicated their intention to seek counselling.

Age. In their initial development of the Expectations About Counseling scale, Tinsley and Harris (1976) reported that a preliminary analysis comparing subjects 22 years of age or younger with subjects 23 years or older "revealed significant differences between the two groups" (p. 174). Because of the small number of older subjects, their responses were not included in the subsequent analysis. However, even among the population used in the study (22 years and younger), there were differences based on educational class level: freshmen expected a greater degree of counsellor expertise than juniors and seniors, and sophomores had a greater expectation of counsellor acceptance than seniors. Freshmen also had a greater expectation of taking psychological tests. The authors (probably correctly) gave as one of the reasons for the differences, the development of "students' critical faculties" with more years in college. It seems likely that a number of other factors could have accounted for the differences, including the kind of development towards less dependence on authority found by Perry (1970). In the only such study located, Khalili and Hood (1983) also found an increase in conceptual level--with a presumed increase in independence --with years in college. The study by Tinsley, Hinson, Holt, and Tinsley (1990), to be discussed later is also of

some relevance here . The implicit point of these latter two studies, as well as any of the longitudinal and cross-sectional studies based on Perry's work, is that, by definition, any developmental measure will have at least a moderate correlation with age. Therefore, if age is a variable to be considered, it seems reasonable to assume that this variable will be somewhat confounded with development.⁸ In fact, it was one of the intentions of the present study to see if level of cognitive development would allow greater prediction (than age alone) of the pattern of expectations about counselling.

Sex. Subject sex differences in expectations about counselling have already been reported in the factor analytic study by Tinsley et al. (1980). Two other studies (Hardin & Yanico, 1983; and Subich, 1985) have confirmed the Tinsley et al. findings that women have greater expectations for facilitative conditions and personal involvement, but men have greater expectation of counsellor self-disclosure and directiveness. Hardin and Yanico (1983) noted that women's greater expectancy for facilitative conditions "may reflect their orientation towards relationships" and "males' expectancies for directive counselors may reflect a greater task orientation" (p.296). Subich (1983) made essentially similar points and commented that the differences between the sexes seem "consistent with literature on males' and females' interactional styles" (p. 423). However, in a study by Subich and Coursol (1985), on expectations of clients and nonclients for group and individual treatment modes, smaller sex differences were found. Subich and Coursol stated that "sex

⁸ Commons et al. (1989) go even further in their comments on the relationship between age and cognitive development:

The fact that age is only a weak predictor of developmental stage or level in this sample suggests that adult development must throw away the index of age as an aid in the definition of stages and rely much more heavily, if not exclusively, on analytic criteria in the construction of postformal stage sequences. (p.53)

effects for EAC data appear strongest when the number of subjects is large" (p.245) , and that if sex effects do exist, they may not be as large as they appear in large sample studies.

In a later study, Sipps and Janaczek (1986) hypothesized that the previous sex effects in EAC data might be more related to the gender traits of subjects rather than to the actual sex of subjects. They used the Extended Personal Attributes Questionnaire (EPAQ) to assess subject traits, and found that of the nine EAC-B scales on which differences were found, on six of these, the gender trait of femininity accounted for the greatest degree of variance. (The EAC-B scales were Tolerance, Genuineness, Outcome, Nurturance, Trustworthiness, and Responsibility.) As Femininity on the EPAQ includes "desirable expressive and communal traits," Sipps and Janaczek speculated that "the degree to which one is expressive and communal in relationships directly affects one's perception of the nature of the counselling relationship," while the masculinity characteristic of "agency/instrumentality appears to have no effect on subject expectations about counselling" (p. 216).

Both Hardin and Yanico (1983) and Subich (1983) also investigated subject expectations about counselling as a function of counsellor gender. Neither study found differences due to the main effect of counsellor gender. Hardin and Yanico pointed out that in previous studies which examined the effects of counsellor gender, the results have been inconsistent, and they suggested that their own results and those of Subich (1983) may have been due to subjects responding more to professional role (the label "counselling psychologist") rather than to sex role.

It seems then, that subject sex (or gender-related differences) must be considered in any study of expectations about counselling, but counsellor

gender may not be as critical (at least in the analogue studies reported). It was a matter of considerable interest in the present study to determine if these sex differences in expectations were demonstrated when subjects' cognitive developmental levels were also taken into account.

Client vs. nonclient expectations. Although Tinsley and Harris (1976) called their initial exploratory study "Client Expectations for Counseling" (italics added), and Tinsley et al. (1980) spoke in their factor analytic study of "client" expectations, both studies in fact used samples consisting of introductory psychology students with no previous experience with counselling. Tracey and Dundon (1988) noted this fact in their study on role anticipations, and stated that "generalizability to counselling is questionable because [psychometric support] for the EAC-B is based on nonclient samples" and that "Subich and Coursol [1985] demonstrated that there are clear differences in the expectations of clients and nonclients" (p. 4). Obviously, such a finding has major implications for the external validity of the results of most other studies using the EAC-B.

Other studies have used client populations (those who were actively seeking counselling; e.g., Heppner & Heesacker, 1983), but only two studies were located which examined client and nonclient differences in expectations. In the earlier study, Hardin and Subich (1985) found no significant differences between students, student clients, and nonstudent clients in expectations about counselling. However, the authors interpreted these results with caution because of the fairly high F values ($p=.12$) in their data analysis. These results were called into question by a later study in the same year by Subich and Coursol (1985), who found that clients had a greater expectation to

take responsibility and less of an expectation for empathy, acceptance, and nurturance from the counsellor than nonclients.

However, it is not clear that the two studies are strictly comparable, as the Subich and Coursol study used a slightly different procedure from that used by Hardin and Subich (1985). For the nonclient sample in the former study, the standard EAC instructions were modified to include "a short description. . . of the one-to-one nature of individual counseling" (p. 247). No such modification was mentioned in the Hardin and Subich study. In addition, although both studies used archival EAC data (from clients who had previously sought counselling at a university center), in the Subich and Coursol study, the client sample included those who had sought group counselling, and "all (italics added) group clients entered with a career focus" (p. 249), but only half of those who sought individual counselling had such a focus. No such group/individual split was mentioned in the Hardin and Subich study. It is difficult to say what effect these differences in design and procedure may have had on the results from the two studies. However, given some of the findings reported below on the relationship between problem type and expectations, the situation may not be as clearcut as Tracey and Dundon (1988) stated.⁹

There is a sense, of course, in which all subjects are potential clients, and the question of client/nonclient differences in expectations about counselling depends on whether an individual's expectations change when

⁹In responding to criticism about the apparent non-client bias in the original EAC-B research, Tinsley (1992) cited a doctoral study by Johnson (1990) on the expectations of 420 subjects who requested counselling services at a rural counselling centre. In this study, no differences were found in expectations between clients and students. Among other findings, Johnson also found no differences in expectations between counselling applicants with and without prior counselling experience; and that EAC-B scores differed as a function of education level but not as a function of age.

she or he decides to actively seek counselling. Subich and Coursol speculated that at the point of decision, the potential client makes an effort to become more knowledgeable, and thus more "realistic" about counselling. Some of the earlier research already cited (Heine & Trosman, 1960; Overall & Aronson, 1963) does not seem to support this conclusion. In fact, it might be argued that if an individual is in crisis, at the point of seeking counselling, she or he is likely to be less objective and realistic, rather than more so. In any event, the matter has not been completely settled, and the question of client/nonclient differences in expectations about counselling (at least as measured on the EAC-B) remains problematic.

Problem type. One might expect that the type of presenting problem would affect client expectations for counselling. Only three EAC studies, two of which have already been discussed in another context, included this variable in their designs. Both Hardin and Yanico (1983) and Subich and Coursol (1985) found no significant main effects or interactions for problem type (defined as either a vocational/career or personal problem). However, Subich and Coursol (1985) did find that "the original finding of different expectations for concreteness. . . among group and individual clients. . . did not hold up when problem type was covaried" (p. 248), nor did the effect for subject sex. Unfortunately, no further detail or discussion is given by the authors. In the Hardin and Yanico study, problem type was manipulated by modifying the original EAC instructions (presumably the subjects were instructed to "pretend you are about to see a counsellor for either a personal or a vocational problem"), so the finding of no difference for problem type actually meant "no difference" in nonclient expectations. In the Subich and Coursol study, the variable of problem type had to do with client problem type, that is with

whether those who were seeking counselling had a personal or a vocational problem. A later study by Hardin, Subich, and Holvey (1988), whose main focus was to examine differences in expectations between continuers and early terminators, also did not find any differences in expectations related to problem type.¹⁰

Although the EAC was not one of the measures used, the findings of Hardin and Yanico's (1985) analogue study are of some relevance. They pointed out that in previous studies, only a generic (vocational or personal) problem type had been investigated. Using a much more differentiated definition of problem type (they gathered subject responses to 11 types of vocational problems and 22 types of personal problems), they found differences in preferences for counsellor gender depending on problem type. Specifically, neither males nor females indicated a significant preference for a counsellor of either gender when vocational problems were discussed. A different pattern of preferences was found for personal problems. The majority of subjects of both sexes indicated definite preferences for a female counsellor when discussing issues of rape, problem pregnancy, and harassment, with a greater percentage of women expressing this preference. Subjects also showed a preference for a same sex counsellor when discussing other problems of a sexual nature.

¹⁰ In this study, Hardin, Subich and Holvey found no difference in expectations between continuers and terminators, a finding which seemed at variance with previous research. In speculating on the reasons for their results, they questioned the adequacy of the EAC-B. They suggested that "[the EAC-B] may not be sensitive enough to enable one to detect small but meaningful differences or it may not enable one to measure some critical expectations that have effects more powerful than those included on the instrument" (p.39). They also cited Prospero's (1987) study which suggested that the short form of the EAC "might, in fact, be a measure of a global positive or negative set toward counselling rather than a number of discrete expectations" (p.40).

Even with three of the four studies that focussed on problem type reporting no significant effects of problem type on expectations about counselling, it seems that there may be complexities in the relationship which have not yet been clarified. It does seem safe to assume that for nonclients, if no differences were found even when problem type was deliberately manipulated (as in Hardin & Yanico, 1983), then it is not an important variable for naive subjects who are completing the EAC-B. Controlling for problem type might be more important in the second and third phases of this study. As will be seen in the Methods section, an attempt is made to control for this variable by keeping problem type constant, that is by exposing subjects to only one type of problem.

Control for relevant variables. Four apparently relevant variables have been examined in some detail. The present study considered three of the four in its design and analysis: age, sex, and problem type. The question of client/nonclient differences in expectations was not dealt with in the present study. Indeed, it seems that this question could only be adequately addressed by a pre-post test design which compared the expectations for counselling of a group both before and after the point at which they had made a decision to seek counselling.

Developmental Stages and Counselling Expectations

Only two studies have directly examined the relationship between developmental level and expectations about counselling. A study by Tinsley, Hinson, Holt, and Tinsley (1990) was suggested by Tinsley and Harris's (1976) finding that students' expectations for counseling were related to their educational level (for instance, freshmen had a greater expectation of counsellor expertise than juniors or seniors). Tinsley et al. (1990)

hypothesized that these differences might be a function of differences in respondents' level of psychosocial development. In the 1990 study, level of psychosocial development was measured by students' scores on the Developing Purpose Scale of the Student Developmental Task Inventory (SDTI; Winston, Miller, & Prince, 1979). The three subscales on this scale measure students' ability to "formulate well-defined educational goals," and to display more mature career and lifestyle plans. Using a median split procedure, subjects were divided into high and low scoring groups on the three subscales.

MANOVA and multiple regression analysis were applied to the data. Scores on the three demographic variables (age, gender, and college class) were entered into the regression first, so that variance attributed to these variables could be extracted. In support of the findings from previous studies, gender alone contributed significantly to the variance on 12 of the 17 subscales. Age alone contributed significantly on the Directiveness subscale, and year in college contributed significantly to the Empathy subscale.

For the developmental variables, the authors concluded that "high and low scorers. . . had significantly different expectations about counselling. . ." such that "knowledge of students' level of psychosocial development increased the prediction of their expectations about counselling above that possible from information about their gender, age, and year in college" (p.145). In general, Tinsley et al. found that as students matured, they had more positive expectations about counselling, especially that facilitative conditions would exist, while less mature students were more skeptical that these conditions would exist. As students matured, "they expressed stronger expectations to work at being more concrete and to deal more immediately with concerns in counselling" (p.147). The authors speculated that less mature students are less

likely to make a personal commitment to working hard in the relationship and to taking responsibility for the counselling outcome.

The authors acknowledged that the median proportion of variance accounted for by knowledge of students' level of psychosocial development, was a "modest" 4%, but they stressed that the figure was arrived at after variance attributable to demographic variables was extracted.

To place the above study in context, it might be helpful to consider the results of two studies which investigated the relationship between psychosocial development and cognitive development on the Perry Scheme. Stonewater and Daniels (1983) found that psychosocial development (as measured on three different subscales of the SDTI) and cognitive development both increased for students who were enrolled in a career decision-making course where the content and instruction were based on Perry principles. (However, they did not use a control group to control for maturation effects.) The lack of change on one of the SDTI subscales (Interpersonal Maturity) led the authors to suggest that perhaps a certain level of development in one area (in this case, cognitive development) was necessary before developmental gains could occur in another. They speculated that perhaps development proceeds in a "leapfrog" manner.

A study by Polkosnik and Winston (1989) was designed to test this speculation, using the same subscales of the SDTI as in the Stonewater and Daniels study. Polkosnik and Winston followed students over a three-semester period, and found significant developmental growth on measures of both psychosocial and cognitive development. However, there were different rates of development for each area: after an initial period of side-by-side development, both the psychosocial and cognitive areas advanced, but

independently of each other. This finding seems to give support to Harvey, Hunt, and Schroder's (1960) original speculation that individuals might be more advanced in one domain than in another.

Of most direct relevance to the present study is a study by Craig and Hennessy (1989) on personality differences and expectations about counselling. Craig and Hennessy pointed out that in previous research, the emphasis had been on trying to explain differences in expectations primarily in terms of demographic, context, or process variables. They suggested that because theory has not guided selection of variables, we still have limited understanding of the expectancies that clients bring to counselling. They felt that Conceptual Systems Theory would provide a theoretical framework "from which to assess the degree to which a stable pre-existing personality dimension can explain the variance in pre-counselling expectations" (p. 402).

Craig and Hennessy stated that their application of CST in this study should be seen as "distinct" from Hunt's conceptual level model. Their justification for using the four stages or systems derived directly from the theory, and thus using the This I Believe test, as opposed to the conceptual level model and the Paragraph Completion Method used in most previous counselling related research is that:

The methodology for testing the effects of [conceptual level] (i.e., median splits on the basis of sample specific data) raises questions as to the comparability of the results. CST allows for classification into stages of development by using theory-derived, rather than sample-generated criteria, thereby allowing for comparability across studies. (p. 402)

In addition, they pointed out that the conceptual level model emphasizes the concreteness-abstractness dimension only, but CST considers both this

dimension and an interpersonal one which is especially salient for research into counselling.

In this study, prior to entering counselling, 60 clients were administered the EAC-B and stage of conceptual development was assessed from clients' responses on the This I Believe test (which has been described elsewhere). Because it was determined that seven subscales (Motivation, Immediacy, Concreteness, Acceptance, Tolerance, Trustworthiness, and Outcome) of the EAC-B were redundant, scores from only 11 EAC-B subscales were used in the analysis.

A multivariate analysis of variance showed a significant multivariate effect for conceptual stage, indicating that differences in structures are related to expectations. However, there were no univariate differences between groups on the EAC-B subscales. Discriminant analysis revealed two significant discriminant functions, the first (Function 1) accounting for 40% of the between-group variability, and the second (Function 2) accounting for 37% of the between-groups variability. The third function was not significant. Both significant discriminant functions were concerned with expectations that clients had for counsellor characteristics: the scales of Empathy, Directiveness, and Expertise had the highest positive correlations (.20 or more) with Function 1, while Self-disclosure and Genuineness correlated most highly with Function 2. Attractiveness correlated negatively with Function 1 and Nurturance correlated negatively with Function 2. The first function separates Stage 1 from Stages 3 and 4, and the second function separates Stage 3 from Stages 2 and 4.

These results are mainly in the direction which one would expect from CST. For example, clients at Stage 1 (where theory states there is an inability to

deal with ambiguity, and a greater reliance on external authority and structure) expected that the counsellor would "be more intuitively understanding and prescriptive." Stage 3 and 4 clients "expected they would like the counsellor and enjoy the interview more than did Stage 1 clients, but not within the directive, prescriptive atmosphere expected by Stage 1 clients" (p. 405). According to theory, at these stages there is increasing dependency on situation-specific criteria, responsivity to interpersonal contact, as well as a tendency to seek more autonomy and to consider multiple alternatives.

In general, Craig and Hennessy's study provides some evidence of a relationship between cognitive developmental level and counselling expectations. Their rationale for using the TIB seems somewhat justified: the focus on all four stages generates more meaningful data than would a median split procedure, and as Miller (1978) mentions, this test is seen as covering both the concrete-abstract and dependence-independence aspects of the theory. However, it is not clear that the results would have been any different if the conceptual level model had been (properly) used, as Hunt (1971) also proposed a four-stage scheme.

A more serious limitation of the study is raised by the authors themselves: the small number of clients at Stages Two ($\underline{n} = 7$) and Four ($\underline{n} = 5$). The authors did comment on the desirability of a "more favourable ratio of subjects to expectation measures. . ." (p. 406).

This last comment reinforces an observation made by Stoppard and Miller (1985) about one of the difficulties of extending research of this kind into clinical or "real life" settings: there may be an insufficient number of clients to "ensure an adequate range and level of CL." In the case of the conceptual level model, what is needed is a clear separation of levels to ensure

that there will be sufficient power to detect effects if they exist. For the Perry Scheme and CST, it will also be necessary to ensure that there is a sufficient number of subjects at each position or stage in order adequately to test the models and to extract maximum information about behaviour at each stage. This was a major practical consideration in planning the present study, and led to the conclusion that, given the exploratory nature of the study, (at least for the Perry Scheme), an analogue study best allowed for a preliminary test of the model.

This literature review has raised other issues which have implications for hypothesis generation and design.

Design Considerations and Hypotheses

The research cited in the literature review indicates directions for future research, and highlights relevant variables which should be considered in future research designs. These factors have guided the design of the present study, as will be seen from the summary in this section.

Cognitive Development and Counselling

As mentioned earlier, there has been some research and considerable speculation on the applications of the Perry Scheme in designing either growth-enhancing programs or instructional approaches to meet the needs of students at different levels of epistemological development. However, the relevance of the Perry Scheme to counselling has never been empirically demonstrated. Based on the Perry Scheme's surface similarity to the CST, one would expect similar relationships to counselling as those found with CL. However, any predictions must be tentative. For this reason, most of those aspects of the present study which are concerned with the Perry Scheme must as be seen as exploratory. However, even with this caveat, it seems likely that

those at lower positions of the Perry Scheme (dualists) would have a more positive response to the structure which is implicit in more directive counselling.

In contrast to the situation with the Perry Scheme, there has been considerable research on the CST and counselling, at least with its concrete-abstract dimension. The research has been such that, even with certain design reservations, there has been support for the matching hypothesis as it applies to counselling. There has also been at least one study on conceptual functioning and expectations about counselling. In general, the evidence allows for fairly strong predictions about the relationship between level of cognitive development and expectations and preferences for counselling. For this reason, phases one and two of the present study may be seen as replications of previous research on CST and counselling. Phase three, perception of counsellor behaviour, has not yet been tested, although Conceptual Systems Theory and some of the research on person perception suggests that those at lower levels of development will have less accurate perceptions of counsellor behaviour in an interview.

Previous CST/counselling research also highlights certain design considerations which should apply regardless of which theory is being tested. Stoppard and Miller (1985) gave a good summary of criteria for design adequacy (see p. 25) and the relevant criteria from their review have been applied to the present design. As far as assessment of CST stage is concerned, there seems to be some validity to Craig and Hennessy's (1988) rationale for the use of the This I Believe test, instead of the Paragraph Completion Method which has been used in most previous research.

Research on Counselling Expectations

The main instrument in this research--the EAC-B-- has been used extensively, so there is a body of evidence which can serve as normative data. Hardin, Subich, and Holvey's (1988) criticism notwithstanding, the EAC-B remains the most comprehensive single instrument for assessing subject expectations in a number of counselling-relevant areas. The question of client/nonclient differences in expectations has not been completely settled, but Tinsley (1992) presents evidence to suggest that the differences may not be significant.

The EAC research has emphasized the need for making a distinction between expectations (what the subject anticipates will happen) and preferences (what the subject would like to happen). This distinction could be crucial in the present study, where theory predicts that subjects will have different needs at different levels of development.

Other possible confounding variables are subject age and sex, and the type of problem presented. As much as possible, these variables were controlled in the present design: age and sex were used as blocking variables or covariates. Because of the practical constraints of subjects' attention span and time demands on subjects, it was not possible to cross problem type with counselling approaches. The next best option was to present only one type of problem in phase two of the design. One of the basic tenets of the Perry scheme is that development increases with years in school, so amount of post-secondary experience (in terms of credits completed) was also considered.

Although previous research has established that there are differences in expectations which are related to subject sex, it is difficult to predict

whether these differences will be attenuated or enhanced when level of cognitive development is included in the analysis.

Hypotheses

As mentioned above, a major question for the present study is whether a model of epistemological development (the Perry Scheme) has relevance for predicting behaviour in the interpersonal domain. Because the test of the model is an exploratory one, it seemed premature to make many a priori hypotheses concerning the Perry Scheme, especially in relation to expectations about counselling. In a sense, any subsequent predictions with the Perry scheme will depend on the degree to which Hypothesis 1 is confirmed, that is, on the strength of the relationship between the Perry Scheme and CST. If the relationship is strongly positive, then hypotheses about the CST should also apply to the Perry Scheme.

It was possible to derive specific hypotheses about the relationship between level of social-cognitive development (as measured on the CST) and counselling expectations and preferences. Consequently, most of the hypotheses below which address the research questions stated in Chapter 1, are concerned with CST-assessed development.

Hypothesis 1: There will be a significant relationship between developmental level as assessed on the Perry scheme and on the CST (Perry, 1970; Widick, 1977).

Hypothesis 2: For both the Perry and the CST models, differences in pre-counselling expectations and preferences, and post-videotape preferences and perceptual accuracy and helpfulness ratings will be related to level of development. Specifically :

- Hypothesis 3a: CST stage one subjects will show greater precounselling expectations and preferences for counsellor expertise and directiveness, and less of an expectation to take responsibility than those at higher stages (Stoppard & Miller, 1985; Craig & Hennessy, 1989).
- Hypothesis 3b: Perry Scheme dualists (positions 1 and 2) will also show greater precounselling expectations and preferences for counselor expertise and directiveness, and less of an expectation to take responsibility than those at higher stages (Baxter Magolda & Porterfield, 1988; Benack, 1988, Hadley & Graham, 1987).
- Hypothesis 4a: CST stage 2 and 4 subjects will show greater precounselling expectations and preferences for counsellor self-disclosure and genuineness than subjects at other stages (Craig & Hennessy, 1989).
- Hypothesis 4b: Perry position 5 subjects will also show greater precounselling expectations and preferences for counsellor self-disclosure and genuineness than subjects at other stages (Baxter Magolda & Porterfield, 1988; Perry, 1970).
- Hypothesis 5: CST stage 3 subjects will show greater precounselling expectation and preference for nurturance and acceptance than those at other stages (Craig & Hennessy, 1989; Harvey, Hunt, & Schroder, 1961).
- Hypothesis 6: CST stage two subjects will have generally less positive expectations for counselling (Harvey, Hunt, & Schroder, 1961; Hunt, 1971; Tinsley et. al., 1990).

Hypothesis 7: After exposure to videotapes of directive and nondirective counselling approaches, CST stage one and Perry dualistic subjects will prefer and find more helpful, the directive approaches (Fernbach, 1973; Holloway & Wampold, 1986; Stoppard & Miller, 1985).

Hypothesis 8: Subjects at higher levels of development will have more accurate perceptions of counsellor behaviour in the videotaped sessions (Carr, 1965; Wolfe, 1974).

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

Participants

The majority of participants were students from Simon Fraser University and Capilano College who volunteered to take part in a study "on expectations and perceptions of counselling." (Nine participants were non-students: five were young classroom teachers from a local high school, and four were young men who had recently been enrolled in, or completed, diploma programs at another post-secondary institution. The age range of this group was 25-28 years.) Students were solicited by notices on the two campuses, by visits to classrooms and by word of mouth. Participation was restricted to students who were naive about counselling; that is, who had never been to see a counsellor, or (in the case of college students) had never discussed more than course planning with a counsellor. Two cash prizes, drawn by lottery, were offered as an incentive to encourage students to participate in the study.

A total of 189 students, 104 (55%) women and 85 (45%) men completed at least the first (assessment) phase of the study. Eighteen students either had spoiled assessment protocols, did not return, or could not be contacted for the remaining phases. The group of 171 students who completed all phases of the study consisted of 96 (56%) women and 75 (44%) men.

The mean age of the total sample was 25.95 years (median: 23) with a range of 17 to 54 years. For men, the mean age was 26.22 years (median: 24) with a range of 17 to 54 years, while for women, the mean age was 25.73 years (median: 22) with a range of 18 to 50. The research sample thus included a wide range of ages in an attempt to capture a broad developmental spectrum. Table

Table 3.1

Age and discipline areas of research participants.

Age		Discipline			
		Undergraduate		Degree/Graduate	
Range	<u>n</u>	Discipline	<u>n</u>	Degree	<u>n</u>
17-20 years ^a	54	Business	10	BA/PDP	12
21-23	44	Communicat.	5	BSc/PDP	6
24-26	22	Education	17	BEd	4
27-29	20	Gen. Studies	3	Other Bach.	8
30-32	15	Humanities	16	Master's	8
33+	44	Math/Science	30	1st yr. (Ed)	
				Master's	3
				2nd yr. (Ed)	
				Soc. Science	37
				Social Work	1
		Trades (Voc)	2	Doctoral	3
		Undeclared	19		
Total	189		140		49

Note. PDP is the Professional Development Program, a three-semester teacher education program.

^aOnly two participants were 17 years old.

3.1 indicates the number of participants at each age range, and shows that, at least at the undergraduate level, participants came from a variety of disciplines. Of the 46 participants with Bachelor's or higher degrees, 36 (78%) were from the Faculty of Education at Simon Fraser University.

Yuen and Tinsley (1981) found differences in counselling expectancies between international and American students. The participants in the present study came from a variety of ethnic backgrounds. However, aside from the fact that nine students could be clearly identified as international students (a group too small in number for separate analysis), no attempt was made to specifically identify students as to ethnicity.

Materials

Two measures of cognitive development, the Measure of Epistemological Reflection (MER; Baxter Magolda & Porterfield, 1988) and the This I Believe test (TIB; Harvey, 1969) were used to assess participants' position on the Perry scheme and the CST, respectively. The Expectations about Counselling-Brief Form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) was used to assess participants' expectations and preferences for counselling.

Measure of Epistemological Reflection

The MER (See Appendix A) is a semi-structured written instrument which is designed to elicit an individual's thinking in each of six content areas or domains: decision-making, the role of the learner, the role of the instructor, the role of peers, evaluation, and view of knowledge, truth, and reality. In the administration, subjects are asked a general, domain-focused question ("Do you learn best in classes which focus on factual information or classes which focus on ideas and concepts?"), followed by a number of probes to clarify the reasoning behind their answer. Scoring is based on reasoning

structure (the justification given for a respondent's thinking). There is no time limit for completion of the questions, but Baxter Magolda (1987) reported a completion time of 1 hour. In the present study, most participants were able to complete the MER within this time period.

Scoring of the MER involves calculating a Total Protocol Rating (TPR), which can be done in one of two ways: (1) if assessment of respondents' modal reasoning is desired, a modal TPR is calculated by finding the dominant domain rating of the six domain ratings, or, (2) a continuous TPR may be calculated by taking the average of the six domain ratings. The latter method was used in this study because, as Baxter Magolda and Porterfield (1988) state: "(it) is more comprehensive in that it takes into account all six ratings and the possible transition pluses and minuses" (p. 92).

Baxter Magolda and Porterfield (1988) reported that, for the original validation sample, the correlation of two expert raters' Total Protocol Ratings (using an intraclass R) was .80. Exact agreement for Total Protocol Ratings was 65% and within-one -position agreement was 100%. Internal consistency as measured with Cronbach's alpha was .76. Baxter Magolda and Porterfield also reported eight other reliability and validity studies with selected populations (e.g., social work students, teacher education students). For these studies, intraclass R's ranged from .59 to .81, with exact TPR agreements ranging from 46% to 80%, and within-one -position modal agreement of 99%.

This I Believe test (TIB)

The TIB (See Appendix B) is a semi-projective sentence completion test in which participants are asked to respond to nine sentence stems which they complete by expressing their beliefs about a number of referents or stimuli ("This I believe about . . . marriage, religion, deference to authority, etc).

Participants are allowed two minutes to complete each response. Responses are scored "both in terms of their positive and negative orientations toward the referents, and their absolutism, evaluativeness, multiplicity of alternatives, triteness and normativeness" (Harvey, 1967, p. 211) Subjects are assigned a global stage score which is representative of the general level of conceptual functioning demonstrated in their responses.

Greaves (1971) reported Harvey's (1969) unpublished studies, citing an average interjudge reliability of .91 and a test-retest reliability after 9 weeks of .94. Miller and Harvey (1973) also reported these figures. Greaves found that scores on the TIB were relatively impervious to changes even after respondents were exposed to lectures on CST. According to Greaves, the TIB varies considerably in item strength. Item responses for "religion" and "friendship" correlated .81 with overall assessment, but the "people," "myself," and "compromise" items had a correlation of .43 with the overall score.

Expectations about Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B)

Many details about the EAC-B have already been presented in Chapter 2. The EAC-B (See Appendix C) consists of 53 items (with an additional, optional 13-item Realism scale) which are answered on a 7-point scale. Participants are asked to give their expectations, with response options ranging from "definitely not true" to "definitely true." Scale scores on the EAC-B are arrived at by summing the responses to the items assigned to each scale, and dividing by the number of items (Tinsley, 1982, p. 2). In this study subjects were also asked to indicate their preferences for counselling on a 7-point scale with the same response options as for expectations. Scale scores for preferences were also calculated in the same way.

Based on a sample of 442 undergraduate students, Tinsley (1982) reported scale internal consistency reliabilities ranging from .69 to .82, with a median of .82. Test-retest reliability after a 2-month interval ranged from .47 to .87, with a median of .71. All scales but the responsibility scale had a test-retest reliability of .60 or higher.

Videotapes

A number of considerations guided the preparation of the videotapes used to stimulate participants' responses in this study.

First, the counselling approaches demonstrated on the tapes had to differ widely in the amount of structure provided by the counsellor. Existing research suggests that Person Centred and Rational Emotive Therapy are examples of low and high structure, respectively. Fernbach (1973) found that when subjects were exposed to filmed examples of these two approaches (in the film Three Approaches to Psychotherapy), they rated client-centred therapy as less directive and RET as more directive. In an analysis of the same film, Hill, Thames, and Radin (1979) found differences in the verbal responses of the three therapists. When these differences are cast in the degree of structure categories devised by Friedlander, Thibodeau, and Ward (1985), 71% of the responses by Rogers, the client-centred counsellor, were in the low structure category. In contrast, only 13% of the responses by Ellis, the RET therapist, were considered low structure. Conversely, 57% of Ellis's responses fell into the high structure category, but only 7% of Rogers' responses had this rating. Although not all proponents of each approach will proceed exactly as the founders of these therapeutic schools, it seemed safe to assume that Person Centred counselling may be considered a low structure approach and RET a high structure approach.

Second, in terms of the content of the videotaped sessions, it was necessary to control as much as possible for possible variations in (a) client, (b) counsellor, and (c) presenting problem. It was reasoned that participants' identification with the client would be enhanced if they were able to view clients of the same sex as themselves. Consequently, tapes were prepared using both female and male actor-clients. A decision was made to have the same (female) counsellor for both sessions on all tapes. This decision was partly driven by practical considerations, but also because both experience and research (e.g., Hardin & Yanico, 1983; and Subich, 1983) suggest that males seeking counselling show less preference for a same sex counsellor (unless the presenting problem is of a sexual nature), while females seeking counselling more often express a general preference for a female counsellor. Finally, the presenting problem - procrastination - was chosen because it was felt to be a concern with which most students have had experience, and thus would be more likely to engage the interest and involvement of participants when they viewed the tapes.

The counselling sessions portrayed on the videotapes were scripted with the above considerations in mind. Scripts for both Person Centered (PC) and Rational Emotive (RET) sessions were written by the author (see Appendix D). The scripts were then rated for authenticity by professional psychologists in the following way: For the RET script, the names of a number of registered psychologists who had listed RET as their preferred therapeutic approach were obtained from the directory of the British Columbia College of Psychologists. Letters describing the study and copies of the RET script were sent to 6 registered psychologists. They were asked to complete an RET script Rating Sheet which asked: "On a scale of 1 to 10, how would you rate this script as

being a realistic portrayal of an initial RET session?" (see Appendix E) Respondents were also asked to make any comments or suggestions about the script. Three psychologists returned the completed ratings. On the 10-point "Realism" scale, the mean rating score was 8.67. Suggestions from respondents were incorporated into the final RET script.

A similar rating procedure was employed with the PC script. Here, ratings were completed by 5 respondents: 3 college counsellors with Masters degrees and a minimum of 14 years counselling experience, and two second-year graduate students in the Master's programme in counselling at Simon Fraser University. On the 10-point scale, the mean Realism score was 8.1.

Four videotapes, portraying the two approaches, each with a male or female client, were prepared using the revised scripts. The female client was portrayed by a 4th year theatre student, and the male client was portrayed by a 1st year graduate student in the Master's programme in counselling at Simon Fraser University. The counsellor was played by a graduate student who had completed all but her thesis for the Master's degree in counselling. To ensure that participants in the study attended mainly to counsellor behaviours when they viewed the tapes, a procedure suggested by Bachman (1977) was used in filming the sessions. The camera focus was almost exclusively on the counsellor. The client was seen only at the beginning of the session, and briefly partway through each session. (In a pilot viewing, five of six participants felt that the almost total focus on the counsellor affected their reaction to the videotapes. Four of these five felt that the effect was positive, and for two of these four respondents, the effect was in the desired direction, that is, the viewers focused on what the counsellor was doing, while for the other two, the result was greater identification with the client.)

Although the scripts for each session and approach were of equal length, there were unavoidable differences in the lengths of the finished videotapes. These differences were due to variations in the pacing and speech rates of the male and female actor-clients. For the female client, the videotape lengths for the RET and PC sessions were 15.41 and 16.01 minutes respectively. For the male client, the RET session was 17.22 minutes and the PC session was 19.27 minutes in duration.

Two additional videotapes (one female, one male) were prepared for Phase three of the study. Each tape contained 12 segments from the original tapes, with each segment showing a preceding client comment and the counsellor's response to that comment. Selection of comments was guided by Hill's (1978) Counsellor Verbal Response Category System, (see Appendix F) and Friedlander, Thibodeau, and Ward's (1985) characterization of these response categories as being low, moderate, or high in structure. An attempt was made to include a representative sample of responses of low, moderate, and high structure. The number of segments chosen was guided by the need to limit the demands on research participants. Six segments were chosen from each of the RET and PC sessions (actual segments are highlighted on the scripts in Appendix D). In viewing the tapes in Phase three, participants saw the following sequence: client comment followed by the counsellor response followed by the printed text of the counsellor's response. The printed text was programmed to remain on the monitor screen for 2 minutes. Except for the first 'test' segment, the order of the segments on the videotape was randomly determined.

Tape Ratings

All videotapes were rated by working counsellors or graduate students in the Master's programme in counselling, using the following criteria.

(1) Authenticity: How similar are the taped sessions to 'real' counselling sessions? To obtain a rating on authenticity, a Counsellor Rating Scale (see Appendix F) was developed which contained the following directions:

The tapes which you are about to see are a kind of distillation to give an idea, in a relatively short time period, of what two very different counselling approaches (Person-Centered and Rational Emotive Therapy) are like.

Keeping the above in mind, please rate each of the sessions on their degree of similarity to a 'real' counselling session. (Use a rating scale of 1 to 10, with 1 = least similar and 10 = most similar.)

Respondents were also asked to rate, on a 10-point scale, the accuracy of the portrayal of each of the approaches, if they had familiarity with the approach.

(2) Are the differences in structure between the two approaches of sufficient magnitude, and is there agreement between raters about these differences? A modification of the Perception of Structure Scale used by Stein and Stone (1978) was employed to measure respondents' perception of structure (see Appendix G). The same instrument was also used to obtain a rating of research participants' perception of structure.

(3) Is there agreement among raters in their assignment of phase three counsellor responses to the available counsellor response categories? A condition was set that there had to be 100% agreement among 'expert' raters

on those counsellor responses which would be used to assess the accuracy of participants' perceptions of counsellor behaviours in Phase three.

Five volunteer raters were solicited from the students in a graduate course in vocational counselling. Three raters were in the Master's program in counselling (two had completed the first year and one had completed the second year) and two raters were special students in the course. All reported counselling experience ($M = 8.6$ years; $SD = 6.8$), and all had some familiarity with the two counselling approaches. Table 3.2 summarizes the videotape ratings.

Phase Two Sessions Rating Sheet

This sheet (see Appendix H) was designed to ascertain participants' attention to the viewing task (Questions 1 and 2), to test confirmation or disconfirmation of their expectations and preferences (Questions 3 and 4), and to obtain their global preference and helpfulness ratings for each counselling approach (Questions 5 and 6). Questions 7 and 8 are open-ended questions which allowed participants to respond freely in stating their reactions to each session. Question 9 was designed to determine if the participant had an overall positive or negative set to counselling.

Phase Three Category and Helpfulness Rating Sheet.

The purpose of this scale (see Appendix I) was to provide information on participants' responses to specific counsellor verbal behaviours, that is, to determine if participants were able to identify and categorize specific counsellor responses, and whether they found these responses differentially helpful, both within subjects and between subjects at different levels of cognitive development. The category rating system was suggested by the

Table 3.2

Means and standard deviations of ratings by sophisticated raters of the Person Centered (PC) and Rational Emotive Therapy (RET) videotaped counselling sessions. (N = 5)

Session	Similarity to a real session ^a	
	Mean	SD
PC (female)	7.0	2.0
PC (male)	7.0	.71
RET (female)	7.2	1.3
RET (male)	6.8	.84

	Accuracy of portrayal of approach ^a	
PC	8.0	1.41
RET	7.6	2.30

	Estimated degree of structure in each session ^b	
PC	3.6 ^c	2.30
RET	7.0	1.22

^aBased on a 10-point rating scale

^bBased on a 9-point rating scale

^cOne rater actually rated the PC session as being more structured. If this rating is omitted, the figures are: PC: $\underline{M} = 2.75$; $\underline{SD} = 1.5$; RET: $\underline{M} = 7.5$; $\underline{SD} = .58$.

degree of structure rating used in the Friedlander, Thibodeau and Ward (1985) study.

Procedure

The procedure consisted of three phases. Figure 3.1 shows a summary of the procedure and the hypotheses tested at each phase.

	PHASE 1	PHASE 2	PHASE 3
Procedure	Administration of assessment instruments	Viewing of videotaped sessions of two counselling approaches. Ratings of preferences and helpfulness.	Detailed tape analysis. Identification of counsellor responses and helpfulness ratings.
Hypotheses tested	1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6	6, 7	7, 8

Figure 3.1. Summary of the procedure and hypotheses tested at each phase of the study.

Phase One

In the first research session, a brief explanation was given on Simon Fraser University's requirements for ethical research procedures, and each participant was asked to read and complete the 'Informed Consent' form, a sheet explaining 'Procedures for the Study' (see Appendix J), and a 'Confidential Information Sheet' (see Appendix K). A packet containing the assessment instruments (MER, TIB, and EAC-B) was distributed to each

participant. The following directions were then given orally to all participants.

Thank you for agreeing to participate in this study. In the study, we are interested in finding out the kinds of expectations that students have about counselling and their perceptions about what occurs in counselling. We hope the results of the study will be a guide to improving counselling services at post-secondary institutions. This is the first of two sessions. In the second session, we will be showing you some examples of actual counselling interviews.

In this first session, we want to get an idea of your thoughts and opinions in a number of different areas, so you will be filling out three questionnaires. In your envelope you will find three questionnaires or surveys: the Opinion Survey (Form TIB), the Measure of Epistemological Reflection, and the Expectations About Counselling-Brief Form. Please check to see that you have all three questionnaires. This is also the order in which I would like you to complete them. The first questionnaire that we will do - the TIB Opinion Survey - will be timed: you will have two minutes to give your responses to each item. There are 9 items and there are no right or wrong answers; your own opinion is what is required. I will tell you when it is time to turn the page for each new item.

After you finish the TIB Survey, please complete the MER and then the EAC-B. On the other two questionnaires,

you may take as much time as you need but they probably work better if you work as quickly as you can. Please read the directions for each questionnaire as carefully as you can. If you have any questions at any time, please feel free to ask me.

From the pilot study, it became evident that many students were uncertain about the meaning of 'epistemological,' so at the beginning of each Phase One session, students were given the following clarification: "epistemology is a branch of philosophy which has to do with the study of knowledge - how we acquire it and how we justify what we know. In this case you will be asked about your opinion on aspects of academic knowledge."

Because the TIB was the only instrument that was timed, it was administered first, thus ensuring that there were no time constraints on the completion of the MER and the EAC-B. To keep the two cognitive measures together, the MER was administered second. Instructions for the EAC-B were modified to include a preferences component. The same order of administration applied to all participants. The average completion time for all three instruments was about 1.5 hours. For most sessions, the number of participants ranged from 3 to 5, although in some cases individual testing was done. Because of their schedules, five participants were allowed to take the MER and EAC-B home for completion after they had completed the timed survey.

When they had responded to all three instruments, participants were asked to make an appointment to attend the second research session to complete Phases Two and Three.

Phase Two

Subjects were asked to view the two videotaped sessions. For the subjects' information, the tapes were labelled simply "A" and "B." Order of presentation of the tapes was counterbalanced, and subjects were assigned, in a semi-random fashion, to view either session A first, or session B first. (Because of an attempt to have a nearly equal number of first presentations of each approach, a completely random ordering was not possible.)

Before viewing the tapes, subjects were given the following directions. Thanks for attending this second session of our study. As you may know, counsellors use a number of different techniques and approaches. Today you will be viewing some videotapes of two different counselling sessions. As you watch these tapes, try to imagine that you are the client who is talking to the counsellor, and try to be aware of your reactions.

The focus of these tapes is almost exclusively on the counsellor, as I would like you to pay special attention to the approach the counsellor is taking and what she is doing.

Please watch these tapes closely, as at the end of the viewing, you will be asked to fill out a sheet giving your reactions and to answer some questions about what you have seen. Later, I will also be showing selected segments from these tapes and will be asking you questions about the segments, but I will explain that later. Before I start the tapes, are there any questions? If not, I have just one request: that you not talk to your neighbor while you are watching the tapes or filling out the sheets.

Participants were then shown Session A on the tape. When Session A was finished, the Phase Two Rating Sheet was distributed and the following directions were given.

This rating sheet asks you to give your reactions to the sessions you have observed, as well as to answer a few general questions about counselling. When you are filling out this sheet, remember that there are no right or wrong answers; what is important is your own individual reaction to what you have seen. At this point, please read the directions and complete page one only. If there is something you don't understand on the rating sheet, please ask me.

When you have finished, please turn your sheet over so that I know that you have finished

After everyone had completed the first page, Tape Session B was shown. At the end of Session B, participants were asked to complete the rest of the Phase Two Rating Sheet as well as the Structure Scale. Directions for the Structure Scale were as follows.

This sheet asks you to give a different kind of rating for each of the counselling sessions. Please read the directions and go ahead with your ratings. Again, when you have finished please turn your sheet over.

Phase Three

This phase was intended to expand on the information obtained in Phase Two, and immediately followed completion of the Structure Scale. In this phase, participants were shown the tape containing the selected counsellor responses, after they were given the following directions.

This time I would like you to look at the session in a bit more detail. You will be seeing segments of the two counselling sessions. The sequence will go like this: each video segment will show the client's preceding comment and the counsellor's response to that comment. The tape will stop each time after the counsellor's comment, and the text of the comment will appear on the screen for two minutes. When the tape stops, I would like you to see if you can identify what the counsellor is doing. Here is a list which gives a number of possible categories to help you make your choice. Choose one or more categories to indicate what you think the counsellor is doing at that point. I would also like you to indicate, by filling out the attached Helpfulness Rating Scale, how helpful you would think that particular response would be if you were the person being counselled.

You will be allowed two minutes to make your choice for each counsellor response. Although the printed text is programmed to stay on the screen for two minutes, we've found that for some counsellor responses people don't need the full two minutes to make their rating. So when you have made your rating, please raise your hand briefly so that I will know that you are finished with that rating. If everyone is finished before the two minutes are up, I will fast-forward to the next segment. (It was found that the full two minutes were almost never needed. In fact, most participants had completed their ratings within one minute.)

Both the sheet with the counselling categories on it, and the Category and Helpfulness Rating Sheet were handed out at this point, and participants were given a few minutes to read and consider the counselling categories.

Does anyone have any questions? Let's look at the first counsellor comment to make sure you have the idea.

The first 'test' segment was then shown.

Does everyone get the idea? Does anyone have any questions? If not, here's the next counsellor comment.

After all segments had been shown, and participants had completed their ratings, questions or comments about the study were encouraged.

Participants were given a sheet explaining again the purpose of the study (see Appendix L), and informed that when the results had been analyzed, a summary of the results would be made available on request.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The results of the study are discussed in five sections. The first section reports the preliminary analyses of the data and includes descriptive statistics and some univariate analyses. As mentioned in Chapter 3, the procedure was carried out in three phases: (a) Phase One, completion of the developmental measures and the Expectations about Counselling-Brief Form (EAC-B); (b) Phase Two, participant rating of the two videotaped counselling sessions; and (c) Phase Three, participant rating of specific counsellor responses selected from the two sessions. The second section presents analyses of the data from Phase One. The third section reports the analyses of the data from Phase Two. The analyses of the data from Phase Three are reported in section four. In the second, third, and fourth sections, univariate (ANCOVA) or multivariate (MANCOVA) analysis of covariance were employed in the comparison of means. A summary of all the results is presented in the final section.

Preliminary Analyses

In addition to analyses of the relationship between the dependent variables and developmental level, preliminary analyses were performed in order to examine: (a) the reliability of the measures of development and the EAC-B, (b) the differences between expectations and preferences on the EAC-B, (c) participants' perception of the differences in structure between the two counselling approaches, (d) the importance for participants of the problem presented in the videotaped counselling sessions, (e) the likelihood of the

participants seeking counselling, and (f) the overall preferences for the two approaches. These preliminary analyses are presented below.

Reliability of the Developmental Measures and the EAC-B

Two instruments, the Measure of Epistemological Reflection (MER; Baxter Magolda & Porterfield, 1988) and the This I Believe Test (TIB; Harvey, 1969) were used to assess participants' level of cognitive development. The reliability of each instrument was estimated by measuring the degree of agreement between raters. The procedure differed somewhat for each of the measures.

Measure of Epistemological Reflection (MER)

The reader is reminded that all protocols were scored by me and one other rater.¹¹ All raters, including the author, had received certification as a rater for the MER (Baxter Magolda & Porterfield, 1982). Certification requires a .80 correlation with expert ratings on a set of 20 MER test protocols. All ratings were completed without the rater's knowledge of the respondent's age, education, or gender. After the initial ratings, an attempt was made to resolve any disagreements between raters by discussion and/or re-rating. If no resolution could be reached by this process, an average of the two ratings was used in the analysis. Note that although I scored all MER protocols, for the second rating, the protocols were divided among three different raters. For purposes of analysis, the MER scores were subdivided into five levels: level one = 1.0-2.5, level two = 2.51-3.0, level three = 3.01-3.50, level four = 3.51-4.0, level five = 4.01+. Table 4.1 shows the number of participants at each MER level.

The internal consistency coefficient for the MER was .76.

¹¹ For a detailed description of the rating procedure, see Chapter 3.

In their MER assessment manual, Baxter Magolda and Porterfield (1988) rated subjects as falling into one of five 'positions,' depending on the reasoning structure (dualism, transition, or relativism) which subjects demonstrated in their responses to the questions on the MER. In the present study almost 80% of the participants had scores which fell into what Baxter Magolda and Porterfield (1988) designate as 'transition' (positions three and four). There were few purely dualistic scores (Baxter Magolda & Porterfield positions one and two), as most position two participants showed some evidence of position three thinking. Finally, there were even fewer participants who demonstrated thinking at position five (relativistic thought); most were in transition from position four.

Table 4.1

Distribution of participants at each MER Level and each TIB Stage (N = 189)

Measure	Developmental Level				
	One	Two	Three	Four	Five
MER Level	23	62	51	38	15
TIB Stage	25	26	78	59	

Because the main focus of the study was on the behaviour of individuals at the extremes of the developmental scale (dualism vs. relativism), and to

ensure a sufficient sample size for comparison of these extremes, my division of the MER positions differed somewhat from the original Baxter Magolda and Porterfield (1988) divisions. However, my procedure still ensured that participants' thinking at each level was indicative of the developmental positions proposed by the Perry Scheme. Consequently, MER level one (with a range of 1.0 to 2.5) consisted of those individuals whose thinking was mainly dualistic, and MER level five (ratings higher than 4.01) consisted of those who showed some elements of relativistic thought.

This I Believe Test (TIB)

I also scored all TIB protocols, but the second rating of these protocols was done by the following procedure. Three groups of 30 protocols (for a total of 90 protocols) were randomly selected from the total 189 protocols. These three groups of protocols were then sent to two other raters for scoring. A second rater scored one group of 30, and a third rater scored the other two groups (60 protocols). I received TIB rating experience by scoring protocols previously scored by those working under the supervision of Dr. Stephen S. Craig (see Craig & Hennessy, 1989). The second raters were also graduate students under Dr. Craig's supervision. As with the MER protocols, all ratings were done blind. This procedure ensured that a randomly selected sample of at least 50% of the TIB protocols was scored by a second rater.

Scoring of the TIB requires assignment of participant responses to one of four distinct stages (Harvey, 1967), and no allowance is made for the assignment of partial or transitional scores between stages. Consequently, resolution by averaging is not possible for TIB ratings. Exact interrater agreements were .90 for two of the groups and .93 for the third group. The distribution of participants at each TIB stage is shown in Table 4.1.

Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B)

The alpha coefficients for internal consistency for each of the EAC-B scales is reported in Table 4.2. It may be seen that for the expectations data, reliability estimates ranged from .54 to .82, with a median reliability of .73. For the preferences data, the range was from .50 to .78, with a median of .64. These reliabilities are lower than those reported by Tinsley (1982; range of .69 to .82; median of .77), Tinson, Hinson, Holt, and Tinsley (1990; range of .71 to .87; median of .81), or Tinsley, Workman, and Kass (1980; range of .77 to .89; median of .82). For expectations, only four of the EAC-B scale reliabilities (Confrontation, Directiveness, Genuineness, and Immediacy) were the same as, or higher than those reported in the EAC-B manual (Tinsley, 1982). With the exception of the Directiveness scale, all scale reliabilities for preferences were lower than the Tinsley (1982) coefficients. This latter finding is perhaps to be expected, considering that the addition of preference ratings to the EAC-B may have changed the nature of the relationship between individual EAC-B scale items.

Differences between Expectations and Preferences

As mentioned in Chapter 2, there has been considerable discussion as to whether the original expectations research examined actual pre-therapy expectations (clients' anticipations of what will happen) or preferences (what the client would like to have happen). This distinction was addressed in the present study by having participants indicate both their expectations and preferences on the EAC-B. The distinction is especially important here because expectations may simply be a function of common preconceptions about counselling, whereas preferences are more likely to reflect the developmental needs of respondents.

Table 4.2

Reliability coefficients of the Expectations About Counseling (EAC-B) scales for expectations and preferences.

EAC-B Scale	Reliability Coefficient		
	Expectations Alpha	Preference Alpha	Tinsley (1982) Alpha*
<u>Client Attitude</u>			
Motivation	.73	.71	.77
Openness	.68	.62	.81
Responsibility	.55	.51	.70
<u>Helper Attitude</u>			
Acceptance	.64	.76	.81
Confrontation	.82	.75	.82
Directiveness	.73	.78	.69
Empathy	.54	.64	.71
Genuineness	.76	.51	.76
Nurturance	.74	.69	.75
Self Disclosure	.77	.78	.80
<u>Helper Characteristic</u>			
Attractiveness	.66	.64	.76
Expertise	.62	.64	.75
Tolerance	.62	.64	.71
Trustworthiness	.75	.74	.78
<u>Counselling Process</u>			
Concreteness	.77	.77	.79
Immediacy	.73	.50	.69
Outcome	.71	.56	.81

* Reliability coefficients in the right column are from the Expectations About Counseling Manual (Tinsley, 1982) and are printed here for comparison purposes.

In the preliminary analysis, comparisons were made between respondents' expectations and preferences on each of the EAC-B scales. In the administration of the EAC-B, each item on the EAC-B was prefaced by the words "I expect to" or "I expect the counsellor to," or (in the case of preferences) the word "prefer" was substituted for "expect." Participants indicated their choice on a 7-point Likert scale, with response options ranging from "definitely not true" (1) to "definitely true" (7). As described in Chapter 3, scale scores for each participant on the EAC-B are arrived at by summing the responses to the items assigned to each scale and dividing by the number of items in that EAC-B scale. Mean expectancy and preference scale scores based on the scale scores of all 189 participants were obtained. Paired samples t-tests were performed on these total means to compare the differences between overall (ignoring developmental differences) expectations and preferences on each EAC-B scale. Results from the dependent paired samples t-tests indicated that, with the exception of the Motivation scale, ($t = 1.66, p = .098$), expectations differed from preferences on all other EAC-B scales ($p < .001$). In all cases where there were significant differences, preferences were greater than expectations. Table 4.3 shows overall means, standard deviations and t-test results for all EAC-B scales.

Usually, the use of multiple t-tests would increase the risk of a Type I error by inflating the experiment-wise alpha. However, there is some precedent for using this analytical procedure with EAC-B data (Tinsley & Benton, 1978). In addition, if one uses the formula suggested by Leary and Altmaier (1980) where experiment-wise alpha level is equal to $1 - (1 - \alpha)^c$ (where c is the number of comparisons performed), with a stringent comparisonwise alpha of .001, even with 17 comparisons (as were done here), the experiment-wise alpha is a respectable .017.

It may be said then, that there are significant differences between participants' expectations and preferences, and that in almost all cases, preference scores were higher than expectations scores. Because of these differences, the expectations and preferences data were analyzed separately.

Table 4.3

Means, standard deviations and t test results for expectations and preferences on the Expectations About Counseling (EAC-B) scales (N = 186)

	<u>Expectations</u>	<u>Preferences</u>	<u>t(185)</u>	<u>p</u>
<u>Client Attitude</u>				
Motivation	4.38 (1.59)	4.22 (1.62)	1.661	.098
Openness	5.08 (1.32)	5.66 (1.29)	5.738	.000
Responsibility	5.81 (.99)	6.09 (.94)	4.806	.000
<u>Helper Attitude</u>				
Acceptance	4.36 (1.33)	5.60 (1.28)	13.325	.000
Confrontation	4.79 (1.46)	5.48 (1.39)	7.420	.000
Directiveness	3.61 (1.52)	4.08 (1.66)	4.268	.000
Empathy	3.46 (1.29)	4.40 (1.58)	8.856	.000
Genuineness	5.63 (1.23)	6.59 (.68)	11.381	.000
Nurturance	5.05 (1.31)	5.72 (1.24)	8.574	.000
Self Disclosure	3.20 (1.54)	4.09 (1.77)	8.991	.000
<u>Helper Characteristics</u>				
Attractiveness	4.09 (1.29)	5.80 (1.14)	19.524	.000
Expertise	4.67 (1.32)	5.23 (1.30)	6.980	.000
Tolerance	4.52 (1.28)	5.47 (1.21)	11.427	.000
Trustworthiness	5.15 (1.33)	6.34 (.95)	12.115	.000
<u>Counselling Process</u>				
Concreteness	5.20 (1.24)	5.96 (1.10)	9.756	.000
Immediacy	5.14 (1.24)	5.71 (1.01)	7.392	.000
Outcome	5.15 (1.35)	6.11 (.98)	10.684	.000

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses. All scores are on a 7-point Likert scale where 7 = highest expectation or preference.

Perception of Differences in Structure

One prediction in this study was that the need for structure would be related to developmental level. Based on previous research (Friedlander, Thibodeau, & Ward, 1985), an assumption was made that after viewing the videotape of the two counselling approaches, the Person Centred (PC) approach would be rated by participants as being low in structure, and the Rational Emotive (RET) approach would be rated as high in structure. Participants' mean ratings (on a 9-point scale) of the degree of structure in the PC and RET sessions were 3.06 ($SD = 2.62$) and 6.70 ($SD = 1.58$) respectively. A paired samples t test indicated that there was a significant difference in the mean structure ratings of the two approaches, $t = 17.52, p < .001$. Thus, it may be concluded that respondents were aware of the differences in structure of the two counselling sessions, and that some degree of stimulus fidelity had been achieved.

Problem Importance

Another assumption in the design was that procrastination was a concern with which most students could identify, and which they would have encountered personally at some point in their academic experience. For this reason, procrastination was chosen as the presenting client problem in the videotaped sessions. In response to the question, "How important is this problem (procrastination) for you?", the mean rating for all participants on a 7-point scale (where 7 was the highest rating) was 4.92 ($SD = 1.59$). The frequencies for each rating on the "Problem Importance" scale are reported in Table 4.4.

Tendency to Seek Counselling

Participation in the study was restricted to individuals who stated that

they had never received professional counselling. This restriction was intended to ensure that participants' expectations would not be influenced by prior exposure to counselling. At the same time, it was important to establish whether this lack of contact was associated with a negative attitude towards counselling. In Phase Two, participants were asked: "If something was bothering you, how likely would you be to discuss it with a counsellor?" On a 7-point scale, the mean rating for all participants was 3.51 ($SD = 1.84$). (See Table 4.4 for the frequencies for the "Tendency to Seek Counselling" ratings.)

With a median rating of 3.0, these scores represent a rather modest endorsement of counselling. However, when participants were asked to give reasons for their response to this question, even some who gave a low rating indicated that they would contact a counsellor if they had a "serious problem," and others commented that, after seeing the videotapes, they would consider seeking counselling.

Overall Preference for Counselling Approach

In order to interpret the results, it was important to determine whether there was a preferential bias in participants' responses (reactions) to each of the counselling approaches. After viewing the videotape, participants were asked the following question: "If you had a concern you wanted to discuss with a counsellor, how likely would you be to prefer each of the counselling approaches?" Response options, on a 7-point Likert scale, ranged from "not at all likely" (1) to "very likely" (7). Mean ratings (based on all participants' ratings collapsed across developmental levels) for PC and RET were 4.08 ($SD = 2.02$) and 5.09 ($SD = 1.83$) respectively. Results from a paired samples t test indicated that there was a preferential bias towards RET, $t(170) = 4.14, p < .001$.

T-test comparisons of participants' mean response ratings to

Table 4.4.

Distribution of response ratings to the probes about the importance of the problem (procrastination) shown in the videotaped session and participant's likelihood of seeking counselling (N = 171)

Scale	Likert Scale Rating						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Problem							
Importance	3	16	17	17	49	40	29
Tendency to							
Seek Counselling	25	44	20	25	26	21	10

Note. Ratings are given on a 7-point scale where, on the "Problem importance" probe, 1 = "not at all important;" 7 = very important." On the "Tendency to seek counselling" probe, 1 = "not at all likely;" 7 = "very likely."

other questions ("How similar was this session to what you would prefer counselling to be like?" and "How helpful would you have found this session if you were the client?"), also on a 7-point scale, indicated that, when developmental differences are disregarded, participants found the RET session to be more similar to what they would prefer counselling to be like, $t(170) = 4.23, p < .001$, and that they would find RET to be more helpful, $t(170) = 4.94, p < .001$. The implications of this preferential bias will be discussed in Chapter 6.

Tests of Hypotheses

The following results pertain to the hypotheses presented in Chapter 2. In sections two, three, and four, I report the results of analyses which examine the relationship between intellectual (MER) and social-cognitive (TIB) development, and the relationship between developmental level and the dependent variables in each phase of the study. The dependent variables in each phase were: Phase One - expectation and preference scores on the EAC-B, Phase Two - preference and helpfulness ratings for the two counselling approaches, Phase Three - accuracy of participants' perceptions and helpfulness ratings of selected counsellor responses.

Univariate (ANCOVA) or multivariate analyses of variance or covariance (MANCOVA) were computed on the Phase One, Two, and Three variables. For the MANCOVAs, the test statistic used was the Pillai Bartlett V because it is recommended by Olson (1976) as being the most robust against departures from normality and homogeneity of variance. In order to remove the variance attributable to demographic variables, age, education, and sex (6 x 6 x 2) served as covariates in all analyses. These analyses are reported below.

Phase One Analyses

These analyses pertain to data collected before participants had viewed the videotape showing the two counselling approaches.

Relationship between MER and TIB

It was predicted that there would be a significant relationship between levels of development as measured by the MER and the TIB. The Pearson correlations reported in Table 4.5 indicate that this prediction is confirmed, as the correlation between MER and TIB scores is .42 ($p < .001$). From Table 4.5, it may also be seen that both developmental measures were significantly related

to age and education, although the relationship may be stronger for MER, $r = .39, p < .001$, than for TIB, $r = .26, p < .01$. Both of these relations are to be expected, as developmental level and education are naturally associated with increases in age. In addition, the Perry Scheme (of which MER is a measure) specifically predicts changes in intellectual development as a function of years of education completed.

Table 4.5

Intercorrelations between MER Level, TIB Stage, age and education (N = 186)

	MER	TIB	Age	Education
MER	1.0			
TIB	.42**	1.0		
Age	.24*	.25*	1.0	
Education	.39**	.26*	.54**	1.0

Note. Education is categorized into six levels

* $p < .01$ ** $p < .001$

Relationship between Developmental Level and Expectations about Counselling

The omnibus hypothesis was that differences in pre-videotape expectations (scores on the EAC-B) would be related to level of development (MER and TIB scores). A MANCOVA (with age, education, and sex as covariates) was employed to compare all mean EAC-B scale scores. Hummel and Sligo (1971) recommend that significant results from a multivariate analyses of variance be followed up by univariate analysis to determine which variables account

for the significant multivariate effect. If the multivariate test is not significant, no further analysis is carried out to test the omnibus hypothesis. This procedure was followed in this study.

However, relationships between specific EAC-B scales and specific developmental levels were also hypothesized. Leary and Altmaier (1980) have suggested that in situations where the researcher has explicit, specific hypothesis about certain variables, "performing a single multivariate analysis . . . may be overly conservative, and, although minimizing the chance of Type I error, may prevent one from finding true between-groups differences" (p. 614). In such cases, multivariate analyses of subsets of variables may be acceptable. In the present study, subsets of the EAC-B scale scores were compared by performing separate MANCOVAs for each subset. The subsets of variables consisted of expectations for: (a) Responsibility, Directiveness, and Expertness, (b) Self Disclosure and Genuineness, and (c) Nurturance and Acceptance. The analyses of these subsets are reported under the appropriate headings below.

Omnibus hypothesis: expectations and developmental level. EAC-B scale score means and standard deviations across MER Levels and TIB stages are reported in Tables 4.6 and 4.7 respectively. The results of a MANCOVA indicated that there were no significant differences in the expectations of participants at different MER levels, $F(68, 652) = 1.05, p = .38$.

Table 4.6

Means and standard deviations of expectations on the Expectations About Counseling (EAC-B) scales of students classified by MER levels (N = 186)

EAC-B Scale	MER Level				
	One (n = 23)	Two (n = 60)	Three (n = 50)	Four (n = 38)	Five (n = 15)
<u>Client Attitude</u>					
Motivation	4.38 (1.70)	4.15 (1.63)	4.95 (1.48)	4.04 (1.65)	4.25 (1.07)
Openness	5.12 (.97)	5.22 (1.31)	4.96 (1.50)	5.05 (1.38)	4.91 (1.17)
Responsibility	5.96 (.94)	5.58 (1.12)	5.83 (.93)	6.08 (.74)	5.73 (1.11)
<u>Helper Attitude</u>					
Acceptance	4.57 (1.55)	4.27 (1.35)	4.51 (1.36)	4.18 (1.24)	4.38 (.99)
Confrontation	4.48 (1.67)	4.93 (1.32)	4.97 (1.48)	4.68 (1.43)	4.40 (1.63)
Directiveness	3.78 (1.56)	4.03 (1.56)	3.53 (1.41)	3.32 (1.46)	2.71 (1.37)
Empathy	3.59 (1.27)	3.43 (1.23)	3.49 (1.29)	3.42 (1.48)	3.38 (1.16)
Genuineness	5.58 (1.40)	5.70 (1.28)	5.82 (1.22)	5.43 (1.01)	5.25 (1.07)
Nurturance	5.15 (1.68)	5.14 (1.38)	5.06 (1.16)	4.81 (1.27)	5.13 (1.03)
Self Disclosure	3.41 (1.49)	3.53 (1.52)	3.20 (1.69)	2.89 (1.29)	2.25 (1.37)
<u>Helper Characteristic</u>					
Attractiveness	4.03 (1.36)	4.06 (1.26)	4.13 (1.35)	4.05 (1.39)	4.25 (.77)
Expertise	4.55 (1.61)	5.02 (1.18)	4.72 (1.35)	4.25 (1.25)	4.38 (1.14)
Tolerance	4.74 (1.41)	4.46 (1.35)	4.70 (1.39)	4.26 (1.01)	4.47 (.84)
Trustworthiness	4.99 (1.54)	5.20 (1.28)	5.37 (1.28)	4.93 (1.38)	5.05 (1.23)
<u>Counselling Process</u>					
Concreteness	4.96 (1.30)	5.38 (1.19)	5.33 (1.32)	5.09 (1.20)	4.76 (1.12)
Immediacy	5.13 (1.17)	5.19 (1.30)	5.27 (1.20)	4.89 (1.33)	5.23 (1.08)
Outcome	5.28 (1.31)	5.13 (1.41)	5.16 (1.39)	5.09 (1.38)	5.14 (1.13)

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses. All scores are on a seven-point Likert scale where seven = highest expectation.

Table 4.7

Means and standard deviations of expectations on the Expectations About Counselling (EAC-B) scales of students classified by TIB stage (N = 185)

EAC-B Scale	TIB Stage			
	One (<u>n</u> = 25)	Two (<u>n</u> = 26)	Three (<u>n</u> = 77)	Four (<u>n</u> = 57)
<u>Client Attitude</u>				
Motivation	4.68 (1.44)	4.44 (1.65)	4.33 (1.72)	4.25 (1.46)
Openness	5.40 (1.34)	4.97 (1.36)	5.14 (1.19)	4.88 (1.46)
Responsibility	5.90 (1.01)	5.89 (.84)	5.66 (1.09)	5.95 (.89)
<u>Helper Attitude</u>				
Acceptance	4.69 (1.46)	3.92 (1.56)	4.44 (1.27)	4.26 (1.16)
Confrontation	5.49 (1.14)	4.42 (1.82)	4.73 (1.36)	4.71 (1.43)
Directiveness	4.37 (1.45)	3.39 (1.37)	3.67 (1.51)	3.25 (1.47)
Empathy	3.88 (1.10)	3.27 (1.40)	3.53 (1.28)	3.20 (1.22)
Genuineness	5.48 (1.16)	5.49 (1.39)	5.79 (1.31)	5.51 (1.06)
Nurturance	5.80 (.98)	4.80 (1.39)	4.99 (1.37)	4.92 (1.24)
Self Disclosure	4.11 (1.83)	3.15 (1.54)	3.14 (1.45)	2.83 (2.83)
<u>Helper Characteristic</u>				
Attractiveness	4.00 (1.62)	3.95 (1.45)	4.18 (1.26)	4.04 (1.09)
Expertise	5.24 (1.21)	4.63 (1.33)	4.75 (1.34)	4.30 (1.22)
Tolerance	4.76 (1.35)	4.33 (1.30)	4.54 (1.41)	4.44 (1.03)
Trustworthiness	5.14 (1.37)	5.23 (1.59)	5.14 (1.29)	5.09 (1.24)
<u>Counselling Process</u>				
Concreteness	5.25 (1.06)	5.24 (1.23)	5.30 (1.22)	5.00 (1.34)
Immediacy	5.33 (1.24)	4.70 (1.42)	5.33 (1.14)	5.00 (1.26)
Outcome	5.27 (1.26)	4.81 (1.56)	5.31 (1.23)	5.00 (1.39)

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses. All scores are on a 7-point scale where seven = highest expectation.

The results for the TIB stage expectations were somewhat different: the MANCOVA yielded statistically significant results, $F(51, 486) = 1.47, p = .02$. This significant multivariate effect was followed by ANCOVAs only on those EAC-B scale scores not analyzed as a specific subset. Statistically reliable differences were found on only one "non-hypothesized" EAC-B scale: Confrontation, $F(3, 176) = 2.73, p = .05$. A post hoc Tukey test was calculated to determine which means contributed to the significant results. It was found that respondents at TIB Stage One ($M = 5.49$) had a greater expectation of being confronted by the counsellor for inconsistencies in behaviour or perception than did those respondents at TIB Stage Two ($M = 4.42$), $p = .04$.

Expectations for client responsibility and counsellor directiveness and expertness. It was predicted that participants at MER level one and TIB Stage One would have less expectation of taking responsibility, and a greater expectation that the counsellor would be more directive and expert than respondents at higher levels of development on either measure. The reader is referred once more to Tables 4.6 and 4.7. MANCOVAs were performed on the subset consisting of Responsibility, Directiveness and Expertness scale score means, with either MER levels or TIB stages as independent variables. No differences were found across MER levels, $F(12, 528) = 1.36, p = .18$, or TIB stages, $F(9, 528) = 1.55, p = .13$ on these three scales.

Expectations for counsellor self disclosure and genuineness. It was predicted that respondents at the highest MER level (level five) would have a greater expectation that the counsellor would be more self-revealing and more genuine than would respondents at any other MER level. The results of a MANCOVA of the Self Disclosure and Genuineness scale scores indicated that

there were no statistically detectable MER level differences on these scales, $F(8, 352) = .90, p = .52$.

It was also predicted that TIB Stage Two and Four participants would have greater expectations on these same two scales than would participants at other TIB stages. A MANCOVA of Self Disclosure and Genuineness by TIB stage indicated that there was a significant effect attributable to TIB stage, $F(6, 352) = 2.32, p = .03$. The follow-up ANCOVA results indicated that differences across TIB stages existed for Self Disclosure, $F(3, 176) = 3.35, p = .02$, but not for Genuineness, $F(3, 176) = .92, p = .44$. However, the differences were not in the predicted direction. Post hoc Tukey tests showed that TIB Stage One respondents had greater expectations ($M = 4.11$) than either Stage Three ($M = 3.14$) or Stage Four respondents ($M = 2.83$) that counsellors would share their own experiences or attitudes with clients, $p = .04$ and $.02$ respectively. When TIB Stage One and Stage Two Self Disclosure means were compared by a post hoc Tukey test, the difference was also close to significance, $p = .055$, that is, Stage One ($M = 4.11$) expectations were greater than those of Stage Two ($M = 3.15$).

Expectations for nurturance and acceptance. On these scales, predictions were made only for TIB stages. It was hypothesized that TIB stage three respondents would have a greater expectation for nurturance and acceptance from the counsellor than would respondents at other TIB stages. The MANCOVA test was significant, $F(6, 352) = 2.17, p = .05$. The follow-up ANCOVA RESULTS indicated that only with regard to expectations for Nurturance were there significant differences across TIB stages, $F(3, 176) = 3.333, p = .02$, but the differences were not in the predicted direction. Post hoc Tukey tests indicated that TIB Stage One respondents ($M = 5.80$) had a greater expectation for counsellor praise, encouragement, and support than did those

respondents at any other stage. The means for Stages Two, Three and Four were 4.80, 4.99, and 4.92 respectively, and the corresponding probabilities were .03, .04 and .03. There were no other stage differences on this scale.

Expectations for counselling of TIB Stage Two participants. It was predicted that TIB Stage Two participants would have generally less positive expectations for counselling. There is a number of EAC-B scales which might address this issue, most notably some of the scales having to do with counsellor attitudes or characteristics, or with process characteristics. However, as mentioned before, few developmental differences were found on the relevant scales and where differences were observed, these did not involve participants at Stage Two of development. The most direct EAC-B measure of general expectations for counselling is on the Outcome scale, which is concerned with expectations for changes (in understanding, in relationships and in self-efficacy) that will occur as a result of counselling. ANCOVA results showed no TIB stage differences in the Outcome scale scores, $F(3,176) = 1.18, p = .32$.

Relationship between Preferences for Counselling and Developmental Level

As mentioned previously, at the same time that participants indicated their expectations on the EAC-B, they were also asked, using the same EAC-B items, to indicate what they would prefer to happen in counselling. As reported, (see Table 4.3), when EAC-B scale scores were collapsed across developmental levels, there were differences between expectations and preferences on all scale means except Motivation. Preference scores were therefore analyzed separately. The same analytical procedure was followed for preference scores as for the expectations scores: a MANCOVA was performed on all EAC-B mean scores to test the omnibus hypothesis of a relationship between preferences and developmental level. In addition, MANCOVAs were

performed on subsets of the EAC-B scale scores to test specific hypotheses. Preference means and standard deviations are shown in Tables 4.8 and 4.9 for MER levels and TIB stages respectively.

Omnibus hypothesis: Preferences and developmental level. It was predicted that differences in pre-counselling preferences would be related to level of development. Preference data (EAC-B scale scores) were analyzed with a MANCOVA with Age (6) x Education (6) x Sex (2) as covariates. The MANCOVA results indicated that there were no differences in preferences across MER levels, $F(68,648) = 1.19, p = .15$, but that there were differences across TIB stages, $F(51,482) = 1.37, p = .05$.

The latter significant multivariate effect was followed by ANCOVAs for mean comparisons on those scales for which specific hypotheses had not been formulated. Statistically reliable differences were found only on the Empathy scale, $F(3,176) = 3.02, p = .03$. Post hoc Tukey tests indicated that TIB Stage One respondents ($M = 4.96$) had a stronger preference for empathic behaviour from the counsellor than did Stage Four respondents ($M = 3.93$), $p = .03$.

Preference for client responsibility and counsellor directiveness and expertise. A prediction was made that MER level one and TIB Stage One participants would have less preference for taking responsibility in the counselling process and a greater preference for counsellor directiveness and expertise than would students at higher developmental levels. The MANCOVA results on this subset of variables partially confirmed this prediction for both developmental measures. The overall F ratio for MER level comparisons on Responsibility, Directiveness and Expertise was significant, $F(12,528) = 3.55, p < .001$, as was the F ratio for TIB stage comparisons on these same three scales, $F(9,528) = 3.15, p = .001$.

Table 4.8.

Means and standard deviations of preferences on the Expectations About Counselling (EAC-B) scales of students classified by MER levels (N = 186)

EAC-B Scale	MER Level				
	One (<i>n</i> = 23)	Two (<i>n</i> = 60)	Three (<i>n</i> = 50)	Four (<i>n</i> = 38)	Five (<i>n</i> = 15)
<u>Client Attitude</u>					
Motivation	4.80 (1.62)	6.67 (1.47)	4.49 (1.55)	4.09 (1.89)	4.71 (1.24)
Openness	5.52 (1.28)	5.60 (1.41)	5.57 (1.40)	5.90 (1.09)	5.82 (.86)
Responsibility	5.99 (.99)	5.82 (1.12)	6.16 (.94)	6.36 (.58)	6.33 (.60)
<u>Helper Attitude</u>					
Acceptance	5.71 (1.28)	5.83 (1.24)	5.45 (1.32)	5.38 (1.40)	5.62 (.95)
Confrontation	5.68 (1.67)	5.52 (1.36)	5.52 (1.11)	5.46 (1.46)	4.89 (1.69)
Directiveness	4.62 (1.58)	4.88 (1.36)	3.76 (1.42)	3.54 (1.81)	2.44 (1.30)
Empathy	4.65 (1.62)	4.81 (1.53)	4.13 (1.55)	4.12 (1.72)	3.91 (1.13)
Genuineness	6.52 (.63)	6.59 (.84)	6.63 (.64)	6.55 (.56)	6.67 (.47)
Nurturance	5.71 (1.46)	5.85 (1.32)	5.58 (1.12)	5.66 (1.26)	5.82 (.87)
Self Disclosure	4.07 (1.61)	4.68 (1.70)	3.90 (1.84)	3.95 (1.65)	2.80 (1.68)
<u>Helper Characteristics</u>					
Attractiveness	5.99 (1.18)	5.83 (1.17)	5.77 (1.17)	5.66 (1.15)	5.87 (.83)
Expertise	4.93 (1.64)	5.73 (1.22)	5.15 (1.14)	4.90 (1.25)	4.78 (1.15)
Tolerance	5.61 (1.16)	5.57 (1.33)	5.46 (1.29)	5.37 (1.04)	5.14 (.95)
Trustworthiness	6.33 (.98)	6.42 (.96)	6.37 (.75)	6.15 (1.24)	6.42 (.71)
<u>Counselling Process</u>					
Concreteness	6.04 (1.38)	6.18 (1.03)	5.99 (.93)	5.67(1.11)	5.58 (1.29)
Immediacy	5.74 (.99)	5.64 (1.03)	5.76 (1.04)	5.68 (1.00)	5.83 (.97)
Outcome	5.93 (1.13)	6.18 (1.07)	6.11 (.94)	6.06 (.88)	6.20 (.87)

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses. All scores are on a seven-point Likert scale where seven = highest preference.

Table 4.9.

Means and standard deviations of preferences on the Expectations About Counselling (EAC-B) scales of students classified by TIB stage (N = 185)

EAC-B Scale	TIB Stage			
	One (<u>n</u> = 25)	Two (<u>n</u> = 26)	Three (<u>n</u> = 77)	Four (<u>n</u> = 57)
<u>Client Attitude</u>				
Motivation	3.88 (1.67)	4.23 (1.76)	4.36 (1.59)	4.12 (1.58)
Openness	5.43 (1.51)	5.76 (1.31)	5.81 (1.22)	5.19 (1.37)
Responsibility	6.07 (.86)	6.26 (.84)	5.87 (1.09)	6.32 (.71)
<u>Helper Attitude</u>				
Acceptance	5.89 (1.04)	5.56 (1.31)	5.81 (1.22)	5.19 (1.37)
Confrontation	5.88 (.99)	5.27 (1.57)	5.42 (1.49)	5.44 (1.29)
Directiveness	5.16 (1.38)	4.12 (1.59)	4.30 (1.55)	3.22 (1.56)
Empathy	4.96 (1.27)	4.36 (1.67)	4.54 (1.52)	3.93 (1.64)
Genuineness	6.57 (.60)	6.59 (.68)	6.55 (.83)	6.65 (.47)
Nurturance	6.17 (.77)	5.51 (1.25)	5.82 (1.29)	5.47 (1.28)
Self Disclosure	4.99 (1.64)	4.32 (1.58)	3.99 (1.85)	3.74 (1.72)
<u>Helper characteristic</u>				
Attractiveness	5.91 (1.15)	5.73 (1.10)	5.78 (1.17)	5.81 (1.14)
Expertise	5.69 (.95)	5.31 (1.18)	5.39 (1.40)	4.74 (1.21)
Tolerance	5.76 (.98)	5.06 (1.12)	5.59 (1.38)	5.36 (1.07)
Trustworthiness	6.38 (.89)	6.50 (.81)	6.34 (.99)	6.24 (1.01)
<u>Counselling Process</u>				
Concreteness	6.11 (.97)	6.14 (1.02)	5.97 (1.15)	5.79 (1.13)
Immediacy	5.66 (1.06)	5.41 (1.18)	5.76 (.94)	5.78 (.99)
Outcome	6.08 (.98)	6.04 (1.06)	6.13 (1.03)	6.12 (.91)

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses. All scores are on a 7-point scale where seven = highest preference.

The results from follow up ANCOVAs on the MER level data indicated that there were no differences in preference for client Responsibility, $F(4, 176) = 1.07, p = .37$, but that there were significant differences on the Directiveness scale, $F(4, 176) = 6.86, p < .001$. According to the post hoc Tukey comparisons, MER level one respondents had higher preference scores ($M = 4.62$) on the Directiveness scale than did those respondents at level five ($M = 2.44$), $p = .008$. However, there was also a difference between MER level two Directiveness scores ($M = 4.88$) and the scores of those at levels three ($M = 3.76$), four ($M = 3.54$) and five: $p = .003, .003$ and $< .001$, respectively. ANCOVA results (with cases 50, 91, 108, 114 and 153 identified as outliers and removed from the calculations) also indicated significant MER level differences in preference on the Expertise scale, $F(4, 171) = 3.90, p = .005$. Post hoc Tukey comparisons of the Expertise means showed that level two respondents ($M = 5.73$) had a greater preference for counsellor expertise than did level three ($M = 5.15$), $p = .02$, or level four respondents ($M = 4.90$), $p = .009$.

Follow up ANCOVAs of TIB stage data showed no significant effect for Responsibility, $F(3, 176) = 1.84, p = .14$. There were, however, stage differences on the Directiveness scale, $F(3, 176) = 7.80, p < .001$, and on the Expertise scale, $F(3, 176) = 2.76, p = .04$. Post hoc Tukey comparisons yielded the following results: Stage One respondents had a greater preference ($M = 5.16$) for direction from the counsellor than did Stage Two, ($M = 4.12$), $p = .03$ and Four respondents ($M = 3.22$), $p < .001$. Stage Three respondents ($M = 4.30$) also differed from Stage Four respondents, $p = .006$. In terms of preference for the counsellor to be an expert, Stage One respondents had higher scores ($M = 5.69$) on this scale than did Stage Four respondents ($M = 4.74$), $p = .05$.

Preference for counsellor self disclosure and genuineness. The hypothesized relationships were that, on the Self Disclosure and Genuineness scales, MER level 5 participants would have higher scores than would those participants at any other MER level, and that TIB Stage Two and Four participants would also have higher scores than those at other TIB stages.

MANCOVAs of the scores on these two scales resulted in a nonsignificant multivariate effect for MER level, $F(8, 350) = 1.28, p = .25$, and TIB stage, $F(6, 350) = 1.41, p = .21$. It may be said, then, that there were no developmental differences in preference for the counsellor to reveal aspects of herself or to be a 'real person.' It is interesting to note that, for MER level, differences in the Self Disclosure scale scores, although not significant, were somewhat opposite to those predicted. MER level five participants had lower mean scores (by at least 1.15 on a 7-point scale) than those of participants at any other MER level. Lower preference for counsellor self-disclosure was also evident for TIB stage four participants, although the magnitude of the difference was not as great as for MER level five.

Preference for acceptance and nurturance. Predictions on these scales pertained to the TIB stage three participants only. It was expected that they would have a greater preference to be liked and accepted by, and to receive support and encouragement from, the counsellor. A MANCOVA performed on the Acceptance and Nurturance scale scores produced an overall F ratio which was not significant, $F(8, 352) = .25, p = .98$, indicating that there were no TIB stage differences in preference for counsellor acceptance and nurturance.

Phase Two Analyses

In Phase Two of the study, participants were shown the videotape demonstrations of Person Centred (PC) and Rational Emotive (RET) counselling

sessions. The sessions were simply labelled "A" and "B." After viewing each session, participants were asked four questions (which are given in the appropriate category below) to assess their reactions to what they had seen, and were asked to respond to each question with a rating on a 7-point Likert scale. Mean response ratings to these questions by MER level and TIB stage are reported in Tables 4.10 and 4.11, respectively. On a separate questionnaire (see Structure scale in Appendix H), participants also rated the amount of structure they estimated to be present in each counselling session, and the degree of satisfaction they felt with this estimated structure. Structure ratings are presented in Tables 4.12 and 4.13. Analyses of all Phase Two data are presented below.

Preference for Directive Approach

It was predicted that, after exposure to the videotaped demonstration of non-directive and directive counselling approaches, TIB Stage One and MER level one participants would prefer the directive (RET) approach. Two sets of questions - two of the Phase Two general questions and one of the questions on the Structure Scale - were designed to measure participants' preference for approach.

After viewing one of the videotaped sessions, participants were asked: "How similar was this session to what you would prefer counselling to be like?" Response options on a 7-point scale ranged from "not at all similar" (1) to "very similar" (7). It may be seen from Tables 4.10 and 4.11 (mean response ratings to this question are labelled, "Similarity to Own Preference") that the RET session tended to be closer to their preferences for both MER level one (RET mean = 4.80, PC mean = 3.78) and TIB stage one (RET mean = 5.68, PC mean = 3.48) participants. However, paired samples t-test comparisons of the

Table 4.10

Means and standard deviations of post-videotape ratings of Person-centred (PC) and Rational Emotive (RET) sessions of students classified by MER level (N = 171)

Response Category	MER Level				
	One (<u>n</u> = 20)	Two (<u>n</u> = 54)	Three (<u>n</u> = 46)	Four (<u>n</u> = 37)	Five (<u>n</u> = 14)
Similarity to own Expectations					
PC	4.88 (1.96)	4.74 (1.70)	5.30 (1.21)	5.00 (1.43)	4.93 (1.59)
RET	4.64 (2.25)	5.33 (1.64)	5.52 (1.33)	4.95 (1.78)	4.71 (1.63)
Similarity to own Preferences					
PC	3.78 (2.25)	3.82 (2.05)	4.39 (2.01)	4.11 (2.00)	4.43 (1.79)
RET	4.80 (2.22)	5.50 (1.44)	5.28 (1.53)	4.54 (2.16)	4.71 (2.34)
Helpfulness of session					
PC	3.53 (2.02)	4.00 (1.84)	4.30 (1.92)	4.24 (1.71)	4.29 (1.73)
RET	4.75 (2.22)	5.20 (1.60)	5.41 (1.28)	4.81 (1.85)	4.93 (2.02)
Preferred session					
PC	3.30 (2.23)	3.46 (2.03)	3.80 (2.34)	4.22 (1.99)	4.00 (1.84)
RET	4.70 (2.23)	5.04 (1.76)	4.94 (1.79)	4.38 (2.06)	5.07 (2.17)

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses. All ratings are on a 7-point scale where 7 = highest rating.

Table 4.11

Means and standard deviations of post-videotape ratings of Person-Centred (PC) and Rational Emotive (RET) sessions of students classified by TIB stage (N = 171)

Response Category	TIB Stage			
	One (<u>n</u> = 25)	Two (<u>n</u> = 21)	Three (<u>n</u> = 70)	Four (<u>n</u> = 55)
Similarity to own expectations				
PC	4.56 (1.76)	4.76 (1.73)	5.04 (1.50)	5.18 (1.42)
RET	5.40 (1.58)	4.76 (1.95)	5.40 (1.56)	4.93 (1.77)
Similarity to own preferences				
PC	3.48 (2.18)	3.57 (2.01)	4.28 (2.04)	4.29 (1.90)
RET	5.68 (1.41)	4.67 (2.11)	5.17 (1.69)	4.87 (2.04)
Helpfulness of session				
PC	3.60 (2.06)	3.81 (1.99)	4.26 (1.89)	4.24 (1.61)
RET	5.52 (1.53)	4.81 (1.69)	5.10 (1.65)	5.02 (1.83)
Preferred session				
PC	3.12 (2.19)	3.00 (1.82)	4.10 (2.13)	3.86 (2.09)
RET	5.28 (1.90)	4.48 (1.97)	4.77 (1.84)	4.83 (2.03)

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses. All ratings are on a 7-point scale where 7 = highest rating.

"similarity" means indicated that the difference was not significant for the MER level one participants, $t(19) = 1.21, p = .24$. The RET session was significantly more similar to their preferred approach for the TIB stage one participants, $t(24) = 3.77, p = .001$.

After they had seen both approaches, participants were asked: "If you had a concern you wanted to discuss with a counsellor, how likely would you be to prefer each of the counselling approaches?" As described above, response ratings were given on a 7-point scale with 7 representing the highest rating. Means and standard deviations for the preference ratings (labelled, "Preferred Session") are reported in Tables 4.10 (MER levels) and 4.11 (TIB stages). It may be seen that MER level one participants had a greater preference for the RET session ($M = 4.70$) than for the PC session ($M = 3.30$), but results from a paired samples t -test indicated that this difference was not significant, $t(19) = 1.65, p = .12$. The preference ratings for TIB Stage One participants were in a similar direction: the RET mean preference rating was 5.28 and the PC mean rating was 3.12, and these differences were significant, $t(24) = 3.09, p = .005$.

On the Structure Scale, Participants were given brief descriptions of what would constitute low, medium, and high structure in a counselling interview. In addition to being asked to estimate the amount of structure they thought was actually present in each of the videotaped sessions (these ratings were presented in the preliminary analyses), they were also asked to rate, on a 9-point scale (9 = highest), their own preference for structure ("Personal preference for structure") in an interview: ("Please rate how much structure or direction you would like in an interview").

Mean "Personal Preference" ratings are reported in Tables 4.12 and 4.13 for MER levels and TIB stages respectively. It may be seen that the mean

Table 4.12

Means and standard deviations of ratings on the Structure Scale of students classified by MER level (N = 171)

Session type	MER Level				
	One (<u>n</u> = 20)	Two (<u>n</u> = 54)	Three (<u>n</u> = 46)	Four (<u>n</u> = 37)	Five (<u>n</u> = 14)
	Personal preference for structure ^a				
	5.10 (1.94)	5.46 (1.68)	5.32 (1.61)	5.27 (2.21)	4.79 (1.25)
	Estimate of session's structure ^a				
PC	4.15 (2.78)	2.98 (1.90)	2.91 (2.07)	3.03 (1.72)	2.43 (1.40)
RET	6.40 (2.11)	6.35 (1.70)	6.80 (1.42)	7.27 (1.12)	6.64 (1.55)
	Satisfaction with session ^b				
PC	3.45 (2.31)	3.22 (1.85)	3.37 (2.10)	3.68 (2.03)	3.50 (1.79)
RET	4.50 (2.31)	4.57 (1.65)	4.65 (1.62)	4.43 (2.04)	5.00 (2.11)

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses.

^aRatings are on a 9-point scale where 9 = highest. ^bRatings are on a 7-point scale where 7 = highest.

Table 4.13

Means and standard deviations of ratings on the Structure Scale of students classified by TIB stage (N = 171)

Session Type	TIB Stage			
	One (<u>n</u> = 25)	Two (<u>n</u> = 21)	Three (<u>n</u> = 70)	Four (<u>n</u> = 55)
	Personal preference for structure ^a			
	5.92 (1.50)	5.05 (2.04)	5.11 (1.80)	5.31 (1.75)
	Estimate of session's structure ^a			
Person-centred	2.92 (2.02)	2.91 (2.70)	3.39 (2.02)	2.78 (1.70)
Rational Emotive	6.96 (1.21)	6.67 (1.74)	6.59 (1.86)	6.75 (1.28)
	Satisfaction with session ^b			
Person-centred	2.88 (2.01)	2.91 (1.92)	3.67 (1.92)	3.51 (2.07)
Rational Emotive	4.76 (1.59)	4.38 (1.94)	4.40 (1.90)	4.84 (1.86)

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses.

^aRatings are on a 9-point scale where 9 = highest. ^bRatings are on a 7-point scale where 7 = highest.

preference rating for structure is in the moderate range for both MER level one ($M=5.1, SD = 1.94$) and TIB Stage One ($M=5.92, SD = 1.50$) participants. The results of ANCOVAs indicated that there were no differences across MER levels, $F(4, 161) = .26, p = .91$, or TIB stages, $F(3, 162) = 1.56, p = .20$, in the degree of structure which participants reported they would like in a counselling interview.

A final question on the Structure Scale (one which seems indirectly related to preference and so to the hypothesis) addressed participants' satisfaction with each counselling approach. Participants were asked to give a rating on a 7-point scale in response to the question: "How satisfied would you have been with the amount of structure present in each of the interviews you have seen?" (7 = highest). Means and standard deviations for these "satisfaction with session" ratings are reported in Tables 4.12 (MER levels) and 4.13 (TIB stages). MER level one respondents were somewhat more satisfied with the structured approach (PC mean = 3.45, RET mean = 4.50) but the difference was not significant, $t(19) = 1.17, p = .26$. The TIB Stage One respondents were significantly more satisfied with the RET session (PC mean = 2.88, RET mean = 4.76), $t(24) = 2.84, p = .009$.

It may be concluded then, that when participants were asked to respond to the stimulus (the videotaped sessions), there was at least partial evidence for the predicted relationship. That is, the more directive RET approach not only was more similar to what TIB Stage One participants would prefer counselling to be like, but RET would be the preferred approach if these participants were themselves to seek counselling. TIB Stage One participants also indicated that they would be more satisfied with the amount of structure in the directive session. The predicted relationship did not hold true for MER level one

participants,¹² or when participants were asked to give their general preferences without reference to a particular stimulus (such as the videotape).

Helpfulness of Directive Approach

It was also predicted that MER level one and TIB Stage One participants would find the more directive (RET) session to be more helpful. Helpfulness of approach was measured by participants' ratings (on a 7-point scale) in response to the question: "How helpful would you have found this session if you were the client?" (1 = "not at all helpful", 7 = "very helpful"). As shown in Table 4.9, MER level one helpfulness ratings were in the expected direction (PC mean rating = 3.53; RET mean = 4.75), but the difference was not significant, $t(19) = 1.66, p = .11$. TIB Stage One participants also found the RET session more helpful (PC mean = 3.60; RET mean = 5.52), and paired samples t -test comparisons indicated that this greater difference was significant, $t(24) = 3.95, p = .001$.

It is interesting to note that, although MANCOVAs performed on the helpfulness data indicated that there were no significant differences in participants' helpfulness ratings for each session across either MER levels, $F(8,322) = 1.36, p = .215$ or TIB stages, $F(6,324) = .825, p = .55$, there was a tendency for differences in the rated helpfulness between the two sessions to decrease as developmental level increased (see Figures 4.1 and 4.2, as well as Tables 4.10 and 4.11). This was especially the case for TIB stages. In other

¹² It should be pointed out that there were, however, level two differences, with MER level two individuals giving higher ratings for RET in all four categories. Thus, t -test results for the comparisons of level two mean PC and RET ratings (with alpha set at .01) were: Similarities - $t(53) = 4.27, p < .001$; Helpfulness - $t(53) = 3.55, p < .001$; Preferred Session - $t(53) = 3.72, p < .001$; and Satisfaction - $t(53) = 3.42, p < .001$.

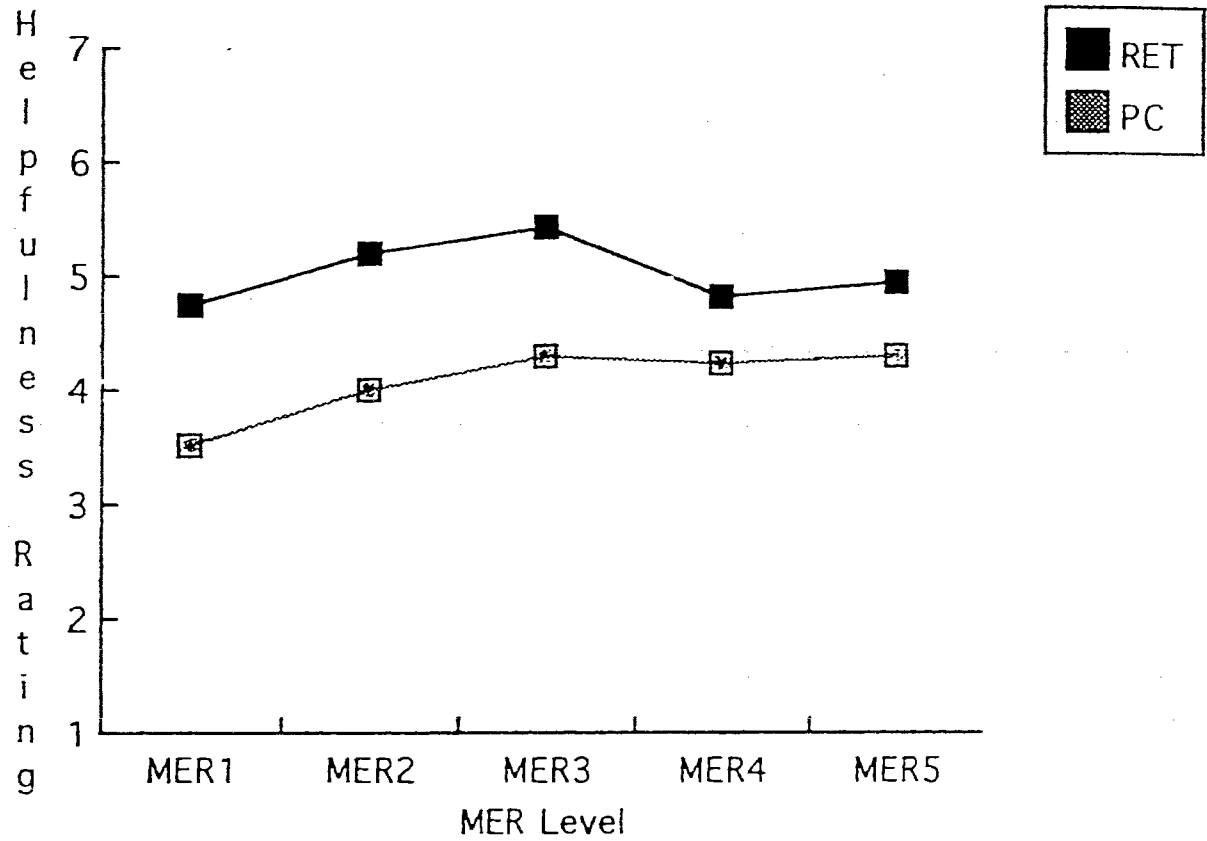


Figure 4.1 Ratings of the helpfulness of the RET and PC sessions by students at different MER levels.

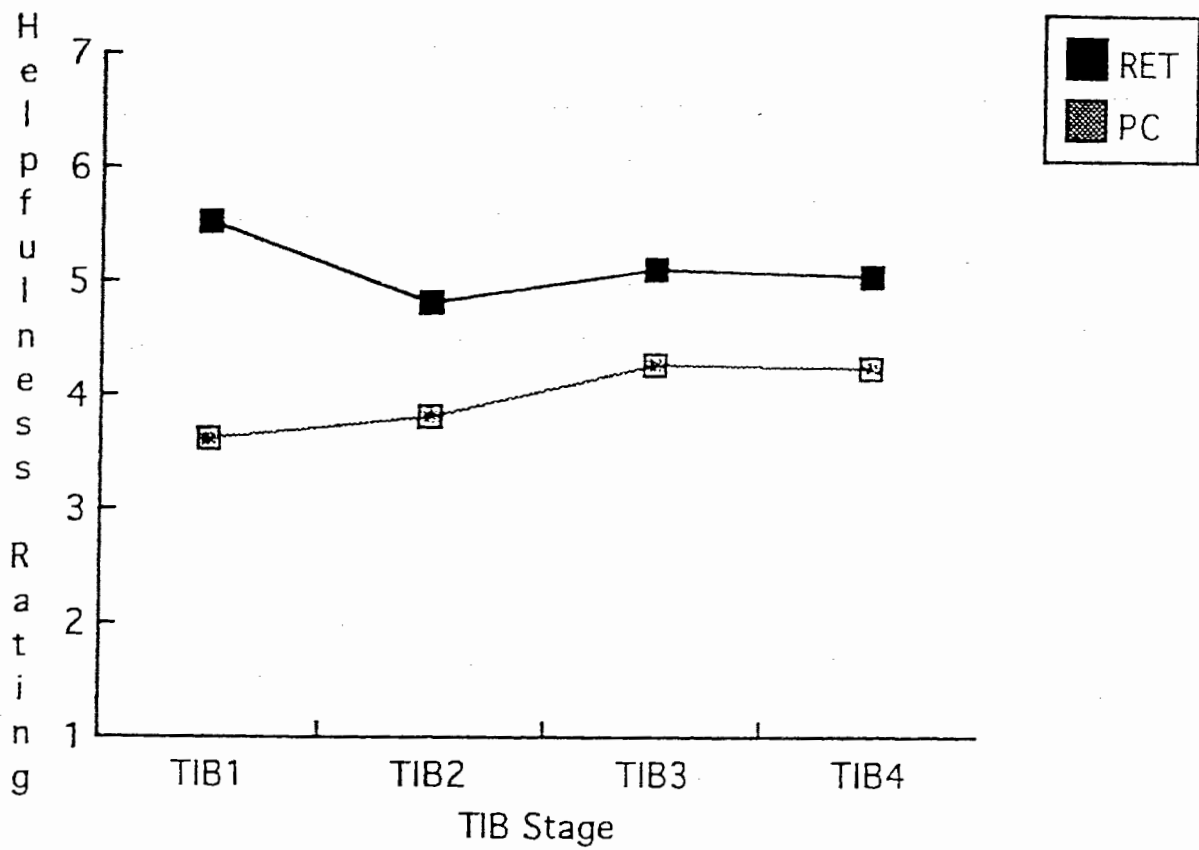


Figure 4.2 Ratings of the helpfulness of the RET and PC sessions by students at different TIB stages.

words, higher TIB stage participants tended to find the RET session to be less differentially helpful than did lower stage participants.

Phase Three Analyses

In Phase Three, participants had two tasks: (a) Using Hill's (1978) Counselor Verbal Response Category System (HCVRCS), they were asked to classify specific counsellor responses which had been selected from the previously viewed sessions (for a description of each possible counsellor response category, see Appendix F), and (b) they were also asked to indicate, by giving a rating on 6-point scale (where 1 = "not at all" and 6 = "very helpful") how helpful they would find each counsellor response if they were the client.

Perceptual Accuracy and Developmental Level

It was predicted that participants at higher levels of development would have more accurate perceptions of the counsellor behaviour displayed in the videotaped sessions than would those participants at lower levels of development.

Participants' Perceptual Accuracy scores were based on the number of their correct classifications of counsellor responses when compared with the classifications of expert observers. As reported in Chapter 4, expert observers (using the HCVRCS) were able to agree completely (100% agreement) in their classification of only four counsellor responses. These four counsellor responses were classified as: (a) Information Giving, (b) Reflection, (c) Self-disclosure, and (d) Confrontation. Only these four counsellor responses were used in calculating participants' perceptual accuracy scores; therefore, the maximum Perceptual Accuracy score for any participant was four. These scores are reported in Tables 4.14 and 4.15.

Table 4.14

Means and standard deviations of perceptual accuracy scores and helpfulness ratings of students classified by MER level (N = 170 for perceptual accuracy scores)

Counsellor response	MER Level					n
	One	Two	Three	Four	Five	
	2.85 (.93)	2.74 (1.02)	2.80 (.86)	3.30 (.91)	3.29 (.91)	14
	Perceptual accuracy score					
Information Giving	4.04 (1.36)	4.33 (1.01)	4.39 (1.09)	4.29 (1.22)	5.08 (.90)	12
Reflection	3.50 (1.84)	4.00 (1.57)	3.63 (1.14)	3.81 (1.36)	4.40 (1.51)	10
Self-disclosure	4.65 (1.04)	4.96 (1.10)	4.16 (1.45)	4.32 (1.28)	3.57 (1.40)	14
Confrontation	4.13 (1.55)	4.38 (1.41)	4.31 (1.26)	4.11 (1.44)	3.90 (1.60)	10
	Helpfulness rating ^a					
Information Giving	13 ^b	39	31	31	26	12
Reflection	10	23	24	26	26	10
Self-disclosure	20	52	45	37	37	14
Confrontation	15	32	29	28	28	10

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses.

^aAll helpfulness ratings are on a 6-point scale where 6 = "very helpful." ^bThe total n for each counsellor response will vary, as not all respondents correctly classified, and gave a rating for all four responses.

Table 4.15

Means and standard deviations of perceptual accuracy scores and helpfulness ratings of students classified by TIB stage (N = 170 for perceptual accuracy scores)

Counsellor response	TIB Stage				n
	One	Two	Three	Four	
	2.72 (.94)	2.81 (.98)	2.83 (.95)	3.22 (.88)	55
	Perceptual accuracy score				
Information giving	4.59 (1.00)	4.27 (1.28)	4.28 (.93)	4.45 (1.33)	42
Reflection	3.75 (1.49)	3.55 (1.13)	4.16 (1.44)	3.69 (1.47)	39
Self-disclosure	4.88 (1.01)	4.29 (1.27)	4.65 (1.26)	4.07 (1.43)	54
Confrontation	4.36 (1.65)	4.00 (1.29)	4.19 (1.40)	4.27 (1.38)	43
	Helpfulness rating ^a				

Note. Standard deviations are in parentheses.

^aAll helpfulness ratings are on a 6-point scale where 6 = "very helpful." ^bThe total n for each counsellor response will vary, as not all respondents correctly classified, and gave a rating for all four responses.

ANCOVAs were performed to test for differences in perceptual accuracy across developmental levels. One identified outlier (case 171, who did not correctly classify any counsellor responses) was eliminated from the calculations. The results of the ANCOVA on the MER level data indicated that there were MER level differences in perceptual accuracy, $F(4,159) = 2.56, p = .04$. Post hoc Tukey comparisons indicated that there were differences at level four, but not at level five: level four participants ($M = 3.30$) were able to correctly classify more counsellor responses than were level two ($M = 2.74$) participants, $p = .04$. Differences between level three and level four scores (with level four scores being higher) approached significance, but were not statistically significant, $p = .07$. As a general observation, it may be seen from Table 4.14 that perceptual accuracy scores tended to be considerably higher for levels four and five participants.

ANCOVA results for the TIB stage perceptual accuracy data indicated that, again, the results were in the expected direction (with Stage Four scores higher than scores at any other stage), but just failed to reach statistical significance, $F(4,160) = 2.60, p = .054$. As confirmation of this finding, post hoc Tukey comparisons indicated that the greatest difference in means (between Stage One and Stage Four scores) approached, but did not reach, statistical significance, $p = .07$.

In general, it may be said that perceptual accuracy is somewhat (but not strongly) related to level of development.

Helpfulness of counsellor responses

It was expected that the helpfulness ratings given for selected counsellor responses in this phase would also provide data to test the prediction that MER level one and TIB Stage One respondents would find the

directive approaches to be more helpful. For this reason, the selected Phase Three counsellor responses included a mixture of both non-directive and directive responses. My selection of counsellor responses was guided by studies by Friedlander (1982) and Friedlander, Thibodeau, and Ward (1985). Friedlander (1982) made some slight modifications in Hill's (1978) categories (resulting in an HCVRCS-Revised), and then classified most of the original Hill categories according to degree of structure: Low structure (encouragement/approval/reassurance, reflection/restatement self-disclosure), Moderate structure (confrontation, interpretation, providing information), and High structure (direct guidance/advice, information seeking).

According to the HCVRCS-R, the four counsellor response categories for which helpfulness ratings were obtained in the present study - Information giving, Reflection, Self-disclosure, and Confrontation - would all be considered either low or moderate in structure. Degree of structure was assumed to be equivalent to degree of directiveness. Therefore, it was felt that an analysis of the helpfulness ratings data would provide more information on the relationship between helpfulness and directiveness for those at lower levels of development.

A MANCOVA (with helpfulness ratings on the four counsellor response categories as dependent variables) would seem to be the analytic procedure which would be appropriate for comparing the scores of MER level one and TIB Stage One respondents with the scores of those at other developmental levels, while at the same time reducing the risk of a Type 1 error. However, only 56 participants correctly classified (and therefore gave helpfulness ratings on) all four counsellor responses. MANCOVA results then, would have

been based on data from only one third of the participants. For this reason, a decision was made to perform separate ANCOVAs (across developmental levels) on the helpfulness ratings for each of the four counsellor responses.

A summary of the ANCOVA results is reported in Table 4.16, where it may be seen that there were developmental differences on the helpfulness ratings for only one of the counsellor responses: self-disclosure, $F(4,158) = 3.61$, $p = .008$. A post hoc Tukey comparison of the helpfulness means for self-disclosure indicated that MER level two participants ($M = 4.96$) found this counsellor response to be more helpful than did level three ($M = 4.16$), $p = .02$, or level five ($M = 3.57$), $p = .01$, participants. According to Friedlander's (1982) method of categorizing counsellor responses, self-disclosure is considered low in structure. It would seem then, that the hypothesized relationship was not found. In fact, the result is opposite to that predicted; that is, some lower MER level participants found a low structure response to be more helpful than did higher level participants. (It may also be seen from Table 4.14 that self-disclosure was given the lowest helpfulness rating by level five participants.)

There were no significant differences in the helpfulness ratings of individuals at different TIB stages, although the greatest difference in ratings was found on the self-disclosure response, between Stage One ($M = 4.88$) and Stage Four ($M = 4.07$).

Table 4.16

Summary of results of ANCOVAs performed on the helpfulness ratings (for selected counsellor responses) of students classified by MER level and TIB stage

Counsellor response	df	F	p
MER Level			
Information giving	4,117	1.15	.34
Reflection	4,84	.69	.60
Self-disclosure	4,158	3.61	.008
Confrontation	4,105	.79	.89
TIB Stage			
Information giving	3,118	.41	.75
Reflection	3,85	.62	.61
Self-disclosure	3,159	2.23	.09
Confrontation	3,106	.25	.86

Summary of the Results

In this section, the results are summarized in terms of the original hypotheses as stated in Chapter Three.

1. There was a significant relationship between epistemological and social-cognitive development as measured by the MER and the TIB, respectively.
2. Prior to viewing the videotapes demonstrating two different counselling approaches, expectations were measured by the scores obtained on the Expectations About Counselling (EAC-B) scales. Precounselling expectations were not related to MER level. TIB stage, in contrast, was a predictor of a number of expectations. TIB Stage One participants expected more confrontative behaviour (Confrontation) from the counsellor than did Stage Two participants. Stage One participants also had a greater expectation of counsellor Self-disclosure than did those at Stages Three or Four, and a greater expectation of encouragement, support, and praise (Nurturance) from the counsellor than did those at any other stage. There was no relationship between TIB stage and expectations on the Responsibility, Directiveness, Expertise, Genuineness, and Acceptance scales, nor was TIB related to expectations about the efficacy or benefits (outcome) of the counselling process (Outcome).
3. In terms of preferences, MER level was related to two of the EAC-B scales: Directiveness and Expertise. Level one respondents had a greater preference for the counsellor to be directive, and level two respondents' preference scores on this scale were higher than the scores of respondents at levels three, four, or five. Level two respondents had a greater preference than those at levels three or four for the counsellor to be knowledgeable, to be able to determine what the client's problem was, and to know how to solve it

(Expertise). There were several TIB stage differences in preferences on the EAC-B scales, and most of these involved Stage One participants. Those at Stage One had higher preference scores on the Empathy, Directiveness, and Expertise scales than did Stage Four respondents (Stage Two and Three Directiveness scores were also higher than Stage Four Directiveness scores). In other words, those at the lowest stage had a greater preference for the counsellor to be an understanding expert who gives direct guidance than did those at the highest stage. It was predicted that there would be developmental level differences in preferences on the following scales: Responsibility, Self Disclosure, Genuineness, Nurturance, and Acceptance, but no differences were found.

4. In ratings given after participants had viewed videotaped demonstrations of directive and non-directive counselling approaches, TIB Stage One respondents showed differences in their preferences for the directive approach. They indicated that the directive approach was more similar to what they would prefer counselling to be like, that it would be the chosen approach if they were to seek counselling, and that they would be more satisfied with the degree of structure in the directive approach. Stage One participants also found the directive approach to be more helpful than the nondirective approach. MER level one participants showed no clear preference for the directive approach, nor did they find it to be more helpful.

5. When compared with the classifications of expert observers, MER level four participants were more accurate than level two participants in their classification of selected counsellor responses. There were no other developmental level differences in perceptual accuracy. In terms of which of the classified counsellor responses were found to be more helpful, there were

developmental differences in helpfulness ratings only on the response where the counsellor revealed an aspect of her personal experience (self-disclosure). Contrary to predictions, MER level two respondents rated this response as being more helpful than did level three or level five respondents.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the results are discussed in a sequence very similar to that followed in Chapter 4. First, the relationship between the two models of development is closely examined and discussed. This is followed by a presentation of the other results from each of the three phases of the study, together with the theoretical implications of these results and their relation to existing research. Some general conclusions from the present study are put forth. There is a discussion of the methodological shortcomings of the present study, and finally, some suggestions are made for future research in the area of cognitive development and counselling.

A Comparison of Two Models of Development

In Chapter 2, I reported research which has been done on the Perry Scheme and Conceptual Systems Theory (CST), and concluded that there was a considerable body of research (Holloway & Wampold, 1986; Stoppard & Miller, 1987) on the relationship between one aspect of CST - conceptual level - and various aspects of counselling. In contrast, there was very little empirical evidence of the relevance of the Perry Scheme to counselling practice. My main interest and focus in the present study then, was on the Perry Scheme and its potential relevance to counselling. More specifically, a major question for the present study was: does knowledge of an individual's level of intellectual development allow for predictions about that individual's interpersonal functioning and behaviour?

Because CST has been fairly extensively researched in a counselling context, my expectation was that any CST- related findings from the present study would confirm previous results, replicate certain studies (i.e., Craig &

Hennessy, 1988), and possibly extend the knowledge in this area. However, precisely because much is known about CST and counselling, I also expected that CST could serve as an anchor, a frame of reference, or a point of comparison in investigating the Perry Scheme. Hence, the inclusion of an instrument - the This I Believe Test (TIB), which is a measure of social-cognitive development as defined by CST, in the present study.

The Measure of Epistemological Reflection (MER) was used as a measure of intellectual development as defined by the Perry Scheme. An issue of fundamental importance is the extent to which these two instruments are measuring the same thing. In other words, to what extent are intellectual development and social-cognitive development (as measured by the MER and the TIB, respectively) related? To a large degree, the strength of this relationship may determine the extent to which we can expect the CST/counselling findings also to apply to the Perry Scheme. It is to the relationship between MER and TIB that I now turn.

The Relationship between MER and TIB

A significant relationship was found between MER and TIB ($r = .42$). This is a higher correlation than that found between MER and age or MER and education ($r = .24$ and $.39$, respectively), and that between TIB and age or TIB and education ($r = .25$ and $.26$, respectively; see Phase One analyses in Chapter 4. There is then, some area of overlap, some common element or elements being measured by both instruments, and which cannot be accounted for by age or education alone. However, the correlation of $.42$ still accounts for only 18% of the variance between scores on the MER and TIB. Some explanation for this moderate relationship may be suggested by examination of both the

models on which the instruments are based, and the actual responses of participants in this study.

Although I was uncertain as to how the two models would overlap, I noted in Chapter 2 that Perry himself (1970) had commented on the similarity between his scheme and CST. In considering the first five positions (which are concerned with intellectual or epistemological development) of the Perry Scheme, my expectation was that its similarity to CST would be most likely to be found at the extremes of development. That is, it seemed that Positions one and two¹³ (Dualism) would be most similar to Stage one of CST, as both are characterized by a tendency to think in absolute, categorical terms, and by a greater reliance on authority. At Position five (Relativism), there is a tendency to think abstractly, to make judgements based on external criteria, and to have a greater sense of self agency, all characteristics which are also associated with Stage Four of CST.

Similarities between the two models in the middle ranges of development were less certain, for although both models describe an increasing capacity for abstraction, less dependence on authority as the absolute arbiter of right and wrong, and a greater tolerance for ambiguity and diverse viewpoints, there are important differences. For example, most notable is the "negative independence" (Harvey, Hunt, & Schroder, 1961) of Stage Two of CST. At this stage, there seems to be an active resistance to external authority and to controls which might be imposed externally. Although Perry found that at position Two of Dualism, students might adopt either an Opposition or Adherence to authority, at Positions Three and Four of the Perry Scheme (what Perry called Multiplicity, and what has been labelled by Baxter

¹³In the present study, MER level one encompasses both positions one and two.

Magolda, 1992, as Transitional Knowing), there is no corresponding attitude towards authority. Rather, at these positions there is more willingness to embrace other views, with a subsequent weakening of some of the dependence on absolute authority. Stage Three of CST, with its greater focus on relationships and tendency to adopt other perspectives, seemed more similar to Multiplicity.

Because of the transitional nature of the middle range of the Perry Scheme, I made no predictions about the behaviour of participants whose scores fell in these middle ranges. On the other hand, it seemed that definite predictions could be made about those with TIB Stage Two and Three scores.

Examination of the actual data was instructive. From Table 5.1 (the distribution of participants at each MER level and TIB stage) it may be seen that there are almost equal numbers of scores at MER level one (23) and TIB stage one (25). However, only four individuals had scores which fell at both MER level one and TIB Stage One. For some level one individuals, the overlap was greater with Stages Two (6) and Three (12), and there was even one individual whose score fell at Stage Four. These findings suggest then, that over 80% of those whose thinking was at the most basic level of intellectual/epistemological development were able to respond at a higher level to the social-cognitive measure. The reverse conclusion might be drawn from the fact that almost 50% of the TIB Stage One scores fell at MER level two. As will be seen, this latter finding seems to have major implications for interpreting some of the other MER results.

At the opposite end of the developmental spectrum, it may be seen from Table 5.1 that almost one third (59 participants) of the total sample received scores which placed them at the highest stage of social-cognitive development,

but only 20% (12) of these individuals had MER level five scores. Another interpretation of this finding is that one could say with some confidence that if individuals received the highest MER score, they are also likely to receive the highest TIB score: 12 level five individuals (or 80%) also had scores which fell at TIB Stage Four. However, the reverse conclusion cannot be drawn, as it

Table 5.1

Cross tabulation of participants' MER and TIB scores. (N = 189)

MER Level	TIB Stage					Row total
	No response	One	Two	Three	Four	
One	0	4	6	12	1	23
Two	0	12	8	35	7	62
Three	0	7	7	20	17	51
Four	1	2	4	9	22	38
Five	0	0	1	2	12	38
Column total	1	25	26	78	59	189

may be seen that TIB Stage Four scores were more likely to fall at MER levels three and four.

The findings for the middle range of MER scores (the transitional levels) were more similar to what would be expected: 80% (83 of 104) of individuals with MER level two, three, and four scores also had scores which fell at TIB stages two and three.

Because of the distinctiveness of Stage Two as described by CST, I was especially interested in the responses of Stage Two individuals to certain probes on the MER. I was interested in determining how the "negative independence" of Stage Two would be manifested in relation to academic authority, and how this would compare with the reactions in the same area of those at other MER levels. It may be seen from Table 5.1 that Stage Two scores are found at all five MER levels. I examined all Stage Two responses to a specific probe on Domain three, which is concerned with the role of the instructor in the learning process: "Please describe the type of relationship with an instructor that would help you learn best and explain why."

The answers to this question, examined across all MER levels, demonstrated the kind of pattern which would be predicted by the Perry Scheme. At levels one and two, there was mainly an emphasis on the personal or affective characteristics of the instructor. There was a preference for someone who was friendly, open, and approachable, and who would guide the student and give feedback about what is right or wrong, or important or unimportant as far as academic materials are concerned. At level three, the affective dimension is again emphasized, but more as a means of facilitating and encouraging the discussion of ideas; in other words, the relationship is also in service of the academic process. By level four, the instructor's role is seen as that of someone who will encourage not only discussion, but also debate and the challenging of all ideas, including his/her own. The one Level Five response saw the preferred relationship as being more of a working intellectual partnership.

There was little evidence of a negative stance towards academic authority in the form of the instructor. (The two most negative comments in

the 25 protocols examined (both at Level Two) were: "...no stiff-collared types. They make me feel uncomfortable and nervous." and "(Someone) who is easy to talk to because you get more done than with a windbag who spits up information." It may be then, that by the age reached by even the youngest of the participants in the present study, the "oppositional quality" of Stage Two has become generalized and is more directed to authority or controls in the abstract, or to systems of authority, and not to individuals or even necessarily to individuals as representatives of abstract authority.

In general, the data suggest that even at the extremes of the developmental spectrums measured by the two instruments, where one would expect considerable agreement, in many cases the concurrence was not that great. Some of the lack of agreement may have been due to the method of categorizing MER scores in this study. As mentioned in Chapter 4, in order to insure sufficient cell numbers at the lowest and highest MER levels, those whose thinking was mainly dualistic were included in Level one, and Level Five included participants who showed some evidence of relativistic thought. (An actual MER score of 4.5+ would have indicated mainly relativistic thought; only three participants reached this standard.)¹⁴ This system meant that, even at the extreme developmental positions, there were no "pure" levels, and this may have been a factor in the extent of the agreement between MER and TIB scores.

¹⁴Lest it be thought that this is an atypical sample, Table 5.2 shows the MER and TIB mean scores and standard deviations of participants at each educational level. These figures are similar to those reported by Baxter Magolda (1985) in the initial MER validation study, and in a later study (Baxter Magolda & Porterfield, 1986) comparing interview and MER ratings.

However, it seems equally likely that there may be less overlap between the two models than theoretical descriptions would suggest. Further analysis of the data tended to support this conclusion.

Table 5.2

Means and standard deviations of MER and TIB scores by education level

Education level	<u>n</u>	MER	TIB
1	67 ^a	2.99 (.46)	2.70 (.94)
2	31	2.96 (.47)	2.84 (.97)
3	31	3.22 (.60)	2.65 (1.11)
4	9	3.41 (.51)	3.11 (1.05)
5	29	3.38 (.55)	3.28 (.84)
6	20	3.63 (.74)	3.45 (.89)

Note. Education level is coded as follows: Level 1 = 0-30 credits; 2 = 31-60; 3 = 61-90; 4 = 91-120; 5 = Bachelor+; 6 = Master's or Doctoral level.

^a n for education level one TIB mean is 66.

The central assumption for both instruments is that, in their responses to either probes (MER) or completion of sentence stems (TIB), individuals will produce protocols which are representative of their underlying cognitive structures. My observation in scoring the TIB protocols was that participants were surprisingly consistent in their responses across the categories addressed by the sentence stems (which ranged from opinions about societal

institutions to friendship to ultimate truth). In contrast, responses on the MER protocols tended to be more variable across domains; in some cases, an individual might demonstrate a difference of more than one position in their thinking from one domain to another.

Given these observations, questions arise as to (a) whether the internal consistency of the MER is acceptable for drawing valid inferences, and (b) whether something more than intellectual/epistemological development is being measured by the MER. In relation to (a), it was reported in Chapter 4 that in the present study, the internal consistency coefficient for the MER was .76. This figure compares favourably with those reported by Baxter Magolda and Porterfield (1988). For eight studies of the MER with various student populations, they reported a range of alpha coefficients from .58 to .84, with a median of .65. Murphy and Davidshofer (1988) report that alphas of .80 or more are typically regarded as moderate to high, and that for tests using ratings, alphas are typically around .70. The internal coefficient found in the present study compares favourably then, with that found in previous MER studies, and with general standards.

In relation to (b), the six domains of the MER seem to be concerned with at least two general content areas: the interpersonal and the academic/epistemological. It seemed possible that there would be greater agreement with the TIB if only the interpersonal aspects of the MER were considered. At the very least, some of the shared variance between the assessments done with the two measures might be further explained. In order to separate out the interpersonal aspect of the MER, I added the individual scores from what seemed to be the three more "interpersonal" domains - those domains concerned with the role of the instructor, the learner, and peers -

and then averaged these scores to arrive at a "partial" protocol rating. Pearson product moment correlations comparing these "interpersonal" MER scores with the TIB scores indicated that, as expected, there was a significant relationship between the two sets of scores, $r = .33$, $p < .001$. However, surprisingly, this correlation was weaker than the original correlation between (the total) MER and TIB. These results suggest that whatever the common element being measured by the two instruments, it appears to be some aspect of development which is in addition to social-cognitive functioning.

It may even be the case that, as far as the MER is concerned, because of the directions given, ("The questionnaire . . . has to do with your perspective on learning in college."), respondents are predisposed to address all specific domains - including those having to do with interpersonal functioning - within the context of the superordinate domain of learning and knowledge. The distinction then becomes not only one of the structure of thought (and the development of such) in relation to a particular domain, but even towards the same domain in a different context. Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder (1961) stated that "if a situation changes markedly . . . then cyclical movement occurs in which functioning reverts to a much more concretistic level" (p. 410). It seems likely then, that to the extent that the postsecondary environment is a new one for an individual, the more likely their thinking (and behaviour?) in this context will be at a lower developmental level, even in areas in which they may otherwise function at a higher level. This is, after all, Perry's central thesis.

I reported in Chapter 2 that Widick (1976) had found a correlation of .51 between the MID and the PCT, which are measures of the Perry Scheme and CST, respectively. The MID is a more generalized measure of intellectual

development and the PCT focuses more on only one aspect (the concrete/abstract dimension) of social-cognitive development. Because at least one of the measures used in the present study seemed more refined (the MER with its focus on specific domains), and the other seemed more inclusive of other social-cognitive aspects, there was an expectation that the relationship between the present measures would be stronger than that found by Widick. Instead, the reverse was true. The evidence from the present study suggests that the more refined the measuring instruments, the more the differences between the two concepts of development will become apparent.

The question remains then: are these two models of development related in other than the most general sense - in that all models of development will, by definition, be concerned with progressive increases in the complexity of thought and behaviour? In his critique of CST, Miller (1978) stated: "The various conceptual systems which make up the self system may vary in complexity, depending on the particular stimulus domain. . . CST is, for the most part, concerned with those conceptual systems which deal with interpersonal stimuli" (p. 83). The study by Polkosnik and Winston (1989) suggested that there may be fairly distinct differences in development in the two domains under consideration, and that development in these domains may proceed in parallel, but at slightly different rates. The evidence from the present study also suggests that individuals may differ in their development depending on whether one is assessing functioning in the academic/epistemological domain, or in the more general interpersonal domain.

Widick (1977) was quoted in Chapter 2 as questioning the limits of the Perry Scheme and asking if the scheme described "all personality

functioning" or if it was "restricted to certain content areas or vectors of identity. . . . Is an individual who is dualistic in his/her view of knowledge also dualistic in his/her way of viewing interpersonal relations, religion or career issues?" (p. 37). Insofar as the TIB does include items having to do with religion and interpersonal relations, the present comparison between MER and TIB suggests a partial answer to Widick's question. It does seem that one can be less certain in making predictions about the global functioning of dualistic thinkers, as their level of thinking may vary from domain to domain. On the other hand, it seems to be generally the case that if individuals are more relativistic in their view of knowledge, they are more likely to have a relativistic view in other domains as well.

This latter finding may serve to clarify the distinction between structure and content, an issue discussed by Miller (1978) in his critical review of CST. Developmental stage or level implies the cognitive structure through which information is filtered (and thus which also determines how the individual sees and interprets the world). The domain may be seen as the content which is being conceptualized. It may be said then, that once an individual develops a relativistic structure, his/her thinking in any specific domain is more likely to be at the relativistic level.

The issue of domain specificity in development was explicitly addressed by Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder (1961): "a person need not reach the same level of abstractness of subject-object ties in all areas of development" (p. 111). In other words, individuals may be functioning at different stages depending on the domain or area being considered. Among the tentative conclusions they put forward was this: "Reaching an abstract level of development in one area

enhances the likelihood of reaching that same level in other areas of development" (p. 111).

The relationship between the two domains of intellectual and interpersonal development is more broadly and specifically addressed in the work of Douglas Heath (1968). Heath studied male freshmen and seniors at Haverford College. Instead of the term "development," Heath used the term "maturity" and spoke of the process of maturing within the context of post-secondary education. He suggested that there may be an orderly, sequential process of maturing, but which occurs at different rates in different "self systems" or "sectors of personality." The four self systems posited by Heath are: intellect, values, self concept, and interpersonal relationships. Heath concluded:

The developmental process is completed first in the maturation of intellectual-cognitive skills, next in the same sex and then opposite sex personal relationships. The maturing of a person's values tends to follow the stabilization of his personal relationships. The maturing of the self concept takes longer and goes through more transitional stages, eventuating in a stable integration with the person's values. (p. 176)

Heath seems to be suggesting then, that if individuals do not reach a certain level of maturity in the "intellectual-cognitive" sector, they are unlikely to be more mature in any of the other self systems. In an indirect way, the following statement by Perry (1970) offers some corroboration of Heath's conclusion: "No student who had once accepted a relativistic epistemology as context showed evidence of a generalized 'regression' to absolutism" (p. 130).

If we accept that the MER is a measure of intellectual development, the present findings - that relativistic thinkers are more likely to score at Stage

Four of the TIB - seem to support the just-quoted conclusions of Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder, and of both Heath and Perry. More specifically, the findings support the stronger statement of Heath about the primacy of intellectual development in determining the level of functioning in other areas.

Although it is not the primary focus of the present study, there is an even more basic issue which should be mentioned. This is the issue of whether the levels or stages described here represent way stations in the process of development or whether they represent relatively stable, enduring cognitive styles or traits. In other words, are we really measuring development? Perry's original longitudinal study, as well as many subsequent longitudinal and cross sectional studies (including the present study) have certainly demonstrated changes, or differences in functioning which are associated with increased post-secondary education. But the issue of developmental versus stylistic functioning remains.

This issue is addressed by Wilkinson (1989) in his comparison of the Perry model (which he characterizes as a model of changes in the definition of knowledge) and Royce's model of the acquisition of knowledge (Royce, Coward, Egan, Kessel, & Mos, 1978; Royce & Mos, 1980). Royce and his colleagues hypothesized, and found evidence for three different "epistemological orientations" or ways of acquiring knowledge: empirical (sensory and perceptual experiences as the foundation for knowledge), rational (knowledge acquisition through logic, reasoning, and deduction); and metaphorical (acquisition is personal and somewhat dependent on insight, analogical reasoning and the symbolization of experiences). For Royce, these **epistemological orientations** are stylistic or trait-type variables which have

some consistency over time. Wilkinson cited studies which indicated that there is an interrelationship between knowledge definition and acquisition, and he suggested that the two models are not incompatible.

The work of Roy Heath (1964) described by Knefelkamp, Parker, and Widick (1978), integrates the two dimensions of development and personality type. For Roy Heath, it is possible to characterize an individual as having a certain basic "temperamental approach to life," and at the same time as manifesting a developmental progression within this type. From his work with male undergraduates, Roy Heath posited three types, with differences between types being most pronounced at the lowest level of maturity. However, "As a person becomes more mature, he will exhibit less of the stereotypical characteristics of his type and more of the mature forms of his stylistic approach to the world" (Knefelkamp et al., 1978, p. 96).

Whether the cognitive styles are those proposed by Royce, or are more like Roy Heath's types, or are best captured by some other relatively stable personality trait, is not at issue here. More relevant to the present discussion is the possibility that there may be developmental changes within individual styles.

Both Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder, and Perry have addressed the issue of development within style. In both models, developmental changes are precipitated when an individual is confronted with information or events which are at odds with the individual's world view. The result of this discrepancy is a temporary state of disequilibrium which may be followed by developmental movement, a pause in growth, a temporary regression or an arrestation at the individual's current stage. Which of these four occurs

depends on a host of factors, including the magnitude of the discrepancy (the size of the 'shock' to the system) and the level of environmental support.

Neither Harvey, Hunt and Schroeder (1961), nor Perry (1970) is explicit or definite about the length of the period of arrestation. However, an implicit assumption of Conceptual Systems Theory (which is broader in its scope and in the age range it is meant to cover) seems to be that relatively stable cognitive styles may be the result of arrestation. In the following statement, Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder seem to have arrived at a position somewhat similar to that of R. Heath: "Arrestation of development of an attitude at the first stage would [not] mean that the functioning in relation to the attitude object would remain exactly the same over time. . . . After arrestation, development continues within the conceptual limits of the stage reached" (p. 115).

Perry (1970) alluded to stable types only indirectly, but he seems to have acknowledged the possibility that for his model, the reverse could well be true, that is, that arrestation, indeed, other aspects of development may be somewhat determined by other individual differences (such as style?): "We attempted no nosology (contrast R. Heath, 1964) and no systematic tracing of differing developmental paths which might be characteristic of different types of students" (p. 206).

Perry's (1970) concept of "escape" seems to be comparable to the state of arrestation. He suggested that some individuals, when faced with the challenges (to their belief systems) provided through post-secondary education may escape into one of four positions or categories (he calls them "variants of escape"), and that these positions may or may not be permanent. He comes closest to acknowledging types in this statement:

. . . we looked on the four categories as classifying dominant strategies rather than people, just as do all categorizations of personality based on dynamics. Some persons, indeed, may favor one strategy over others sufficiently to appear as a 'type'. Close examination will usually discover greater complexity. (p. 192)

As a final note, for Perry, any other stable stylistic or dispositional aspects of an individual are likely to be expressed in Commitment (Positions 6-9 on the Perry Scheme). Commitment represents the ethical dimension of the Perry Scheme and is the area in which almost no empirical study has occurred. At this level, the limits to reason are acknowledged ("reason itself remains reflexively relativistic," p. 135) and the individual makes a choice as to what to believe and how to be: "a person has developed an experience of 'who he is' in his Commitments both in their content and in his style (italics added) of living them" (p. 154). Perry found from his students that Commitment involves "stylistic balances: narrowness vs. breadth, stability vs. flexibility, sureness vs. tentativeness, analysis vs. synthesis, and continuity with one's past vs. breaking with one's past. Having arrived at Commitment, a person is able to describe themselves as to their unique characteristics and "stylistic decisions. . . remain more expressively his own" (p. 167). It is almost as if, at the stage of commitment, students have discovered, and are able to objectively observe, those stable dispositions which may have already been a functioning part of their (in Heath's words) 'self system.'

In any cross sectional study such as the present study, individuals are captured at a moment in time. It is impossible then, to say whether participant responses are a reflection of a state of temporary pause in development, of regression, of arrestation, or of an enduring or evolving cognitive style. Other

measures and other, more longitudinal methods would be necessary in order to make such judgements. All that can be said from the present study is that participants' responses on these developmental measures placed them at this level or stage, and this placement is associated with certain reactions to the other variables in the study.

Widick (1977) gave one definition of cognitive structure (which ostensibly is being assessed by both the MER and the TIB): "The cognitive structure is essentially a set of assumptions which act as a filter dictating how the individual will perceive, organize and evaluate events in the environment and, though less directly, how he/she will behave in response to those events" (p. 35).¹⁵ The present study was concerned with the perception, organization, and evaluation of certain counselling related events, and I now turn to a discussion of these findings.

A Comparison of Expectations and Preferences

There were significant differences between expectations and preferences on the Expectations About Counseling - Brief form (EAC-B) on all but one - Motivation - of the EAC-B scales. In each case of difference, preferences were greater than expectations. The areas of greatest difference (t values greater than 10.00) were on scales having to do with Counsellor Attitude (Acceptance, Genuineness) and Characteristics (Attractiveness, Tolerance and Trustworthiness) and Counselling Process (Outcome). In other words, participants' preferences far exceeded their expectations that they would have a counsellor who they liked, who was easy-going, warm and

¹⁵Grantham and Gordon (1986) gave a very similar definition of expectancy: ". . . For us expectancy is a cognitive filter through which various stimuli of external reality are passed, separated out, and then evaluated" (p.397).

accepting, who they could relate to as a person, and who inspired trust and confidence; and that the outcome of counselling would be beneficial.

It is interesting to note that on the Motivation scale, expectation was slightly higher than preference, although the difference was not significant. The Motivation scale is concerned with persistence in counselling over a longer term (more than three interviews) in spite of doubts or difficulties. It is perhaps not surprising that preferences on this scale would be lower for this group of participants who, if not openly skeptical of counselling, were less attracted to counselling than a client population would be.

A study by Tinsley and Benton (1978) is one of the few located which used the EAC to investigate both expectations and preferences. The results of that study and the present study are not strictly comparable because Tinsley and Benton (a) used a longer version of the EAC, (b) determined preferences by prefacing each item of the questionnaire with the words "I want to" or "I want the counsellor to" (in the present study the word "prefer" was used as a preface), and (c) obtained expectations and preferences data from "two independent, mutually exclusive samples" (p. 354). Tinsley and Benton reported data from only seven scales, but, as in the present study, in all cases preferences exceeded expectations. In their study, the greatest discrepancy between expectations and preferences occurred on the Outcome scale.

Other results from the Tinsley and Benton study will be reported in more detail later. The main point here is that there seems to be fairly strong evidence from two studies that there is a difference between expectations and preferences, that it is therefore important to make a distinction between the two, and that, as will be seen, developmental differences are more likely to be evident when preferences are considered. This latter point reinforces a

distinction made in Chapter 4: expectations may have more to do with preconceptions of counselling (which may come from hearsay, from the media, or even from study) and preferences seem to relate more directly to needs. Grantham and Gordon (1986) suggested that the two elements associated with preferences are affect and idealism.

The distinction between expectations and preferences could perhaps be characterized as one of cognition versus affect. For instance, whether individuals are well- or ill-informed about counselling, it does seem that, at the very least, their expectations represent their intellectual understanding of what counselling is all about. The degree of affect accompanying this concept of counselling may be greater or lesser, depending on how relevant counselling is to them at that moment. It may be then, that in an analogue situation (such as the present study), the affective involvement is minimal, but might become greater if a student were in crisis and was trying to make a decision about actually seeking counselling. Whether affect actually does increase at the point of decision is currently unknown (although it seems likely that at that point, thinking about counselling would become more than an academic exercise). The question might then become: How much affect (if any) must be associated with the expectation before the expectation becomes a significant factor in the individual's approach to, or avoidance of, counselling?

Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder (1961) suggested that affect is central in an approach-avoidance decision. In their chapter on "Conceptual function and motivation," they discussed a property of a concept which they called "directionality," which "implies a preference (italics added) for an outcome, striving, or predilection toward either approaching or avoiding the object to

which the activated concept relates" (p. 50). Although they discussed the idea of motivation in more general abstract terms, their formulation appears to be germane to the present discussion. The following statement seems especially to capture the idea of an interrelationship between expectations and preferences:

Thus the corroboration or negation of an expectancy in whatever degree, unless it is made to include directional striving, is itself a poor predictor of affective arousal. Effects of deviations from expectancies must be viewed against the backdrop of the goal orientation, approach or avoidance of the individual under scrutiny. Complete violation of an expectancy may result in positive affect if such violation were at the same time confirming the directionality of the concept(s) or motive. Verification of an expectancy, on the other hand, . . . will result in negative affect if such corroboration is in contradistinction to a striving or goal orientation of the individual. (p. 56)

As an example of how the above statement might apply in relation to expectations and preferences about counselling, we might consider a hypothetical case where the client has an expectation (what s/he thought, or heard, counselling would be like) that all counsellors are non-directive, but hopes to receive specific direction as to how to deal with a problem. S/he had thus approached counselling with some skepticism, only to find that the counsellor favoured a more directive therapeutic approach. The client's expectations would not have been confirmed, but s/he would more likely be pleasantly surprised, rather than disappointed, to find that her preference for directiveness was satisfied. If, on the other hand, the client's expectations were confirmed, the client's initial reaction is more likely to be negative

because her/his preferences were not satisfied. In this latter case, confirmation (or 'verification') of expectations could presumably result in a range of client reactions, from initial frustration and resistance, to premature termination. In neither case could the client's emotional reaction be predicted without knowledge of her/his preferences. It would seem that a disconfirmed preference would have greater, and possibly more predictable, consequences than a disconfirmed expectation ("refutation or violation of goal directionality tends to be accompanied by negative affect," Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder, 1961, p. 55). The same point has been made by Duckro et al. (1979).

Much of the initial expectations research, of course, was based on the assumption that expectations may negatively predispose many individuals to enter counselling in the first place, so the opportunity does not arise for these individuals to have their expectations confirmed or disconfirmed. If it were, in fact, the case that negative expectations are the deciding factor for those who avoid counselling, one would expect that those who do enter counselling must have somewhat different (more positive?) expectations. However, comparisons of client/nonclient expectations have produced mixed results: Two of the three studies (Hardin & Subich, 1985; and Johnson, 1990) found no differences between the expectations of clients and those of nonclients. Thus, it does not necessarily seem to be the case that there is something about nonclient expectations which increases their reluctance to enter counselling. In fact, qualitative data from the present study suggest that there are other reasons why most students do not enter counselling.

It may be that much of the expectations research has been missing an important element. If there is validity to Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder's (1961) statement about the link between "expectancy" and "directionality", and if it is

true (as Grantham and Gordon, 1986, contend) that preferences have to do with affect and idealism, then it would seem that expectations cannot be considered in isolation. Rather, expectations and preferences may be intertwined in such a way that knowledge of an individual's expectations has little predictive power without corresponding knowledge of the affect (preferences).

Findings from the Expectations Data.

There were two notable findings from the expectations data: (a) There were no MER level differences on the EAC-B scales, even at the extremes of the developmental spectrum, where some differences were predicted; and (b) TIB stage differences in expectations were related to Stage One individuals who had greater expectations that the counsellor would be confrontative, encouraging, and self-disclosing.

The failure to find MER level differences is somewhat surprising, considering that Tinsley and Harris (1976) did find college class (educational level) differences.¹⁶ A doctoral study by Johnson, 1990 (cited by Tinsley, 1992) also suggested that EAC-B scores differ as a function of education level, but not of age. Because MER level is related to education level, one would expect a similar relationship between MER level and expectations. The differences between the present study and Tinsley and Harris's (1976) may be attributable to the age of the sample groups used in the two studies. Tinsley and Harris restricted their analysis to the responses of a traditional age college population (22 years and younger), whereas there were no age restrictions in

¹⁶Tinsley and Harris (1976) also found sex differences in expectations: females had a greater expectation of acceptance, and males of directiveness. A MANOVA performed on the present data (with sex as the independent variable) also indicated there were sex differences in expectations. Follow up ANOVAs indicated that males had a greater expectation of Directiveness, Self Disclosure, and Tolerance, while females were more optimistic of a beneficial Outcome.

the present study. (Tinsley and Harris did observe that there were differences between the expectations of the younger group and of those 23 years and older.) It may be then, that educational differences in expectations are attenuated when a wider age range is considered. However, it may also be the case that intellectual/epistemological development (as measured by the MER) is really not a good predictor of expectations about counselling.

TIB Stage One participants had a greater expectation of counsellor Confrontation than did those at Stage Two, and a greater expectation of counsellor Self Disclosure and Nurturance than did those at any other stage. These differences are somewhat puzzling, as they were not predicted. Harvey, Hunt, and Schroeder (1960) stated that "not all events are of behavioral relevance to the individual at any given moment" (p. 52). It may be that these three scales represent the most salient factors when Stage One individuals conceptualize the counsellor as authority figure. It may be that in their conceptualization, the counsellor is seen almost like a supportive friend who will point out where and when one is going wrong. However, it seems equally possible, if not more likely, that for these same individuals, such counsellor attitudes and characteristics as Directiveness and Expertise would also be salient. (Expectations on these latter two scales were higher for Stage One participants, but the differences were not significant.)

Of the two studies located which were concerned with developmental differences on the EAC-B, one (Craig & Hennessy, 1989) found multivariate, but no univariate conceptual stage differences on the EAC-B scales. However, they did find, through discriminant function analysis, that a function concerned with counsellor Empathy, Directiveness, and Attractiveness maximally separated Stage One from Stage Three and Four clients. In the other study,

Tinsley, Hinton, Holt, and Tinsley (1990) reported that among the 11 EAC-B scales which were associated with increased psychosocial maturity were Confrontation, Nurturance, Self Disclosure, and Expertise. No mention was made of the actual scores of those at lower levels of development, but Tinsley et al. did report that those who were less mature were "more skeptical" (presumably had lower expectations) that facilitative conditions would exist in counselling. One of the four factors found by Tinsley, Workman, and Kass (1980) in their factor analysis of the original EAC was labelled Facilitative Conditions. This factor was found to include the following scales Acceptance, Confrontation, Genuineness, Trustworthiness, Tolerance, and Concreteness. The differences between the present Stage One findings and those of Tinsley et al. (1990) may be partially due to the instrument used by Tinsley et al. Instead of using the items of the SDTI-2 which have to do with the developmental task of "Developing Mature Interpersonal Relationships" (which seems more likely in its content - ability to work with those of diverse backgrounds and beliefs, etc. - to be an approximate measure of social-cognitive functioning, and thus to be more similar to the TIB), Tinsley et al. (1990) used items relating to "Developing Purpose" (which has to do with appropriate educational plans and mature career and lifestyle plans).

Preferences Data

MER level differences were in the predicted direction for some of the EAC-B scales, with those at level one showing a greater preference for counsellor Directiveness than those at level five. Such a difference is consistent with the Perry Scheme which states that dualistic thinkers have a greater need for structure and a greater reliance on authority. Of some interest as well were the differences between level two and higher level

individuals on both the Directiveness and Expertise scales. Level two individuals were those whose thinking was mainly in transition to level three, but who still showed evidence of dualistic thought. (It will also be remembered that 12 of those with Stage One scores also had scores that fell at level two.) Presumably, dualistic thinking was still predominant in their preferences on these scales, but in a somewhat different form than for the level one subjects. Perry proposes that at level two, individuals are beginning to categorize authority into legitimate and illegitimate authority, so expertise becomes especially important. At level one, authority is assumed with the title (of counselling psychologist) and the legitimacy of the person that carries that title is not questioned.

As mentioned earlier, one of the few studies that considered preferences on the EAC-B is that of Tinsley and Benton (1978). Of the seven EAC-B scales they employed, students showed the greatest preference for counsellor Expertise ($\bar{M} = 5.9$) and the lowest for Directiveness ($\bar{M} = 3.5$).¹⁷ In the present study, the scores on the Directiveness scale were considerably higher than in the Tinsley and Benton study for both MER level one ($\bar{M} = 4.62$) and TIB Stage One ($\bar{M} = 5.16$). The differences between the two studies on this scale are especially noteworthy when one considers that (a) in the present study, 56% of the level one participants and 32% of the Stage One participants were older than 23 years; and (b) the maximum age of the sample in Tinsley and Benton was 22 years, and one would expect the need for directiveness to be higher among younger students. The difference in these two findings seems to

¹⁷ Tinsley and Benton did a breakdown by sex and college class which indicated that there were sex differences on Genuineness (males higher) and Directiveness (females higher) and sex x college class interactions on Genuineness, Trust, Outcome, and Understanding (Empathy).

emphasize the need to consider developmental variables when examining preferences for counselling. A second, lesser consideration here might also be the need for caution in comparing results from different groups and eras (the cultural zeitgeist in 1978 might have been such that there was a general resistance to directiveness from any kind of authority).

Differences in TIB stage preferences were mainly attributable to the preferences of Stage One individuals, which were consistent with the characteristics of Stage one as described by CST. The greater preference of Stage One participants for counsellor Empathy, Directiveness, and Expertise is somewhat similar to Craig and Hennessy's (1989) findings on the relationship between Stage One expectations and the discriminant function which was concerned with these same three scales. Craig and Hennessy stated that: "Stage 1 clients expected that the counsellor would be more intuitively understanding and prescriptive than did Stage 3 or 4 clients. Stage 1 clients had, interestingly, less of an expectation that they would like the counsellor as a person" (p. 405). It is interesting to note that in the present study, Stage One individuals also had higher scores (although minimally so) on the Attractiveness scale (which is concerned with liking the counsellor) than did individuals at other stages. The results from the present preference data seem more closely to approximate Craig and Hennessy's findings than do the expectations results cited earlier. In light of this similarity, one wonders whether for Craig and Hennessy's clients (or perhaps in many studies where expectations only were examined) preferences were not somehow confused with expectations in subjects' minds, and therefore in their responses to the EAC-B. It should be mentioned, however, that Tinsley and Westcot (1990) found

that "items on the EAC-B stimulate cognitions about expectations as distinct from preferences and perceptions . . ." (p. 225).

Other predicted differences in preferences were not found. There were no MER level or TIB stage differences on Self Disclosure, Genuineness, Acceptance, or Nurturance. In fact, where it was predicted that those at the highest level of development would have a greater preference for counsellor self-disclosure and genuineness, there was a tendency (although not statistically significant) in the opposite direction. Both the Perry Scheme and CST postulate that those at higher levels of development are more likely to evaluate information from diverse sources, and to have a more objective view of authority as a source of information. It may be then, that those at higher levels of development are more likely to view the counsellor as a resource to whom they can turn and with whom they can work in a kind of partnership with a problem-solving focus. As a consequence of this view, they may be less likely to need the counsellor to fulfill a "friendship" role. This developmental view of the role of client and counsellor may relate to Tracy and Dundon's (1989) finding of changes in role preferences over the course of counselling where for the client, audience and relationship roles become more important.

Phase Two: Reactions to Videotape Demonstrations

The results from Phase Two of the study were intended to serve as a test of whether, if developmental differences were observed on the pencil-and-paper EAC-B, these differences would also be manifested after participants had been exposed to demonstrations of counselling. There was a general expectation that those at lower levels of development would react more favourably to the more directive and structured approach (RET) than to the less directive approach (PC). Of considerable importance here, and a factor to

be considered in discussing the results from Phase Two, is the finding that, when developmental level is ignored, there was an overall preference for RET. Almost 40 years ago, Patterson (1958) commented on the general preference for counsellors who were more directive, and he speculated that this preference had to do with cultural learning. Other possible reasons for the general preference found in the present study are discussed later in this section under the heading, Some Methodological Limitations: Presenting Problem.

Participants' reactions to the tapes were measured by their response ratings in four areas: (a) the similarity of each session to their own preferences, or idea of what they would like counselling to be like (hereinafter referred to as "similarity"), (b) the helpfulness of each session, (c) the session they would choose if they were to seek counselling (referred to below as "preferred session"), and (d) the degree of satisfaction they would feel with each session if they were the client.

Findings Related to TIB

Stage One participants gave significantly higher ratings to the RET session in all four categories. This finding is consistent with Conceptual Systems Theory (CST), and with what might be expected from Craig and Hennessy's (1989) results. However, when *t*-tests were performed on the differences between PC and RET mean ratings for other stages (with alpha level set at .01 to control for Type 1 error), it was found that for some categories, differences also existed at other stages. For instance, Stage Three participants also found RET to be significantly more helpful, $t(69) = 2.72, p = .008$, where CST might predict that with the greater relationship needs at Stage Three, PC would be viewed more favourably. Another seeming departure from

theory is the finding that Stage Four respondents indicated more satisfaction with RET, $t(54) = 2.87, p = .006$.

More consistent with theory was the fact that there was a slight nonsignificant trend noted: positive ratings for RET (relative to PC) tended to decrease for Stages Two and Three for all categories, and for Similarity and Helpfulness ratings for Stage Four. In all cases, there was a greater discrepancy between RET and PC ratings at Stage One than there was at any other other stage. The mixed findings for Stage Four may be a reflection of Hunt's matching hypothesis (see p. 20 of Chapter 2) that "... high CL (conceptual level) learners profit more from low structure, or in some cases are less affected by variations in structure."

Findings Related to MER

Similar differences to those mentioned above were also noted for MER level one ratings, that is, RET received higher ratings on the Similarity, Helpfulness, Preferred Session, and Satisfaction categories. However, the differences between PC and RET for level one individuals were not significant. This finding seems noteworthy, considering that there was an overall preferential bias towards RET anyway, and the Perry Scheme postulates the strong need for structure of dualistic thinkers. Even more puzzling is the fact that level two respondents did rate RET more favourably on all four categories, and level threes rated RET as being significantly more helpful. Perhaps level two individuals still show evidence of dualistic thought and this could account for their ratings, but such reasoning does not account for the nonsignificant findings for level one. Overall, there were fewer consistent trends noted across MER levels than were observed for the TIB stages. Participants at transitional levels may have more of a need for structure than would be

expected from theory. It could also be that some of the differences observed, both here and in the TIB stage analysis, are more a function of the general preference for RET, rather than a function of developmental difference.

Some Qualitative Findings

After participants had given the above ratings of the videotaped sessions, they were asked to comment further by writing about what they liked or disliked about each session ("What did you like most/least about each session?"), and why they gave the rating they did to question 16 ("If something was bothering you or if you were trying to make a decision about something, how likely would you be to discuss it with a counsellor?"), and question C on the Structure Scale ("How satisfied would you be with the amount of structure in each of the interviews which you have seen?"). It was hoped that their answers would give some insight into their perceptions of the sessions, and a better understanding of the quantitative data.¹⁸

After preliminary examination of the comments, likes and dislikes were categorized into five areas: Physical (comment made about the counsellor's voice, posture, facial expression, etc.), Attitude/Affect (comment made about the impression the counsellor was making on the participant; e.g., "she seemed bored or enthusiastic, or uninvolved or distant"), Process (counsellor said or did something which enhanced or impeded or otherwise affected the session or the client's reaction), Listening /Expression (comment made about counsellor's listening skills and/or client's opportunity to express thoughts or feelings), and Solution/Guidance (counsellor made suggestions, or gave some guidance as to how to deal with the problem).

¹⁸ An explanation of the procedure for analyzing the qualitative data is given in Appendix N.

The most frequently liked aspect of the RET session was the fact that the counsellor offered guidance, direction, or specific ways of dealing with the problem: ("She gave the client some solutions," "She helped him come up with a plan of action."). This aspect was virtually never mentioned as a positive feature of the PC session. The most frequently mentioned dislike for RET had to do with the counsellor's attitude or affect (the words "aggressive," "arrogant," and "condescending" came up quite often.) There were, however, comments that indicated that the counsellor's attitude was being construed by others as being evidence of active involvement and expertise. Sometimes, even when the attitude or affect was seen as being negative, the RET rating was still higher than the PC rating.

The most positively rated aspect of the PC session was in the Listening/Expression category: the counsellor's active listening was seen as a positive encouragement for the client to express him/herself, to explore their feelings or situation and to "get to the root of the problem." The most disliked feature of the PC session was the perception that no guidance or direction was offered, so that it seemed to the participant "as if they were going around in circles." (One poetic description had it that "it was like talking to a soft wall.") Again, this criticism was often made even when the PC session was rated more highly than the RET session.

If nothing else, the qualitative evaluations of the two sessions seem consistent with the stereotypical conceptions that non-professionals (and possibly even some professionals: see Weinrach, 1995) may have of the two approaches. The comments also indicate that, at least in the perceptions of the participants, the RET and the PC sessions epitomize what Elliott (1985) and others have referred to as a task and an interpersonal orientation

respectively. The implications of this distinction will be discussed in the "Methodological limitations" section.

Some developmental differences were observed. MER level four respondents made proportionally more negative comments about counsellor attitude/affect in the RET session, while level two respondents made proportionally fewer negative comments in this category. This finding may have little significance as it seems to have more to do with the individual (the counsellor) portraying the approach than with the approach itself. It is interesting, however, that differences occurred in this category for these two levels, although the Perry Scheme might predict the opposite - that level two individuals might prefer a more personal and friendly relationship, and so would be more sensitive to any evidence which confirmed or refuted this preference. It may also be the case, as is evident in results from Phase Three, that person perception is not as developed in level two, so this attitude/affect dimension is not as readily available to subjects at this level. Level four respondents made proportionally fewer, and level five respondents made proportionally more, comments about the fact that the counsellor was too directive and did not allow the client the freedom to arrive at his/her own conclusions. The level five finding seems consistent with theory; the level four finding does not. The only other notable MER level observation is that, for the PC session, level one respondents made fewer positive comments in the Listening/Expression category than would be expected. This finding seems to speak indirectly to the level one need for direction, except for the fact that level one participants made more than the expected number of positive comments in the same category for the RET session (although only 10 responses in total fell within this category). There were no discernible MER

level differences in the written comments on participants' satisfaction ratings.

Those TIB stage differences that were observed seem to confirm theoretical expectations. Of those who indicated a high likelihood that they would seek counselling, Stage Four respondents gave proportionally more reasons having to do with getting another viewpoint or perspective, while Stage Three reasons were more about getting advice or ideas, or simply having the opportunity to talk things over with a professional. In terms of reasons for not seeking counselling, there were actually very few negative or critical reasons given. However, of the 15 responses (in total) which might be construed as negative, 40% (6) of these were given by Stage Two respondents. One wonders if these responses are evidence of the Stage Two "negative independence." Finally, most respondents were able to give both positive and negative (likes and dislikes) comments about each session. Almost half (48%) of the Stage One respondents either did not complete, or were unable to make judgements about each session. (The percentages for Stages Two, Three, and Four were 36, 27, and 20, respectively, while the same percentages for MER levels one to five were 39, 32, 22, 21, and 30.) This latter finding supports the description of Stage One individuals as having a tendency to think in absolutes, with perhaps less of an ability to see different sides of an issue.

There were two TIB stage differences observed in the comments given to explain why participants gave their satisfaction ratings on the structure scale. TIB Stage Three respondents spontaneously mentioned the Listen/Expression category proportionally more often. This finding may explain why they gave a higher satisfaction rating to the PC session than did those at any other stage (see Table 5.12). It also seems consistent with the described need of Stage

Threes to be understood and to focus more on interpersonal interaction. The only other stage difference found was at Stage Four, where respondents made proportionally more comments relating to the Solution/Guidance category, a finding which does not seem consistent with CST. However, Stage Four respondents also mentioned more often the fact that both sessions offered aspects of both categories. Sometimes, the typical comment (not always restricted to Stage Fours) would reflect the fact that PC allowed the client to be heard and express him/herself, but that the RET session allowed client expression as well as direction, and was therefore preferred. As a final observation on the "satisfaction" comments, it often seemed to be the case that, even when participants indicated that they would be more satisfied with the RET session, they would comment that it was "too structured." Some commented that an approach that was halfway between the two would be about right, a comment that probably describes what would be more likely to happen in an actual counselling session.

A few general observations about the qualitative data seem worthy of mention. Although it was not consistent across developmental levels, there was a quite remarkable range of (often opposite) reactions to the same session. As an example, one participant (Stage One, level two) was very enthused about the RET approach and commented on how he liked the "aggressive" approach where "she attacked the problem to fix it," while another at the same stage and level said "she offered no real solutions." A Stage Three (level two) participant said that RET had "no concrete solutions" and someone at Stage Two (level two) said "she was kind of vague." Another comment about the PC session: Stage Four (level three): "I wouldn't send my worst enemy to her." A Stage Four

(level four) comment to the same session: "This approach would allow me to figure out my own problems. This would be very important to me."

Most of these participants do not seem to be potential clients (although 14% of them said that they would seek counselling if the problem was "more serious"), but their reactions may not be so different from those who do seek counselling. The range of reactions may serve as a reminder of the range of perceptions and needs that may be brought to a counselling situation and of the number of factors (other than developmental) that probably affect these perceptions and preferences.

Tinsley and Benton (1978) speculated that "many potential clients may never seek counselling because of their low expectation that they will be helped" and that "most potential clients probably have friends, parents, or acquaintances that they can be relatively certain will be genuine, accepting and trustworthy" (p. 542). This latter statement was confirmed in a later study (Parham & Tinsley, 1980). Qualitative data from the present study call into doubt the validity of Tinsley and Benton's former statement, and offer further confirmation of their latter statement. It has already been reported that only 8% of the participants gave negative comments (skepticism about competence, confidentiality, or reluctance to share with a stranger) in explaining why they would be unlikely to seek counselling. In contrast, almost 60% of all participants felt that they would either be capable of solving their problems themselves, or that they had a support network of friends, family, or spouses on whom they could depend before they would turn to counselling. This latter finding is also very similar to a finding of Tinsley, de St Aubin, and Brown (1982) that "... 64% of subjects believe that they would deal with a personal concern themselves rather than see a professional counsellor" (p. 531).

Conclusions from Phase Two

In general, evidence from the Phase Two data is not strongly supportive of a consistent, predictable relationship between MER level and reactions to the two counselling approaches. There is more supportive evidence that TIB stage is related to a preference for structure and direction. However, any real developmental differences may be difficult to separate from the overall preference of all participants for the more directive approach, so these results should be interpreted with some caution.

Phase Three: Reactions to Selected Counsellor Responses

The results here are based on far fewer data than I had anticipated. There were ten potential counsellor responses to be classified and rated by the participants.¹⁹ As explained in Chapter 4, the data for only four responses were considered for analysis. This placed a serious limitation on the information to be obtained from the helpfulness data, as the four selected responses represented a narrow range in terms of structure and directiveness, when my intention was to provide extremes on this dimension.

As a general observation, given the fact that expert observers were able to agree completely in their classification of only four of the counsellor responses (although 80% agreement was reached on four others), it seems quite remarkable that almost one third (54 of 170) of these novice participants made "correct" classifications of all four of the counsellor responses.

Perceptual Accuracy

It was reported in Chapter 2 that two studies (Le Cann, 1969 and Wolfe, 1974) had investigated the relationship between conceptual level and accuracy

¹⁹ Twelve counsellor responses in all were presented, but the first was a "test" response to make sure that participants understood the procedure, and the last was a metaphorical statement that was included to examine the (non-hypothesized) relationship between developmental level and responses to metaphor.

of person perception, using filmed excerpts. Wolfe found a relationship; LeCann did not. In the present study, those at higher MER levels or TIB stages were able to make more correct classifications of the four counsellor responses presented. The sample of behaviour is probably too small to draw very strong conclusions, but the evidence does seem to suggest that with increases in development, there is an increase in sensitivity to the nuances of the behaviour of another person. Again, it is interesting to note that MER level two had the lowest accuracy scores, not level one as would be expected. It is also interesting that perceptual accuracy scores were slightly more strongly related to MER level than to TIB stage. However, in terms of the actual percentages of participants who correctly identified all four responses across levels or stages, the trend is more consistent for TIB stage. (The percentages from Stage one to Stage Four are: 20, 20, 23, and 45; for MER levels one to five the percentages are: 25, 26, 20, 54, and 43).

Helpfulness

Those at lower levels of development found counsellor self-disclosure to be more helpful than did those at higher levels. In fact, MER level five gave self-disclosure the lowest helpfulness rating of any of the four responses. For MER level, the greatest difference is at level two. It may be that, especially for lower MER levels, such a gesture on the part of the counsellor met the needs of these individuals to establish a more personal relationship with the counsellor, analogous to their preferred relationship with instructors. Self-disclosure is also the counsellor response that was correctly identified by 99% of all participants. There is some evidence (see Tables 4.14 and 4.15) that there is in general, a high correspondence between a response's ease of classifiability and its helpfulness rating; that is, across levels, the greater the number of

participants able to correctly classify a response, the higher that response's helpfulness rating. In the study, participants were simply asked to indicate how helpful they would find a response, and were left to supply their own definition of helpfulness. It is possible, then, that helpfulness was confounded with ease of identification.

Even with such a possible confound, however, this finding does not diminish the fact that there were also developmental differences which mirrored certain Phase One EAC-B findings reported earlier: TIB Stage One participants also had higher expectations for Self Disclosure, and those at the highest developmental levels had the lowest preference for Self Disclosure (although this difference was not significant). A study by VandeCreek and Angstadt (1985), with a sample of 18-24 year old females, also found that subjects rated disclosing counsellors more favourably than they did counsellors who did not self disclose, although developmental variables were not considered in their results.

Differences in mean helpfulness ratings on some of the other counsellor responses are, while not significant, suggestive. For example, the level five rating for Information Giving was higher than any other rating for any other counsellor response. This finding may be related to the relativistic tendency to gather and use information from diverse sources when making decisions. As a final observation, of the four selected counsellor responses, Reflection was correctly classified by the smallest number of participants, and generally received the lowest helpfulness ratings. However, the mean Stage Three rating was higher than that of any other stage. One wonders if this finding is related to the described needs of Stage Three individuals for **relationship and understanding**.

Some General Conclusions and Implications

The evidence from the present study provides some clarification of the relationship between the forms of development proposed by the Perry Scheme and CST, and as measured here by the MER and TIB, respectively. Whether the two instruments are measuring what they are purported to be measuring is not addressed here, but a significant correlational relationship was found between the two models. However, any predictions following from this relationship tend to be restricted to the upper extremes of the developmental spectrum. Thus, it is more likely that those classified as relativistic will also be functioning at Stage Four of social-cognitive development. The reverse relationship cannot be assumed, and it is this fact, as much as anything, that highlights the difference between the two models. Whether the Perry Scheme is, as Perry asserted, about intellectual development, or as Wilkinson(1989) suggests, about changes in the definition of knowledge, there are aspects of the scheme that go beyond social-cognitive development. Therefore, it is not likely to be as good a predictor of counselling-related behaviour as more strictly social-cognitive measures would be.

There is a clear difference between expectations and preferences in almost all of the areas covered on the EAC-B. This finding reinforces the contention of Duckro, Beal, and George (1979) that in any study of this kind, it is important to make a distinction between expectations (anticipations) and preferences. The present results also raise three issues: (a) whether (Tinsley and Westcot's 1990 conclusions notwithstanding) in previous studies with the EAC-B, where the focus has been on expectations only, respondents have confused expectations with preferences; (b) whether the distinction has practical implications, either for the potential client's initial decision to seek

counselling, or for a client's tendency to remain in counselling. Tinsley and Benton (1978) suggested that clients may not enter counselling because their preferences exceed their expectations. However, qualitative data from the present study suggest that such a conclusion is not necessarily warranted. In any case, Heppner and Heesacker (1983) hypothesized that "specific clients' expectations of counselling are based on minimal information, or are not well founded and subsequently easily altered when clients acquire actual counselling experience."²⁰ No mention is made of preferences in the following two studies, but their results do further clarify the role of expectations in the counselling process. Hardin, Subich, and Holvey (1988) found that precounselling expectations were not related to premature termination of the counselling relationship. Finally, Tinsley, Bowman, and Barich (1993) found that unrealistically high expectations may have a detrimental or facilitative effect on counselling, depending on the area of expectation. A third issue, which may be critical in considering any of the expectations research, is the possibility that expectations and preferences are linked in such a way that it is really preferences which give any behavioural impetus to expectations. Therefore, expectations should not be considered in isolation from preferences.

Precounselling expectations and preferences, preference for different therapeutic approaches, accuracy of perception of counselling behaviour, and helpfulness of certain counsellor responses were all related to level of cognitive development. In most cases, the TIB was a more consistent, powerful

²⁰An example of this phenomenon came from one of the younger participants in the present study, who commented after viewing the tapes: "It never crossed my mind that a counsellor would have so much understanding when it comes to school and teenage problems. Usually, they are thought to be social workers trained to help alcoholics and abusers."

predictor of this relationship; it seems likely that counselling is more criterion relevant to what is being measured by the TIB. The relationship between MER and the above counselling variables was more tenuous, but where differences in performance between MER levels were found, they tended to parallel the TIB findings. Because it seemed that structure or directiveness was a more theoretically relevant dimension on which to test developmental differences, it was a major environmental variable in Phase Two of the study. There seems to be a relationship between level of development and preference for directive counselling approaches, but given the findings of Tracey and Dundon (1989) on the changing of role anticipations and preferences over the course of counselling, this relationship may have most relevance for the initial stages of counselling.

The developmental differences found were over and above any differences which might be attributable to age, education, and gender. These findings, together with those of Craig and Hennessy (1988) and Tinsley et al. (1990) indicate that cognitive development as measured by the MER does have some relevance for counselling expectations and preferences, but there are a few caveats: (a) it seems that in this area, MER may be a less useful measure than the TIB; (b) predictions may be made with more confidence about the needs of those at the lower levels of development; and (c) it is probably unrealistic to expect a direct one-to-one correspondence between developmental level and behaviour; at most, there will be tendencies. It is the case that as development proceeds, there is an increase in the repertoire of possible responses available to the individual. Thus, the behaviour of those at both the transition and higher levels will likely be more unpredictable. In addition, although this study has attempted to consider the most relevant

variables which might affect the present results, there will be a myriad of other variables which influence behaviour.

Some Methodological Limitations

There were certain procedural and design shortcomings which may have had an effect on the results of this study. Some of these should be taken into consideration in carrying out future research in this area; others may be inherent in any study in which developmental level is a variable.

Administration of the EAC-B

In the present study, participants were asked to indicate both their expectations and preferences as they responded to each item of the EAC-B. This requirement may have set up an expectancy that their preference rating should be different from their expectation. Thus, the distinct differences found may be inflated by a procedure which forced them to respond to both expectations and preferences at the same time. Any such response set might have been avoided by having participants complete the EAC-B twice, once to indicate expectations and once to record preferences, with adequate time between administrations to ensure that recall of previous choices was not a confounding factor.

Reliability of the EAC-B

It was reported in Chapter 4 that, in the present study, the reliability estimates on the EAC-B scales ranged from .54 to .82 (median = .73) for expectations, and from .50 to .78 (median = .64) for preferences. These are lower than the range (.69 to .82) and median (.77) reported in the EAC-B manual by Tinsley (1982). It should be mentioned that, of the 14 published studies which used the EAC-B, only two (Tinsley, Workman, and Kass, 1980; and Tinsley, Hinson, Holt, and Tinsley, 1990) reported internal consistency

coefficients from the actual sample studied; all others reported previously found reliabilities from Tinsley (1982) or Tinsley et al. (1980). It is impossible to say, then, whether acceptable reliability levels were attained in much of the earlier EAC-B research.

Nevertheless, the fact remains that in the present study, internal consistency coefficients for EAC-B preferences were lower than would be considered desirable. The usual effect of a lower reliability is to attenuate the relationship between measures, and this may have been the case here. It is interesting to note that even with a possible attenuation, significant effects were found on two "preference" subscales (Empathy and Expertise) on which the reliability estimates were somewhat lower than those reported by Tinsley (1982). One must conclude however, that because of measurement error, these findings must be treated with caution.

Presenting Problem

As mentioned in Chapter 2, studies by Hardin and Yanico (1983) and Subich and Coursol (1985) suggested that problem type was not a major factor in determining expectations about counselling. It seemed however, that controlling for problem type could be an issue in Phase Two of the present study, when participants viewed the videotaped sessions. I attempted to write a script (PC) that suggested that, even for such a "mundane" problem as procrastination, there might be underlying issues that should be explored (and thus that there could be advantages to using either approach). A number of participants commented that the exploratory nature of the PC session allowed the client to "get to the root of the problem," so it was evident that the point was taken by at least some of the participants. However, it is possible that the general overall preference for RET was at least partially related to

participants' perceptions that because of its greater task orientation, RET was better suited for dealing with the problem of procrastination. A study by Martin, Martin, and Slemon (1987) offers support for the differential orientation of the two approaches. They found that, when counsellors and clients were asked to recall "good moments" from counselling sessions, the "data confirmed a strong affective focus in the person-centered dyads, and a strong cognitive focus in the rational-emotive dyads" (p. 258). (However, in the Martin et al. study, the transparency of the "more explicitly cognitive and instructional character of rational-emotive counselling" (p. 258) was negatively associated with clients' ratings of counselling effectiveness.) In the present study, only one participant explicitly stated in her written comments that the Person Centred approach might be more appropriate for problems of a more "personal" nature, but such thinking might have been a factor in the ratings of other participants as well.

A possible correction to avoid this source of bias would be to cross problem type with counselling approach. Unfortunately, in the present study there were practical constraints, most notably the time demands (about three hours) already made on participants, which precluded the use of such a procedure.

The Videotaped Sessions

Weinrach (1995) reported Albert Ellis's criticism that "REBT outcome studies have limited their focus primarily to the cognitive restructuring aspects of REBT, as opposed to the combination of cognitive, emotional and behavioral aspects of REBT" (p. 298) (my underline). A similar criticism could be made about the version of RET portrayed in the present study (even though the RET script used was rated fairly highly for accuracy of portrayal by

practicing psychologists). Participants' comments confirm that, for some, the lack of attention given to emotional expression in the RET session was a negative factor. A greater focus on emotional aspects might have resulted in still higher ratings for RET, even among those who rated the PC session more favourably.

A second feature of the RET session should also be mentioned. In the original RET script, in an attempt to add a greater degree of verisimilitude, a counsellor interruption of the client was deliberately written in and filmed. When it was pointed out that this interruption could negatively affect the viewer's perception of RET, an attempt was made to edit out the interruption from the videotaped session. It seemed in the pilot study that the editing had been done reasonably successfully. However, in the actual study, 12 participants commented on the interruption in their written comments. Although five of these participants still gave higher ratings to the RET session, the potentially negative perception may have contributed to the overall pattern of PC/RET ratings.

A third feature has to do with the fact that the tapes were scripted and acted. This seemed not to be a major factor for some participants, as some even asked after the viewing, whether the counsellor and client were acting. Most, however, seemed aware that they were watching a scripted demonstration and this knowledge may have affected their reactions to the sessions.

Range of Developmental Differences

One of the design criteria cited by Stoppard and Miller (1985) as being important for an adequate test of the matching hypothesis was "adequacy of range and separation of subjects on CI" (p. 62). In the present study, considerable effort was made to ensure that there was an adequate number of

participants at the extreme positions on the developmental spectrum. Soliciting adequate numbers in these positions proved more difficult than anticipated. Consequently, there are far fewer numbers at the lowest and highest MER levels (in spite of the fact that the final sample included 67 students with 30 or fewer credits, 29 with a bachelor's degree and 20 in master's or doctoral programs), while most were at the transition levels. Because of the smaller numbers at the extreme MER positions, I had to adopt the categorizing system discussed earlier, which meant that no level contained purely dualistic or relativistic thinkers. It may be that there are no "pure" types in reality, but if a greater separation of levels had been achieved, the relationship between MER level and the dependent variables could probably have been more adequately tested.

Perhaps a useful modification for any future studies is to extend data collection so that the sample includes other groups, either high school students or those adults who have not attended a postsecondary institution, or even highly educated non-students. Such an undertaking would, of course, present its own difficulties.

Future Directions

In terms of the present study, some methodological changes - separation in time of the gathering of expectations and preferences data, varying problem type, increasing the numbers of participants at the extreme developmental positions - have been suggested. Such changes may have the effect of further clarifying the usefulness of the Perry Scheme in counselling theory and practice. There may, however, be other research directions which would yield different kinds of knowledge.

I reported that only four counsellor responses were used in analyzing the helpfulness data in Phase Three. It would perhaps have been useful to analyze the data from all counsellor responses to see if there were other dimensions of counsellor response which are associated with level of development. The latter procedure was not followed in the present study because I was primarily interested in examining responses to the directiveness-nondirectiveness dimension, and classification of counsellor responses was initially from the viewpoint of expert observers. A more phenomenological approach (Elliott, 1979) would have allowed for the determination of counsellor intention from the viewpoint of the client (or in this case, the participant). This approach might ultimately have been more profitable for, as Elliott (1982) pointed out: "helper behaviors were generally only moderately successful in predicting client perceptions of helper intentions" (p. 292).

It might, then, be more informative to consider all counsellor responses from the participant's viewpoint, then to assign degree of structure to the participant's classification of the counsellor response, and to ask the participant why he/she found the response to be helpful. Or additionally, following the later procedure of Elliott, Barker, Caskey, and Pistrang (1982), the participant could be asked if the counsellor response would have been a help or a hindrance.

In the present study, interesting information was gained from the qualitative data. A more detailed understanding of the relationship between developmental level and students' views of counselling might be gained by a smaller N qualitative study. Such a study could employ both the EAC-B and follow-up interviews to explore students' conceptions of counselling, its

perceived purpose, and the role of client and counsellor in the counselling process.

There may be other aspects of counselling to which application of the Perry Scheme is better suited. Pollock (1984) found a relationship between intellectual development scores (measured on an instrument other than the MER) and attitudes towards educational counselling. Welfel (1982) suggested that the Reflective Judgement model (which is partially based on the work of Perry, but also draws from CST) may have implications for career counselling. Indeed, it does seem that career counselling is an area of counselling that calls on clients to make use, in a more explicit way, of information about the self and the external world, and where clients often feel (at lower levels of development) that there are definite and clearcut answers about career choice. In career counselling especially, the counsellor (or a computer printout) may be construed as the authority who tells one what to do or be. It seems then, that the career area might be a more criterion relevant field of counselling for future tests of the Perry Scheme.

The present study attempted to go beyond previous studies of expectations about counselling, where only the pencil-and-paper EAC-B was used, to examine how developmental differences are manifested in participants' reactions to demonstrations of counselling approaches. In this sense, this study was a closer approximation to reality, but it was still an analogue study. Ideally, one would want to know how developmental differences "play out" over the course of an actual counselling relationship, including their effects on such aspects as the establishment of a working alliance, the helpfulness of specific counsellor interventions, the changing of conceptions of the role of the counsellor and client, and the duration and

outcome of the counselling relationship. Such research would be more difficult to design and carry out, but might yield more practical knowledge.

Concluding Remarks

The results of the present study have some theoretical significance in that a relationship between intellectual development and some aspects of counselling-related behaviour has been demonstrated. There has also been a re-confirmation of the relevance of Conceptual Systems Theory for counselling practice. The relevance of the Perry Scheme is less certain.

In the past, a number of speculative claims have been made as to how knowledge of students' positions on the Perry Scheme could guide postsecondary counsellors in their work. The results of the present study suggest that, contrary to conventional wisdom, the Scheme has less utility than expected in predicting the counselling preferences of students. As mentioned in Chapter 2, the Scheme has proved valuable in predicting how students at different developmental levels will deal with the tasks of post-secondary education, and respond to different methods of instruction. Application of the Perry Scheme, then, may be most appropriately limited to the design and implementation of instructional approaches which provide those conditions - of challenge and support - which enhance intellectual development. There are other developmental models which are more useful for counselling.

As a comment on the general relevance of models of development, it may be important to make a distinction between a client's pre-counselling developmental level (as was measured in the present study) and the level demonstrated by the same client's in-counselling behaviour. Ivey's work (1986, 1991) clearly is concerned with the latter. It may, for instance, be the

case that, as Ivey has postulated, (a) in times of stress or crisis (which is usually the point at which a client makes his/her initial counselling contact), clients regress to the Piagetian pre-operational or sensori-motor stage, or to the elemental level of self knowledge described by Weinstein and Alschuler (1985), and (b) counsellors and therapists can be trained rather easily to make an in-session "developmental assessment" during the initial interview, and to adapt their therapeutic style to fit the client's functioning level. In fact, most experienced counsellors probably intuitively make such shifts.

However, it will probably also be the case that the length of time a client stays at the level of elemental thought will depend largely on that client's pre-morbid level of development. In other words, if clients have already reached more complex levels of development, then regression to more concrete levels is likely to be temporary and brief. In such a case, the counsellor will probably be able to move more quickly to therapeutic approaches which are more appropriate to more complex patterns of thought and behaviour. If, on the other hand, the client typically functions at a more concrete level in many areas, the counsellor's task will be to move more slowly and to use more concrete approaches.

Finally, the role of the counsellor must be considered. It seems important that, especially in the initial stages of counselling, the counsellor be aware of the client's developmental level, and the needs for structure of those at more concrete levels. The counsellor must decide whether, and to what extent, this need for structure will be met, or even if meeting the need is in the best long term interests of the client. As Miller (1978) commented, ". . . the kind of environment that students prefer may not be optimal for them" (p. 119). A major goal of counselling is to effect change, to help clients identify

and avoid nonproductive patterns of thought and behaviour, to gain new perspectives, and to learn and apply new behaviours. The counsellor is unlikely to foster this kind of development by simply matching the client's developmental level.

The tasks for the counsellor, then, are those of assessing client developmental level and needs, and providing an optimal amount of structure, while at the same time choosing therapeutic interventions which will be sufficiently challenging to stimulate and enhance client growth. Further, these tasks are to be accomplished within the constantly shifting dynamic of the interview. A number of writers, most notably Ivey (1986, 1991), and Howard, Nance, and Myers (1986) have suggested how these tasks might be approached. It will be evident that the cognitive demands placed on the counsellor are such that these tasks are only likely to be successfully accomplished by those counsellors who are themselves capable of functioning at a high level of cognitive complexity.

Finally, a note of caution. The practical aspect of the findings of the present study may be in alerting counsellors to the importance of giving explicit consideration to a client's developmental level. Awareness of the developmental spectrum (and an individual's position on it) may aid in our understanding of how that individual makes sense of the world, and may shed some light on how counselling might best proceed. We should, however, be mindful of Kegan's (1982) statement about the possible shortcomings of deliberate developmental interventions.

The greatest limit to the present model of developmental intervention is that it ends up being an address to a stage rather than a person, an address to made meanings rather than meaning-making. . . . The stages,

even at their very best, are only indicators of development. To orient around the indicators of development is to risk losing the person developing, a risk at no time more unacceptable than when we are accompanying persons in transition, persons who may themselves feel they are losing the person developing. (p. 277)

Knowledge of the individual's developmental level may be only the beginning, not the endpoint, in understanding the individual.

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Measure of Epistemological Reflection

THINK ABOUT THE LAST TIME YOU HAD TO MAKE A MAJOR DECISION ABOUT YOUR EDUCATION IN WHICH YOU HAD A NUMBER OF ALTERNATIVES (E.G., WHICH COLLEGE TO ATTEND, COLLEGE MAJOR, CAREER CHOICE, ETC.). WHAT WAS THE NATURE OF THE DECISION?

WHAT ALTERNATIVES WERE AVAILABLE TO YOU?

HOW DID YOU FEEL ABOUT THESE ALTERNATIVES?

HOW DID YOU GO ABOUT CHOOSING FROM THE ALTERNATIVES?

WHAT THINGS WERE THE MOST IMPORTANT CONSIDERATIONS IN YOUR CHOICE? PLEASE GIVE DETAILS.

Measure of Epistemological Reflection

DO YOU LEARN BEST IN CLASSES WHICH FOCUS ON FACTUAL INFORMATION OR CLASSES WHICH FOCUS ON IDEAS AND CONCEPTS?

WHY DO YOU LEARN BEST IN THE TYPE OF CLASS YOU CHOSE ABOVE?

WHAT DO YOU SEE AS THE ADVANTAGES OF THE CHOICE YOU MADE ABOVE?

WHAT DO YOU SEE AS THE DISADVANTAGES OF THE CHOICE YOU MADE ABOVE?

IF YOU COULD GIVE ADVICE TO ANYONE ON HOW BEST TO SUCCEED IN COLLEGE COURSEWORK, WHAT KIND OF ADVICE WOULD YOU GIVE THEM? TALK ABOUT WHAT YOU BELIEVE IS THE KEY TO DOING WELL IN COLLEGE COURSES.

Measure of Epistemological Reflection

DURING THE COURSE OF YOUR STUDIES, YOU HAVE PROBABLY HAD INSTRUCTORS WITH DIFFERENT TEACHING METHODS. AS YOU THINK BACK TO INSTRUCTORS YOU HAVE HAD, DESCRIBE THE METHOD OF INSTRUCTION WHICH HAD THE MOST BENEFICIAL EFFECT ON YOU.

WHAT MADE THAT TEACHING METHOD BENEFICIAL? PLEASE BE SPECIFIC AND USE EXAMPLES.

WERE THERE ASPECTS OF THAT TEACHING METHOD WHICH WERE NOT BENEFICIAL? IF SO, PLEASE TALK ABOUT SOME OF THE ASPECTS AND WHY THEY WERE NOT BENEFICIAL.

WHAT ARE THE MOST IMPORTANT THINGS YOU LEARNED FROM THE INSTRUCTOR'S METHOD OF TEACHING?

PLEASE DESCRIBE THE TYPE OF RELATIONSHIP WITH AN INSTRUCTOR THAT WOULD HELP YOU TO LEARN BEST AND EXPLAIN WHY.

Measure of Epistemological Reflection

DO YOU PREFER CLASSES IN WHICH THE STUDENTS DO A LOT OF TALKING, OR WHERE STUDENTS DON'T TALK VERY MUCH?

WHY DO YOU PREFER THE DEGREE OF STUDENT INVOLVEMENT/ PARTICIPATION THAT YOU CHOSE ABOVE?

WHAT DO YOU SEE AS THE ADVANTAGES OF YOUR PREFERENCE ABOVE?

WHAT DO YOU SEE AT THE DISADVANTAGES OF YOUR PREFERENCE?

WHAT TYPE OF INTERACTIONS WOULD YOU LIKE TO SEE AMONG MEMBERS OF A CLASS IN ORDER TO ENHANCE YOUR OWN LEARNING?

Measure of Epistemological Reflection

SOME PEOPLE THINK THAT HARD WORK AND EFFORT WILL RESULT IN HIGH GRADES IN SCHOOL. OTHERS THINK THAT HARD WORK AND EFFORT ARE NOT A BASIS FOR HIGH GRADES. WHICH OF THESE STATEMENTS IS MOST LIKE YOUR OWN OPINION?

IDEALLY, WHAT DO YOU THINK SHOULD BE USED AS A BASIS FOR EVALUATING YOUR WORK IN COLLEGE COURSES?

WHO SHOULD BE INVOLVED IN THE EVALUATION YOU DESCRIBED ABOVE?

PLEASE EXPLAIN WHY YOU THINK THE RESPONSE YOU SUGGESTED ABOVE IS THE BEST WAY TO EVALUATE STUDENTS' WORK IN COLLEGE COURSES.

Measure of Epistemological Reflection

SOMETIMES DIFFERENT INSTRUCTORS GIVE DIFFERENT EXPLANATIONS FOR HISTORICAL EVENTS OR SCIENTIFIC PHENOMENA. WHEN TWO INSTRUCTORS EXPLAIN THE SAME THING DIFFERENTLY, CAN ONE BE MORE CORRECT THAN THE OTHER?

WHEN TWO EXPLANATIONS ARE GIVEN FOR THE SAME SITUATION, HOW WOULD YOU GO ABOUT DECIDING WHICH EXPLANATION TO BELIEVE? PLEASE GIVE DETAILS AND EXAMPLES.

CAN ONE EVER BE SURE OF WHICH EXPLANATION TO BELIEVE? IF SO, HOW?

IF ONE CANT BE SURE OF WHICH EXPLANATION TO BELIEVE, WHY NOT?

APPENDIX B

THIS I BELIEVE TEST (TIB) FORM

OPINION SURVEY (Form TIB - 74

CONFIDENTIAL

FOR RESEARCH PURPOSES ONLY

CONFIDENTIAL

ID: _____ AGE: _____ SEX: _____

(Copyright 1974 O.J. Harvey)

Directions:

In the following pages, you will be asked to write your opinions about several topics. You will be timed on each topic at a pace that will make it necessary for you to work rapidly.

Please write on the topics in the order of their appearance. Do not turn any of the pages until you are asked to. You will be given two minutes to respond to each topic. Once you have left a page please do not turn back to it.

Please write at least TWO sentences.

PLEASE DO NOT OPEN THIS BOOKLET UNTIL YOU ARE INSTRUCTED TO BEGIN.

(Each of the statements below is then presented on a separate 5 1/2 by 8 inch sheet of paper.)

THIS I BELIEVE ABOUT. . . the Canadian way of life.

. . . marriage

. . . religion

. . . people

. . . deference to authority

. . . deceit

. . . friendship

. . . ultimate truth

. . . power to control the important things in my life.

APPENDIX C

Expectations About Counselling (Form B)

Copyright 1982

Howard E.A. Tinsley

Only the answer sheet for the EAC-B has been
reproduced in this appendix.

The full EAC-B is available from the author:

Howard E.A. Tinsley, Ph.D., ABVE

Department of Psychology, Mailcode 6502

Southern Illinois University at Carbondale

Carbondale, Illinois 62901-6502

EAC-B ANSWER SHEET

ID _____

1 Not True	2 Slightly True	3 Somewhat True	4 Fairly True	5 Quite True	6 Very True	7 Definitely True
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QUESTION#	EXPECT	PREFER	QUESTION#	EXPECT	PREFER
1.	_____	_____	21.	_____	_____
2.	_____	_____	22.	_____	_____
3.	_____	_____	23.	_____	_____
4.	_____	_____	24.	_____	_____
5.	_____	_____	25.	_____	_____
6.	_____	_____	26.	_____	_____
7.	_____	_____	27.	_____	_____
8.	_____	_____	28.	_____	_____
9.	_____	_____	29.	_____	_____
10.	_____	_____	30.	_____	_____
11.	_____	_____	31.	_____	_____
12.	_____	_____	32.	_____	_____
13.	_____	_____	33.	_____	_____
14.	_____	_____	34.	_____	_____
15.	_____	_____	35.	_____	_____
16.	_____	_____	36.	_____	_____
17.	_____	_____	37.	_____	_____
18.	_____	_____	38.	_____	_____
19.	_____	_____	39.	_____	_____
20.	_____	_____	40.	_____	_____

EAC-B ANSWER SHEET

ID _____

1 Not True	2 Slightly True	3 Somewhat True	4 Fairly True	5 Quite True	6 Very True	7 Definitely True
------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	---------------------	--------------------	-------------------	-------------------------

QUESTION#	EXPECT	PREFER	QUESTION#	EXPECT	PREFER
41.	_____	_____	56.	_____	_____
42.	_____	_____	57.	_____	_____
43.	_____	_____	58.	_____	_____
44.	_____	_____	59.	_____	_____
45.	_____	_____	60.	_____	_____
46.	_____	_____	61.	_____	_____
47.	_____	_____	62.	_____	_____
48.	_____	_____	63.	_____	_____
49.	_____	_____	64.	_____	_____
50.	_____	_____	65.	_____	_____
51.	_____	_____	66.	_____	_____
52.	_____	_____	67. Credits	_____	
53.	_____	_____	68. Age	_____	
54.	_____	_____	69. Sex	M_____	F_____
55.	_____	_____	Counselling	Yes_____	No_____

APPENDIX D

PERSON CENTERED (PC) AND RATIONAL EMOTIVE THERAPY (RET) SCRIPTS

(Counsellor responses used in Phase Three are underlined)

PERSON-CENTERED SCRIPT

(In this whole interchange, the client, who may be female or male, 20-25 years old, is sitting with her/his back to the camera and the client's face is never shown. Only the therapist's face is shown.)

T= Therapist

C= Client

T1: I don't really know very much about you (client's name), so perhaps we could begin by having you fill me in on what brought you here today.

(C4 to C6 statements are given almost spontaneously, in the manner of someone who has obviously been grappling with this for some time, and wants to get it all out as soon as they can. C's tone is quite concerned but not to the point of agitation.)

C1: I just can't seem to study or get down to doing my assignments. I just keep putting things off.

T2: Perhaps you could tell me a bit more about what happens.

C2: After my classes, I'll go to the library or go home, and I'll say to myself: "OK, this time I'm really going to get down to this" - but instead , if I'm in the library, I'll read magazines or wonder around the stacks looking at interesting books. Or if I'm home, I'll watch TV- even the soaps,

which I never watch otherwise- or I'll take the dog for a walk , or talk on the phone- anything but what I'm supposed to be doing.

T3: M-hm. . . How do you feel when you put off the schoolwork?

C3: (Thinks a bit) Well . . . I start getting mad at myself and depressed, which makes it even harder to get going. It's really starting to bother me.

T4: So things have got to the point where it's really starting to concern you. It sounds like this is a pretty new and disturbing experience for you.

C4: Well, it's always been a bit of a problem, but much more since I started here. My first term here, I passed all my courses, but a couple just barely, and I didn't do as well as I expected. The trouble was, I didn't know if I did so poorly because I didn't get down to it soon enough, or if the work was too hard for me, and I didn't have what it took. I mean - there seemed to be so many smarter people in my classes. Then I thought maybe it was because I was getting fed up with school, so I took a semester off. Now I'm back and it's happening again.

T5: You're saying that you've been really trying to puzzle this through to come up with some possible explanations. Nothing's very clear yet, but now you're even starting to doubt your ability. And things seem to be getting worse for you. Is that about right?

C5: Well, like I said, it was a bit of a problem in high school, but I still did OK there. Only the work wasn't nearly as hard in high school. Here it's a whole different thing. There seems to be no end to it- they just keep piling it on. There doesn't seem to be any time for any personal life- like it's really frustrating. I really like to go to movies, and it seems there's no time for that anymore, or even if I do go, I feel guilty 'cause I'm not working. Or I seem to have almost no time for friends. I get so

frustrated and pissed off because I see friends who aren't in school and they can enjoy themselves and I can't. Like the other night, I wanted to go see "JFK" and one of my friends called me up and said they were going, but I had to say no. Then I spent the rest of the night stewing about it.

T6: You're saying that schoolwork seems overwhelming at times. And on top of that, you're having to give up lots of other things that give you pleasure. Then you start resenting the schoolwork.

C6: Yeah, but that's only one of the problems. I quit a good job to come back to school this time, and now I'm not even sure if I'm in the right program. And on top of that, everyone's expecting me to do well. . . And yet, I keep putting off getting down to work. Then I feel guilty about not working so I don't even enjoy whatever else I'm doing instead of schoolwork. Then I start thinking: "What if I fail?", and get myself so worked up that I can't do anything. The other day in Psych. class we were talking about formative experiences in childhood, and I'm wondering if it relates to something back then. Like, I remember back in elementary school worrying for about a week about a simple little assignment because I wasn't sure what the teacher wanted. So I think about stuff like that, then I tell myself: "Don't be crazy- a little thing like that can't mean anything!"

T7: (Client's name), I get this sense of an overwhelming confusion that you're experiencing right now. Having all that schoolwork to contend with is bad enough, and then added to it is your worry about not being able to get down to it. Then you're asking yourself: "Am I smart enough, am I in the right program, what if I don't do as well as I think everyone expects

me to?" So there are all these things you're grappling with. And right now, nothing's making much sense. Is that right?

C7: Yeah. (In a joking tone, but somewhat bitterly)- confusion's my middle name. . . And it's not just other people expecting me to do well- I feel that I should be doing better. I mean, who wants to be a failure?

T8: You feel that you're not living up to your own expectations either. Failure is a real possibility.

C8: If I don't get something done pretty soon, it is. That's really the bottom line isn't it? (Long silence, while client thinks about it, then breaks out, rather forcefully): I KNOW I must be smart enough! Friends tell me I've got the ability, and when we have discussions in class, I can usually say something that sounds halfway intelligent. So, in my more objective moments, I can sometimes say to myself: "Come on, you're not stupid, you can get this done." (Pensively): But then I don't carry through, and I get on this downward spiral.

T9: Let me see if I'm understanding you here. . . There's a part of you that feels pretty confident about your ability. But you have a hard time sustaining that feeling when there's another part of you that's less confident and holds you back.

C9: Yeah, it's like I'm at war with myself. Did you ever read Dr. Doolittle when you were a kid? There's a creature in there called a push-me pull-you, and its ends always want to go in different directions. That's like me, I'm always going back and forth about getting work done. Unfortunately, the no-work part always wins.

T10: M-hm. (Looks sympathetic and "accepting")

- C10: (Exasperated) If I could just find some way to get things going. Sometimes I think: "OK, if I just make myself sit here until I do just one thing, that will get it all flowing."
- T11: I get this image of a stream that got dammed up because one branch got stuck. Now you're looking for that one branch that you can pull out and that will get it all flowing again.
- C11: Yeah, that's a good description. Except I can't find that branch. I've tried everything. I say Ok, I'll reward myself for working, or punish myself for not working, or leave it and come back to it later. I talk to my friends about it and they say don't worry, it'll get better- but it hasn't. I feel like I'm going around in circles with it.
- T12: Nothing seems to work. I can feel how frustrated you are with it. I think I would be, anyone would be in that situation.
- C12: Well, that's the thing; I think other people must go through this, and how do they cope with it? There must be some things that will work.
- T13: M-hm. Other people do it, so it must be a matter of finding the right approach.
- C13: (Off on another track, as if she/he hasn't heard the therapist.) My friends say : "Stop psycho-analyzing yourself and looking for hidden reasons. Just do it." And I think they're probably right , I need to stay focussed on finding some ways to get myself going rather than digging into my psyche. I mean that may be important for people to understand themselves, but I don't have a lot of time right now.
- T14: So you feel a real sense of urgency, that right now what's most important is for you to find concrete ways to deal more effectively with procrastination, to get things done on time.

- C14: Well, considering that I'm already into the term, getting the schoolwork done has got to be a major goal. Except, as I said, I've run out of ideas. So I thought maybe talking with someone like you would help. I mean- you must see other people with problems like this , and and you must have some ideas about how to deal with it.
- T15: You're wondering if I'll be able to help you with this. Well, I think it's a good first step that you've decided to come in and talk things over. As far as what I can do. . . my belief is that if you talk through the things that concern you, there's a good chance that you may be able to discover for yourself some of the things you can do about the situation. And what I'd be able to say is these are some things that have worked for other people, and they may or may not work for you. Then it would be up to you to decide if they're worth a try²¹.
- C15: (A bit of a pause.) In other words, you're saying it's up to me and that there's no guarantee. (Somewhat discouraged) I guess I was hoping that there was a key somewhere, something that would get me going and help me put it all together.
- T16: You feel discouraged because there doesn't seem to be an immediate answer to this problem, there doesn't seem to be any one thing that will give you the solution.
- C16: Yeah. . . I don't want to give you the impression that I'm looking for easy answers. (Silence from the therapist) (Pause, then client smiles ruefully). . . Well, maybe I am- it would be nice if there was a foolproof way of dealing with it. I mean, intellectually, I kind of know that there

²¹The T15 response contains verbatim comments from a transcript of a Carl Rogers counselling interview, and may be found in: Snyder, W.U. (Ed.) (1947). Casebook of non-directive counseling, (p.138). Cambridge, Mass: Houghton Mifflin.

isn't any one solution that works for everyone. It's just that none of my solutions seem to be working, not even things that worked before. I can't figure out why that is.

T17: There seems to be something different about this time.

C17: Yeah, and I sure wish I knew what it was. . . . So, what do we do? Do we just talk about it or what? I mean, is that the whole thing, you don't offer any kind of guidance to people? I get the point that I have to make the final decision about what to do, but (a bit exasperated) don't you do something else to help people?

T18: I'm aware right now that you seem to be getting kind of exasperated and impatient, and you seem to be feeling somewhat frustrated because I'm not telling you what to do.

C18: Well, it is frustrating to not seem to be getting anywhere. I know you can't tell me, but there must be some way out of this.

T19: It's true that I won't be giving you a lot of solutions, except to help you work through to some solutions that make sense to you. . . . One thing we could do is spend the rest of our time today exploring the situation and then you could decide if this will be worthwhile for you. How does that sound?

C19: (Somewhat mollified and calmer.) I guess that sounds reasonable.

T20: Ok, I'm glad we've been able to reach some sort of understanding. The other thing we can try to do in our time together is to see if we can clarify both our understandings of what you're experiencing. For instance, you seem to be confused and puzzled about what's different this time, why the usual things aren't working.

C20: Well, like I said, I've always had a tendency to put things off a bit, maybe schoolwork more than other things. I mean, I don't want to give the impression that I'm the world's best about coming up with solutions, but I have eventually got around to doing some things. (Thinks a bit) But schoolwork has always been more of a problem than other things. I mean, it's not such a big deal if I put off writing to my parents, or if I don't work out for a couple of days. If I don't do those things, I know they're there at the back of my mind, and I think about them, but I don't really get so worked up about them.

T21: So, looking back, you do see a bit of a pattern of putting things off. But you seem to be saying that one of the differences you notice is that you get more anxious about schoolwork.

C21: Yeah, definitely.

T22: I'm not sure I completely understand what that anxiety is all about. Could you tell me a bit more about that?

C22: I just put a lot more pressure on myself about schoolwork. I mean, I can feel myself tensing up as soon as we get an assignment in class. I know it's illogical, and I tell myself: "OK, just calm down now and think about this", but when the teacher says "Ok, have this done by next week" or whatever, then my mind starts racing.

T23: So it's right at that point that your anxiety starts and in spite of your efforts to control it, you feel like it's getting out of control.

C23: Yeah. . . I mean, I don't run screaming out of the room or anything. I'll fight it down, but it will kind of gnaw at me for the rest of the day, so I'll go around with this uneasy feeling, and I know it's connected to that. Then it comes out stronger when I sit down in front of the books, so I

just want to push them away and go do something else. (Shudders a bit as if even thinking of it is distasteful.)

T24: M-hm. . . so your feeling of unease burdens you all day and gets in the way of your studying.

C24: Yeah, that's it, it's like a weight on my shoulders.

T25: And you seem to be saying that it's not the kind of thing, of feeling that gets you just a bit anxious, like a bit of tension that scares you just enough so that you get kind of fired up about working. It seems to be a lot bigger than that. Is that right?

C25: Yeah. . . Well I know I'm really blowing it out of all proportion, but it's like this anxious feeling just kind of paralyzes me.

T26: M-hm. . . I'm still trying to understand what this feeling is like for you. Let me see if this is it: I used to have this fear of speaking in public, and I'd get so tight that it would almost paralyze me. Is that how it is for you?

C26: (Thinks). . . I know what you mean about the public speaking kind of thing. It's a bit like that. . . but . . . (thinks some more). . . actually, when I think about it, it's only sometimes like that- it kind of depends on what I'm being asked to do- it kind of gets all mixed up but sometimes the feeling is more intense than other times.

T27: So you're saying that that feeling, your level of anxiety goes up or down depending on. . . ?

C27: (Still considering) Well. . . I think it's more like. . . if the assignment is just to read a certain number of pages or a chapter of a book or whatever, then there's still extra stuff to worry about, but I can sometimes make myself get down to that. That somehow seems a bit more manageable. . . It's a lot worse when I'm assigned an essay or a report.

Then I start thinking: "What if I don't do a good job?" or "What if I miss the point completely?" Then I convince myself that I'm going to screw up.

T28: M-hm. . . So it sounds like that in both these cases, you have this feeling of being overwhelmed, but you've been successful in getting yourself going at least some of the time, more for reading assignments.

C28: Uh-huh.

T29: But when you yourself have to produce something, like a writing assignment, that's a lot more anxiety-producing. It sounds like for that kind of assignment, you really start worrying about your performance. Is that how it is for you?

C29: That's it exactly. (A bit agitated, voice a bit tremulous) Then I start thinking that I'm going to get a bad grade on this, or the teacher's going to find out that I don't understand this at all, or I'll end up at the bottom of the class. . . (With a bit of a flash of insight) That's what makes me tighten up! Then when I start to do the assignment, it's like I agonize over every word, or I start to second-guess myself, so that things that I thought I understood, I start to question. It's like I really lose any sense of perspective on what I'm doing or what needs to be done.

T30: You're saying it's more that sense of, those thoughts of "what if I don't measure up?" or "if people think I'm not very capable", when you start thinking that way, that's when your anxiety takes over.

C30: Yeah, that pinpoints it, that's what happens.

T31: I was aware as you were speaking that this issue is really an emotional one for you. I could hear the emotion in your voice.

- C31: Well, I don't usually get emotional about it; it's more like most of the time I try to keep a lid on it, or I'd get really panicky. I mean, there's no sense getting myself even more upset about it, is there?
- T32: If I understand you correctly, one of the ways you've tried to cope with this is to try not to think too much about your feelings about being compared or evaluated, not to let those feelings get the upper hand. Is that right?
- C32: Yeah, I guess that's what I try to do.
- T33: Except it doesn't sound like it's working for you.
- C33: You mean I shouldn't be doing that?
- T34: Well, I think I understand your reasons for doing that. It's like we were saying earlier about there being those two sides to yourself- the confident part, and the other part that's not so confident. I can see that it makes sense to you to try to help out the confident part by damping down those other feelings, but it seems like they get through and have an effect anyway.
- C34: (Long silence, then somewhat pensively) When I look back, I can see that this thing about confidence has been a constant battle for me. I mean, we're talking about schoolwork right now because it's right in front of me and it's a constant reminder. But there have been lots of other times when I've doubted myself, when I've wondered if I'm doing the right thing. I mean it's--things have worked out sometimes. . . but it's more like when they don't, if I make a bad decision, or don't do something as well as I should, I really get down on myself.
- T35: You're saying that this doubting of yourself has been longstanding, and it feels like it's pervasive, not just schoolwork but other parts of your

life as well. And you tend to be really hard on yourself, to blame yourself if things go wrong.

C35: Uh-huh.

T36: You start to feel sad when you think about it.

C36: Yeah, really. . . I mean I know that though. It's a bit more clear when we talk about it, but I guess I've always known that. The question is, what can I do about it? I mean, I'm not going to change my personality overnight. So what else can I do but try to be rational about it, to try to keep my confidence up. What else can I do?

T37: Recognizing it is one thing, doing something about it is harder. . . Do you think it might be important to keep in mind that distinction we made, about the times when you are successful?

RET SCRIPT

(In this whole interchange, the client is sitting with her/his back to the camera, and the client's face is never shown. Only the therapist's face is shown.)

T= Therapist

C= Client

(C4 to C6 statements are given almost spontaneously, in the manner of someone who has obviously been grappling with this for some time, and wants to get it all out as soon as they can. C's tone is quite concerned, but not to the point of agitation.)

T1: Now that I've got some background information about you (client's name), I'd like you to tell me what you're most concerned about.

C1: I just can't seem to study or get down to doing my assignments. I just keep putting things off.

T2: Could you tell some more about what happens?

C2: After my classes, I'll go to the library or go home and say to myself: 'OK, this time I'm really going to get down to this', and instead if I'm in the library, I'll read magazines or wander around the stacks looking at interesting books. Or if I'm home, I'll watch TV - even soap operas, which I never watch otherwise - or I'll take the dog for a walk or talk on the phone, anything but what I'm supposed to be doing.

T3: M-hm . . . How do you feel when you put off the schoolwork?

C3: (Thinks a bit) Well . . . then I start getting mad at myself and depressed, which makes it even worse and harder to get going. It's really starting to bother me.

- T4: It sounds like you're really getting frustrated and down on yourself. Most students have a similar problem with schoolwork at one time or another. Have you ever had a problem getting yourself going before?
- C4: A bit, but more since I started here. My first term here, I passed all my courses, but a couple just barely, and I didn't do as well as I expected. The trouble was, I didn't know if I did so poorly because I didn't get down to it soon enough, or if the work was really too hard for me, and I didn't have what it took. There seemed to be so many smarter people in my class. Then I thought maybe it was because I was getting fed up with school, so I took a semester off. Now I'm back and it's happening again.
- T5: You're not sure what the explanation is for your poor performance, but now you're wondering if you're even capable of doing the work. One way to check this out-your ability I mean- is to look back to what you did before. How did you do in high school?
- C5: Well I used to put things off a bit there, but I still did OK. The work wasn't nearly as hard though. Here, it's a whole different thing. There seems to be no end to it, they just keep piling it on. There doesn't seem to be time for any personal life- like it's really frustrating. I really like to go to movies, and it seems like there's no time for that anymore, or even if I go, I feel guilty 'cause I'm not working. Or I seem to have almost no time for friends. I get so frustrated and pissed off because I see friends who aren't in school and they can enjoy themselves and I can't. Like the other night, I wanted to go see "JFK", and one of my friends said they were going, so they called me up-
- T6: (Interrupts) So one of the problems is that you've had to give up things you enjoy, and then you start to resent schoolwork.

- C6: (Breaks in) Yeah, but that's only one of the problems. I quit my job to come back to school, and now I'm not even sure if I'm in the right program, or if that's what I want to do. And on top of that, everyone's expecting me to do well. So I have to do well this time. And yet I keep putting off getting down to work. Then I feel guilty about not working so I don't even enjoy doing whatever else I'm doing instead of schoolwork. And then I start thinking: 'What if I fail?' and I get myself so worked up that I can't do anything. The other day in psych. class we were talking about formative experiences in childhood, and I'm wondering if it relates to something back then. Like, I remember . . .
- T7: It seems like there are a bunch of things you're concerned about. You get anxious and down on yourself when you don't get down to studying and doing your assignments. You worry that maybe you don't have the ability to do the work. You get frustrated because it seems that schoolwork is taking over your whole life and you don't have time for fun anymore. You're not sure if you're in the right program. And you feel that you won't be able to live up to the expectations that other people have of you. Does that pretty well cover it?
- C7: Yeah-except that it's not just other people- I feel that I should do well too. I mean, who wants to be a failure?
- T8: . . . And live up to your own expectations as well. OK. Now, do you remember, when you first came in, I asked you what you thought the major problem was? In my experience, our time together will be more productive if we can focus on one thing at a time, preferably beginning with the thing that's bothering you most. There are a number of steps we can take to help you work on any of these problems you've

mentioned, and some of these things can be done outside of our sessions. But for now, let me ask you again- what do you think is the major problem you'd like to work on right now?

C8: (Thinks about it for a bit) Well, considering I'm already into the term, the most important thing for me right now is to stop putting off schoolwork.

T9: OK, so you want to be able to deal with the procrastination. Now, how will we know if we've been successful?

C9: (A bit of a pause) I'm not sure what you mean.

T10: I mean this: OK, an important goal for you right now is to be able to deal more effectively with schoolwork, to get things done on time, so it's not such a worry for you. Is that right?

C10: Yes.

T11: So what I mean is, if we spend time together working on this, how will we know, what will you be doing differently, so that we'll both know that the situation's improved?

C11: Oh. Well, I guess I'd be feeling better.

T12: But what specifically would you be doing that would make you feel better?

C12: I'd be doing all my schoolwork on time?

T13: (With some disbelief) ALL your schoolwork ALL the time? That sounds pretty ambitious to me. I don't know of any student who doesn't put off stuff some of the time. Let's say, for the sake of argument, that you're able to get to the point where for a while, you do everything on time. Then something comes up and you have to put something off. How would you feel about that?

C13: Probably that I'd failed to meet my goal.

T14: It's true that if your goal was NEVER to procrastinate, and you did, then you would have failed to meet your goal. But that's not a feeling. How would you FEEL if that happened?

C14: I guess I'd feel upset.

T15: But what kind of upset? Upset DEPRESSED, or upset ANXIOUS, or upset ANGRY at yourself?

C15: (Thinks) Maybe a bit of all three. But I suppose at first I'd get depressed because it would look like I was going back to my old ways.

T16: M-mh. You might start feeling just like you're feeling now. And you might start feeling that way because of your belief that you SHOULD ALWAYS be able to do your work on time and NEVER procrastinate. Now, NEVER procrastinating may be an admirable goal to have, but I don't know of anyone who would be able to meet it unless they're superhuman. Are you? (Client shakes head 'no'.) So I would say that that's an unrealistic goal and it wouldn't make sense to beat yourself over the head if you weren't able to meet it. What might be a more realistic goal?

C16: (Thinks) To be able to look back and see that I'm procrastinating less than I do now?

T17: From what I know about people, that makes better sense to me. We can even have you keep some kind of record so we can see when you're making progress. So are we agreed that a reasonable goal is if we can see some evidence of less putting off of schoolwork than at present?

C17: OK.

T18: OK, if it's all right with you, let's set aside some time at the end of our session today, and we can decide on what would be reasonable evidence that you're accomplishing your goal.

C18: (Nods or indicates agreement)

T19: Now so far what you've said is that when you know you have schoolwork to do, you put it off, then you start to get depressed and down on yourself, and then you start getting anxious because you're not getting anything done.

C19: Uh-huh.

T20: I wonder if you could tell me if there are other areas of your life where you put things off?

C20: (Thinks a bit) Well, sometimes I'll put off working out for days at a time. Or I'll put off writing to a friend back East, or to my parents. Like, the last time it was so long that my father called to see what was wrong.

T21: So it's not just schoolwork. How do you feel when you procrastinate about those other things?

C21: I get kind of annoyed at myself.

T22: You get annoyed, but it doesn't sound as if you get as anxious or down on yourself as you do when you put off doing your schoolwork.

C22: No, I guess not.

T23: Why do you suppose it is that you have these different feelings when it comes to schoolwork?

C23: Because schoolwork is more important right now? Besides, no one's going to fail me if I don't write to my parents.

T24: So schoolwork's at the top of your priority list, and the idea of evaluation is a factor too. But even though it's the most important thing right now,

it seems to be the very thing that's hardest to get started on, and that makes you anxious. Do have a theory as to why that is?

C24: (Silence while client thinks) No, I can't figure it out. Probably if I knew, I wouldn't be here.

T25: From what you've told me, I've got some hunches. The kind of counselling I do is based on some research that shows that most of the time, when people get upset or disturbed about something, it's not the thing itself that really gets them going; it's the beliefs or thoughts that they have about the thing. Now in your case, we've already seen that putting off non-school things isn't so upsetting for you, but putting off schoolwork is. In fact, it seems to be so upsetting that it stops you from getting anything done. So you must be telling yourself something different, or believing something different about schoolwork. Does that make sense to you?

C25: I think so.

T26: It's important then, to have a look at some of those beliefs. When we work together, I'll be spending a fair amount of time helping you to identify some of the beliefs that you have that get you upset and stop you from doing what you want to do.

C26: You mean you'll be changing my feelings?

T27: I won't be doing that, but I'll help you learn how to control the bad feelings, the ones that get you stuck or immobilized. And I'll do that by pointing out to you some of your misperceptions, or asking you to re-evaluate some of your perceptions. We'll do that when we work together here, and I'll also be giving you some homework assignments to help

you change your thinking and some reading to help you understand what's going on. Does that make sense to you?

C27: I think so.

T28: OK, maybe you could tell me in your own words *your* understanding of what I've just said.

C28: (Pause, while client thinks) It's more like my thoughts that are holding me up, so I should develop more positive attitudes.

T29: That first part sounds about right. Except instead of attitudes, I call them beliefs. And we're not necessarily saying just that you should learn to have a positive attitude towards schoolwork, because let's face it, sometimes schoolwork can be a pain. Maybe this can clarify it a bit: some negative beliefs or feelings can get you motivated to do a better job, like when you're just a bit nervous about something. But other negative beliefs can really hold you back. One of the things we want to be able to do is to distinguish between the 'good' negative beliefs and the 'bad' negative beliefs, because this will help with your procrastination.

C29: (With some hesitation) OK.

T30: You still seem a bit uncertain about it.

C30: Well, I think I understand it. It's just that part about homework on changing feelings. I mean, that's my whole problem, getting down to homework, so I'm not so sure about even more homework.

T31: You mean it feels like I'm just piling more on your plate? Well, first of all, this would be a type of homework that just asks you to focus on some of your thoughts, so we can identify what's holding you back. I'm not going to be evaluating you on it, (smiles) saying "looks like you only get a 'C' this week", or something like that. Second, I can help you and

advise you, but I can't work magic, or do the work for you. So if what we do is going to be successful, you're going to have to be active and do most of the work. Does that sound reasonable?

C31: (Nods head 'yes')

T32: The third thing is- and this is important- you told me earlier that right now procrastination is the thing you most want to work on, but it seems like you're reluctant to put much effort into working on it. Is that a fair comment?

C32: Well, I wasn't sure at first about having even more stuff to worry about, well- yeah- it's definitely worth a try- the counselling homework I mean.

T33: Ok, good. As we go along, you'll see that there's a definite payoff. And you'll be doing the counselling homework only when you're stuck on the schoolwork. Now, let's go back to the schoolwork. When you get schoolwork assigned to you, what kinds of things do you tell yourself about it?

C33: I'm not sure what you mean.

T34: Well, OK, imagine a situation where you're sitting in class and the instructor says: "I'd like you to have this done by such-and-such a time". What is going through your head at that moment?

C34: (Head back, thinks for a minute.) Well . . . that would depend on what was being assigned, but at this point in the term, I guess my general reaction would be: "Oh no, not more work on top of everything else!"

T35: So you would start to have this feeling of being overwhelmed. What else?

C35: (Somewhat angrily.) I'd probably get irritated with the instructor. It seems like they all act as if you have no personal life and that their

- course is the only one that you're taking. It's like they don't realize that you have other courses with just as heavy workloads.
- T36: It sounds like you get more than just irritated. It sounds like you get quite angry, and that you're telling yourself that it's UNFAIR and AWFUL! Is that an accurate description of what's happening for you at that moment?
- C36: (Still a bit heated) Yeah- well it is UNFAIR! It's like they don't remember what it's like to be a student.
- T37: M-mh. Anything else you tell yourself at that point?
- C37: It might depend on what's being assigned. Now that I think about it, if it's just some reading, that's still extra stuff to worry about, but I can sometimes make myself get down to that. But when I'm assigned an essay or report, it's worse. Then I start thinking what if I don't do a good job, or what if I miss the point completely. Then I convince myself that I'm going to screw up.
- T38: So then you start worrying and getting anxious that you're going to do a lousy job. Now, it's by no means clear to me that you would do a lousy job, but let's assume for a moment that you did "screw up". What is there about that that raises your level of anxiety?
- C38: Then I'd be in trouble because I might fail the course.
- T39: Not doing well on one paper doesn't necessarily mean that you're going to fail the whole course, but let's assume the worst happened and you failed the course. What would be anxiety-provoking about failing the course?
- C39: (Incredulous) You're kidding- Oh God, that would be terrible.
- T40: What would be terrible about it?

- C40: (Starts explaining, in such a tone that implies that it is obvious) Well, if I started failing courses, it wouldn't be long before I flunked out.
- T41: If that happened, if you flunked out, I agree with you that it would be cause for some concern, but what would be TERRIBLE and AWFUL about it?
- C41: (Still as if it was obvious) It would mean that I was a failure.
- T42: So your thinking is that if, God forbid, the worst happened and you flunked out of school, you would be a failure as a human being and that would be the end of your life.
- C42: Well, I don't know if it would be the end of my life, but it's about the worst thing I can think of right now.
- T43: OK, let's see if I've got this right: When you're faced with the prospect of assignments, there are at least two things you're telling yourself, let's call them beliefs. First, there's a kind of general belief that you have that it's UNFAIR that they give you so much work, and they SHOULDN'T do that, and the second belief is that if you do a lousy job, you're a FAILURE. Now, you don't just get ANNOYED at the workload or CONCERNED about doing a good job- if you just felt that way, that might even get you motivated. Instead, you get really ANGRY at the UNFAIRNESS of all that work, and when you think about the possibility of failing, you get so ANXIOUS that it stops you from doing anything. So you avoid the schoolwork altogether, and that's where the procrastination comes in. Does that sum up the chain of events?
- C43: (Thinks a bit) I never thought about it in those terms before, but-yeah- I guess that's what happens.

T44: All right. Let's take a look at some of those beliefs you have that lead to that ANGER and ANXIETY.

APPENDIX E
SCRIPT RATING REQUEST LETTER

Dear _____

I am a doctoral candidate in the Instructional Psychology (Counselling emphasis) program at Simon Fraser University and am currently planning my research project.

I am investigating the relationship between adult cognitive development and client expectations and perceptions of counselling. One aspect of my research design involves the exposure of subjects, by videotape, to two different therapeutic approaches: Person-centered counselling and Rational Emotive Therapy. (I am not interested in evaluations of these two approaches per se, but as one of the independent variables in the study is degree of interview structure, these two were chosen as they seem to represent extremes on the structure continuum.)

Enclosed is a tentative script for the PC videotape. The interview portrayed is meant to be simply a segment of a first session, and I expect the finished tape to be, at most, twenty minutes in length. The focus is on the therapist rather than the client, as in my study subjects will be assessed on their ability to accurately identify certain therapist behaviours. I should emphasize that this will not be a training tape; in fact, I expect subjects (college and university students) to be naive about counselling and therapy. However, it will be important that the finished tape present a reasonably accurate portrayal of the therapeutic approach. This is why I am asking professionals such as yourself to rate the scripts of the videotapes. The finished tapes will also be rated for authenticity by counselling graduate students and professional colleagues.

I would appreciate it if you would take a few minutes to read the script and fill out the attached rating sheet, commenting on the authenticity of the script as an example of an initial Person-Centered session. I am also having an RET script (dealing with the same presenting problem) rated by psychologists who have identified themselves as being proponents of RET. (For the RET script, the following statement was added: "Your name was chosen because you

are listed in the College of Psychologists Directory as being a practitioner of RET.).

Please use the attached sheet to indicate your rating and add any comments you wish to make. If there are extensive changes, simply indicate them directly on the script, and return it, together with the rating sheet to me. I will call you shortly to answer any questions or to provide more detail, if necessary.

Thanks for your assistance.

Sincerely,

David A. Jones, M.A.
c/o Graduate Programs
Faculty of Education
Simon Fraser University
Burnaby, B.C.

PERSON-CENTERED SCRIPT RATING SHEET

Your Name _____

On a scale of 1 to 10, how would you rate this script as being a realistic portrayal of an initial Person-Centered counselling session? (Please circle one number)

1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Not at all realistic									Very realistic

Suggested Changes:

Additional Comments:

APPENDIX F

COUNSELLOR VIDEOTAPE RATING FORM

Personal Information

Educational Status: Master's (1st year) _____

(2nd year) _____

Doctoral _____ Special Student _____

Employment: Years of Counselling Experience _____

Present Title (if employed) _____

The tapes you are about to see are a kind of distillation to give an idea, in a relatively short time period, of what two very different (Person-Centered and Rational Emotive Therapy) counselling approaches are like.

Keeping the above in mind, please rate each of the sessions on their degree of similarity to a "real" counselling session with these particular approaches. (Use a rating scale of 1 to 10, with 1= least similar, and 10= most similar.)

Male Client:

	Rating
Session A	_____
Session B	_____

Female Client

	Rating
Session A	_____
Session B	_____

In each case, Session A portrayed a Person-Centered approach and Session B portrayed RET. If you have close familiarity with either of these approaches, please rate the degree of accuracy with which you think each particular approach was portrayed. (1= not at all accurate; 10= very accurate) or can't say.

	Rating
Person-Centered	_____
Rational Emotive	_____

Please write any other comments on the back of this sheet.

APPENDIX G
STRUCTURE SCALE

(The following is a slight modification of the scale used by Stein and Stone [1978], and was chosen because it seems to have the virtues of simplicity and brevity, while giving the required information.)

Structure Scale

Code Number _____

A counselling interview may be characterized by the amount of structure, or direction, given to the client, as follows:

<p>1</p> <p><u>Low Structure</u> The client talks about whatever s/he wants, therefore largely determining the content and direction of the interview.</p>	<p>5</p> <p><u>Moderate Structure</u> The counsellor gives a moderate amount of direction to the kinds of topics explored</p>	<p>9</p> <p><u>High Structure</u> The counsellor largely determines the content areas of the interview by posing specific questions.</p>
--	---	--

A. Using the above descriptions as a general guide, please rate how much structure, or direction you would like in an interview.

(Circle the number of your answer)

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Low

Moderate

High

B. How much structure would you say there actually was in each of the interviews which you have just seen?

(Circle the number of your answer)

Session A 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Low

Moderate

High

APPENDIX H
PHASE TWO SESSIONS RATING SHEET

1. Please describe briefly (in 1 or 2 sentences) the problem which the client presented in the sessions.

2. Was this the first semester for the client? Yes ____ No _____. (Check one)

Listed below are a number of questions which ask you to indicate your reactions to the sessions which you have just seen. After each question is a rating scale with seven spaces between the words at each end of the scale. Please give your reaction by placing an "X" in one of the seven spaces.

For example, if you were asked to indicate how interesting one of the sessions was and you thought it was very interesting, you would place the "X" as follows:

Very uninteresting _ _ _ _ _ X Very interesting

OR

If you thought the session was very uninteresting, you would check the scale as follows:

Very uninteresting X _ _ _ _ _ Very interesting

OR

If you were neutral, or didn't have a strong feeling one way or the other, you would check the scale as follows:

Very uninteresting _ _ _ X _ _ _ Very interesting

Remember, your first impression is the best answer.

3. How similar was each session to what you expected counselling would be like?

SESSION A: Not at all similar ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Very similar

SESSION B: Not at all similar ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Very similar

4. How similar was each session to what you would prefer counselling to be like?

SESSION A: Not at all similar ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Very similar

SESSION B: Not at all similar ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Very similar

5. How helpful would you have found each session if you were the client?

SESSION A: Not at all helpful ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Very helpful

SESSION B: Not at all helpful ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Very helpful

6. If you had a concern you wanted to discuss with a counsellor, how likely would you be to prefer each of the counselling approaches?

SESSION A: Not at all likely ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Very likely

SESSION B: Not at all likely ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ ___ Very likely

7. What did you like best about each of the counselling approaches?

SESSION A:

SESSION B:

8. What did you like least about each of the counselling approaches?

SESSION A:

SESSION B:

9. If something was bothering you, or if you were trying to make a decision about something, how likely would you be to discuss it with a counsellor?

Not at all likely _____ Very likely

Please state briefly your reasons for your choice in question 9.

APPENDIX I

PHASE THREE CATEGORY AND HELPFULNESS RATING SHEET

(The categories listed here are a simplified version of the 14-item Hill Counselor Verbal Response Category System; Hill, 1978).

COUNSELLOR RESPONSE CATEGORIES

Directions:

On these pages is a list of possible counsellor response categories to help you in making a decision about what you think the counsellor is doing each time the tape stops. Please refer to this list as often as you need to.

- I(a) Approval: Counsellor is encouraging or reassuring the Client.
- (b) Providing Information: Counsellor is giving information to the Client, either about certain facts or about what happens in counselling.
- (c) Direct Guidance: Counsellor is giving direction or advice to the Client about what to do.
- II(a) Closed Question: Counsellor is asking for information that requires a "yes" or "no" answer, or a one-or two-word confirmation of the counsellor's statement.
- (b) Open Question: Counsellor is asking for clarification or explanation; wants to hear the Client's thoughts about the topic.
- III(a) Restatement: Counsellor is repeating or rephrasing, in fewer words, the Client's statements.
- (b) Reflection: Similar to III(a) above, but Counsellor also refers to Client's feelings.
- (c) Nonverbal Referent: Counsellor is pointing out or asking about Client's nonverbal behaviour, e. g. , body posture, tone of voice.
- (d) Summary: Counsellor is summarizing the major themes the Client has been discussing.
- IV(a) Interpretation: Counsellor is interpreting Client's feelings or behaviour to help the Client see things in a new way.

(b) **Confrontation**: Counsellor is pointing out some contradiction or discrepancy to the Client (either between the Client's words and behaviour, or between two things the Client has said, or between the Client's and Counsellor's perceptions, etc.).

(c) **Self-Disclosure**: Counsellor is sharing her/his own personal experiences and/or feelings with the Client. (MORE ON PAGE 2)

V **Other**: Use this category if you think the counsellor is doing something which is not covered in the above categories. Use the back of the page 3 Rating sheet to make a brief note about what you think the counsellor is doing for that comment.

VI **Don't Know**: Use this category if you don't know what the counsellor is doing.

ID No. _____

CATEGORY AND HELPFULNESS RATING SHEET

On this sheet, we'd like you to try to identify each of the counsellor's responses by category, and then to indicate how helpful you think that response was. Remember, try to answer this as if you were the client in the interview. Refer back to page one ("Counsellor Response Categories") as often as you need to. Under the column headed "Category No.", simply put the number of the category (for example, "II(b)") that you think the counsellor's comment fits into. For the Helpfulness rating, just place an "X" in one of the seven spaces, as you did before.

<u>Counsellor</u> <u>comment</u>	<u>Category</u> <u>No.</u>	<u>Helpfulness</u> <u>Rating</u>
1	_____	Not at all _____ Very
A	_____	Not at all _____ Very
B	_____	Not at all _____ Very
C	_____	Not at all _____ Very
D	_____	Not at all _____ Very
E	_____	Not at all _____ Very
F	_____	Not at all _____ Very
G	_____	Not at all _____ Very
H	_____	Not at all _____ Very
I	_____	Not at all _____ Very
J	_____	Not at all _____ Very
K	_____	Not at all _____ Very

APPENDIX J

PROCEDURES FOR THE STUDY ON COGNITIVE DEVELOPMENT AND EXPECTATIONS
AND PERCEPTIONS OF COUNSELLING

The tasks of the study in which I have agreed to participate have been explained to me. I understand that the study will consist of two sessions.

In the first session, I will be asked to fill out or respond to three paper-and-pencil surveys which will ask my opinions or beliefs in specific areas. These areas are: (1) my expectations and preferences for what would/should occur in counselling; (2) my beliefs about certain areas of everyday life; and (3) my opinions about various aspects of post-secondary learning.

In the second session, I will be asked to view videotapes of counselling interviews showing two different counselling approaches. I will be asked to state my preferences for each of the approaches and to identify and state my preferences for specific counsellor behaviours. If I agree, I may be invited to be interviewed in more depth on my opinions about counselling.

I understand that all information obtained from me will be treated in a confidential manner. I also understand that my participation is voluntary, and that I may withdraw my participation at any time.

NAME (Please print): _____

SIGNATURE: _____

DATE: _____

APPENDIX K

CONFIDENTIAL INFORMATION SHEET

Before you begin to answer the questionnaires, please take a minute or so to give the following information about yourself. All information is strictly confidential. Your responses on the questionnaires will be identified only by the ID code number, but your name is required to insure that you receive the same ID number in the second phase of the study. All of your questionnaire responses will be combined with the answers of others like yourself, and reported only as group averages.

NAME: _____

ID NUMBER: _____
(See front of folder)

AGE: _____

SEX (Circle one): Female

Male

EDUCATIONAL STATUS:

(If undergraduate or college) Number of credits completed: _____
(to the beginning of the present term)

Program, major or tentative major: _____

(If graduate student) Master's: First year: _____

2nd Year: _____

Doctoral student: _____

Have you ever been to see a professional counsellor? (Circle one): Yes No

Would you be willing to return at a later date for a more extended interview (for which you would be paid \$10/hr.) on your views about counselling? (Circle one) Yes

No

APPENDIX L

SOME EXPLANATIONS ABOUT THIS STUDY

About the Videotaped Sessions. . .

As you have probably realized by now, the counselling sessions which you have just seen were simulated interviews -- that is, the client and the counsellor were both working from a script. Although the counsellor is a real counsellor, a student was recruited to play the part of the client and both were "acting" their parts. The two approaches portrayed are not necessarily the approach the counsellor herself would take in her own work.

However, the two sessions are reasonably accurate (as rated by other professional counsellors) portrayals of two specific counselling approaches which are commonly used. Where the videotaped sessions differ from "real life" is in the speed with which issues were raised and discussed: clients are rarely so forthcoming or articulate in such a short time, nor is so much ground likely to be covered in the first 15 or 20 minutes of a counselling interview. The tapes then, are a kind of distillation of reality which attempt to give an idea, in a relatively short time period, of what the two approaches are like.

About the Study Itself . . .

It is fairly common knowledge that people have different ways of thinking and of seeing the world. Some psychologists believe that these ways of thinking (sometimes called "cognitive structures") determine how we see the world and that changes in these structures are at least partially dependent on our environment and experiences. For instance, one theory of adult

cognitive development states that the post- secondary environment is especially important in bringing about changes in students' attitudes towards knowledge and authority. Research on this theory has suggested that first year students have very different attitudes than 4th year or graduate students.

In this study, I am interested in finding out if these differences extend to the area of counselling; that is, will students have different expectations and preferences for counselling, depending on their amount of post - secondary experience?

I asked you to do the two opinion surveys in the first session so I could get some idea of your way of thinking, to see if there are differences between participants which might be related to educational experience and then to see if these differences show up in the kinds of expectations and preferences you have for counselling. Finally, I wanted to see what your reactions would be when you were exposed to two different counselling approaches, and if there were differences in reactions that were related to your ways of thinking.

I hope that the above gives you some idea of what the study is about. If you have any questions, I would be happy to answer them. Until the end of July I can be found in MPX 8675. After July 31, I can be reached at the Counselling Department at Capilano College (986-1911).

Thanks for giving your time to this study. I really appreciate your contribution.

David Jones

APPENDIX M

PROCEDURE FOR ANALYZING QUALITATIVE DATA

An explanation of the five categories into which likes and dislikes were placed is given in Chapter 5. Participants' comments could fall into more than one category. Comments were tabulated as to category, and summed twice, once for MER level and once for TIB stage. After the total number of responses in each category was tabulated across all levels and stages, only those categories which contained at least 25 total responses were considered for analysis, unless at least 10 responses were all clustered at one level or stage. The percentage of total responses in each category was calculated for each MER level or TIB stage. If this percentage differed by at least ten percentage points from the proportion (of the total N) of participants at that level or stage, it was considered noteworthy. For example, the 56 participants at MER level two represented 33% of the total sample; yet level two negative comments about counsellor Attitude/Affect represented only 20% of the total negative comments in this category. Therefore, the proportionately lower number of level two negative comments about Affect/Attitude is considered noteworthy.

It was found that comments in the Physical category were not mentioned often enough for consideration, either as a 'like' or 'dislike' for either session. The comments in the process category were most often related to comments made about Solution/Guidance or Listen/Express, and so turned out to be redundant.

For the "satisfaction" comments, the same procedure was used for making decisions about noteworthy results, but only two categories - Solution/Guidance and Listen/Express - were used to classify comments.