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PREDICTORS OF COUNSELING EXPECTATIONS AMONG STUDENTS IN AN OPPORTUNITY PROGRAM

by

GRETA WINOGRAD

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Educational Psychology
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy,
The City University of New York

2005

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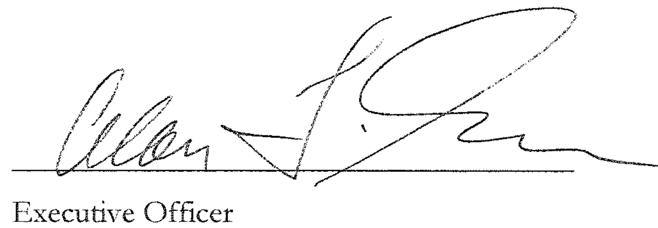

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for my dad,
Sam Winograd

(1937-2003)

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CHAPTER I

Literature Review

Introduction

Counseling has been called an interpersonal process (Strong, 1968) and a social learning relationship (Goldstein, 1966). According to both views, when clients and counselors come together, they bring with them expectations about the counseling process and the roles that each party will assume (Barich, 2002). Clients differ from one another in terms of the expectations they bring to counseling (Nowicki & Duke, 1978), and these differences can play a role in both counseling process and outcome.

In terms of the counseling process, the expectations that clients bring to counseling shape the events that take place between counselor and client, contributing to the relationship the two individuals develop with one another and to the communication processes that take place within this relationship (Tinsley, Bowman, & Barich, 1993; Tracey, Heck, & Lichtenberg, 1981). Client expectations have been shown to predict the client-counselor working alliance and the overall quality of the working relationship (Barich, 2002; Longo, Lent, & Brown, 1992). Client expectations have also been found to relate to client satisfaction (Heilbrun, 1972), treatment effectiveness (Longo et al., 1992; Nowicki & Duke, 1978; Tinsley et al., 1993), and client and counselor views of counseling success (Watkins & Terrell, 1988).

In addition, client expectations appear to affect patterns of counseling use, such as how long a person stays in counseling (Nowicki & Duke, 1978; Tinsley et al., 1993). Clients who endorse expectations of compliance and those who endorse expectations that are congruent with the offered rationale for treatment have been shown to be more likely to continue in counseling (Rabin, Kaslow, & Rehm, 1985). On the other hand, those clients

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who do not continue in treatment are more likely to indicate that their expectations were not met (Gunzburger, Henggeler, & Watson, 1985).

A critical component of counseling use patterns is whether a person who is in need of help even enters counseling. Leong, Wagner, and Tata (1995) write that "the help-seeking process serves as an important filter such that only a portion of those who need professional mental health treatment actually seek such assistance" (p. 415). Counseling psychologists have theorized that client expectations play a significant role in this treatment-seeking process (Tinsley et al., 1993). Thus, client expectations appear to affect not only the extent to which one benefits from the counseling relationship and experience, but whether, regardless of need, one is open to having such a relationship and experience in the first place..

The help-seeking attitudes and behaviors of racial and ethnic minority groups in general (Leong et al., 1995) and the counseling expectations of students from minority backgrounds in particular (Kemp, 1994) have received limited attention. This is a concern, as attitudes towards counseling among such students have been shown to affect help-seeking behaviors at college counseling centers (Boesch & Cimbolic, 1994). Tinsley et al. (1993) hypothesized that client personality characteristics may contribute to the kinds of expectations clients hold about counseling. While a number of studies (Craig & Hennessy, 1989; Foon, 1986; Nowicki & Duke, 1978; Schaub & Tokar, 1999) have suggested that individual traits are linked to specific types of expectations for counseling, there is a need for more comprehensive research in this area. There is an even greater need for research that looks at the relationship between individual traits and expectations for counseling among individuals from non-Caucasian backgrounds.

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This dissertation research attempted to address this gap in the literature by focusing on the characteristics and expectations of students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds (predominantly African American and Hispanic) who take part in the Opportunity Programs on their university campus. Opportunity Programs provide financial, academic, and personal support to students from academically underprepared or financially disadvantaged backgrounds. This support is designed to help students in their pursuit of higher education. Students in Opportunity Programs were chosen as a target group because of the unique circumstances and stressors they face when attending college. First-year students in particular were chosen because when we have knowledge about students early on in their college careers, we can plan more effectively to meet their needs.

The first purpose of this study was to find out what Opportunity Program students expect from counseling in terms of client attitudes and behaviors, counselor attitudes and behaviors, counselor characteristics, process, and outcome. The second purpose of this study was to examine whether these expectations are predicted by the students' self-esteem, attributional style, and self-appraised problem-solving skills. These traits were chosen as a focus because both theoretical and empirical research (e.g., Heppner & Krieshok, 1983; Nadler, 1987; Neal & Heppner, 1986; Nowicki & Duke, 1978; Tessler & Schwartz, 1972; Tinsley et al., 1993) have suggested that they are related to help-seeking behaviors and the counseling process.

In terms of the measurement of student expectations, this study was an analogue study in which students were asked to "pretend" they were visiting a counselor at a college counseling center or a private office or clinic. This is different from a study in which actual college counseling center clients would be asked for their expectations for counseling before meeting with a counselor. One benefit of using students rather than counseling center

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clients is that this group includes those who are reluctant to seek counseling and those who may seek counseling at a later date. Another benefit is that such a study allows us to tap into the expectations of an Opportunity student's peer group as a whole. There is, however, a drawback to this type of study: the results do not tell us if the individual students who participate in the study would have different expectations if they were in need of counseling and were actually waiting to see a counselor.

The American Psychological Association's (2003) guidelines for research with diverse samples point out that a problem with psychological research in the past has been a failure to consider within-group differences among members of ethnic minority groups (American Psychological Association, 2003). This research attempted to address this lapse by focusing on within-group differences as compared to between-group differences. This was the first study to research the counseling expectations of Opportunity Program students. It was conducted with the hope that its implications will enhance the likelihood that young African American and Hispanic students will respond positively to and benefit from their counseling experiences.

Expectations Defined

In order to better understand the nature of expectations for counseling, we must have a grasp of expectations for life events in general, and expectations for interpersonal relationships in particular. It is also important to differentiate expectations from preferences and perceptions.

Role vs. outcome expectations. In 1909, Titchener defined expectancies as "cognitively mediated predispositions to behave in certain ways in a given situation" (cited in Barich, 2002, p. 27). This definition focuses on *role expectations.* Role expectations may alternately be thought of or referred to as "process expectations." According to Rotter's (1966) social

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learning theory, on the other hand, an expectancy is a subjectively held belief that a certain outcome will occur as a result of a specific behavior being performed. This definition focuses on *outcome expectations*. Outcome expectations may be alternately referred to or thought of as "prognostic expectations."

Goldstein (1963) distinguishes between these two types of expectancies that are relevant to counseling research: the first type, prognostic expectations, is concerned with beliefs held by the client, before the client enters the counseling relationship, regarding the extent to which counseling will lead to positive changes in the client. Role expectations, on the other hand, involve beliefs about the ways the client and counselor will behave within the counseling relationship. Outcome expectations may include, for example, expectations about symptom reduction as a result of counseling. Role expectations, in contrast, may include expectations about the manner in which the clients' problems will be defined, the extent to which the client and counselor will participate in solving the problem, and the ways in which the client and counselor will interact and communicate with one another during this process. Both types of client expectations may already exist in pretreatment, or they may be derived from actual counseling experience (Al-Darmaki & Kivlighan, 1993).

Expectations for interpersonal relationships. Counseling is an interpersonal process in which counselor and client address the client's problems through communication. Therefore, expectations for counseling may overlap with expectations for interpersonal relationships and with expectations for communication within such interpersonal relationships.

Expectations as distinct from preferences and perceptions. Barich (2002) points out that one of the problems with early work on counseling expectations resulted from the difficulty of distinguishing expectations from preferences and perceptions. Tinsley, Bowman, and Ray

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(1988) addressed this problem by differentiating *preferences*, the extent to which a person desires an event, and *perceptions*, a person's knowledge of an event, from *expectations* that take into account a person's understanding of the probability that an event will occur.

Expectations for counseling. This dissertation research examined student expectations for counseling, rather than student preferences for or perceptions of counseling. Both role expectations and outcome expectations, as they apply to the counseling relationship, were considered. As there is a gap in the literature regarding the relationship of self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal to expectations for counseling in particular, hypotheses for these relationships were sometimes based on the relationship of these characteristics to expectations for interpersonal relationships in general.

"Surface" Traits and Beyond

Descriptive or background characteristics (e.g., age, gender, SES, ethnicity) are often convenient variables to study. However, while such characteristics may yield significance in research studies, there are often alternative explanations. For example, when differences are found between ethnic groups on a criterion variable, it may be that such factors as minority status, immigration history, cultural values, and level of acculturation are mediating these differences (Alvidrez, Azocar, & Miranda, 1996). Studies that use descriptive variables to predict various phenomena may yield equivocal results that differ from one set of respondents to another. For example, Ponterotto, Anderson, and Grieger (1986) suggested that mental health services are underutilized by Black college students, while research conducted by Boesch and Cimbolic (1994) failed to confirm that Black students are less likely than White students to seek formal counseling services.

The real problem with looking exclusively at demographic variables is that in doing so, researchers do not address individual differences within groups. This problem should be

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addressed in counseling process research. Longo et al. (1992) write: "It has been argued that studying preexisting, global participant attributes in isolation is not likely to advance knowledge of client defection [from counseling] because such variables are not modifiable and, in cases in which they do relate to attrition, their effects are likely to be mediated by psychological or sociocultural variables" (p. 451).

Less "surface" client pretherapy characteristics, which combine to form one's subjective views of the world and of one's self within the world, may influence motivation, skill in interpersonal relationships, and client level of openness and trust (Al-Darmaki & Kivlighan, 1993). Thus, there is a need for personality and sociocultural variables to become a focus for empirical study, in terms of their relationship to factors that may play a role in the utilization of mental health services (Rickwood & Braithwaite, 1994; Schaub & Tokar, 1999). This literature review provides a comprehensive examination of theories and research on three particular individual characteristics—self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving—in relation to attitudes and expectations that may influence help-seeking. This literature review also discusses demographic, cultural, and other background characteristics that may explain some variance in (or interact with individual characteristics in predicting) counseling expectations. Hypotheses are then presented regarding possible relationships between these variables and expectations for counseling among the sample under investigation.

Self-Esteem

Self-esteem is a traits that has been linked to expectations for interpersonal relationships (Baldwin & Keelan, 1999) and help-seeking (Nadler, 1987). Findings in these areas are discussed below, following a definition of self-esteem and an overview of theories regarding how self-esteem operates in a social-interactional context. A proposed

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relationship between self-esteem and expectations for counseling, including some preliminary evidence to support this relationship, is then presented.

Definition. Self-esteem has been defined as an attitude about oneself involving both an affective and an evaluative component (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). The affective component consists of the emotional feelings individuals have towards themselves, while the evaluative component involves individuals' perceptions of how they measure up compared to a "desired self" (Leary & Baumeister, 2000). The evaluative component of this definition is consistent with Silber and Tippett's (1965) view of self-esteem as "feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction about the self that reflect the degree of congruence between a person's self-image and...ideal self-image" (p. 1017).

According to Rosenberg (1979), global self-esteem is based not solely on an assessment of one's constituent qualities but on an assessment of the qualities that individuals value in their construction of their identity. Self-esteem is often described as being high or low:

> When we characterize a person as having high self-esteem...we mean...that he has self-respect, considers himself a person of worth. Appreciating his own merits, he nonetheless recognizes his faults, faults that he hopes and expects to overcome...he does not necessarily consider himself better than most others but neither does he consider himself worse. The term 'low self-esteem' does not suffer from this dual connotation. It means that the individual lacks respect for himself, considers himself unworthy, inadequate, or otherwise seriously deficient as a person (Rosenberg, 1979, p. 54).

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Global or "trait" self-esteem—a person's average level of self-esteem over situations and time—may be distinguished from "state" self-esteem, which fluctuates as people move about their daily lives (Leary, Tambor, Terdal, & Downs, 1995).

According to Shavelson, Hubner, and Stanton (1976), views of the self are formed developmentally as individuals have interactive experiences with the world and then evaluate the importance of these experiences. Views of the self are popular constructs in social science. Marsh (1993) explained that this may be because while it is desirable in itself to have positive self-regard, self-regard also facilitates future behaviors that lead to positive outcomes.

Self-esteem in a social interaction context. Our attitudes toward ourselves appear to be influenced by the responses of others toward us (Rosenberg, 1965). Self-esteem has been described by some theorists as going "beyond thoughts about the self in isolation" and as "rooted in our existence as human beings" (Baldwin & Bacchus, 2003, p. 172). According to this view, self-esteem was referred to by Cooley in 1902 as "the imagined effect of [our] reflection upon another's mind" (cited in Baldwin & Baccus, 2003, p. 153).

How do self-esteem feelings arise in a social interaction context? Leary's Sociometer model (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Leary et al., 1995) states that people have an underlying motive to be socially included and accepted. According to this model, when individuals see themselves as being accepted, this will trigger feelings of high self-esteem, and when they see themselves as being excluded or rejected, this will trigger feelings of low self-esteem. Taking this one step farther, people may link success with the possibility of acceptance and failure with the possibility of rejection, with their perceived self value going up and down accordingly (Leary & Baumeister, 2000).

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Self-esteem and expectations for interpersonal relationships. More theories have been proposed about the relationship of self-esteem to expectations for interpersonal relationships than about the relationship of self-esteem to expectations for counseling per se. However, since counseling may be seen as a specific category of interpersonal relationship, these theories may prove useful in our understanding of the relationship between self-esteem and expectations for counseling as well.

According to Baldwin and Keelan (1999), the social interaction view of self-esteem involves interpersonal expectancies. In general, people have a motivation to be socially accepted or included. However, this motivation may also be accompanied by beliefs that acceptance and inclusion are contingent upon one's abilities, successes, or attractiveness. When this is the case, peoples' views of themselves fluctuate depending on the extent to which the responses they elicit from others correspond to their interpersonal goals.

Theorists advocating a social interactional view of self-esteem believe that similar and repeated interpersonal experiences in the past (e.g., experiences involving evaluative, accepting, or rejecting responses from others) lead people to a set of expectations regarding the way future interactions with people will unfold. These expectations in turn influence both affective reactions and behavioral responses during such interactions. The "interpersonal scripts" that result from expectations play an important role, according to such theorists, in the social construction of self-esteem (Baldwin & Baccus, 2003, p. 173).

For example, those with high self-esteem and therefore a positive evaluation of themselves have learned to expect that they will be accepted and valued by significant others: "the sense of self as 'worthy of acceptance'...is hypothesized to be associated with the sense of the other as 'accepting'"(Baldwin & Keelan, 1999, p. 823). Those with low self-esteem, on the other hand, have formed a negative evaluation of themselves; they have learned to expect

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that they will not measure up and will therefore be rejected. This is a circular process, whereby "thoughts of failings or personal shortcomings automatically activate an implicit anticipation of social rejection" (Baldwin & Baccus, 2003, p. 180). Thus, how people see themselves is linked to issues surrounding their interactions with others. This includes both their perceptions of interactions after they have occurred and their anticipations of these interactions before they have occurred.

Baldwin and Keelan (1999) conducted a study in which they examined the relationship between self-esteem and expectations for affiliation and dominance in interpersonal relationships. Their participants were 182 introductory psychology students (134 female, 48 male, median age = 18 years). The students completed both a questionnaire assessing interpersonal schemas and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory (Rosenberg, 1965). The authors hypothesized that individuals with high self-esteem would have expectations of positive, affiliative responses from significant others, whereas individuals with low self-esteem would anticipate less affiliation. The results revealed a more complex relationship, however, with interpersonal expectations showing "if-then, behavior-outcome patterns" (p. 830).

Both individuals with high and low self-esteem expected affiliative responses to friendly behavior, but individuals with high self-esteem had more positive expectations than individuals with low self-esteem regarding their ability to bring about affiliation responses from others (Baldwin & Keelan, 1999). The authors concluded that since individuals with low self-esteem are less optimistic about eliciting positive responses from others, and because they may attribute this perceived difficulty to something negative about themselves, they may become less likely to seek out social interactions. And, as we know, help-seeking is not possible without social interaction.

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Self-esteem and help-seeking. Another obstacle to seeking help would theoretically be in place if individuals view such behavior as threatening to their view of themselves or to their self-esteem (Nadler, 1987). This reluctance to seek help may be due to concerns not only about individuals' own self-perceptions, but about the way individuals will be viewed by others if they seek help. Nadler (1987) theorized that "the self threat in help seeking (i.e., information that one is relatively incompetent and dependent on others) is more inconsistent with the positive self cognitions of the high self-esteem individual than it is with the self cognitions of the low self-esteem individual" (p. 64). According to this view, individuals with low self-esteem would be more willing to seek help than those with high self-esteem. On the other hand, it may be argued that individuals with high self-esteem have more positive self-cognitions, and therefore are able to acknowledge negative information about the self with less concern. According to this view, it is predicted that individuals with high self-esteem would be more likely to seek help than those with low self-esteem (Tessler & Schwartz, 1972).

Self-esteem and expectations for counseling. In an exploratory study, Tinsley et al. (1993) surveyed 72 counseling psychologists (43 men, 29 women, age range 31 to 69 years, mean age = 49.5 years) regarding the perception of the occurrence in their clients of unrealistic expectations about counseling and the effects of unrealistic expectations on counseling. The researchers found that "counseling psychologists perceive their clients as most frequently underestimating the contributions they will be required to make to counseling and as overestimating the prowess of the counselor and the presence of a facilitative environment...This pattern of unrealistic expectations was cited by these practicing psychologists as having a detrimental effect of the counseling process" (p. 50). Tinsley et al. (1993) hypothesized that possible explanations for such unrealistic expectations include that

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these clients are either skeptical about the counselor or about counseling or they may have low self-esteem or a pessimistic view of life in general. The authors called for research to test such hypotheses to clarify further the causes of unrealistic client expectations for counseling.

To begin investigating the relationship between self-esteem and counseling expectations, Winograd (2003) conducted a small pilot study with 16 adolescents (3 boys, 13 girls, mean age = 16 years). The adolescents completed the Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) and the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (Rosenberg, 1965) along with a series of other measures. Winograd (2003) found that self-esteem scores correlated significantly with the total EAC-B score, $r = .52, p < .05$, indicating that higher self-esteem was associated with higher expectations for counseling.

Winograd (2003) also found that those adolescents with higher self-esteem were more likely to expect to be personally committed to counseling and more likely to expect that their counselor would know how to help them. More specifically, adolescents with higher self-esteem were more likely to expect that they would express themselves openly within the counseling relationship. They had higher expectations regarding their counselor's ability to inspire trust. In terms of process, such adolescents were more likely to expect that within the counseling relationship, they would identify problems, practice solving them, and practice relating with another person. In terms of outcomes, those adolescents with higher self-esteem also expected better ones.

Self-esteem summary. Based on the research reviewed above, it appears as though self-esteem is linked to the initiation of help-seeking behaviors (Nadler, 1987; Tessler & Schwartz, 1972). Self-esteem has also been found to relate to expectations for social interactions in general (Baldwin & Keelan, 1999) and to expectations for counseling in

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particular (Winograd, 2003). Since the Baldwin and Keelan (1999) study did not examine expectations for counseling specifically, and since the sample size for the Winograd (2003) study was too small to draw anything beyond tentative conclusions, more research is necessary before any definitive statements can be made about the relationship between self-esteem and expectations for counseling. Furthermore, both the Baldwin and Keelan (1999) and Winograd (2003) expectation studies were conducted with non-minority individuals. The results therefore cannot yet be generalized to a non-Caucasian sample.

Attributional Style

Some preliminary theoretical and empirical evidence has suggested that attributional style may be linked to expectations for counseling (Tinsley et al., 1993; Winograd, 2003). More research has examined the relationship of locus of control, a construct that shares characteristics with attributional style, to both help-seeking and expectations for counseling (Nowicki & Duke, 1978; Tessler & Schwartz, 1972). An overview of research in these two areas, including the limitations of this research, is provided below.

Definition. Attributional style refers to the way one looks at the causes of positive and negative events. Attributional style is broken down into three major components: internal, stable, and global. Internality refers to the extent to which individuals view themselves as responsible (e.g., taking the blame, in the case of negative events, or the credit, in the case of positive ones) for what occurs. Stability refers to the extent to which individuals view the causes of events as consistent over time. Finally, globality refers to the extent to which individuals view the causes of events as generalizable across situations (Peterson, Buchanan, & Seligman, 1995). Young people who report more depressive symptoms tend to blame themselves more for negative events, view the causes of these events as consistent over time, and view the causes of these events as generalizing from one situation to another

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(Thompson, Kaslow, Weiss, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1998). Those with maladaptive attributions have also been found to have impaired interpersonal functioning (Schwartz & Kaslow, 2000).

Locus of control (Rotter, 1966) is a way of looking at the extent to which individuals perceive what happens to them as contingent upon their own behavior. Individuals may see what happens as being somewhere along a continuum of not within one's control—e.g., "depending on fate, powerful others, or unpredictable" (Rotter, 1966, p. 5)—to within one's control. Rotter (1966) proposed that the extent to which individuals believe that they have some say in what happens influences the potential for certain behaviors to occur in given situations. If individuals exhibit certain behaviors in situations in which they believe they have control over events to come, and if they experience an outcome that is positively reinforcing, this will strengthen the chance that they will exhibit similar behaviors again in a similar situation. On the other hand, if individuals believe that a particular outcome is outside of their control or not contingent upon their behavior, even a positive reinforcer is less likely to increase the potential that the individuals will exhibit similar behaviors in a similar situation (Rotter, 1966).

Attributional style differs from locus of control in its clearly delineated multidimensionality. The measurement of locus of control consists of one dimension: externality vs. internality, in assessing the way individuals see the causes of events. Measures of attributional style, while assessing externality vs. internality, take into account stability and globality as well. In addition, the attributional style construct considers the valence of the perceived outcome (positive vs. negative) for each of these three dimensions in attributional style. Individuals with a depressive attributional style tend to blame themselves when things go wrong; they also tend to see the causes of negative events as extending across situations

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and time (Thompson et al., 1998). Attributional style accounts for more phenomena with a greater degree of sensitivity than locus of control does. However, as attributional style has been examined to a limited extent within the context of counseling expectations, findings from the locus of control literature will be presented first.

Locus of control and help-seeking. Tessler and Schwartz (1972) found that help is more likely to be sought when the locus of attribution for failure or for a problem is external rather than internal to the self. Under these circumstances, "bases for external attribution" may be used "to cancel the demeaning quality of seeking or accepting help" (Tessler & Schwartz, 1972, p. 318). Nowicki and Duke (1978) also found that locus of control was related to help-seeking, operationalized as time spent in counseling. In their study, clients scoring higher on internality attended fewer sessions than clients scoring higher on externality, a result consistent with Tessler and Schwartz's (1972) finding.

Locus of control and expectations for counseling. No published studies to date have explicitly examined the relationship between attributional style and expectations for counseling. Two studies (Foon, 1986; Nowicki & Duke, 1978), however, have looked at the relationship between locus of control and expectations for counseling. In their study, Nowicki and Duke (1978) used Rotter's definition of locus of control as generalized expectancies regarding the degree to which individuals see themselves as, and expect to be, responsible for what happens. According to this view and simply stated, individuals with an internal locus of control see themselves having more power over what happens to them, while individuals with an external locus of control see "powerful others or uncontrollable forces"(p. 1) as guiding particular outcomes (Nowicki & Duke, 1978).

In their study, Nowicki and Duke (1978) referred to expectations for counseling as specific expectancies and to locus of control as generalized expectancies. They examined

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both types of expectancies among students applying for counseling at a university counseling center. They also looked at the relationship of these expectancies to length of time in counseling and counseling outcome. Nowicki and Duke (1978) hypothesized that prospective clients with internal loci of control and those with external loci of control would differ in their expectations for counseling, and that externality would be related to greater duration of help-seeking behaviors. They based this latter hypothesis partially on findings from a 1974 unpublished doctoral dissertation by Rosenweig (cited in Nowicki & Duke, 1978) that suggested that clients are more external than nonclients yet move toward internality through counseling.

To test their hypothesis, Nowicki and Duke (1978) administered a locus of control scale, and they asked about specific expectations, including: how many visits it would take for problems to be solved; particular characteristics of counseling (e.g., advice giving, individual vs. group, behavior therapy); and particular characteristics of the counselor (e.g., listener, offerer of solutions). To create groups, Nowicki and Duke (1978) divided individuals at the median into those with an external locus of control and those with an internal locus of control. They found that prospective clients with an external locus of control expected it would take longer to solve their problems. These prospective clients were also more likely to endorse "not expecting any particular kind of treatment", and they were more likely to expect the therapist to offer advice (Nowicki & Duke, 1978).

For both groups, there was a correlation between the number of sessions prospective clients expected to attend and the number of sessions actually attended, consistent with the results of a study conducted by Greenfield (1983). Nowicki and Duke (1978) conclude their paper by stating that Rotter's (1966) social learning theory, which takes into account individual expectancies about certain outcomes occurring as a result of

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performing specific behaviors, "may be a uniquely helpful theoretical perspective from which to view the counseling process" (p. 6).

The second study to look at the relationship between locus of control, counseling expectations, and counseling outcome was conducted by Foon (1986). Foon's research rationale was based on two premises: (a) Frank's (1961) assertion that counseling involves communication between individuals holding specified and agreed upon social roles; and (b) the idea that this communication involves discussion about the perceived causes of experiences and behaviors. She hypothesized that the counselor-client match on locus of control would explain client expectations better than client locus of control alone.

Foon (1986) administered Rotter's (1966) internal-external locus of control scale to 67 prospective clients (47% male, 53% female, mean age = 29 years). Foon (1986) then created an analogue situation in which prospective clients viewed short videos of counselors with either an external or an internal locus of control. Gender and SES effects were controlled for by having counselors of different genders who represented different levels of SES in each group. (Eight videos were viewed in total.) After viewing each video, prospective clients were asked how comfortable they expected to feel with their counselors and how helpful they expected the counselors to be. Barich (2002) pointed out that these questions are similar to those asked in the outcome scale of the Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982)

While Foon (1986) anticipated that clients with an internal locus of control and clients with an external locus of control would differ on their expectations, she did not find this to be the case. However, she did find support for her hypothesis, in that those prospective clients with a more internal locus of control had higher expectations for the counselors' helpfulness and their own comfort level when they were led to expect the

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counselor to also attribute problems to internal causes. Along the same lines, those participants who had a more external locus of control had higher expectations for the counselors' ability to help them when they were led to expect the counselor to attribute problems to external causes.

Foon's (1986) study differs from Nowicki and Duke's (1978) in that expectations were measured only after clients had a videotaped glimpse of the counselor. Therefore, expectations were based on perceptions of the counselors that may have been different had no counselor been "introduced." Despite this apparent confound, Foon's study suggests that a match between client-counselor explanatory styles plays an important role in a client's positive feelings about how the counseling relationship will progress. While both the Nowicki and Duke (1978) and the Foon (1986) study are instrumental in suggesting the usefulness of examining counseling expectations within the context of locus of control, neither study uses as comprehensive an instrument as Tinsley's (1982) EAC-B to assess counseling expectations.

Attributional style and expectations for counseling. While some findings (e.g. Peterson & Vaidya, 2001) suggest that attributional style is related to general expectations for good and bad events, until recently, attributional style had not been examined comprehensively and directly with reference to counseling expectations. An effort was made in this direction by Winograd (2003), who was interested in beginning to investigate Tinsley et al.'s (1993) hypothesis that individuals with a pessimistic view of life have less realistic expectations for counseling. This study, unlike the studies reviewed above, directly assessed attributional style (along with a number of other characteristics) while at the same time using a comprehensive instrument to measure counseling expectations.

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The adolescents completed the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982), the Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire (CASQ-R; Thompson et al., 1998), and a series of other measures. Winograd (2003) found a number of significant correlations between CASQ-R (scale and total) scores and EAC-B (scale, factor, and total) scores.

According to the results of this study, those adolescents who felt that the causes of positive events in their lives were stable over time (positive stability) had higher expectations for counseling overall. Specifically, such adolescents were more likely to expect to be motivated to stay in counseling. They also expected their counselors to be more accepting and to have greater levels of expertise. In terms of process and outcome, these young people expected a more concrete process and better outcomes than those who viewed the causes of positive events as less stable over time (Winograd, 2003).

Both those adolescents who felt that the causes of positive events in their lives were stable and those adolescents who felt that the causes of positive events extended across situations (positive stability, positive globality) were more likely to expect that they would communicate in an open manner in the counseling relationship. Adolescents with these characteristics were also more likely to expect to like their counselor and enjoy the time they would spend with their counselor. Finally, in terms of counseling process, such adolescents were more likely to expect that within the counseling relationship, they would identify problems, practice solving them, and practice relating with another person (Winograd, 2003).

In contrast, those adolescents with a more depressive attributional style, specifically those adolescents who tended to see the causes of negative events as extending across situations (negative globality), had lower expectations for counseling overall. Specifically, they expected to be less motivated to stay in counseling, and expected their counselors to be less likeable, less nurturing, and to have lower levels of knowledge regarding how to help

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them. It is not surprising that adolescents who felt this way also had lower expectations regarding the likelihood that they would enjoy counseling (Winograd, 2003).

Both adolescents who saw the causes of negative events as extending across situations and those adolescents who blamed themselves when things went wrong (negative globality, negative internality) had lower expectations regarding the likelihood that they would express themselves openly within the counseling relationship. Such adolescents did not expect their counselors to be directive, did not expect to feel personally committed to the relationship, and did not expect positive outcomes to result from counseling (Winograd, 2003). While a number of relationships between attributional style and counseling expectations were significant in this study, the sample size was small and caution should be taken when drawing conclusions based on the dimensions of the CASQ-R because of unequal numbers of items in the subscales (Thompson et al., 1998). In addition, this study was conducted with individuals from non-minority backgrounds for the most part, and therefore the results cannot be generalized to individuals from minority backgrounds.

Attributional style summary. According to the research reviewed above, locus of control appears to relate to help-seeking (Tessler & Schwartz, 1972) and length of time spent in counseling (Nowicki & Duke, 1978). There is also some evidence that locus and control and attributional style relate to expectations for counseling (Nowicki & Duke, 1978; Winograd, 2003). These expectations studies, however, have some serious limitations. Nowicki and Duke (1978) did not use a comprehensive instrument to measure expectations, the sample size in Winograd's (2003) study was quite small, and neither study included significant numbers of individuals from non-minority backgrounds. Research addressing these limitations would add to the counseling process literature by offering a better understanding

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of the relationship between attributional style and expectations for counseling among a more diverse group of individuals.

Problem-Solving Appraisal

Problem-solving appraisal, the third and final individual characteristic to be explored here, has been found to relate to help-seeking (Dollard & Miller, 1950; Heppner & Krieshok, 1983; Heppner, Witty, & Dixon, 2004; Neal & Heppner, 1986). In addition, some theories suggest that problem-solving is linked to expectations about oneself as a problem solver (e.g., Rotter, 1975), and there is preliminary evidence that problem-solving appraisal may be related to expectations for counseling (Winograd, 2003). An overview of research pointing to these relationships and a rationale for conducting further research in this area with a diverse sample will be provided below.

Definition. Problem-solving involves a number of components, including: problem-solving confidence regarding the ability to control aspects of one's environment; the ability to identify troublesome situations; and the ability to neither act on impulse nor ignore a situation (Heppner, 1978). While some people may bring many skills and strengths to how they approach problems, others have significant deficits in this arena (Heppner et al., 2004). *Problem-solving appraisal* or self-reported problem-solving style is how individuals perceive their problem-solving capabilities and how they perceive the extent to which they tend to approach or avoid the many problems of life. In other words, it is the manner in which people believe they generally react to personal problems in their daily lives (Heppner & Petersen, 1982). Such beliefs may or may not match actual problem-solving skills.

Problem-solving appraisal has been operationalized by the Problem Solving Inventory (PSI; Heppner & Petersen, 1982) and used in more than 120 empirical studies (Heppner et al., 2004). Individuals with self-appraised effective problem-solving skills, as

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measured by Heppner's PSI and its three factors, have a high degree of confidence in their ability to address day-to-day problems (the problem-solving confidence factor), regulate their emotional experience and expression (the personal control dimension), and approach rather than avoid problematic situations (the approach-avoidance factor; Heppner, Baumgardner, Larson, & Petty, 1988).

When Heppner and Petersen (1982) were developing and testing the PSI, they were particularly interested in whether the problem-solving process is most accurately described in terms of distinct stages (e.g., general orientation, problem definition, generation of alternatives, decision making, and evaluation) or in terms of components that cut across such stages. Interestingly, they found that the items depicting each of the five general problem-solving stages loaded in an almost random fashion across each of the three constructs: problem-solving confidence, personal control, and approach-avoidance.

These results, according to Heppner and Petersen (1982) suggested the existence of underlying dimensions across stages within students' perceptions of their real-life personal problem-solving: "such a notion may more accurately portray the complexity of real-life problem-solving; describing applied problem-solving only in terms of content-stages not only may be an oversimplification but also may mask important individual differences in the applied problem-solving process" (p. 72)

Problem-solving appraisal and help-seeking. The conclusions that individuals draw when assessing their problem-solving skills can affect how individuals proceed in grappling with a problem, including whether they are motivated to approach or avoid the issue at hand (Dollard & Miller, 1950). Choices made during such stressful times may in turn affect psychological outcomes (Heppner et al., 2004). Good problem solvers, according to

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evidence from the problem-solving appraisal literature, are better at coping and "responding to life's demands" (Heppner et al., 2004, p. 347).

Sometimes coping is enhanced by the utilization of helping resources within the environment. In order to utilize services, individuals first must be aware that they exist. Assuming individuals possess this knowledge, to what extent do they use the resources? If they do decide to use them, do they use them in ways that are effective and beneficial? Are they satisfied with the help? And what role does problem-solving appraisal play in these scenarios, if any?

Several studies have attempted to address these questions. Neal and Heppner (1986) looked at the relationship between problem-solving appraisal and perceptions and utilization of college and university resources, including counseling centers. They reasoned that if seeking help from available resources is viewed as a component of problem-solving, it would be likely that problem-solving appraisal would relate to utilization of such resources (Neal & Heppner, 1986). The researchers were particularly interested in the relationship of problem-solving appraisal to students' awareness of, utilization of, and satisfaction with the counseling center. They had four hypotheses regarding this relationship: (a) self-appraised effective problem solvers would be aware of more available resources; (b) self-appraised effective problem solvers would be more satisfied with the campus resources; (c) self-appraised ineffective problem solvers would utilize more helping resources on campus; and (d) self-appraised ineffective problem solvers would utilize the counseling center more often than self-appraised effective problem solvers.

Neal and Heppner's (1986) sample included 306 students (236 men, 70 women, mean age = 19.6 years). The researchers administered the PSI (Heppner & Petersen, 1982) and a self-report instrument assessing students' relationship with campus resources. This

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instrument asked students to indicate their awareness of, utilization of, and satisfaction with a number of student services available on the college campus or in the community.

The first two hypotheses were supported: self-appraised effective problem solvers were more aware of available resources. Self-appraised effective problem solvers were also more satisfied with those services that they used. Contrary to the researchers' third hypothesis, self-appraised ineffective problem solvers sought assistance from services other than the counseling center (e.g., from tutors, resident advisors, faculty members) *less* often. The researchers interpreted this finding as revealing that self-appraised ineffective problem solvers do not recognize that using helping resources may be an effective strategy. Finally, contrary to the researchers' fourth hypothesis, the study did not find differences between self-appraised ineffective and effective problem solvers in their use of counseling services. Self-appraised ineffective problem solvers were as aware of and used the counseling center as much as self-appraised effective and moderately effective problem solvers. The authors attempted to explain this last finding by reasoning that self-appraised ineffective problem solvers' use of counseling services may reflect a recognition that they need help, or others may recognize this and refer them to the services.

This study used a relatively large sample of college students attending a small liberal arts college in the Midwest. However, a number of demographic characteristics (SES, ethnicity) were not reported. Therefore, it is not known whether these results would generalize to students from non-Caucasian backgrounds, or to students attending schools with different characteristics in other parts of the country.

Another study was conducted by Heppner and Krieshok (1983) that looked at the relationship between problem-solving appraisal and utilization of career counseling services. One-hundred and fifty-three students from predominantly Caucasian backgrounds (57%

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male, 43% female, mean age = 21.9 years) participated in this study. Results showed that students who were higher in self-appraised problem-solving ability, as assessed by the PSI, came for career counseling services more frequently than those who were lower in self-appraised problem-solving ability. Those with better self-appraised skills were also more satisfied with the services they received. The authors hypothesized that the self-appraised effective problem solvers may be "more capable of assessing and asking for the type of career services that they really need" (Heppner & Krieshok, 1983, p. 247), which in turn leads to satisfaction.

Finally, Heppner and Krauskopf (1987), in a related study, found that students who made use of counseling centers had a bimodal distribution of problem-solving appraisal scores, lending support perhaps for a nonlinear or more complex relationship between problem-solving and going to counseling for help. These findings appear to tap into Heilbrun's (1968) differentiation between two additional types of problem-solving behavior that are relevant to the counseling relationship: whether an individual approaches problems by depending on others for their resolution, or whether an individual is more self-sufficient and independent of outside help.

Overall, these studies suggest that problem-solving appraisal is related to students' awareness of, utilization of, and satisfaction with at least some kinds of helping resources available on college campuses. More specifically, the results of these studies suggest that those individuals who have a more positive appraisal of their problem-solving abilities are also more likely to be aware of, to use, and to be satisfied with campus resources. Heppner et al. (2004) write, "The judicious use of resources in one's environment may help one cope with stressful events. It makes intuitive sense that effective problem solvers would be aware of their environment and efficiently use appropriate resources"(p. 385).

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Interrelationships among problem-solving, attributional style, and self-esteem. Ineffective problem solvers have a number of characteristics that appear to overlap with characteristics of individuals with lower self-esteem and a more negative attributional style. In terms of self-esteem, self-appraised ineffective problem solvers tend to have poorer self-concepts (Neal & Heppner, 1986). Self-appraised ineffective problem solvers tend to attribute their failures to stable personality characteristics, such as level of ability. Effective problem solvers, on the other hand, have higher expectations for control and make fewer attributions of self-blame (Neal & Heppner, 1986). They feel that they have greater personal control over what happens, and therefore may have thoughts such as, "the actions I take will make a difference in the outcome." This corresponds with Rotter's (1966) postulation that the most important problem-solving attitude is the expectancy that one can affect, in part, what happens to oneself. Individuals who feel this way are probably less likely to avoid dealing with a problem that arises.

Expectations for counseling and problem-solving appraisal. Problem-solving appraisal and the choices that may follow from such appraisal involve an expectations component. When asked how they deal with problems, individuals tap into the general beliefs they have developed through prior experience about themselves and their abilities. In doing so, they formulate evaluations and expectancies about themselves and others as problem solvers (Heppner et al., 2004). Based on this evidence, Winograd (2003) hypothesized that self-appraised problem-solving skills would relate to expectations for counseling.

To test this hypothesis, Winograd (2003) directly assessed problem-solving appraisal style (along with self-esteem, attributional style, and a number of other characteristics) while at the same time using a comprehensive instrument to measure counseling expectations. Adolescents completed the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982), the Problem Solving Inventory (PSI),

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and a series of other measures. Winograd (2003) found a number of significant correlations between PSI scale scores and EAC-B scale scores.

The problem-solving confidence scale of the PSI correlated significantly with several EAC-B scales (motivation, directiveness, expertise), and the approach-avoidance style scale correlated significantly with one EAC-B scale (openness). Adolescents with lower self-appraised problem-solving skills had lower expectations regarding their motivation to stay in counseling and lower expectations regarding the likelihood of expressing their thoughts and feelings openly during counseling. Like adolescents with lower self-esteem, they were also less likely to expect that their counselor would know how to help them.

While a number of relationships between self-appraised problem-solving and counseling expectations were significant in this study, the sample size was too small to draw conclusions with confidence. In addition, this study was conducted with individuals from primarily Caucasian backgrounds, and therefore the results cannot be generalized to individuals from other backgrounds..

Problem-solving appraisal and racial/ethnic minority groups. There is a very limited amount of information on problem-solving appraisal among racially and ethnically marginalized groups (Suzuki & Ahluwalia, 2004). Heppner et al. (2004) called for researchers to examine self-appraised problem-solving and its relationship to coping activities among diverse populations. Particularly, according to Heppner et al. (2004), research is needed that looks at factors relevant to help-seeking across various American racial and ethnic minority groups, especially within specific environments such as primarily White institutions of higher education.

Problem-solving appraisal summary. The research reviewed above suggests that problem-solving appraisal is linked to a number of areas that relate to service utilization, including

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awareness of resources, number of visits to a counseling center, and satisfaction with the help received there (Heppner & Krieshok, 1983; Neal & Heppner, 1986) There is also some preliminary evidence that problem-solving appraisal relates to expectations for counseling, with self-appraised ineffective problem solvers having lower expectations for counseling in a number of domains (Winograd, 2003). The sample size for this expectations study was small, however, and results therefore must be seen as tentative. Like the studies on help-seeking and problem-solving appraisal, this study was based on individuals from Caucasian backgrounds, limiting the generalizability of the findings. There is a need for research investigating factors relevant to help-seeking among racial and ethnic groups on campuses where they are in the minority (Heppner et al., 2004). This includes the need for research regarding such groups' expectations for the counseling relationship.

Expectations for Counseling, Demographic Variables, and Cultural Factors

There are a number of additional variables that have been shown to relate to expectations for counseling or help-seeking behaviors. These include (a) demographic variables, such as ethnicity, generational status, socio-economic status (SES), gender, whether or not individuals have been in counseling before, and if so, the extent to which they were was satisfied with the experience; and (b) cultural variables such as level of acculturation (the extent to which a person is immersed in one's ethnic society versus the dominant society) and cultural congruity (cultural "fit" within the university environment).

Collecting information in these categories allows us to comprehensively describe the sample under investigation and therefore to describe the limits to the generalizability of the findings. These are both areas that are recommended by the American Psychological Association's (2003) guidelines on conducting research with diverse samples. In terms of the purposes of this study, collecting such information also allows us to control for these

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variables and test for the presence of interactions when examining the relationship between the predictor variables of interest (self-esteem, problem-solving appraisal, attributional style) and expectations for counseling. This may be seen as a means of "insurance" against erroneous conclusions or ambiguous findings (Padilla, 1995).

Demographic Variables

Socioeconomic status. Research that draws conclusions about ethnicity without looking at socioeconomic status (SES) is often limited, because minority populations are more likely to be poor than majority populations, and because minority status is likely to be experienced in different ways by individuals from differing socioeconomic backgrounds (Alvidrez et al., 1996). According to Alvidrez et al. (1996), "regardless of the culture to which they belong, poor individuals are likely to think, believe, and act in ways consistent with their life circumstances" (p. 905).

Socioeconomic status becomes especially important to measure in a study such as this one, because research has shown that help-seeking has been linked to social class (Hollingshead & Redlich, 1958). The relationship between expectations and engagement has also been linked to social class: among lower SES clients, the greater the discrepancy between clients' expectations and perceptions of the initial interview, the less likely clients were to return for treatment (Overall & Aronson, 1963). Socioeconomic status may relate to problem-solving as well, given the different levels of financial and other resources available to people confronting problems (Heppner et al., 2004).

Gender. Researchers have found gender differences in terms of expectations for counseling. A study by Tinsley, Workman, and Kass (1980) found that females had higher expectations for the Personal Commitment factor and for the Facilitative Conditions factor compared to their male counterparts, while men had higher expectations on the Counselor

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Expertise factor. Women tend to report stronger counseling outcome expectations and motivation than men (Tinsley et al., 1980). In terms of expectations for social interactions in general, Baldwin and Keelan (1999) found that women expected more affiliative responses.

Females have also been found to have more positive help-seeking attitudes (Gloria, Hird, & Navarro, 2001) and to demonstrate more frequent help-seeking behaviors, irrespective of level of psychological distress (Rickwood & Braithwaite, 1994). In terms of counseling readiness, Heilbrun (1968) found an interaction between gender and problem-solving style: males who were more dependent on others were higher in counseling readiness, while females who were more independent problem solvers were higher in counseling readiness.

Ethnicity. Ethnicity can be defined as "the acceptance of the group mores and practices of one's culture of origin and the concomitant sense of belonging" (American Psychological Association, 2003, p. 380). Researcher-identified ethnic classifications, using broad categories such as African American, Asian American, Latino and Native American are an appropriate way for initially identifying ethnic status (Alvidrez et al., 1996). To prevent forcing biracial and bicultural populations to make choices when they are presented with two or more competing cultural norms, participants in a study can be encouraged to circle all the classifications they feel are most relevant to their identity (Suzuki & Ahluwalia, 2004).

Studies that have looked at the relationship between ethnicity and help-seeking behaviors have had equivocal results. For example, Ponterotto et al. (1986) found that African American students were less likely to seek formal counseling services, while Boesch and Cimbolic (1994) found that African American students were as likely to use campus counseling services as Caucasian students.

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Relevant to the topic of this dissertation research are some findings that suggest that different ethnic groups and nationalities have different expectations for counseling (Kenney, 1994). While ethnic status in and of itself "should not be seen as explaining or causing differences between groups" (Alvidrez et al., p. 904), it remains an important tool in describing one's sample.

Generation. Investigators often fail to obtain information on the generational status of their respondents (Padilla, 1995). Phinney (2003) writes, "identification of generation indicates only where individuals and their ancestors were born, not which processes associated with acculturation may be operating in their lives"(p. 70). It is nevertheless important descriptive information, in terms of pointing to the limitations to generalizability of findings.

Prior experience in counseling. Findings regarding the relationship between prior experience in counseling and expectations for counseling are mixed. Hardin and Subich (1985) compared 40 former clients of a university counseling center with 40 non-clients. Each group contained 20 male and 20 female undergraduate students. No differences were found between the EAC-B scores of the two groups. Richmond (1984), however, found that experienced clients had significantly lower expectations of counseling than nonclients did. Along the same lines, a pilot study conducted by Winograd (2003) compared adolescents with and without prior experience in counseling and found that those with prior experience were less likely to have very high and very low expectations for counseling. Both the Richmond (1984) and the Winograd (2003) findings suggest that expectations may vary as a function of whether a person has been in counseling before.

Satisfaction with prior experience in counseling. A number of studies have found a link between positive or realistic expectations for counseling and satisfaction with the counseling

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experience (e.g., Greenfield, 1983; Heilbrun, 1972). Heilbrun (1972) found that providing information to high counseling readiness female clients regarding counselor style led to greater satisfaction. Greenfield (1983) found that clients who had more positive beliefs regarding counseling efficacy were more satisfied with their experience, while clients who perceived that counseling would require few changes in their lifestyle were less satisfied with their experience. As satisfaction is related to length of time spent in counseling (Greenfield, 1983; Larsen et al., 1979), it appears that expectations for personal commitment may partially account for early termination.

In terms of the relationship between ethnicity and client satisfaction, Larsen, Attkisson, Hargreaves, and Nguyen (1979) found that Client Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ; Larsen et al., 1979) scores were significantly related to ethnicity, with non-Caucasian clients reporting less satisfaction than Caucasian clients. In terms of the relationship between gender and client satisfaction, Larsen et al. (1979) found that females were more polarized than men in their responses, giving more very positive and very negative responses than males.

The aforementioned expectations studies used satisfaction with prior experience in counseling as a criterion variable. However, it also seems intuitive that satisfaction with prior experience in counseling would predict expectations for a *future* counseling experience. This is a hypothesis in need of examination. For the purposes of the current study, it was important to assess satisfaction among those with prior experience in counseling, both in order to describe the sample accurately and to control for this variable if necessary.

Cultural Variables

> Culture is defined as the belief systems and value orientations that influence customs, norms, practices, and social institutions…Culture has been

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> described as the embodiment of a worldview through learned and transmitted beliefs, values and practices....It also encompasses a way of living informed by the historical, economic, ecological, and political forces on a group. These definitions suggest that culture is fluid and dynamic. (American Psychological Association, 2003, p. 380).

The American Psychological Association's (2003) guidelines on research with diverse samples warn that when research does not adequately incorporate culture as a specific contextual variable, behavior can be "misidentified and pathologized" (p. 388). Therefore, the American Psychological Association encourages psychological researchers to be grounded in the empirical and conceptual literature on the ways that culture may influence the variables under investigation.

Cultural congruity. Contributions to one's culture include not only traditional values and teachings, but one's current experience and environment as well. Sue (2003) points out that problems may occur if an individual has the "behavioral repertoire" (p. xix) from one culture but spends a significant amount of time within a very different culture. He also points out that a limitation of studies that look at the link between mental health and acculturation is that they do not consider that the individual's immediate environment can have very important implications for adjustment. As a result, Sue (2003) recommends that researchers consider the "match" between the individual and his or her environment (p. xix).

One way to investigate this relationship among minority college students is to measure cultural congruity or "cultural fit" (Gloria & Robinson Kurpius, 1996) within the university environment. Gloria et al. (2001) defined cultural congruity as the extent to which individuals share values with the values of the university system. Cultural congruity is based

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on the idea that there may be differences in values, beliefs, and expectations of behaviors in the two cultures to which people belong.

Cultural congruity has been found to relate to attitudes toward help-seeking among individuals sharing characteristics with the sample under investigation in the current dissertation study. However, the findings are mixed. For example, Delphin and Rollock (1995) found that African American students who exhibited higher levels of university alienation (perceived or real disconnection from mainstream life) had more positive attitudes about psychological services. In contrast, Gloria et al. (2001) found that scores on their 1996 Cultural Congruity Scale (CCS), which measures an individual's "cultural fit" within the university environment, were positively correlated with attitudes regarding the seeking of professional psychological help among racial and ethnic minority students.

Acculturation. Acculturation is defined by Stephenson (2000) as the extent to which individuals are immersed in the dominant society and their ethnic society of origin. Theoretical notions that incorporate acculturation or ethnic identity as moderator variables have become increasingly important in the research literature of the past two decades (Padillo, 1995), at least in part because acculturation appears to affect entry into the mental health system (Stephenson, 2000).

Zane and Mak (2003) write that "acculturation is one of the most significant psychological processes of psychosocial adaptation for many ethnic minority individuals, particularly those from immigrant backgrounds. In mental health research, it is clear that more efforts are needed to deconstruct acculturation into specific psychological elements that are proximal to…seeking help."(p. 58). When the goal of research is to understand the use of mental health services among minority groups in the United States, Dinges and

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Cherry (1995) have stressed the value of examining the extent to which individuals identify with a particular ethnic group.

When we look at acculturation, we are able to look at within-group differences among ethnic groups. Differences in level of acculturation have been associated with willingness to use counseling services (Zane & Mak, 2003). A number of studies have looked at the relationship between level of acculturation and thoughts about counseling among students from Hispanic backgrounds. Kunkel (1990) found that Mexican-American students who were more Mexican-oriented had higher expectations for counselor directiveness and empathy than those who were Anglo-oriented. In terms of perceptions about counseling, Pomales and Williams (1989) found that Hispanic students who had more Anglo-oriented levels of acculturation were more likely to feel that their counselors were trustworthy and understanding.

Summary. A number of additional variables have been found to relate to expectations for counseling or help-seeking behaviors. These variables fall into one of two categories: demographic variables and cultural variables. When conducting research with diverse samples, it is important to collect information on these variables for two reasons: (a) this allows us to describe the sample under investigation with precision so that the limits to the generalizability of findings are clear (American Psychological Association, 2003); and (b) this allows us to control for these variables and test for interactions as we examine the relationship between self-esteem, attributional style, problem-solving appraisal—the predictor variables under investigation—and expectations for counseling.

Problem Statement

As we have seen in the literature review, counseling expectations appear to affect client satisfaction, the counseling process, outcomes, and the extent to which an individual in

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need of help uses counseling services. The counseling expectations of students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds, however, have received limited attention. While several studies have suggested that certain characteristics are related to specific expectations for counseling, this research has been conducted with individuals from primarily Caucasian backgrounds. Studies that have looked at counseling expectations using diverse samples have tended to focus on between-group differences in expectations, rather than looking at within-group differences based on individual characteristics.

Self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal have all been linked to help-seeking behaviors and the utilization of services. These variables have also been shown to relate to certain expectations that are relevant to the counseling relationship. Specifically, self-esteem has been shown to relate to expectations for interpersonal relationships, attributional style to general outcome expectancies, and problem-solving appraisal to expectations regarding oneself and others as problem solvers. My pilot study (Winograd, 2003) directly examined the relationship between self-esteem, attributional style, problem-solving appraisal, and expectations for counseling among a small, primarily Caucasian sample, with promising results. To date, however, no comprehensive study has examined the extent to which significant relationships exist between these variables among students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds.

Purpose

The first purpose of this study was to investigate what first-year Opportunity Program students expect from counseling, in terms of client attitudes and behaviors, counselor attitudes and behaviors, counselor characteristics, process, and outcome. The second purpose of this study was to examine the extent to which counseling expectations are predicted by self-esteem, attributional style, and self-appraised problem-solving skills among

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members of this sample. Interactions between these characteristics, demographic variables, and cultural variables in predicting counseling expectations were examined as well.

This study offers information about how patterns of thinking about one's self and the world relate to counseling expectations among first-year college students from racial and ethnic backgrounds (predominantly African American and Hispanic) who attend institutions where they are in the minority. This is the first study to research the counseling expectations of Opportunity Program students, and the first study to use Tinsley's (1982) EAC-B with this population.

Hypotheses

As discussed in the literature review above, self-esteem appears to be directly related to the expectations individuals have for acceptance within interpersonal relationships (Leary & Baumeister, 2000; Leary et al., 1995). Self-esteem may also affect whether individuals seek out social interactions (Baldwin & Keelan, 1999) in general. In terms of counseling in particular, Tinsley et al. (1993) predicted that individuals with lower self-esteem would underestimate the contribution they would be required to make within the counseling relationship. Among a small sample of adolescents, Winograd (2003) found direct relationships between self-esteem, as measured by the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1965), and both total and factor scores of the Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982). Based on these findings, the following hypotheses were advanced:

Hypothesis 1(a): Self-esteem, as measured by the total score of the RSE (Rosenberg, 1965), would predict expectations for client behavior within the counseling relationship, as measured by the Personal Commitment factor of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be

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direct. As self-esteem increased, expectations for personal commitment within the counseling relationship would increase as well.

Hypothesis 1(b): Self-esteem, as measured by the total score of the RSE (Rosenberg, 1965), would predict expectations for counselor characteristics and the counseling relationship, as measured by the Facilitative Conditions factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As self-esteem increased, expectations for positive counselor characteristics and a positive counseling relationship would increase as well.

Hypothesis 1(c): Self-esteem, as measured by the total score of the RSE (Rosenberg, 1965), would predict individuals' expectations regarding the likelihood that their counselor would know how to help them, as measured by the Counselor Expertise factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As self-esteem increased, individuals' expectations regarding the likelihood that their counselor would know how to help them would increase as well.

Hypothesis 1(d): Self-esteem, as measured by the total score of the RSE (Rosenberg, 1965), would predict individuals' expectations regarding the likelihood that their counselor would accept and develop a caring relationship with them, as measured by the Nurturance factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As self-esteem increased, individuals' expectations would also increase regarding the likelihood that their counselor would accept and develop a caring relationship with them.

Hypothesis 1(e): Self-esteem, as measured by the total score of the RSE (Rosenberg, 1965), would predict expectations for counseling overall, as measured by the total

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score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As self-esteem increased, general expectations for counseling would also increase.

Theoretical and empirical relationships between attributional style and counseling expectations were also discussed in the literature review above. Tinsley et al. (1993) suggested that a pessimistic view of life in general may be linked to unrealistic expectations for counseling. Among a small sample of adolescents, Winograd (2003) found a direct relationship between attributional style and expectations for counseling: the more positive the adolescents' attributional style, the higher their counseling expectations were in a number of domains. Based on the results of this study, the following hypotheses were advanced:

Hypothesis 2(a): Attributional style, as measured by the composite score of the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), would predict expectations for client behavior within the counseling relationship, as measured by the Personal Commitment factor of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As individuals' attributional style became more positive, their expectations for personal commitment within the counseling relationship would also become more positive.

Hypothesis 2(b): Attributional style, as measured by the composite score of the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), would predict expectations for counselor characteristics and the counseling relationship, as measured by the Facilitative Conditions factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As individuals' attributional style became more positive, their expectations for counselor characteristics and the counseling relationship would become more positive as well.

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Hypothesis 2(c): Attributional style, as measured by the composite score of the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), would predict individuals' expectations regarding the likelihood that their counselor would know how to help them, as measured by the Counselor Expertise factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As individuals' attributional style became more positive, their expectations regarding the likelihood that their counselor would know how to help them would also become more positive.

Hypothesis 2(d): Attributional style, as measured by the composite score of the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), would predict individuals' expectations regarding the likelihood that their counselor would accept and develop a caring relationship with them, as measured by the Nurturance factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As individuals' attributional style became more positive, their expectations would also become more positive regarding the likelihood that their counselor would accept and develop a caring relationship with them.

Hypothesis 2(e): Attributional style, as measured by the composite score of the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), would predict expectations for counseling overall, as measured by the total score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As individuals' attributional style became more positive, their general expectations for counseling would become more positive as well.

As stated in the literature review above, individuals' self-appraised problem-solving skills appear to involve expectations about themselves and others as problem solvers

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(Heppner et al., 2004). Winograd (2003) found a direct relationship between self-appraised problem-solving skills, as measured by the Problem Solving Inventory (PSI; Heppner & Petersen, 1982), and expectations for counseling, as measured by the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) among a small sample of adolescents. The higher the adolescents rated their self-appraised problem-solving skills, the more positive expectations they had regarding their counselor's ability to help them and regarding their own motivation to stay in counseling. Based on the results of this study, the following hypotheses were advanced:

Hypothesis 3(a): Self-appraised problem-solving skills, as measured by the total score of the PSI (Heppner & Petersen, 1982), would predict expectations for client behavior within the counseling relationship, as measured by the Personal Commitment factor of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As individuals' self-appraised problem-solving skills became more positive, their expectations for personal commitment within the counseling relationship would also become more positive.

Hypothesis 3(b): Self-appraised problem-solving skills, as measured by the total score of the PSI (Heppner & Petersen, 1982), would predict expectations for counselor characteristics and the counseling relationship, as measured by the Facilitative Conditions factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As individuals' self-appraised problem-solving skills became more positive, their expectations for counselor characteristics and the counseling relationship would become more positive as well.

Hypothesis 3(c): Self-appraised problem-solving skills, as measured by the total score of the PSI (Heppner & Petersen, 1982), would predict individuals' expectations regarding the likelihood that their counselor would know how to help them, as

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measured by the Counselor Expertise factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As individuals' self-appraised problem-solving skills became more positive, their expectations regarding the likelihood that their counselor would know how to help them would also become more positive.

Hypothesis 3(d): Self-appraised problem-solving skills, as measured by the total score of the PSI (Heppner & Petersen, 1982), would predict individuals' expectations regarding the likelihood that their counselor would accept and develop a caring relationship with them, as measured by the Nurturance factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As individuals' self-appraised problem-solving skills became more positive, their expectations would also become more positive regarding the likelihood that their counselor would accept and develop a caring relationship with them.

Hypothesis 3(e): Self-appraised problem-solving skills, as measured by the total score of the PSI (Heppner & Petersen, 1982), would predict expectations for counseling overall, as measured by the total score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Furthermore, the relationship between these two variables would be direct. As individuals' self-appraised problem-solving skills became more positive, their general expectations for counseling would become more positive as well.

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CHAPTER II

Method

Description of Sample

One-hundred and two first-year Opportunity Program students took part in this study. A sample of this size exceeds the number of subjects necessary to detect a medium effect at the .05 level for this type of study (Cohen, 1992). The majority of students invited to fill out surveys (between 90-95%) decided to participate. The sample approximated the demographic characteristics of the Opportunity Programs population. Of all the students who participated in the study, 93% reported fluency in English, while 83% reported knowledge of a second language. Detailed information on the students' categorical background characteristics (SES, age, gender, ethnicity, program, generational status, and prior experience in counseling) is provided below and in Table 1. Detailed information on the students' continuous background characteristics (level of cultural congruity, level of acculturation, and satisfaction with prior counseling experience) is provided below.

SES. Socio-economic status (SES) scores, based on the Hollingshead (1975) Four Factor Index of Social Status ranged from 8 to 66 ($M = 31.92$, $SD = 13.15$). The average participant's parents were high school graduates who were employed as semi-skilled workers.

Age. The participants ranged in age from 17.02 years to 19.72 years ($M = 18.55$, $SD = .44$).

Gender. The participants included 83 females (81%) and 19 males (19%).

Program. Seventy-eight students (77%) were in the Higher Education Opportunity Program (HEOP) and 24 students (24%) were in the Collegiate Science and Technology Entry Program (C-STEP) (See section "Opportunity Programs Description" below for detailed information on these two programs.) C-STEP students had higher SES scores

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Table 1

Participants According to Categorical Background Characteristics (N = 102)

Background Characteristic	Percentages and Frequencies
Gender	81% female(*n* = 83)
	19% male (*n* = 19)
Ethnicity	51% Hispanic (*n* = 52)
	37% African American (*n* = 38)
	11% biracial (*n* = 11)
	1% did not self-identify (*n* = 1)
Program	76% HEOP program (*n* = 78)
	24% C-STEP program (*n* = 24)
Generation	29% born outside U.S. (*n* = 30)
	54% 1st generation (*n* = 55)
	6% 2nd generation (*n* = 6)
	11% 3rd generation or beyond (*n* = 11)
Prior Experience in Counseling	22.5% "yes" (*n* = 23)
	77.5% "no" (*n* = 79)

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(M = 41.58, SD = 12.67) than HEOP students (M = 28.74, SD = 11.74), as measured by the Hollingshead (1975) Four Factor Index of Social Status, t = 4.65, p < .01.

Ethnicity. Fifty-two (51%) of the participants were from Hispanic backgrounds, 38 (37%) were from African American backgrounds and 11 students (11%) identified themselves as biracial; one participant (1%) left this item blank.

These groups differed in terms of SES, with Hispanic students (M = 26.23, SD = 12.00) reporting lower scores on the Hollingshead (1975) Four Factor Index of Social Status than students who categorized themselves as biracial (M = 34.81, SD = 13.66), t = 2.18, p < .05, and students who categorized themselves as African American (M = 38.86, SD = 11.19), t = 4.96, p < .01.

Among the females who participated in the study, 42 (51%) were Hispanic, eight (10%) were biracial, and 33 (40%) were African American. Among the males who participated in the study, ten (53%) were Hispanic, three (16%) were biracial, and five (26%) were African American.

Generation. In terms of generational status, 30 of the participants (29%) were not born in the United States. Fifty-five of the participants (54%) were first generation (they were born in the United States, but their parents were not); 6 participants (6%) were 2nd generation (they and at least one of their parents were born in the United States), and 11 participants (11%) were 3rd generation or beyond (they, at least one of their parents, and at least one of their grandparents were born in the United States).

Students who were not born in the United States and first generation students scored lower on SES (M = 30.72, SD = 13.00), as measured by Hollinghead's (1975) measure, than students who were second generation, third generation, and beyond (37.85, SD = 12.57), t = 2.07, p < .05. Among the females who participated in the study, 61 (73.5%) were born in

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the United States, while 22 (26.5%) were born outside the United States. Among the males who participated in the study, 11 (58%) were born in the United States, and eight (42%) were born outside the United States.

Among those students in the HEOP program who participated in the study, 52 (67.5%) were born in the United States, and 25 (32.5%) were born outside the United States. Among those students in the C-STEP program who participated in the study, 20 (80%) were born in the United States, and five (20%) were born outside the United States.

Prior experience in counseling. Twenty-three participants (22.5%) had prior experience in counseling, while 79 participants (77.5%) did not.

Satisfaction with Prior Experience in Counseling. The scores of the twenty-three students with regard to their satisfaction with prior experience in counseling ranged from 4 to 12 ($M = 8.69$, $SD = 2.82$). The scores formed a rectangular distribution, evenly spread from low satisfaction to high satisfaction.

Cultural Congruity. Student scores on the Cultural Congruity Scale (CCS; Gloria & Robinson Kurpius, 1996) ranged from 25 to 70 ($M = 57.15$, $SD = 8.85$). On an item asking students the extent to which they, as members of ethnic minority groups, feel they belong on their campus, the majority ($n = 69$) gave the highest ratings, endorsing the two highest responses at the "a great deal" end of the spectrum ($M = 5.4$, $SD = 2.02$). However, on an item asking students if they , as members of ethnic minority groups, feel accepted on their university campus, the responses fell more within the average range ($M = 4.4$; $SD = 1.85$).

There was a direct relationship between cultural congruity and satisfaction with prior experiences in counseling, $r = .43$, $p < .05$. As cultural congruity increased, satisfaction with prior counseling experiences increased as well.

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Acculturation. The Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS; Stephenson, 2000) yields two scores, one for ethnic society immersion, and one for dominant society immersion. Ethnic society immersion scores ranged from 26 to 68 (M = 52.63, SD = 10.57), and dominant society immersion scores ranged from 32 to 60 (M = 52.88, SD = 5.7).

Ethnic society immersion, as measured by the SMAS (Stephenson, 2000), was inversely related to SES, as measured by Hollingshead's (1975) Index, $r = -.27, p < .01$. As ethnic society immersion increased, SES decreased. In terms of ethnicity, Hispanic students had higher scores on ethnic society immersion (M = 55.98, SD = 8.77) than African American students (M = 48.55, SD = 11.72), $t = 3.29, p < .05$. In terms of program, students in the HEOP program had higher scores on ethnic society immersion (M = 54.35, SD = 10.04) than students in the C-STEP program (M = 47.32, SD = 10.57), $t = -3.01, p < .01$. Ethnic society immersion was directly related to satisfaction with prior counseling experience, $r = .42, p < .05$, while dominant society immersion was directly related to cultural congruity, $r = .22, p < .05$.

Measures

The measures described below were administered to the students as components of a seven part packet entitled "Student Questionnaire." As per the American Psychological Association's (2003) guidelines for research with underrepresented groups, whenever possible, reliability, validity, and cultural equivalence data for the use of instruments across diverse populations are provided. Table 2 summarizes the instruments used in this dissertation.

Criterion Measures

Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form. The Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982), based on the full form EAC questionnaire (Tinsley,

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Table 2

Instruments According to Variable Type

Type of Variable	Instruments
Criterion	*Counseling Expectations:* The Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982)
Predictor	*Self-esteem:* Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE, Rosenberg, 1965) *Attributional Style:* Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire-Revised (CASQ-R; Thompson, Kaslow, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1998) *Self-appraised Problem-Solving Skills:* The Problem Solving Inventory (PSI; Heppner & Petersen, 1982)
Background	*Demographics:* Demographic Questionnaire, including adapted version of Hollingshead Four Factor Index of Social Status (1975), and questions on age, gender, C-STEP vs. HEOP program, ethnicity, generation *Prior experience in counseling:* (yes/no) *Satisfaction with Prior Counseling:* Three questions asking clients about their satisfaction with their experience in counseling, the extent to which their counselor addressed their concerns, and whether they would try counseling again *Cultural Congruity:* Cultural Congruity Scale (CCS; Gloria & Robinson Kurpius, 1996) *Acculturation:* The Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS; Stephenson, 2000)

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Workman, & Kass, 1980), was used in this study. The EAC-B is one of the most widely used instruments used to measure client expectancies today (Barich, 2002). It is a self-report instrument composed of 66 items, 17 scales, and 4 factors (see Table 3). Each expectancy is measured using a 7-point Likert scale with responses ranging from 1 (not true) to 7 (definitely true).

Each item is prefaced with either: "I expect to..." or "I expect the counselor to..." Scale scores are calculated by adding the responses to the items assigned to each scale and then dividing by the number of items in each scale. Factor scores are calculated by adding the scale scores and then dividing by the number of scales in each factor.

Tinsley et al. (1980) conducted a study in which the responses of 446 students from introductory psychology classes who filled out the full form of the EAC (Tinsley et al., 1980) were analyzed in order to assess the internal consistency of the EAC-B's 66 items. None of these students completing the questionnaire had previous counseling experience. Approximately equal numbers of males and females participated, and all students were age 22 or younger. Coefficient alphas for the 17 EAC-B scales ranged from a low of .69 to a high of .82, with a median reliability of .76.

To assess test-retest reliability of the EAC-B, the EAC-B was administered twice to 45 students in an undergraduate psychology class, at a two month interval. According to this study, the test-retest reliability of the scales on the EAC-B ranged from .47 to .87 with a median test-retest reliability of .71. The only scale that had a test-retest reliability of less than .60 was the responsibility scale. Tinsley (1982) writes that "the scales are judged to have sufficiently high internal consistency and test-retest reliability to warrant their use in research" (p. 1).

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Table 3

EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) Scales and Factors

Personal Commitment Factor	Facilitative Conditions Factor	Counselor Expertise Factor	Nurturance Factor
Responsibility	Acceptance	Directiveness	Acceptance
Openness	Confrontation	Empathy	Self-disclosure
Motivation	Genuineness	Expertise	Nurturance
Attractiveness	Trustworthiness		Attractiveness
Immediacy	Tolerance		
Concreteness	Concreteness		
Outcome			

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Tinsley (1982) also calculated correlations between the corresponding scales on the full and brief forms of the EAC, finding that the typical correlation is greater than .85. He writes, "the brief form of the EAC is judged to be preferable to the full EAC because it has acceptable internal consistency and test-retest reliability, a high level of conveyance with the full EAC, and it achieves a considerable economy of respondent time" (p. 1).

To investigate the factorial structure of the original EAC, a principal-components factor analysis with varimax rotation was performed (Tinsley et al., 1980). Four factors were extracted based on the stability of the solution across two independently factored subsamples. The first factor, called Personal Commitment because it refers primarily to how clients expect themselves to act in the counseling situation, contains 7 scales that had factor loadings of higher than .50. These include "client expectations to be responsible (responsibility), open (openness), and motivated (motivation), to have an attractive counselor (attractiveness), to have a counseling experience characterized by concreteness (concreteness) and immediacy (immediacy), and to experience a good outcome (outcome)" (p. 564).

The second factor is called Facilitative Conditions because it contains scales representing conditions such as trustworthiness and tolerance, conditions considered by Rogers and Truax (1967) to be "necessary and sufficient to stimulate psychotherapeutic personality change" (Tinsley et al., 1980, p. 565). Six scales had high loadings on this factor: "expectancies that the counselor would be genuine, trustworthy, accepting and tolerant, that the counselor would sometimes confront the client, and that the counseling experience would be characterized by concreteness" (p. 564).

Three scales had high factor loadings on the third factor, referred to as Counselor Expertise because "it seems likely that only an experienced, expert counselor would be able

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to satisfy such an expectancy to a high degree" (p. 566). These scales contain items measuring client expectancies that the counselor will be directive, empathic, and exhibit expertise.

Finally, the fourth factor, Nurturance, contains client expectations for the counselor to be accepting, nurturant, attractive, and self-disclosing. Tinsley, Holt, Hinson, and Tinsley (1991) conducted a factor validation study of the EAC-B, and found that the EAC-B is independent of measures of respondents' level of psychosocial development, perceived psychological difficulty, and counseling readiness.

A number of years after the creation of Tinsley's scales, Aegisdóttir, Gerstein, and Gridley (2000) examined the factorial structure of the EAC-B, and suggested that three factors, rather than four, better represented the EAC-B. They proposed a three factor solution, including the factors Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, and Counselor Expertise. These factors incorporated four of the subscales somewhat differently, with "attractiveness" falling under the Personal Commitment factor, "acceptance" and "nurturance" falling under the Facilitative Conditions, and "self-disclosure" falling under the Counselor Expertise factor. As the Aegisdóttir et al. (2000) study did not provide conclusive evidence regarding the factorial structure of the EAC-B, Tinsley's original four factor solution was used in the present study.

Predictor Measures

Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE, Rosenberg, 1965) is a global measure designed to assess self-esteem among adolescents. It is one of the most widely used self-concept measures in psychological and educational research (Blascovich & Tomaka, 1991) and even at its conception in 1965 was used widely with youth from minority groups (Rosenberg, 1979).

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The RSE, which has ten items, is a self-report instrument that is typically administered using a Likert-type response format, employing a 4-point scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." It has been argued that self-reports should be used to examine self-esteem, because self-esteem is by definition a self-report construct (Wylie, 1989). Examples of RSE items include: "On the whole, I am satisfied with myself" and "I certainly feel useless at times." Half the items are positively worded and half negatively worded, to control for an acquiescent response set (Wylie, 1989). The scale is often scored by adding up the individual item scores after reverse-scoring the negatively worded items. Scores may range from 10 to 40, with high scores indicating higher self-esteem and low scores indicating lower self-esteem.

The RSE was constructed to measure a conceptualization of self-esteem that is consistent with psychological theories of the self such as self-acceptance or self-concept (Fleming & Courtney, 1984), as well as consistent with the general layman's view of self-esteem (Gray-Little, Williams, & Hancock, 1997), i.e., the extent to which individuals feel good about themselves. It was first used with 5024 students from 10 high schools chosen randomly from all New York State high schools and stratified by size of community (Wylie, 1989).

The RSE's psychometric properties have been studied in depth; in fact, the RSE has received more empirical validation and psychometric examination than any other instrument measuring self-esteem (Gray-Little et al., 1997). In terms of internal consistency estimates of reliability, for the New York State sample, Cronbach alpha was .77 (Wylie, 1989). A study conducted by Byrne and Shavelson (1987) reported alpha coefficients of .87 for females and .74 for males, among a sample of 832 urban Canadian 11th and 12th graders with equal numbers of each gender. In terms of test-retest reliability, using a small college sample of 28

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students, Silber and Tippett (1965) found that the RSE had a two-week test-retest reliability of $r = .85$.

An examination of the items in the scale indicates that they possess face validity, with items dealing with "a general favorable or unfavorable global self-attitude" (Rosenberg, 1979, p. 292). In terms of construct validity, scores on the RSE relate to depressive affect, $r = -.30$, and anxiety, $r = -.48$, among high school students (Rosenberg, 1965). According to a factor analysis conducted by Carmines and Zeller (1974), based on a large sample of high school students, two factors emerged: positive self-esteem and negative self-esteem. However, the researchers concluded that because these factors have almost identical relationships to criterion variables (e.g., psychological dispositions, social attitudes), they seem to tap the same rather than different dimensions. In her review of studies on the RSE's convergent validity, Wylie (1989) reported acceptable correlations (.56-.83) between the RSE and instruments measuring self-concept, self-image, and feelings of adequacy.

Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire-Revised. The Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire-Revised (CASQ-R; Thompson, Kaslow, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1998) is designed to measure attributions associated with a learned helplessness model of depression among youth. The CASQ-R is a shortened version of Seligman et al.'s (1984) Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire (CASQ), a widely used measure of attributional style among children and adolescents ranging from age 8 to 18 (Gladstone & Kaslow, 1995; Gladstone, Kaslow, Seeley & Lewinshon, 1997; Southall & Roberts, 2002).

The original CASQ was developed on Caucasian youths and has 48 items. The CASQ-R has 24 items. The CASQ-R, like the CASQ, utilizes a forced-choice format, in which a hypothetical situation is followed by 2 statements explaining why the event happened. Those filling out the survey choose the response that they feel offers the better

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explanation. Three dimensions of attributions are assessed: internal-external (the extent to which individuals attribute events to factors inside or outside themselves), stable-unstable (the extent to which individuals attribute the causes of events as consistent or inconsistent over time), and global-specific (the extent to which individuals attribute the causes of events as extending across situations or as situation-specific).

The statements include a combination of negative events and positive events. In terms of the positive statements, two items tap the internal-external dimension (e.g., "You get an 'A' on a test. (a) I am smart. (b) I am good in the subject the test was in."); seven items tap the stable-unstable dimension (e.g., "You make your friends happy. (a) I am a fun person to be with. (b) Sometimes I am a fun person to be with."); and three items tap the global-specific dimension (e.g., "You go to an amusement park and you have a good time. (a) I usually enjoy myself at amusement parks. (b) I usually enjoy myself in many activities.")

In terms of the negative statements, three items tap the internal-external dimension (e.g., "You get a bad grade in school. (a) I am not a good student; (b) Teachers give hard tests."); six items tap the stable-unstable dimension (e.g., "You do a project with a group of kids and it turns out badly. (a) I don't work well with people in that particular group. (b) I never work well in groups."); and three items tap the global-specific dimension (e.g., "You fail a test. (a) All tests are hard. (b) Only some tests are hard.")

The CASQ-R yields three scores: a positive events composite, a negative events composite, and an overall composite. The composite score for positive events is the sum of the internality, stability, and globality subscales for positive events. Scores range from 0 to 12 on this particular composite, with higher scores indicating a less depressive attributional style. The composite score for negative events is the sum of the internality, stability, and

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globality subscales for negative events. Scores range from 0 to 12 on this composite as well; however, in this case, higher scores indicate a more depressive attributional style. The overall composite score subtracts the composite score for negative events from the composite score for positive events. As with the composite for positive events, in the overall composite score, higher scores indicate less depressive attributional styles. Caution should be taken when drawing conclusions based on the six dimensions upon which these composites are based because of the unequal numbers of items in the subscales (Thompson et al., 1998).

The CASQ-R was developed to counteract the level of boredom that may be associated with completing the more lengthy CASQ, especially because in research, attributional style is often one measure serving as part of a larger battery. Items were chosen from the original version based on a psychometric analysis of item-total correlations. Twelve positive event items were chosen that had a greater than or equal to .14 item-total correlation, and twelve negative event items were chosen that had a greater than or equal to .08 item-total correlation.

Thompson et al. (1998) examined the psychometric properties of the CASQ-R to determine whether this shortened scale can function as a reliable and valid alternative to the original CASQ. Their study, the only study to date that has examined the reliability and validity of the CASQ-R, utilized a large sample size (n = 1086), approximately half of which was African American (n = 475) and approximately half of which was Caucasian (n = 611). The study was based on archival data collected by a school system as part of mental health screenings to identify youth in need of school counseling services. The CASQ-R was administered twice, six months apart, along with the Vanderbilt Depression Inventory (VDI; Weiss & Catron, 1994), an instrument that uses a developmental framework for assessing

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depressive symptoms. Almost equal numbers of males and females from a lower-middle class neighborhood participated. While comprehensive and clearly designed, this study was based on a younger sample (children aged 9 to 12) than will be used in the present research study. However, a strength of Thompson et al.'s (1998) study, relative to the current research, is its inclusion of African American youth.

Internal-consistency reliability, test-retest reliability, and criterion-related validity relative to the VDI were all examined. In addition, Thompson et al. (1998) looked at whether reliability and validity vary based on gender, race, and age. Finally, the researchers examined group differences across gender, race, and age on the three CASQ-R scores and the criterion.

The average internal consistency alphas for Time 1 and Time 2 were as follows: overall composite: $\alpha = .61$, positive composite: $\alpha = .57$, and negative composite: $\alpha = .46$. Internal consistency reliabilities according to gender, race, and age were also computed and Fisher r-to-z transformations were used to test for differences in reliability coefficients for Time 1 only. The researchers found that the CASQ-R was equally internally consistent for females ($\alpha = .63$) and males $\alpha = .58$), and for older (age 11-12, $\alpha = .64$) and younger (age 9 to 10, $\alpha = .58$) age groups. However, the CASQ-R was more internally consistent for Caucasian ($\alpha = .66$) than for African American youth ($\alpha = .55$). These internal consistency reliability estimates were in the moderate range (Thompson et al., 1998).

Six month test-retest reliability was also assessed for the 475 youth who completed the CASQ-R both times. Test-retest reliability for the overall composite and for the positive composite was the same: $r = .53$. Test-retest reliability for the negative composite was somewhat lower: $r = .38$. The CASQ-R was equally stable across gender, race, and age. These test-retest reliability estimates were considered to be fair (Thompson et al., 1998).

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The CASQ-R appears to have good criterion related validity. Thompson et al's (1998) study found that CASQ-R positive, negative, and overall scores correlated in the predicted direction with scores on the VDI. Self-reported symptoms of depression correlated significantly with higher scores on the negative composite ($r = .35$), lower scores on the positive composite ($r = -.31$), and lower scores on the overall composite ($r = -.40$). There was a significant difference in the criterion-related validity for Caucasians ($r = -.46$) and African Americans ($r = .31$), suggesting that the CASQ-R has better criterion related validity among Caucasian youth than among African American youth. CASQ-R negative composite scores differed across age and race, with the younger group (9- and 10-year olds) and Caucasian youths scoring higher, representing a more maladaptive attributional style for negative events among these groups (Thompson et al., 1998).

Problem Solving Inventory. The Problem Solving Inventory (PSI; Heppner & Petersen, 1982) has 32 items, and is designed to measure how individuals believe they generally react to personal, "real life" problems in their daily lives. It contains three subscales: problem-solving confidence (11 items), approach-avoidance style (16 items), and personal control (5 items). The PSI yields four scores in all: the three subscale scores as well as a total score.

When completing the measure, individuals rate statements from 1 ("strongly disagree") to 6 ("strongly agree"), according to a Likert-type scale. There are an equal number of positively and negatively worded items. In the original form of the PSI, higher scores indicate behaviors and attitudes that are associated with less successful problem-solving. However, in the other scales which were in this study, high scores represent desirable characteristics. Therefore, to make the interpretation of results more straightforward, items of the PSI were scored in the opposite direction so that high scores indicate behaviors and attitudes representing more successful problem-solving skills.

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Internal consistency estimates for each of the three factors were computed based on the responses of 150 undergraduate psychology students. For the problem-solving confidence scale, α was .85; for the approach-avoidance scale, α was .84; and for the personal control scale, α was .72. The internal consistency α for the total score was .90 (Heppner & Petersen, 1982). Test-retest reliability was also calculated for Caucasian college students, African American college students, and French Canadian adults who completed the PSI at a two-week interval. For the total inventory, the test-retest reliability was .80, suggesting that PSI scores are stable when the PSI is used with different cultures and populations (Heppner & Wang, 2003).

Heppner and Petersen (1982) also conducted an exploratory principal-components factor analysis based on the responses of the 150 students. Using varimax rotation and retaining those factor loadings above .3, the three factors representing the subscales were extracted.

In terms of concurrent validity, total PSI scores were correlated with Heppner's 1979 Level of Problem-solving Skills Estimate Form. Those students with higher self-appraised problem-solving skills rated themselves more favorably than other students in this domain ($r = -.46$) and were more satisfied with their present level of problem-solving skills ($r = -.42$) (Heppner & Petersen, 1982). These are moderate correlations. In terms of discriminant validity, Heppner and Petersen (1982) found that the PSI was not correlated with intelligence measures, academic achievement, or social desirability. All scales of the PSI did correlate significantly, however, with Rotter's (1966) Internal-External Locus of Control Scale ($r =$ .40-.61).

To test construct validity, Heppner and Petersen (1982) assigned 18 students to either problem-solving training (involving six 1-hour sessions) or to a control group. Those

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students who received the training rated themselves significantly higher in self-appraised problem-solving skills than those students in the control group.

Participant Descriptor Measures

Demographic Questionnaire. The two-page demographic questionnaire was created for the purposes of this study. It is a self-report instrument that measured a number of background characteristics among the sample. The first page of this questionnaire was based on the Hollingshead (1975) *Four Factor Index of Social Status* and was used to estimate the students' socio-economic status. Here, students answered questions about who they live with, their parents' level of education, and their parents' occupation. This information was used to estimate each student's socioeconomic status, both in terms of a score (with higher scores indicating higher SES) and in terms of the social strata group of which the student is a member.

The second page of the demographic questionnaire asked students for their birthday, which was subtracted from their date of participation to determine their age; their gender; their ethnicity (for this item, students were directed to "circle all that apply", so that those who were biracial could be categorized as such); and which Opportunity Program they participate in: HEOP or C-STEP. To assess generational status, a series of statements were presented, with which students agreed or disagreed by circling "yes" or "no." These statements, which follow, were created for the purposes of this study: "I was born in this country"; "My mother was born in this country"; "My father was born in this country"; "My grandmother on my mother's side was born in this country"; My grandmother on my father's side was born in this country"; "My grandfather on my mother's side was born in this country;" and "My grandfather on my father's side was born in this country." Responses to

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these statements were coded to determine whether the student was born outside the United States, 1st generation, 2nd generation, or 3rd generation and beyond.

Prior experience in counseling. Some research (Richmond, 1984; Winograd, 2003) has suggested that those with prior experience in counseling may have different expectations for counseling from those without such experience. Therefore, a question about prior experience in counseling was administered at the end of the EAC-B. Students answered "yes" or "no" to the question: "Have you ever been to see a professional counselor before?"

Satisfaction with prior experience in counseling. Some research (Greenfield, 1983; Heilbrun, 1972) has suggested that expectations predict satisfaction in counseling; however, the extent to which satisfaction with a past counseling experience predicts expectations for *future* counseling has not been examined in depth. Therefore, at the end of the EAC-B, three questions were asked of participants who stated that they have been in counseling before. These questions asked about the students' general satisfaction with their counseling experience, the extent to which their counselor addressed their concerns, and whether they would consider trying counseling again. Those students who have never been in counseling were directed to skip these questions.

The questions asked were based upon a three-item version of the Client Satisfaction Questionnaire (CSQ-3; Larsen, Attkisson, Hargreaves, & Nguyen, 1979). The CSQ-3 is a global instrument that measures clients' satisfaction with their counseling experience immediately following a counseling session. The questions created for this study reflected the goal of assessing satisfaction with an entire counseling experience that occurred at any point in the past. The questions read as follows: "In an overall general sense, how satisfied were you with your counseling experience?"; "To what extent did your counselor address your immediate concerns?"; and "Do you feel that if you were to seek further help, you

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would try psychological counseling again?" Students with prior experience in counseling responded to these questions according to Likert scales, each with a 4-choice format. Responses to the first question ranged from "not satisfied" to "very satisfied"; responses to the second question ranged from "not at all" to "very much"; and responses to the third question ranged from "no" to "definitely." The scale was scored by adding up the numbers of the responses. Low scores indicated less satisfaction with prior or current counseling experiences, and high scores indicated greater satisfaction.

Cultural Congruity Scale. The Cultural Congruity Scale (CCS; Gloria & Robinson Kurpius, 1996) is a 13-item instrument that was designed to measure Mexican-American students' sense of cultural congruence within the college environment. Cultural congruence or cultural "fit" is the extent to which students from a particular ethnic background possess values, beliefs, and behaviors that are in line with established norms in academia. The CCS was designed in part to examine the relationship of cultural congruity and academic persistence among minority students.

Students who completed the CCS indicated the extent to which they have experienced a certain feeling or situation at school on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from 1 ("not at all") to 7 ("a great deal") . Examples of items include: "I feel that I have to change myself to fit in at school", "I feel I am leaving my family values behind by going to college", and "As an ethnic minority, I feel I belong on this campus." The total score was obtained by adding the numerical responses together. Higher scores indicate greater perceived cultural congruity.

The CCS is based on Ethier and Deaux's (1990) six item Perceived Threat Scale, which has been used to assess perceptions of threat among racial/ethnic minority students on Ivy League campuses. Each of the six items of the Perceived Threat Scale was included

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in the CCS. In addition, eight more items were developed by the authors based on the theoretical literature, the empirical literature, the authors' personal experiences as minority students, and the authors' personal experiences as mentors to minority students. The 14-item scale was first piloted with 18 (5 male, 13 female, mean age = 22 years, modal age = 21 years) Mexican-American undergraduates at a large university in the Southwest of the United States. One item that interfered with the scale's internal consistency was deleted. The resulting Cronbach's alpha for the 13-item CCS was .89 (Gloria & Robinson Kurpius, 1996).

The scale's psychometric properties were then evaluated with Mexican-American students at two major universities in the Southwest. The internal consistency alpha at the first university (n = 158) was .82, and the internal consistency alpha at the second university (n = 285) was .80. Among 98 African American students (27 male, 71 female, mean age = 22.95 years) attending a predominantly Caucasian university in the Southwest, the coefficient alpha was also .80 (Gloria, Robinson Kurpius, Hamilton & Wilson, 1999). Alphas at this level are considered strong.

In terms of criterion-related validity, Gloria and Robinson Kurpius (1996) found a negative correlation between academic persistence and scores on the CCS (r = -.34), indicating that students' decisions to continue in college corresponded to more positive perceptions of how they fit in as members of a minority group within the university environment. This correlation was the same for Mexican-American students and for African American students at predominantly Caucasian universities (Gloria et al., 1999).

Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale. The Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS; Stephenson, 2000) is a 32-item self-report instrument designed to measure acculturation. Acculturation is defined by the author of the scale as the degree to which an individual is immersed in dominant and ethnic societies. This degree of immersion in each

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society is assessed in terms of individual behavior relating to food and media preferences, language use, and social interaction.

Examples of items composing the SMAS include: "I feel comfortable speaking my native language"; "I stay in close contact with family members and relatives in my native country"; and "I feel at home in the United States." Individuals completing the SMAS have four response options based on a Likert-type format: "false", "partly false", "partly true", and "true." The SMAS yields two scores, DSI (dominant society immersion) and ESI (ethnic society immersion). Fifteen items relate to DSI and 17 items relate to ESI. Scores range from 15 to 60 on the DSI, and from 17 to 68 on the ESI. Higher scores in each domain indicate a greater degree of immersion.

An item pool representative of the acculturation construct was developed based on a review of the acculturation literature, previously published instruments, reviews by expert consultants and a multiethnic research team, and field tests with two samples (Stephenson, 2000). One-hundred African American, Asian American, European American, Hispanic American, and African descent participants from the Northeastern United States completed the items and commented on their relevance, clarity, offensiveness, or appearance of bias. Faulty and redundant items were excluded. Then, the working version of the SMAS was readministered to a diverse sample of 436 individuals (mean age = 29.98 years). Items with high factor loadings on the primary factor and low factor loadings on the secondary factor were retained, and items that were redundant were eliminated, resulting in the present 32-item scale.

A study examining the internal consistency reliability of the scale found that coefficient alpha was .86 for the entire scale, .97 for the ESI factor, and .90 for the DSI

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factor. Item total correlations ranged from .51 to .87 on the ESI factor and .57 to .83 on the DSI factor (Stephenson, 2000).

In terms of construct validity, an exploratory factor analysis with varimax rotation yielded a two-factor solution. In addition, generational status corresponded to SMAS scores, with DSI scores increasing and ESI scores decreasing with each of the first three successive generations (Stephenson, 2000).

Because of the large number of language items, and the fact that many fourth generation participants did not know the countries from which their families originally came, findings of the ESI subscale with fourth generation participants should be interpreted with caution. Therefore, the measurement of acculturation using the SMAS may be more useful for newer immigrants than those whose families have lived in the United States for longer periods of time (Stephenson, 2000).

Opportunity Programs Description

This study took place within the Opportunity Programs at a large competitive private university located in the Northeast. The Opportunity Programs at this university are designed to meet the needs of college students from disadvantaged backgrounds. A number of subprograms exist under the Opportunity Programs umbrella, including the Higher Education Opportunity Program (HEOP) and the Collegiate Science and Technology Entry Program (C-STEP). The descriptive information below, regarding the Opportunity Programs and the larger university community was provided by P. Chawla (personal communication, August 20, 2004).

HEOP Program

The HEOP program during the 2003-4 academic year was composed of 618 undergraduate students. Out of these students, 28% were male and 72% were female. In

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terms of ethnicity, 33% were African American and 58% were Hispanic. The remaining 7% included Asian/Pacific Islander, Native American, Caucasian, and students self-identifying themselves as "other." Many students are first generation college students; in other words, they were raised by parents who did not have the opportunity to go to college. The majority of HEOP students come from low-income minority populations. There were 165 entering first-year students in the HEOP program at this university in the fall of 2003.

HEOP's mission is to provide under-prepared financially disadvantaged students with guidance and support to develop academic and personal skills that in turn can be applied to master the college curriculum and help students become competitive in their academic disciplines. The program contributes to a consistent sequence of admission, retention, and graduation of students from diverse populations and encourages students to continue their studies on a graduate and professional level.

Students who are admitted to the HEOP program are those students whose educational and economic status did not provide them with an opportunity to demonstrate or develop their scholastic abilities to the level required for undergraduate admission at the university. Eligible HEOP students are those who meet low income guidelines and demonstrate the potential and motivation to be successful at the university.

C-STEP Program

The C-STEP program during the 2003-4 academic year was composed of 177 undergraduate students. Out of these students, similar to students in the HEOP program, 28% were male and 72% were female. In terms of ethnicity, 60% were African American and 40% were Hispanic. While Hispanic students compose a majority of the HEOP students, African American students compose a majority of the C-STEP students. There were 38 entering first-year students in the C-STEP program in the fall of 2003.

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C-STEP is designed for undergraduate students who are members of minority groups underrepresented in the science, business, teaching, health-related, and law professions who have been accepted to the university. Unlike HEOP students, C-STEP students are not required to meet low income family eligibility requirements. The C-STEP program has a number of goals, including the following: to give students access to activities and services that will increase students' performance in school and entry into targeted professions; to offer students research and internship experiences; and to offer academic advisement to students to helps them become aware of prerequisites and opportunities in targeted professions.

Opportunity Programs Services

In order to help Opportunity Program students meet the goals of the program, HEOP and C-STEP students attend a pre-freshmen summer program where they take courses in academic subject areas and study skills. During their freshmen year, they take academic enrichment workshops in addition to their course load. For students majoring in science, there is a post-freshmen summer science enrichment program. The services offered by the Opportunity Programs to students in all four years of their university experience include free tutoring (e.g., writing, test preparation, developing content area skills) and academic, career, financial, and personal counseling. Out of the total number of Opportunity Programs students entering the university in 2003, 81% participated in the HEOP program, and 19% participated in the C-STEP program.

University Environment

In 2003-4, the total number of undergraduate students attending the university was 19,506. Of these students, 40% were male and 60% were female, and 4000 were freshmen. The ethnic breakdown for first-year students entering the university in 2003 was as follows:

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53.4% Caucasian, 20% Asian, 9.6% unknown, 9% Latino, 6.5% African American, 1.3% Multiracial and 0.2% Native American. Approximately 4% of all entering students at the university were in HEOP, while approximately 1% of all entering students were in C-STEP.

Procedure

Meetings with Director, Counselors, and Instructors

Researchers "are encouraged to include members of cultural communities when conceptualizing research, with particular concern for the benefits of the research to the community" (American Psychological Association, 2003, p. 389). The principal investigator met with the Opportunity Programs director, counselors, and instructors to discuss the proposed study before it began. Recruitment procedures, participant descriptor measures, and the manner in which the results were to be shared with members of the community were decided upon based upon these meetings.

Participant Recruitment

To obtain participants, the principal investigator visited Opportunity Programs academic enrichment workshops where she explained the study to the students (see Appendix A) in each class and answered any questions the students had about the study. Everyone in each class over the age of 18 was given a consent form, and everyone in each class under the age of 18 was given a consent form for minors as well as a parental permission form (see Appendix B).

Data Collection

Students participating in the first survey completion session filled out the surveys in small groups in a reserved classroom on the university campus. The students participated either during their free period between classes ("common hour") or in the afternoon, after they had finished classes for the day. When the students came to fill out the surveys, they

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received an index card upon which they wrote their e-mail address if they were interested in reading about the results of the study. The principal investigator then collected the consent forms the students had signed and the index cards. From students under the age of 18, the principal investigator collected parental consent forms as well. The index cards were kept separate from the consent forms, in order to protect the students' confidentiality.

Before the principal investigator handed out the questionnaire packet (a compilation of all measures, described in detail below), she clarified that as the students answered questions about their expectations for counseling, they were to think about what it would be like to visit a psychologist at the university counseling center or at a private office or clinic, as opposed to visiting their counselor at the Opportunity Programs. It was important to distinguish between expectations for these two different types of counseling, because the relationship that the students have with their counselor at the Opportunity Program emphasizes academic, financial, and career issues. In addition, periodic meetings between students and Opportunity Program counselors are mandatory.

The principal investigator also asked the students to make sure they answered every question and to be as honest as possible, as this would contribute to the meaningfulness and validity of the results. Finally, the principal investigator told the students that as they completed the surveys, if they came across an item they didn't understand to please raise their hand and their question would be addressed. It took the students an average of thirty minutes to complete the entire questionnaire. When they were done, the students returned the questionnaire to the principal investigator, and they were paid $10. They were also encouraged to come back to fill out the questionnaire again next week for another $10.

Those students who participated in the second survey completion session came again to the same reserved classroom exactly one week later at the same time to fill out the same

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questionnaires a second time. This procedure allowed the principal investigator to calculate the one-week test-retest reliability for all of the instruments. The data collection procedures for the second survey completion session were exactly the same as those for the first survey completion session.

Questionnaire packet. The measures were administered in the form of a single packet entitled "Student Questionnaire" which contained seven sections (see Table 4). *Section 1* ("My Family and Myself") contained the Hollingshead (1975) Four Factor Index of Social Status and questions on background variables, including age, gender, ethnicity, and generational status. *Section 2* ("What I Expect") contained the Expectations about Counseling Questionnaire-Brief Form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982); a question asking about prior experience in counseling; and for those who answered this question in the affirmative, a three-item questionnaire assessing their satisfaction with this experience. *Section 3* ("My Thoughts and Feelings") contained the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1965). *Section 4* ("Dealing with Problems") contained the Problem Solving Inventory (PSI; Heppner & Petersen, 1982). *Section 5* ("Thoughts about School") contained the Cultural Congruity Scale (CCS; Gloria & Robinson-Kurpius, 1996). *Section 6* ("Why Did it Happen?") contained the Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire-Revised (CASQ-R; Thompson, Kaslow, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1998). Finally, *Section 7* ("Language and Culture") contained the Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS; Stephenson, 2000).

Confidentiality. The completed questionnaires, identifiable only by number, were kept in a locked drawer. The principal investigator and her advisor were the only individuals who had access to questionnaire data. According to the American Psychological Association's (APA) *Publication Manual,* data must be retained for a minimum of 5 years after publication of results (American Psychological Association, 2001). The researcher will also comply with

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Table 4

Contents of Student Questionnaire by Section

Part of Questionnaire	Instruments
1. My Family & Myself	*Demographics:* Demographic Questionnaire, including adapted version of Hollingshead Four Factor Index of Social Status (1975), and questions on age, gender, C-STEP vs. HEOP program, ethnicity, generation
2. What I Expect	*Counseling Expectations:* The Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) *Prior Experience in Counseling:* (yes/no) *Satisfaction with Prior Counseling:* Three questions asking clients about their satisfaction with their experience in counseling, the extent to which their counselor addressed their concerns, and whether they would try counseling again
3. Thoughts and Feelings	*Self-esteem:* Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE, Rosenberg, 1965)
4. Dealing with Problems	*Self-appraised Problem-solving Skills:* The Problem Solving Inventory (PSI; Heppner & Petersen, 1982)
5. Thoughts about School	*Cultural Congruity:* Cultural Congruity Scale (CCS; Gloria & Robinson Kurpius, 1996)
6. Why did it Happen?	*Attributional Style:* Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire-Revised (CASQ-R; Thompson, Kaslow, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1998)
7. Language and Culture	*Acculturation:* The Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS; Stephenson, 2000)

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the Committee on Professional Practice & Standards' (1993) *Record Keeping Guidelines* and destroy questionnaires and consent forms 5 years after publication. If publication does not occur, questionnaires and consent forms will be retained for at least 3 years after project completion.

Social Validity

The American Psychological Association's (2003) guidelines on research with diverse populations recommend that researchers include participants in the interpretation of results. Students and Opportunity Program staff will have the opportunity to learn about the results of the study. The results of the completed study were mailed to all participants who requested a copy. The principal investigator also shared the findings to Opportunity Programs counselors and staff who were interested in learning about the results of the study. This increased the possibility that the results would be of benefit to the participants and the Opportunity Program community as a whole.

Data Analysis

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics (means, standard deviations, ranges) were calculated and reported for the predictor and criterion measures used in the study.

Hypothesis-Testing

Each of the hypotheses involved the relationship between a single independent variable and a single dependent variable. Therefore, the hypothesis-testing component of the data analysis consisted of the computation of simple correlations between the instruments representing each independent variable and the instruments representing each dependent variable.

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The independent variables in this analysis—(a) self-esteem, (b) attributional style, and (c) self-appraised problem-solving skills—were measured by the total scores on the three personality instruments: the RSE (Rosenberg, 1965), the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), and the PSI (Heppner & Petersen, 1982) respectively. The dependent variables in this analysis—(a) general expectations for counseling; (b) expectations for client behavior within the counseling relationship; (c) expectations for counselor characteristics and the counseling relationship; (d) expectations regarding the likelihood that the counselor will know how to help; and (e) expectations for acceptance and a caring relationship—were represented respectively by the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) total score and the EAC-B Personal Commitment, Facilitative Conditions, Counselor Expertise, and Nurturance factor scores. Correlations that were significant provided evidence with regard to which self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal are useful predictors for which types of counseling expectations, as measured by the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982).

Reliability

Estimates of internal consistency reliability were calculated for all measures used in the study. One-week test-retest reliability was also calculated, using scores from students who completed the measures twice.

Supplementary Analyses

Further analysis was carried out to investigate whether significant relationships existed between background variables and predictor variables, and between background variables and criterion variables. For continuous background variables (SES, satisfaction with prior experience in counseling, cultural congruity and level of acculturation), this analysis consisted of the calculation of correlations between (a) each measure assessing a background variable and each measure assessing a predictor variable; and (b) each measure

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assessing a background variable and the four EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) criterion scores of interest. For categorical background variables (gender, ethnicity, generational status, participation in the C-STEP vs. HEOP program, and whether or not the participant has prior experience in counseling), a series of regression analyses investigated whether there were any significant differences between groups on the predictor or criterion variables.

Another analysis was conducted to determine the extent to which self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal were useful predictors of counseling expectations above and beyond the background characteristics. This analysis used the results from the analyses described above. The predictor and criterion measures within each significant relationship from the first analysis were entered into separate multiple regression equations. Any continuous background measure that correlated significantly with either the predictor or the criterion measure in a particular equation were also entered into that equation, in order to control for this relationship. Any categorical background variable in which group differences emerged on either the predictor or the criterion variable in a particular equation was also entered into that equation. Whether or not the beta weight for the predictor measure in a particular equation was significant provided evidence not only as to whether it was a useful predictor of counseling expectations, above and beyond background characteristics, but if so, to what extent.

The final supplementary analysis was conducted to investigate the presence of interactions between the background variables and self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal in predicting counseling expectations. In order to conduct this analysis, interaction terms were entered into multiple regression equations along with predictor, background, and criterion variables.

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CHAPTER III

Results

Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics for the three predictor variables (means, standard deviations, ranges) are reported in Table 5. Descriptive statistics for the five criterion variables (means, standard deviations, ranges) are reported in Table 6.

Hypothesis-Testing

There were three sets of hypotheses proposing relationships between each of the three predictor variables (self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal) and each of five criterion variables (expectations for personal commitment, expectations for facilitative conditions, expectations for counselor expertise, expectations for nurturance, and overall counseling expectations). Table 7 presents correlations between the students' scores on the predictor measures and their scores on the criterion measures. Based on these correlations, one of the self-esteem hypotheses was supported, and four of the attributional style hypotheses were supported. None of the hypotheses regarding the relationship between problem-solving appraisal and counseling expectations were supported. Thus, 5 of the 15 hypotheses (or 1/3) were supported in total. Given a p-value of .05, and 20 hypotheses, only one hypothesis (1/20) would be expected to be confirmed by chance.

In terms of the first set of five hypotheses concerning the relationship between self-esteem and counseling expectations, hypotheses proposing that self-esteem would predict overall counseling expectations, expectations for personal commitment, expectations for counselor expertise, and expectations for nurturance were not confirmed. One hypothesis concerning the relationship between self-esteem and counseling expectations, however, was confirmed. Self-esteem, as measured by the RSE (Rosenberg, 1965), predicted expectations

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Table 5

Participant Scores on Predictor Measures (N = 102)

Predictor Measure	Range, Mean, Standard Deviation
Self-esteem: Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE, Rosenberg, 1965)	Range = 17 to 35 M = 27.94, SD = 3.56
Attributional Style: Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire-Revised Composite Score (CASQ-R; Thompson, Kaslow, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 1998)	Range = -8 to 12 M = 4.94, SD = 3.62
Self-appraised Problem-Solving Skills: The Problem Solving Inventory (PSI; Heppner & Petersen, 1982)	Range = 74 to 180 M = 133.48, SD = 19.42

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Table 6

Participant Scores on Criterion Measures ($N = 102$)

Criterion Measure	Range, Mean, Standard Deviation
EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) Total Score	Range = 136 to 357 $M = 272.23$, $SD = 46.95$
EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) Personal Commitment (PC) Factor Score	Range = 1.56 to 6.77 $M = 5.21$, $SD = 1.01$
EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) Facilitative Conditions (FC) Factor Score	Range = 2.11 to 7 $M = 5.49$, $SD = 1.01$
EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) Counselor Expertise (CE) Factor Score	Range = 2.11 to 7 $M = 4.66$, $SD = 1.08$
EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) Nurturance (Nurt) Factor Score	Range = 1.75 to 6.75 $M = 4.69$, $SD = 1.10$

Note. EAC-B = Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (Tinsley, 1982).

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Table 7

Correlations Between Predictor Measures and Criterion Measures

	Criterion Measures				
Predictor Measures	Total EAC-B	Factor PC	Factor FC	Factor CE	Factor Nurt
RSE	.17	.12	.25*	-.04	.16
CASQ-R	.22*	.21*	.27*	.00	.23*
PSI	.03	.13	.03	-.14	-.04

Note. RSE = Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale; CASQ-R = Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire-Revised; PSI = Problem Solving Inventory; Total EAC-B = total score on Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form; Factor PC = Personal Commitment factor score on the EAC-B; Factor FC = Facilitative Conditions factor score on the EAC-B; Factor CE = Counselor Expertise score on the EAC-B; Factor Nurt = Nurturance Factor score on the EAC-B.

*$p < .05$.

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for counselor characteristics and the counseling relationship, as measured by the Facilitative Conditions Factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982), $r = .25, p < .05$. This relationship was direct: as self-esteem increased, expectations for positive counselor characteristics and a positive counseling relationship increased as well.

The second set of five hypotheses concerned the relationship between attributional style and counseling expectations. While the hypothesis proposing that attributional style would predict counselor expertise was not confirmed, the other four hypotheses were confirmed. Attributional style, as measured by the composite score of the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998) predicted expectations for client behavior within the counseling relationship, as measured by the Personal Commitment factor of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982), $r = .21, p < .05$. This relationship was direct: as attributional style became more positive, expectations for client behavior within the counseling relationship also became more positive.

Attributional style, as measured by the composite score of the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), also predicted expectations for counselor characteristics and the counseling relationship, as measured by the Facilitative Conditions factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982), $r = .27, p < .05$. The relationship between these two variables was direct. As attributional style became more positive, expectations for counselor characteristics and the counseling relationship became more positive as well.

In addition, attributional style, as measured by the composite score of the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), predicted expectations regarding the likelihood that the counselor would accept and develop a caring relationship with the client, as measured by the Nurturance factor score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982), $r = .23, p < .05$. The relationship

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between these two variables was direct. As attributional style became more positive, expectations regarding the likelihood that the counselor would know how to help the client also became more positive.

Finally, attributional style, as measured by the composite score of the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), predicted expectations for counseling overall, as measured by the total score of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982), $r = .22, p < .05$. The relationship between these two variables was direct. As attributional style became more positive, general expectations for counseling became more positive as well.

Peterson, Buchanan, and Seligman (1995) have written that correlations in the .20 to .30 range involving explanatory style are not "disappointingly low" (p. 18), as given variables rarely account for more than about 10% of the variance in other variables. They write, "there is good evidence that explanatory style is a consistent individual difference, that it pertains to the actual attributions people offer in everyday life, and that its relations with external variables are as robust as the correlates to be expected of any personality dimensions" (p. 19).

The third set of hypotheses involved the relationship between problem-solving appraisal and five categories of counseling expectations: expectations for personal commitment, expectations for facilitative conditions, expectations for nurturance, expectations for counselor expertise, and expectations for the overall counseling experience. None of these hypotheses were supported during this data analysis procedure.

Reliability

Estimates of internal consistency reliability ($N = 102$) and one-week test-retest reliability coefficients, using scores from students who completed the measures twice ($n = 35$) are reported in Tables 8 through 10.

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Table 8

Reliability Coefficients for Background Measures

Instrument	Test-Retest	Internal Consistency
SPECS	$r = .92^{**}$ ($n = 7$)	$\alpha = .90$ ($N = 102$)
CCS	$r = .75^{**}$ ($n = 35$)	$\alpha = .70$ ($N = 102$)
SMAS: ESI	$r = .83^{**}$ ($n = 35$)	$\alpha = .88$ ($N = 102$)
SMAS: DSI	$r = .87^{**}$ ($n = 35$)	$\alpha = .77$ ($N = 102$)

Note. SPECS = Satisfaction with Prior Experience in Counseling Scale; CCS = Cultural Congruity Scale (Gloria & Robinson Kurpius, 1996); SMAS: ESI = Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale: Ethnic Society Immersion (Stephenson, 2000); SMAS: DSI = Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale: Dominant Society Immersion (Stephenson, 2000).

$^{**}p < .01$.

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Table 9

Reliability Coefficients for Predictor Measures

Instrument	Test-Retest	Internal Consistency
RSE	$r = .90^{**}$ ($n = 35$)	$\alpha = .69$ ($N = 102$)
CASQ-R	$r = .88^{**}$ ($n = 35$)	$\alpha = .57$ ($N = 102$)
PSI	$r = .87^{**}$ ($n = 35$)	$\alpha = .90$ ($N = 102$)

Note. RSE = Rosenberg Self-Esteem Inventory (Rosenberg, 1965); CASQ-R = Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire-Revised (Thompson et al., 1998); PSI = Problem Solving Inventory (Heppner & Petersen, 1982).

$^{**}p < .01$.

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Table 10

Reliability Coefficients for Criterion Measures

Instrument	Test-Retest (n = 35)	Internal Consistency
Total EAC-B	$r = .87^{**}$	$\alpha = .96$
Factor PC	$r = .80^{**}$	$\alpha = .94$
Factor FC	$r = .92^{**}$	$\alpha = .92$
Factor CE	$r = .70^{**}$	$\alpha = .81$
Factor Nurt	$r = .88^{**}$	$\alpha = .85$

Note. Total EAC-B = total score on Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (Tinsley, 1982); Factor PC = Personal Commitment factor score on the EAC-B; Factor FC = Facilitative Conditions factor score on the EAC-B; Factor CE = Counselor Expertise score on the EAC-B; Factor Nurt = Nurturance Factor score on the EAC-B.

$^{**}p < .01$.

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Estimates of internal consistency for the background measures ranged from Cronbach $\alpha = .70$ to .90, while test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from .75 to .92. The scale assessing satisfaction with prior experience in counseling yielded an α of .90 and a test-retest *r* of .92, $p < .01$. The Cultural Congruity Scale (CCS; Gloria & Robinson Kurpius, 1996) yielded an α of .70 and a test-retest *r* of .75, $p < .01$. The Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS; Stephenson, 2002) yielded an α of .88 and an *r* of .83, $p < .01$, on the Ethnic Society Immersion Scale (ESI) and an α of .77 and an *r* of .87, $p < .01$ on the Dominant Society Immersion Scale (DSI).

Estimates of internal consistency for the predictor variables ranged from Cronbach $\alpha = .57$ to .90, while test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from .87 to .90. The Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale (RSE; Rosenberg, 1975) yielded an α of .69 and a test-retest *r* of .90, $p < .01$. The Children's Attributional Style Questionnaire-Revised (CASQ-R; Thompson et al., 1998) yielded an α of .57 and a test-retest *r* of .88, $p < .01$. The Problem Solving Inventory (PSI; Heppner & Petersen, 1982) yielded an α of .90 and a test-retest *r* of .87, $p < .01$. When there is a large difference between the test-retest *r* and the α of an instrument—with the test-retest *r* being higher—as was the case for the RSE (Rosenberg, 1975) and the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), it is possible that the instrument is measuring more than one factor (A. Gross, personal communication, April 18, 2005).

Finally, estimates of internal consistency reliability for the criterion variables ranged from $\alpha = .81$ to .96, while test-retest reliability coefficients ranged from .70 to .92. Total scores on the Expectations About Counseling-Brief Form (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) yielded an α of .96 and a test-retest *r* of .87, $p < .01$. Scores on the Personal Commitment factor of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) yielded an α of .94 and a test-retest *r* of .80, $p < .01$. Scores on the Facilitative Conditions factor of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) yielded an α of .92 and a test-

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retest r of .92, $p < .01$. Scores on the Personal Commitment factor of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) yielded an α of .81 and a test-retest r of .70, $p < .01$. Scores on the Personal Commitment factor of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) yielded an α of .88 and a test-retest r of .80, $p < .01$.

Supplementary Analyses

Relationships Between Background Variables and Predictor Variables

The first supplementary analysis was conducted to investigate the relationship between background variables and predictor variables. Several significant relationships were found. In terms of continuous background variables, ethnic society immersion, as measured by the SMAS (Stephenson, 2002) was a significant predictor of self-esteem, as measured by the RSE (Rosenberg, 1975), $r = .25, p < .05$. This relationship was direct: as ethnic society immersion increased, self-esteem increased as well. Dominant society immersion, as measured by the SMAS (Stephenson, 2002), was a significant predictor of attributional style, as measured by the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998), $r = .29, p < .01$ and of problem-solving appraisal, as measured by the PSI (Heppner & Petersen, 1982), $r = .21, p < .05$. These relationships were direct as well: as dominant society immersion increased, attributional style became more positive and problem-solving skills were rated more positively.

A series of regression analyses was also carried out to investigate whether there were any significant relationships between the categorical background variables and the predictor variables. In the course of these analyses, prior experience in counseling was found to be a significant predictor of problem-solving appraisal, as measured by the PSI (Heppner & Petersen, 1982): regression coefficient = .26. Those students with prior experience in

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counseling viewed themselves as better problem solvers (M = 142.65, SD = 22.21) than those without such experience (M = 130.81, SD = 17.81), t = 2.65, p < .01.

Relationships Between Background Variables and Criterion Variables

Another series of regression analyses was carried out to investigate whether there were significant relationships between the categorical background variables and the criterion variables, with two significant relationships emerging. Both gender (R = .20) and generation (R = .22) were found to be significant predictors of the Personal Commitment factor score on the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982). Males (M = 4.78, SD = 1.12) scored lower than females (M = 5.31, SD = .96) on their expectations for Personal Commitment, t = 2.10, p < .05, while the mean Personal Commitment factor score of students born outside the United States and first generation students (M = 5.11, SD = 1.04) was lower than the mean Personal Commitment factor score of students who are second generation, third generation and beyond (M = 5.70, SD = .66), t = 2.25, p < .05.

No significant relationships were found between any of the continuous background variables (SES, age, satisfaction with prior experience in counseling, cultural congruity, ethnic society immersion, dominant society immersion) and any of the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) criterion scores. It remains unknown if SES would have emerged as a significant predictor of counseling expectations if the range of scores on the Hollingshead (1975) had been wider or if a more up-to-date instrument were available with which to assess SES.

Significance of Predictors Above and Beyond the Background Characteristics

Background variables correlating with predictor variables were entered into separate equations representing the hypotheses, one at a time. When the relationship of counseling expectations (expectations for personal commitment, expectations for facilitative conditions, and expectations for nurturance, and overall counseling expectations) to attributional style

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and dominant society immersion was investigated, none of the models yielded significant multiple correlations. However, when the relationship of expectations for facilitative conditions to self-esteem and ethnic society immersion was investigated, entering both variables yielded a multiple correlation of .28. An overall F test of the hypothesis that the regression weights for the predictor variables were all zero was rejected, $F\ (2, 99) = 4.20, p < .05$. T-tests on the statistical significance of each regression weight supported the conclusion that only self-esteem, $t\ (99) = 2.83, p < .01$, and not ethnic society immersion, was a significant predictor of expectations for facilitative conditions. These results illustrate a case in which the predictor remained useful, above and beyond the background variable, in predicting counseling expectations.

Background variables with significant relationships to criterion variables were also entered in to separate equations representing the relevant confirmed hypotheses. First, the relationship of attributional style to expectations for personal commitment and gender was investigated. Entering both variables yielded a multiple correlation of .28. An overall F test of the hypothesis that the regression weights for the predictor variables were all zero was rejected, $F\ (2, 99) = 4.36, p < .05$. T-tests on the statistical significance of each regression weight supported the conclusion that only attributional style, $t\ (99) = 2.83, p < .01$, and not gender, was a significant predictor of expectations for personal commitment. These results illustrate another case in which the predictor remained useful, above and beyond the background variable, in predicting counseling expectations.

The relationship of attributional style to expectations for personal commitment and generation was investigated next. Entering both variables yielded a multiple correlation of .31. An overall F test of the hypothesis that the regression weights for the predictor variables were all zero was rejected, $F\ (2,99) = 5.14, p < .01$. T-tests on the statistical

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significance of each regression weight supported the conclusion that both attributional style, *t* (99) = 2.24, $p < .05$, and generation, $t = 2.31$, $p < .05$, were significant predictors of expectations for personal commitment. These results illustrate a case in which the predictor remained useful along with the background variable in predicting counseling expectations.

Interactions

Because it was suspected that the relationship of the predictor variables to the criterion variables might be moderated by certain background variables (SES, cultural congruity, level of acculturation, gender and prior counseling experience), a third supplementary analysis was conducted to investigate the presence of interactions between these background variables and self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal in predicting overall counseling expectations (total EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) and more specific kinds of counseling expectations (EAC-B factor scores; Tinsley, 1982). Interactions (described in detail below) emerged between each predictor variable and ethnic society immersion. These interactions are summarized in Tables 11 through 13.

Self-esteem and ethnic society immersion. Self-esteem, as measured by the RSE (Rosenberg, 1965) and each background variable under investigation were centered and included in separate regression models with their cross-product term. Each set of analyses was then run five times, once for each criterion variable. During these analyses, three significant interactions emerged between self-esteem and ethnic society immersion (ESI), as measured by the SMAS (Stephenson, 2002), in predicting: (a) overall counseling expectations (total EAC-B scores), (b) expectations for facilitative conditions (Facilitative Conditions factor), and (c) expectations for nurturance (Nurturance factor).

The investigation into the relationship of overall counseling expectations to self-esteem, ethnic society immersion, and the cross product term yielded a sample multiple

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correlation of .32. An overall F test of the hypothesis that the regression weights for the predictor variables are all zero was rejected, $F(3, 98) = 3.60, p < .01$. T-tests on the statistical significance of each regression weight supported the conclusion that both self-esteem, $t(98) = 2.02, p < .05$, and the cross product of self-esteem with ethnic society immersion, $t(98) = 2.57, p < .05$, were important predictor variables. Recalculating the regression analysis with these two variables yielded a multiple correlation of .31. This time, t-tests on the statistical significance of each regression weight supported the conclusion that only the cross product of self-esteem with ethnic society immersion was an important predictor variable, $t(98) = 2.71, p < .01$. Recalculating the regression analysis once again with only this variable yielded an R of .25. The estimated regression model is given as follows:

E(y: total EAC-B) = 269.51 + .30 (self-esteem * ethnic society immersion).

For those who were 1 *SD* below the mean in ethnic society immersion (ESI = -10.6):

E(y: total EAC-B) = 269.51 - 3.18 (self-esteem).

For those who were 1 *SD* above the mean in ethnic society immersion (ESI = 10.6):

E(y: total EAC-B) = 269.51 + 3.18 (self-esteem).

For those who were lower in ethnic society immersion, there was an inverse relationship between self-esteem and expectations for counseling, and for those who were higher in ethnic society immersion, there was a direct relationship between self-esteem and expectations for counseling (see Figure 1). Therefore, for those higher in ethnic society immersion, as self-esteem decreased, total expectations for counseling also decreased.

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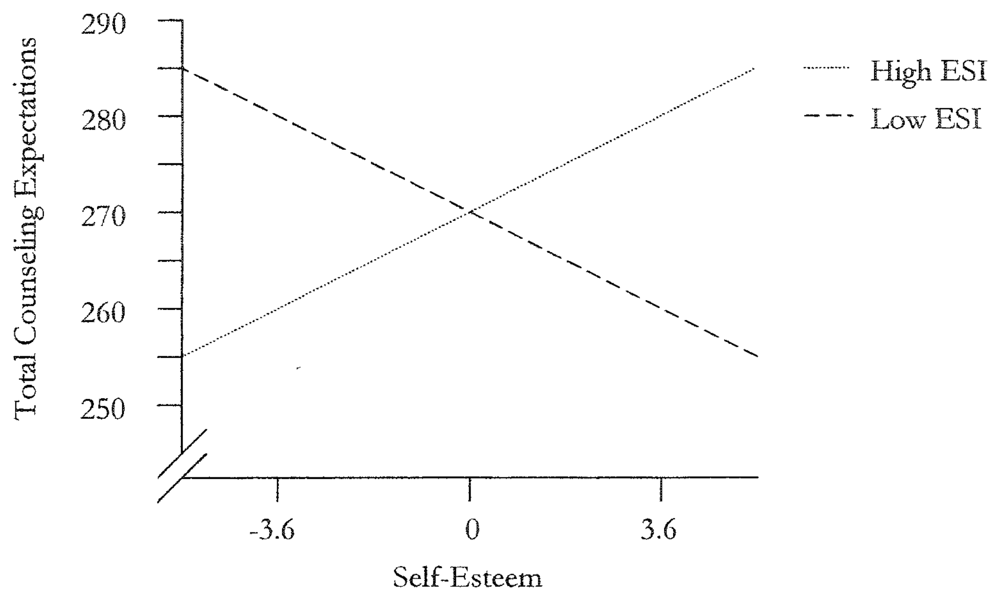

Figure 1. Total counseling expectations (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) as a function of self-esteem (RSE; Rosenberg, 1965) and ethnic society immersion (ESI, SMAS; Stephenson, 2002)

The investigation into the relationship of expectations for facilitative conditions (FC factor score of EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) to self-esteem, ethnic society immersion, and the cross product term yielded a sample multiple correlation of .39. An overall F test of the hypothesis that the regression weights for the predictor variables are all zero was rejected, $F(3, 98) = 5.84, p < .01$. T-tests on the statistical significance of each regression weight supported the conclusion that both self-esteem, $t(98) = 3.02, p < .01$, and the cross product of self-esteem with ethnic society immersion, $t(98) = 2.91, p < .01$, were important predictor variables. Recalculating the regression analysis with these two variables yielded a multiple correlation of .38. The estimated regression model is given as follows:

E(y: FC factor) = 5.42 + .08 (self-esteem) + .01 (self-esteem * ethnic society immersion).

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For those who were 1 *SD* below the mean in ethnic society immersion (ESI = -10.6):

$$E(y: \text{FC factor}) = 5.42 - .03 \text{ (self-esteem)}.$$

For those were at the mean in ethnic society immersion (ESI = 0):

$$E(y: \text{FC factor}) = 5.42 + .08 \text{ (self-esteem)}.$$

For those who were 1 *SD* above the mean in ethnic society immersion (ESI = 10.6):

$$E(y: \text{FC factor}) = 5.42 + .19 \text{ (self-esteem)}.$$

It is clear from the above equations the relationship between self-esteem and expectations for facilitative conditions was moderated by ethnic society immersion (see Figure 2). For those who were lower in ESI, there was an inverse relationship between self-esteem and expectations for facilitative conditions: as self-esteem increased, expectations for facilitative conditions decreased. For those who were closer to the mean in ESI, there was a direct relationship between self-esteem and expectations for facilitative conditions: as self-esteem increased, expectations for facilitative conditions increased. Furthermore, the rate of increase in expectations with self-esteem increased with increasing ESI. In other words, among those higher in ESI, higher degrees of self-esteem appeared to be more strongly related to more positive expectations for facilitative conditions. Thus, for those highest in ethnic society immersion, as self-esteem decreased, expectations for facilitative conditions also decreased most sharply.

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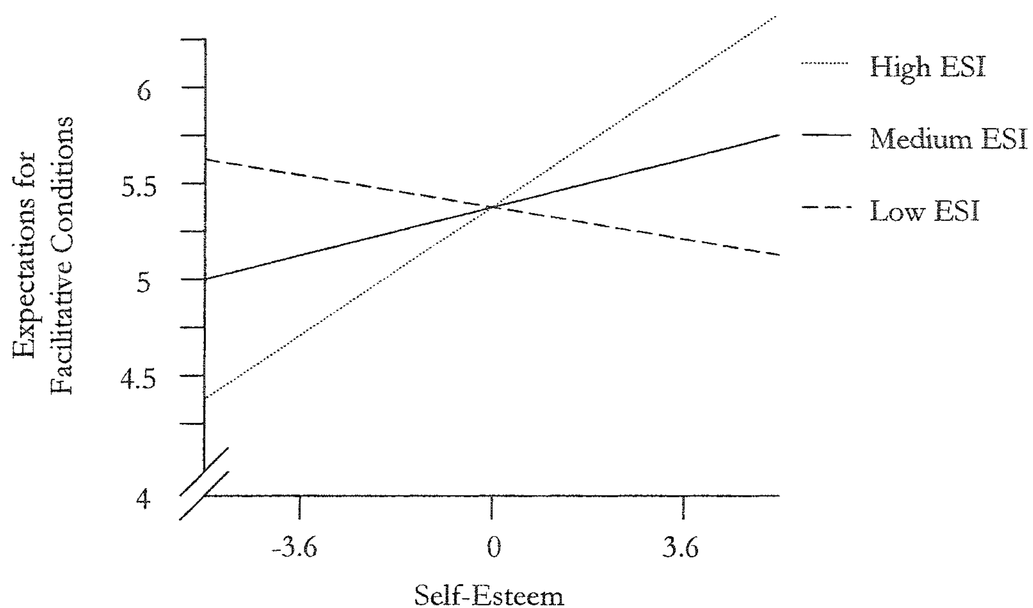

Figure 2. Expectations for Facilitative Conditions (FC factor, EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) as a function of self-esteem (RSE; Rosenberg, 1965) and ethnic society immersion (ESI, SMAS; Stephenson, 2002)

The investigation into the relationship of expectations for nurturance to self-esteem, ethnic society immersion, and the cross product term yielded a sample multiple correlation of .33. An overall F test of the hypothesis that the regression weights for the predictor variables are all zero was rejected, $F\,(3, 98) = 4.09, p < .01$. T-tests on the statistical significance of each regression weight supported the conclusion that the cross product of self-esteem with ethnic society immersion was an important predictor variable, $t\,(98) = 2.91$, $p < .01$. Recalculating the regression analysis with this variable yielded an R of .28. The estimated regression model is given as follows:

E(y: Nurturance factor) = 4.62 + .01 (self-esteem * ethnic society immersion).

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For those who were 1 *SD* below the mean in ethnic society immersion (-10.6):

E(y: Nurturance factor) = 4.62 - .11 (self-esteem).

For those who were 1 *SD* above the mean in ethnic society immersion (10.6):

E(y: Nurturance factor) = 4.62 + .11 (self-esteem).

It is clear from the above equations that the relationship between self-esteem and expectations for nurturance was moderated by ethnic society immersion (see Figure 3). For those who were lower in ESI, there was an inverse relationship between self-esteem and expectations for nurturance: as self-esteem increased, expectations for nurturance decreased. For those who were higher in ESI, there was a direct relationship between self-esteem and expectations for nurturance: as self-esteem increased, expectations for nurturance also increased.

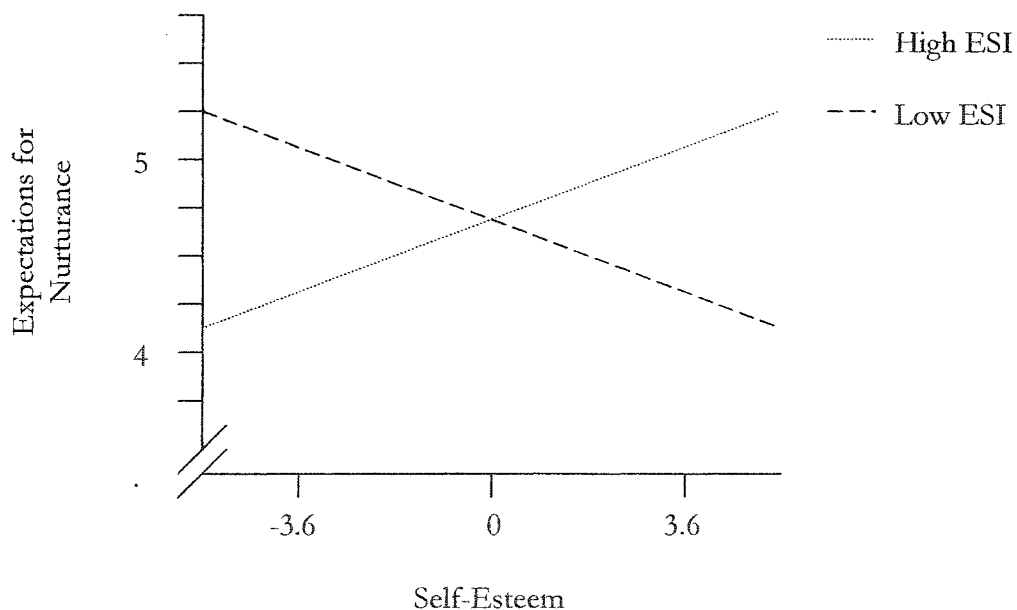

Figure 3. Expectations for Nurturance (Nurturance factor, EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) as a function of self-esteem (RSE; Rosenberg, 1965) and ethnic society immersion (ESI; SMAS; Stephenson, 2002)

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Attributional style and ethnic society immersion. Attributional style, as measured by the CASQ-R (Thompson et al., 1998) and each background variable under investigation were centered and included in separate regression models with their cross-product term. Each set of analyses was then run five times, once for each criterion variable. During these analyses, two significant interactions emerged between attributional style and ethnic society immersion (ESI), as measured by the SMAS (Stephenson, 2002), in predicting: (a) overall counseling expectations (total EAC-B scores), and (b) expectations for personal commitment (Personal Commitment factor).

The investigation into the relationship of overall counseling expectations to attributional style, ethnic society immersion, and the cross product term yielded a sample multiple correlation of .32. An overall F test of the hypothesis that the regression weights for the predictor variables are all zero was rejected, $F\,(3, 98) = 3.74, p < .05$. T-tests on the statistical significance of each regression weight supported the conclusion that both attributional style, $t\,(98) = 2.59, p < .05$, and the cross product of attributional style with ethnic society immersion, $t\,(98) = 2.26, p < .05$, were important predictor variables. Recalculating the regression analysis with these two variables yielded a multiple correlation of .31. The estimated regression model is given as follows:

E(y: total EAC-B) = 270.67 + 3.11 (attributional style) +

.26 (attributional style*ethnic society immersion).

For those who were 1 *SD* below the mean in ethnic society immersion (-10.6):

E(y: total EAC-B) = 270.67 + .35 (attributional style).

For those who were at the mean in ethnic society immersion-centered (0)

E(y: total EAC-B) = 270.67 + 3.11 (attributional style).

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For those who are 1 *SD* above the mean in ethnic society immersion-centered (10.6):

E(y: total EAC-B) = 270.67 + 5.87 (attributional style).

It is clear from the above equations that the relationships between attributional style and overall expectations for counseling was moderated by ethnic society immersion (see Figure 4). For all individuals, regardless of ESI, there was a direct relationship between attributional style and overall expectations for counseling: as attributional style became more positive, overall expectations for counseling became more positive as well. However, the rate of increase in expectations with attributional style increased with increasing ESI. In other words, among those who were higher in ESI, more positive attributional style appeared to be more strongly related to more positive overall counseling expectations. Among these individuals, as attributional style became more negative (and more depressive), overall expectations for the counseling relationship sharply decreased.

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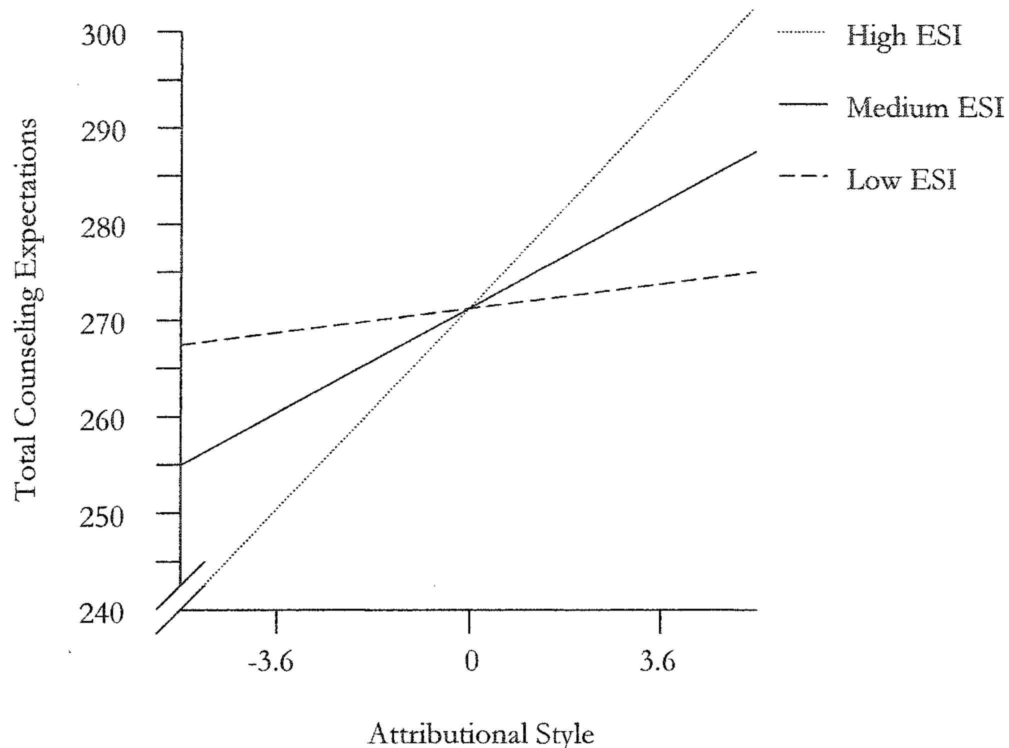

Figure 4. Total counseling expectations (EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) as a function of attributional style (CASQ-R; Thompson et al., 1998) and ethnic society immersion (ESI, SMAS; Stephenson, 2000).

The investigation into the relationship of expectations for personal commitment (PC factor) to attributional style, ethnic society immersion, and the cross product term yielded a sample multiple correlation of .31. An overall F test of the hypothesis that the regression weights for the predictor variables are all zero was rejected, $F\ (3{,}98) = 3.44, p < .05$. T-tests on the statistical significance of each regression weight supported the conclusion that both attributional style, $t\ (98) = 2.52, p < .05$, and the cross product of attributional style with ethnic society immersion, $t\ (98) = 2.03, p < .05$, were important predictor variables.

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Recalculating the regression analysis with these two variables yielded a multiple correlation of .30. The estimated regression model is given as follows:

$$E(y:\ \text{PC factor}) = 5.18 + .07\ (\text{attributional style}) + .01\ (\text{attributional style} * \text{ethnic society immersion}).$$

For those who were 1 *SD* below the mean in ethnic society immersion (-10.6):

$$E(y:\ \text{PC factor}) = 5.18 - .04\ (\text{attributional style}).$$

For those who were at the mean in ethnic society immersion (0)

$$E(y:\ \text{PC factor}) = 5.18 + .07\ (\text{attributional style}).$$

For those who were 1 SD above the mean in ethnic society immersion (10.6):

$$E(y:\ \text{PC factor}) = 5.18 + .18\ (\text{attributional style}).$$

It is clear from the above equations the relationships between attributional style and expectations for personal commitment was moderated by ethnic society immersion (see Figure 5). For those who were lower in ESI, there was an inverse relationship between attributional style and expectations for personal commitment. Among these individuals, as attributional style became more positive, expectations for personal commitment decreased. Among those who were medium and higher in ESI, there was a direct relationship between attributional style and expectations for personal commitment: as attributional style became more positive, expectations for personal commitment became more positive as well. However, the rate of increase in expectations with attributional style increased with increasing ESI. In other words, among those who were higher in ESI, more positive attributional style appeared to be more strongly related to more positive expectations for personal commitment. Among these individuals, as attributional style became more negative (and more depressive), expectations for personal commitment within the counseling relationship sharply decreased.

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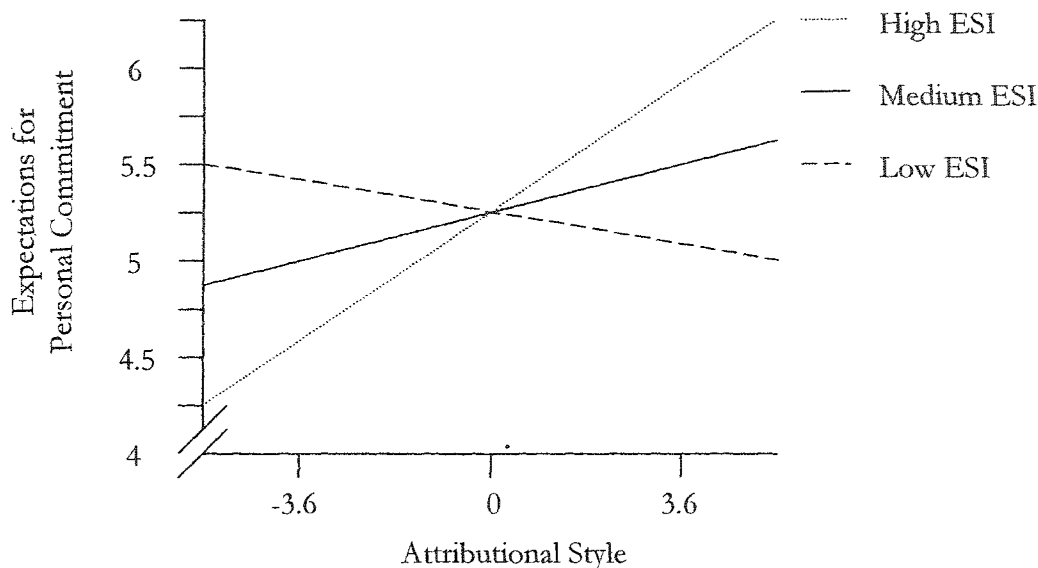

Figure 5. Expectations for personal commitment (PC factor, EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) as a function of attributional style (CASQ-R; Thompson et al., 1998) and ethnic society immersion (ESI, SMAS; Stephenson, 2000).

Problem-solving appraisal and ethnic society immersion. Problem-solving appraisal, as measured by the PSI (Heppner & Petersen, 1982) and each background variable under investigation were centered and included in separate regression models with their cross-product term. Each set of analyses was then run five times, once for each criterion variable. During these analyses, one significant interaction emerged between problem-solving appraisal and ethnic society immersion (ESI), as measured by the SMAS (Stephenson, 2002) in predicting expectations for counselor expertise.

This investigation into the relationship of expectations for counselor expertise (CE factor) to problem-solving appraisal, ethnic society immersion, and the cross product term

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yielded a sample multiple correlation of .32. An overall F test of the hypothesis that the regression weights for the predictor variables are all zero was rejected, $F(3,98) = 3.62$, $p < .05$. T-tests on the statistical significance of each regression weight supported the conclusion that both problem-solving appraisal, $t(98) = -2.03$, $p < .05$, and the cross product of problem-solving appraisal with ethnic society immersion, $t(98) = -2.97$, $p < .01$, were important predictor variables. Recalculating the regression analysis with these two variables yielded a multiple correlation of .32. The estimated regression model is given as follows:

E(y: CE factor) = 4.68 - .01 (problem-solving appraisal)

- .002 (problem-solving appraisal * ethnic society immersion).

For those who were 1 *SD* below the mean in ethnic society immersion (-10.6):

E(y: CE factor) = 4.68 + .01 (problem-solving appraisal).

For those who were at the mean in ethnic society immersion (0):

E(y: CE factor) = 4.68 - .01 (problem-solving appraisal).

For those who were 1 SD above the mean in ethnic society immersion (10.6):

E(y: CE factor) = 4.68 - .03 (problem-solving appraisal).

It is clear from the above equations the relationships between problem-solving appraisal and expectations for counselor expertise was moderated by ethnic society immersion (see Figure 6). Among those who were medium and higher in ESI, there was an inverse relationship between problem-solving appraisal and expectations for counselor expertise: as problem-solving appraisal became more positive, expectations for counselor expertise became less positive. For those who were lower in ESI, there was a direct relationship between problem-solving appraisal and expectations for counselor expertise. Among this group, as problem-solving appraisal became more negative, expectations for counselor expertise decreased.

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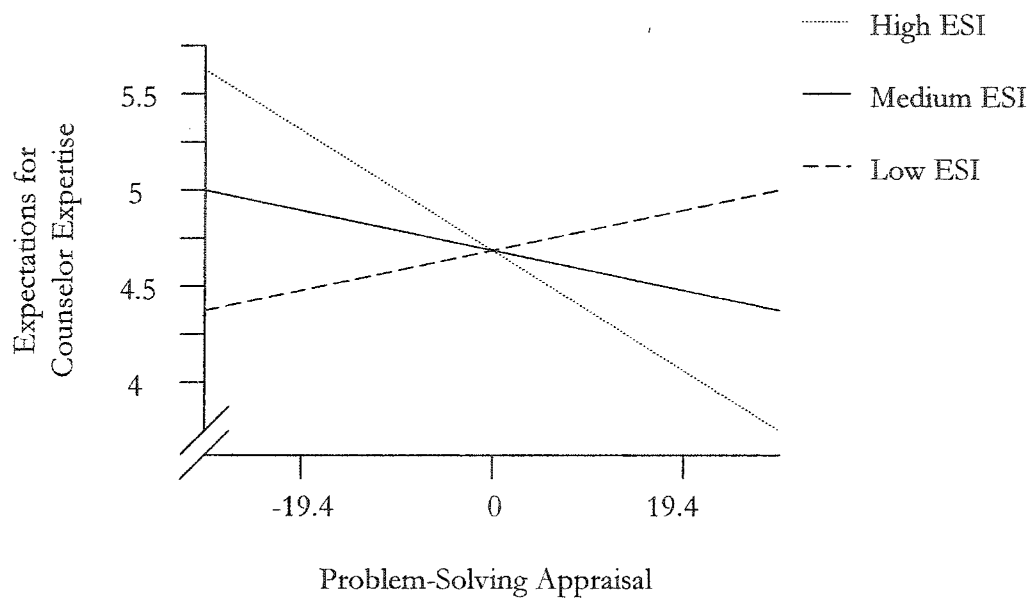

Figure 6. Expectations for counselor expertise (CE factor, EAC-B; Tinsley, 1982) as a function of problem-solving appraisal (PSI; Heppner & Petersen, 1982) and ethnic society immersion (ESI, SMAS; Stephenson, 2000).

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Table 11

Relationship of Counseling Expectations to Predictor Variables Among Participants Lower in Ethnic Society Immersion (ESI)

ESI Level	Relationship of Counseling Expectations to Individual Characteristics
Low ESI	Lower self-esteem contributed to:
	-higher overall counseling expectations (total EAC-B)
	-higher expectations for the counseling process (Facilitative Conditions)
	-higher expectations for counselor nurturance (Nurturance)
	A more depressive attributional style contributed to:
	-lower overall counseling expectations (total EAC-B)
	-higher expectations for client personal commitment (Personal Commitment)
	A more negative view of oneself as a problem solver contributed to:
	-lower expectations regarding counselor's ability to help (Counselor Expertise)

Note. ESI = Ethnic Society Immersion, measured by the Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS; Stephenson, 2000).

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Table 12

Relationship of Counseling Expectations to Predictor Variables Among Participants of Medium Ethnic Society Immersion (ESI)

ESI Level	Relationship of Counseling Expectations to Individual Characteristics
Medium ESI	Lower self-esteem contributed to: -lower expectations for the counseling process (Facilitative Conditions)
	A more depressive attributional style contributed to: -lower overall counseling expectations (total EAC-B)[a] -lower expectations for client personal commitment (Personal Commitment)
	A more negative view of oneself as a problem solver contributed to: -higher expectations regarding counselor's ability to help (Counselor Expertise)

Note. ESI = Ethnic Society Immersion, measured by the Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS; Stephenson, 2000).

[a]The relationship between attributional style and overall counseling expectations is stronger for individuals of medium ESI than for those lower in ESI.

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Table 13

Relationship of Counseling Expectations to Predictor Variables Among Participants Higher in Ethnic Society Immersion (ESI)

ESI Level	Relationship of Counseling Expectations to Individual Characteristics
High ESI	Lower self-esteem contributed to:
	-lower overall counseling expectations (total EAC-B)
	-lower expectations for the counseling process (Facilitative Conditions)[a]
	-lower expectations for counselor nurturance (Nurturance)
	A more depressive attributional style contributed to:
	-lower overall counseling expectations (total EAC-B)[b]
	-lower expectations for client personal commitment (Personal Commitment)[c]
	A more negative view of oneself as a problem solver contributed to:
	-higher expectations regarding counselor's ability to help (Counselor Expertise)[d]

Note. ESI = Ethnic Society Immersion, measured by the Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS; Stephenson, 2000).

[a,b,c,d]Each of these relationships is stronger for individuals higher in ESI than for those of medium ESI.

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CHAPTER IV

Discussion

The primary goal of this dissertation study was to examine the relationship between counseling expectations and three predictor variables—self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal—among a sample of first-year college students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds (primarily Hispanic and African American) who participated in an Opportunity Program on their university's campus. The results of this study are discussed below, along with the implications of this study's findings for counselors and school psychologists, limitations of the study, and directions for future research.

Overview and Interpretation of Findings

This section will consist of an overview and interpretation of the circumstances under which self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal were useful predictors of counseling expectations in this sample. What such relationships may mean for the counseling relationship will be discussed in this section as well.

The important role of ethnic society immersion. A number of significant relationships were found between counseling expectations and two of the predictor variables, self-esteem and attributional style. However, when ethnic society immersion—the extent to which the students identified with their ethnic group of origin (e.g., spoke their native language at home, kept in close contact with family members in their native country)—was taken into account, a much more nuanced and comprehensive picture of the relationship between counseling expectations and all three of the predictor variables (self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal) emerged. This picture is presented below, within the context of five different types of counseling expectations: expectations for personal commitment, expectations for facilitative conditions, expectations for nurturance,

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expectations for counselor expertise, and overall expectations for the counseling relationship.

Expectations for personal commitment. Expectations for personal commitment are expectations potential clients have regarding how involved, motivated, and responsible they will be within the counseling relationship (Tinsley, 1982). Individuals who score very high in this area may expect that in order to get better, they need to bring a compulsiveness or perfectionism to the counseling relationship (Tinsley et al., 1980). Individuals with very low personal commitment scores, on the other hand, may expect that as clients, they don't have to put in much time or much effort to the counseling process in order to see improvement (Tinsley et al., 1980).

The results from the current study suggest that, among individuals sharing characteristics with the sample, ethnic society immersion acts as a moderator variable between expectations for personal commitment and attributional style. When participants in the study were less immersed in their ethnic society of origin (i.e., had lower ESI scores), a more depressive attributional style—the tendency to see the causes of negative events as internal, stable, and consistent across time—contributed to higher expectations for personal commitment. When participants in the study were more highly immersed in their ethnic society of origin (i.e., had higher ESI scores), as attributional style became more depressive, expectations decreased sharply. This finding suggests that individuals with higher ESI who also have a depressive attributional style may have lower expectations for personal commitment, and, consequently, may put less personal effort into counseling (Tinsley et al., 1980). It might be expected, for example, that clients with higher ESI and more depressive attributional styles would be less likely to do homework assigned by their counselors than other clients.

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Expectations for facilitative conditions. Expectations for facilitative conditions are expectations potential clients have regarding the characteristics of the counselor and the counseling process that are helpful in promoting therapeutic personality changes (Tinsley et al., 1980). When individuals have expectations in this area that are too high, they may expect that the counselor will behave in an idealistic fashion. On the other hand, when individuals have expectations in this area that are too low, they may expect that counselors are not to be relied upon; in anticipation of this, they may be especially guarded and untrusting (Tinsley et al., 1980).

The results suggest that, among individuals sharing characteristics with the sample, ethnic society immersion serves as a moderator variable between self-esteem and expectations for facilitative conditions. The strongest relationship between self-esteem and expectations for facilitative conditions was associated with higher ESI scores. A combination of higher ESI and lower self-esteem scores was related to decreased counseling expectations. Thus, individuals with lower self-esteem who are also highly immersed in their ethnic group of origin would tend to have lower expectations for facilitative counseling conditions. In other words, they would be less trusting of their counselors and have trouble believing that their counselors could be relied upon to help (Tinsley et al., 1980). As a result, they might not share important information with counselors, making it difficult for counselors to know the extent of their problems.

The results also suggest that regardless of whether participants were lower or higher in ESI, as attributional style became more depressive, expectations for facilitative conditions decreased. This was the first of two significant relationships found between an individual characteristic and counseling expectations that was not moderated by ESI. This finding tells us that individuals with a depressive attributional style who share background characteristics

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with the sample may also have lower expectations for facilitative conditions within the counseling relationship. As previously indicated, this expectation may make it difficult for counselors to gain information about client problems needed to formulate a treatment plan.

Expectations for nurturance. Expectations for nurturance are the expectations potential counseling clients have about the counselor's level of supportiveness and acceptance (Tinsley, 1982). When counseling expectations in this area are extremely high, clients may expect the counseling process to be akin to escaping to a warm and safe environment (Tinsley et al., 1980). When counseling expectations in this area are too low, clients may have difficulty believing that the counselor cares about them (Tinsley et al., 1980).

The results suggest that, among individuals sharing characteristics with this sample, ethnic society immersion serves as a moderator variable between self-esteem and expectations for nurturance. Lower ESI scores and lower self-esteem scores contributed to higher expectations for counselor nurturance, whereas higher ESI scores and lower self-esteem scores contributed to lower expectations for counselor nurturance.

The data analysis also revealed that, for individuals sharing characteristics with the sample, a depressive attributional style contributed to lower expectations for nurturance. This was the second of two significant relationships found between counseling expectations and an individual characteristic that was not moderated by ESI. This particular finding suggests that those individuals—regardless of ESI—who see the causes of negative events as internal, stable, and consistent across time may have difficulty believing that their counselor will be a supportive figure in their lives.

Expectations for counselor expertise. Expectations for counselor expertise are expectations potential clients have about the counselor's ability to help. When expectations for counselor expertise are too high, individuals may expect that the counselor will

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understand their feelings completely, will always be able to figure out what is wrong, and will tell them exactly what to do. Expectations for counselor expertise that are too low may be a sign that a potential client is pessimistic regarding the likelihood that the counselor will be helpful (Tinsley et al., 1980).

The results of the study suggest that, among individuals sharing characteristics with the sample, ethnic society immersion acts as a moderator variable between problem-solving appraisal and expectations for counselor expertise. Lower ESI and a more negative problem-solving appraisal were associated with lower expectations for counselor expertise. Higher ESI and lower problem-solving appraisal, on the other hand, were associated with higher expectations for counselor expertise. These results suggest that lower problem-solving appraisal, along with either higher or lower immersion in one's culture of origin, may be associated with unrealistic expectations of counselors that could potentially doom the counseling relationship.

Overall counseling expectations. Overall counseling expectations are expectations potential clients have regarding the extent to which the counseling experience will be a positive and beneficial one. Such expectations encompass expectations about counselor and client roles, the counseling process, and outcome (Tinsley, 1982). Overall counseling expectations that are too low or too high may be detrimental to the counseling relationship.

The results of the study suggest that ethnic society immersion serves as a moderator variable between the relationship of overall counseling expectations to both self-esteem and to attributional style. In terms of the relationship of overall counseling expectations to self-esteem: among individuals sharing characteristics with the sample who were lower in ESI, as self-esteem dropped, overall expectations increased. On the other hand, for those individuals who were higher in ESI, as self-esteem dropped, overall expectations decreased.

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A similar finding emerged for individuals higher in ESI with regard to attributional style. For these individuals, as attributional style became more depressive, overall counseling expectations rapidly sank.

Summary. Ethnic society immersion emerged as an important moderator variable for a number of relationships between the participants' counseling expectations and their individual traits. The hypotheses advanced in this dissertation—that self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal would be positively related to counseling expectations—tended to be more supported for participants with higher ESI scores than for participants with lower ESI scores. If these results are typical of students with similar descriptive characteristics, they indicate that students from ethnic and racial minority backgrounds who are more immersed in their own culture responded to the measures used in this study in a manner that is predicted by previous research (Winograd, 2003) on potential Caucasian counselees.

Students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds who are not as immersed in their own culture, however, may have different expectations for counseling, relative to their self-esteem, problem solving-appraisal, and attributional style, than those predicted by the current literature. If counselor beliefs about client expectations, which may be based on this research literature, and actual client counseling expectations are at odds, clients may not become engaged in the counseling process in a satisfactory manner (G. S. Tryon, personal communication, March 26, 2005).

Implications

Tinsley et al. (1980) have suggested that moderately high expectations in each of the areas measured by the EAC-B (Tinsley, 1982) are most conducive to a positive counseling experience on the part of the client as well as a good prognosis. If client counseling

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expectations are too high, neither the counselor nor the counseling process may be able to fulfill them. On the other hand, if client counseling expectations are too low, the client may not think that counseling is a worthwhile undertaking. In either case, it's a good idea to address client expectations early on, to work to reshape them into something more realistic, and then—perhaps most importantly—to meet them. Trainers of school and counseling psychologists might consider incorporating some of the suggestions outlined below in courses in which students learn counseling techniques.

Heilbrun (1972) has suggested that precontact information about counseling may contribute to more accurate counseling expectations. An orientation to counseling might involve a discussion about counselor and client roles, the counseling process, and possible outcomes, as well as information regarding the availability and logistics of actual counseling services. For students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds who are beginning their college careers, such an orientation might be part of a more general group orientation to academic life. A more individualized orientation might also be given by academic counselors to students who are being referred to the counseling center. Often school psychologists refer students who share characteristics with the sample in this study for outside counseling. Besides referring students for counseling, school psychologists provide counseling for students themselves. Whether they are recommending or initiating counseling services, school psychologists are well-suited to providing an informal counseling orientation to potential clients and their families

Having a sense of a student's counseling expectations prior to the initiation of a counseling relationship can be helpful for a psychologist in the endeavor of helping clients see counseling realistically. However, students may feel uncomfortable being completely forthcoming on an expectations inventory, knowing that their psychologist would see the

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responses. As the results from the study suggest that ethnic society immersion interacts with self-esteem, attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal in predicting counseling expectations, it makes sense to ask students to report on these traits prior to an initial counseling session, in a manner similar to the way that they may report on their symptoms and family health history in a doctor's office.

Psychologists can then use this information to address the clients' personal traits (low self-esteem, depressive attributional style, negative problem-solving appraisal) early on in the counseling relationship. In addressing these traits, psychologists can challenge client thoughts that might lead to lack of engagement and early dropout (G. S. Tryon, personal communication, March 26, 2005). It appears to be especially crucial to address low self-esteem, a depressive attributional style, and problem-solving appraisal early on among those individuals who are higher in ethnic society immersion, as the results suggest that these individuals may tend to have especially high or low counseling expectations.

Psychologists can also use the information provided by students about their level of ethnic society immersion to initiate discussions about how the experiences and feelings for which the students are seeking counseling are generally perceived and treated within the students' community, and how psychological counseling and psychologists are viewed by people close to the client. This may be a helpful context within which to discuss the students' expectations for counseling and to shape the counseling process together.

Discussing each party's expectations for the counseling relationship is part of involving clients in the counseling process at the outset (Greenfield, 1983), setting the stage for a cooperative and therapeutic collaboration (Tryon & Winograd, 2002), and together negotiating a working alliance. In some cases, psychologists might consider adjusting and adapting their own behavior in response to certain expectations clients hold. Discussions

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about counseling expectations can be ongoing and not limited simply to the beginning of the counseling relationship.

Limitations

There are two significant limitations of the current study. The first limitation involves the analogue nature of the research. Participants were not actual counseling center clients; rather, they were asked to pretend that they were about to see a psychologist for a first session. The results of one study (Hardin & Subich, 1985) have suggested there is no difference in counseling expectations between students with and students without experience in counseling, while another study (Richmond, 1984) found that the counseling expectations of nonclients were significantly higher than the counseling expectations of former clients. It remains an unknown whether the individual students who participated in the study would have different expectations if they were actually waiting to see a counselor for a personal problem.

The second limitation of the study involves the characteristics of the sample. Opportunity Program students, especially those who attend competitive universities, are a unique group, most notably with regard to their high level of academic achievement and low level of socio-economic status. A high percentage of Opportunity Program students are the first in their family to go to college. This particular sample was also quite heavily weighted towards female students, did not extend to students from other than African American, Hispanic and biracial backgrounds, and consisted mainly of students who were either born outside the United States or were first generation U.S. citizens. The results may have been different, for example, if this study had been carried out among students from similar racial and ethnic minority backgrounds at the same university who did not participate in the Opportunity Program; if the study had been carried out among students from similar racial

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and ethnic minority backgrounds who attended a public community college; or if the study had been carried out among students from different racial and ethnic minority backgrounds. When generalizing findings, it is important to remember the heterogeneity of racial and ethnic groups in the United States (American Psychological Association, 2003) and not to generalize findings beyond the particular subgroup studied (Alvidrez et al., 1996).

Future Research

Ethnic society immersion was measured in this study in terms of such behaviors as language use, language preference, and interaction with one's ethnic group. Beliefs, values, and norms, however, are also central to a person's ethnic identity (Stephenson, 2000), and may shift over time (Delphin & Rollock, 1995). In light of the finding that ethnic society immersion served as an important moderator variable between individual characteristics and counseling expectations in the current study, and in light of the other research that suggests that racial and ethnic identity may moderate the help-seeking process (Leong et al., 1995), it would be worthwhile to examine the extent to which counseling expectations are predicted by cultural identity on a deeper level.

In addition, the current study looked specifically at role and outcome expectations for counseling. A more complete picture of counseling expectations might incorporate client expectations for additional counselor characteristics not assessed by Tinsley's (1982) EAC-B, such as the counselor's ethnicity, gender, language, theoretical orientation, level of cultural immersion, and worldview. These additional expectations could be investigated with reference to the client's own characteristics and preferences.

To increase the generalizability of the findings, future research should examine the relationship between counseling expectations and the individual characteristics of a more representative group of college or high school students from ethnic and racial minority

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backgrounds. To address the limitations in this study due to its analogue nature, future research might replicate the study's design, but administer the measures to students who were actually waiting to see a counselor. Only then would it be known if the results, to use Arnoff, Glass, and Shapiro's (2002) phrase, "capture clinical reality" (p. 351).

Future research might also assess the effectiveness of counseling orientation programs in raising the counseling expectations of students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds who might benefit from counseling yet who do not expect it to be helpful. In addition, it would be worthwhile to examine whether assessing client characteristics such as attributional style and ethnic society immersion prior to or early on in the counseling relationship would help counselors to address client expectations. Finally, it is important to investigate the extent to which addressing client expectations contributes to engagement in counseling, better working alliances, and improved outcomes for students from ethnic and minority backgrounds.

Conclusion

Students from racial and ethnic minority backgrounds, including those who participate in an Opportunity Program, face unique stressors when they attend college. Formal support services, along with the perception that there are people at the university who can listen and help, facilitate the academic persistence of such students, especially those who are the first in their family to pursue higher education (Gloria & Robinson Kurpius, 1996). This dissertation study was carried out with the hope that its results and implications will contribute to both the mental health and academic success of these students.

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Appendix A

Script for Recruitment of Participants

"My name is Greta Winograd, and I am a graduate student in the Educational Psychology Program at the City University of New York (CUNY) Graduate School and University Center. I am interested in studying how students see themselves, and how they feel about psychological counseling—not the kind of counseling you receive at the Opportunity Programs when you go to see your counselor here, but the kind of counseling you would receive if you went to the counseling center at the university, or if you went to see a psychologist in a private office or clinic for a personal problem. As part of my study, I would like to ask you to fill out some questionnaires during sessions on two separate days. These questionnaires will ask about your expectations and experiences, and will take about 40 minutes to fill out. I will give you $10 for participating in each session. The results of my study will not benefit you directly, but they may broaden people's understanding of students' expectations about and experiences of counseling.

"All information that you give on the questionnaires will be used just for my study. It will be kept confidential, and will be stored in a locked file cabinet in my office. All questionnaires will be coded so that your responses will be identifiable only by number. Your responses will not become part of your school records. My dissertation adviser and myself will be the only ones who see your questionnaires. I may publish results of the study in a scientific journal. No names of people will be used in what I write. If you would like to read the results of the study when it is complete, I will be happy to send you a copy.

"Your participation is entirely voluntary. Whether you participate or not will have no effect on the services you receive here at the Opportunity Programs. You don't have to be in the study and may withdraw from the study at any time without penalty.

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"If you would like to be in the study and you are under 18, take these consent forms home for you and your parent or guardian to read. You must bring a signed parental consent form with you on the day you want to be in the study. If you are 18 or over, take these consent forms home to read over. Anyone who participates in the study will be given a consent form to read and sign when you come to fill out the questionnaires.

"Do you have any questions?"

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Appendix B

Consent Form

You have been invited to take part in a study to learn more about what teenagers think about counseling. This study will be conducted by Greta Winograd, a graduate student in the Educational Psychology Program at the City University of New York (CUNY) Graduate School and University Center, as part of her doctoral dissertation. Her faculty sponsor is Dr. Param Chawla, who can be contacted at _____ University Opportunity Programs, (___) ___-____.

If you agree to be in the study, you will be asked to do following:

1. complete questionnaires about your background (age, gender, education, etc.), expectations, and experiences on one or two occasions;
2. if your counselor is also participating in the study, you will both fill out a brief set of questionnaires after your next meeting together. Neither of you will see the other's responses to these surveys. If you participate in this part of the study, you are granting permission to allow your counselor to report on your counseling session; and
3. if your counselor is also participating in the study, you will allow your counselor to share with the investigator the number of times you visit him or her during the next academic year.

Participation in this study will involve about an hour of your time: 40 minutes to complete the first set of questionnaires, 20 minutes to complete the 2nd set of questionnaires, and 5 minutes to complete the 3rd set of questionnaires. You may find the sensitive nature of some of the questions upsetting. In that event, the researcher will provide you with a referral to a mental health professional.

You will be paid $10 for completing the first set of questionnaires, and $10 for completing the second set of questionnaires. You can participate in the 1st session without participating in the 2nd session; however, you can only participate in the 2nd session if you have participated in the first one. Should you withdraw before completing an entire set of questionnaires, no payment will be given. Although you will receive no direct benefits, this research may help people better understand adolescent expectations for counseling.

The investigator has explained this study to you and answered your questions. If you have additional questions or wish to report a research-related problem, you may contact the researcher at (718)797-1219 or gw2@nyu.edu. For questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the University Committee on Activities Involving Human Subjects, Office of Sponsored Programs, _____ University, (___) ___-____. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Nonparticipation or withdrawal will not affect your grades, academic standing, or the services your receive through _____ University Opportunity Programs.

Confidentiality of your research records will be strictly maintained. Your research records will be stored in a locked file cabinet, and your answers will not become part of your school records. The researcher may publish results of the study in a scientific journal. No names of people or identifying characteristics will be used.

You have received a copy of this consent document to keep. Please sign below if you agree to be in the study, and bring this form when you come to fill out the questionnaires.

Agreement to Participate

Name: (please print): ___________________

Participant's Signature	Investigator's Signature
Date	Date

If you would like a copy of the completed study, please check here: ☐
and write your name, mailing address and/or e-mail address on the attached card.

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Consent Form for Minors

You have been invited to take part in a study to learn more about what teenagers think about counseling. This study will be conducted by Greta Winograd, a graduate student in the Educational Psychology Program at the City University of New York (CUNY) Graduate School and University Center, as part of her doctoral dissertation. Her faculty sponsor is Dr. Param Chawla, who can be contacted at _____ University Opportunity Programs, (___) ___-____.

If you agree to be in the study, you will be asked to do following:

1. complete questionnaires about your background (age, gender, education, etc.), expectations, and experiences on one or two occasions;
2. if your counselor is also participating in the study, you will both fill out a brief set of questionnaires after your next meeting together. Neither of you will see the other's responses to these surveys. If you participate in this part of the study, you are granting permission to allow your counselor to report on your counseling session; and
3. if your counselor is also participating in the study, you will allow your counselor to share with the investigator the number of times you visit him or her during the next academic year.

Participation in this study will involve about an hour of your time: 40 minutes to complete the first set of questionnaires, 20 minutes to complete the 2nd set of questionnaires, and 5 minutes to complete the 3rd set of questionnaires. You may find the sensitive nature of some of the questions upsetting. In that event, the researcher will provide you with a referral to a mental health professional.

You will be paid $10 for completing the first set of questionnaires, and $10 for completing the second set of questionnaires. You can participate in the 1st session without participating in the 2nd session; however, you can only participate in the 2nd session if you have participated in the first one. Should you withdraw before completing an entire set of questionnaires, no payment will be given. Although you will receive no direct benefits, this research may help people better understand adolescent expectations for counseling.

The investigator has explained this study to you and answered your questions. If you have additional questions or wish to report a research-related problem, you may contact the researcher at (718)797-1219 or gw2@nyu.edu. For questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact the University Committee on Activities Involving Human Subjects, Office of Sponsored Programs, _____ University, (___) ___-____. Participation in this study is voluntary. You may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Nonparticipation or withdrawal will not affect your grades, academic standing, or the services your receive through _____ University Opportunity Programs.

Confidentiality of your research records will be strictly maintained with the following exception: the researcher is required by law to report to the appropriate authorities suspicion of harm to yourself, to children, or to others. Your research records will be stored in a locked file cabinet, and your answers will not become part of your school records. The researcher may publish results of the study in a scientific journal. No names of people or identifying characteristics will be used.

You have received a copy of this consent document to keep. Please sign below if you agree to be in the study, and bring this form when you come to fill out the questionnaires.

Agreement to Participate

Name (print): ______________________

Participant's Signature	Investigator's Signature
Date	Date

If you would like a copy of the completed study, please check here: ☐
and write your name, mailing address and/or e-mail address on the attached card.

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Parent Permission Form

Your teenager has been invited to take part in a study to learn more about what teenagers think about counseling. This study will be conducted by Greta Winograd, a graduate student in the Educational Psychology Program at the City University of New York (CUNY) Graduate School and University Center, as part of her doctoral dissertation. Her faculty sponsor is Dr. Param Chawla, who can be contacted at _____ University Opportunity Programs, (___) ___-____.

If parental permission is granted, and if your teenager agrees to be in the study, your teenager will be asked to do following:

1. complete questionnaires about his or her background (age, gender, education, etc.), expectations, and experiences on one or two occasions;
2. if your teenager's counselor is also participating in the study, both parties will fill out a brief set of questionnaires after their next meeting together. Neither will see the other's responses to these surveys. If your teenager participates in this part of the study, you and your teenager are granting permission to allow your teenager's counselor to report on their counseling session; and
3. if your teenager's counselor is also participating in the study, your teenager will allow his or her counselor to share with the investigator the number of times the two parties meet over the next year.

Participation in this study will involve about an hour of your teenager's time: 40 minutes to complete the first set of questionnaires, 20 minutes to complete the 2nd set of questionnaires, and 5 minutes to complete the 3rd set of questionnaires. Your teenager may find the sensitive nature of some of the questions upsetting. In that event, the researcher will provide him or her with a referral to a mental health professional.

Your teenager will be paid $10 for completing the first set of questionnaires, and $10 for completing the second set of questionnaires. Your teenager can participate in the 1st session without participating in the 2nd session; however, he or she can only participate in the 2nd session if he or she has participated in the first one. Should your teenager withdraw before completing an entire set of questionnaires, no payment will be given. Although your teenager will receive no direct benefits, this research may help people better understand adolescent expectations for counseling.

The investigator has explained this study to you and answered your questions. If you have additional questions or wish to report a research-related problem, you may contact the researcher at (718)797-1219 or gw2@nyu.edu. For questions about your teenager's rights as a research participant, you may contact the University Committee on Activities Involving Human Subjects, Office of Sponsored Programs, _____ University, (___) ___-____. Participation in this study is voluntary. Your teenager may refuse to participate or withdraw at any time without penalty. Nonparticipation or withdrawal will not affect grades, academic standing, or the services your teenager receives through New York University Opportunity Programs.

Your teenager's research records will be stored in a locked file cabinet, and his or her answers will not become part of school records. Confidentiality of your teenager's research records will be strictly maintained with the following exception: the researcher is required by law to report to the appropriate authorities suspicion of harm to oneself, to children, or to others. The researcher may publish results of the study in a scientific journal. No names of people or identifying characteristics will be used.

You have received a copy of this consent document to keep. Please sign below if you give permission for your teenager to be in the study, and give this form to your teenager to bring when he or she comes to fill out the questionnaires.

Agreement to Participate

Parent's Signature	Investigator's Signature
Date	Date

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Appendix C

Greta Winograd
198 Court St #7
Bklyn, NY 11201

PERMISSION AGREEMENT FOR MODIFICATION & REPRODUCTION
Agreement Issued: **February 16, 2005**
Customer Number: **301792**
Product Code: **0276DL**
Permission Number: **15286**

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6.1 Test users should evaluate the available written documentation on the validity and reliability of tests for the specific use intended.

6.3 When a test is to be used for a purpose for which it has not been validated, or for which there is no supported claim for validity, the user is responsible for providing evidence of validity.

6.5 Test users should be alert to probable unintended consequences of test use and should attempt to avoid actions that have unintended negative consequences."

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(f) **Greta Winograd** agrees that the **(PSI)** as modified under this Agreement is a derivative work of the **(PSI)** and hereby automatically assigns all right, title, and interest in any such derivative work created under this Permission Agreement in perpetuity to CPP, or as directed by CPP, immediately upon completion and without further consideration.

CPP, INC.	I AGREE TO THE ABOVE CONDITIONS,
By Eliza McLane Authorized Representative	By Greta Winograd **Greta Winograd**
Date 2/28/05	Date February 18, 2005

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Date: Tue, 16 Nov 2004 16:12:58 -0500
From: Nadine Kaslow <nkaslow@emory.edu>
Subject: Re: permission to use CASQ-R in dissertation research
To: Greta Winograd <gw2@nyu.edu>
X-Mailer: Mozilla 4.8 [en] (Windows NT 5.0; U)
X-Accept-Language: en
Original-recipient: rfc822;gw2@mail.nyu.edu

it is attached, you are welcome to use it, njk

Greta Winograd wrote:
>
> Hello Dr. Kaslow,
>
> I would like to use your CASQ-R in my dissertation research. I am a
> doctoral candidate at the CUNY Graduate Center in Educational
Psychology,
> and my dissertation research is about the relationship between
personality
> characteristics and counseling expectations among students from
minority
> backgrounds. My advisor is Dr. Georgiana Shick Tryon.
>
> I am writing to ask for your permission to use this instrument in my
> dissertation research and to include the items used in the final copy
of my
> dissertation. If you are able to grant this permission, I would
greatly
> appreciate your writing a letter to this effect to:
>
> Greta Winograd
> 198 Court Street Apt. 7
> Brooklyn, NY 11201
>
> I will include this letter in the appendix of my dissertation.
>
> If there is any problem with this permission request, or if you need
any
> additional information, please feel free to let me know!
>
> I appreciate the work you have done in this field, and hope this note
finds
> you well.
>
> Sincerely,
> Greta Winograd

--
Nadine Kaslow, Ph.D., ABPP
Professor and Chief Psychologist
President Society of Clinical Psychology (APA
Division 12)
APPIC Former Chair (1998-2002)
Emory Department of Psychiatry and Behavioral
Sciences at Grady Health System
80 Jesse Hill Jr. Drive SE
Atlanta, GA 30303

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Professor and Director of Training
321 Education Building – 1000 Bascom Mall
Madison, Wisconsin 53706-1398

email: agloria@education.wisc.edu
608.262.2669 office
608.265.3347 fax
608.262.0431 main

18 November 2004

Greta Winograd
198 Court Street Apt. 7
Brooklyn, NY 11201

Dear Ms. Winograd,

Please accept this letter as my permission for you to use the Cultural Congruity Scale in your dissertation research.

After your research is completed, I ask that I am provided results of study and specific information about the scale (e.g., means, standard deviations, inter-item coefficients, overall alpha, correlations, and predictive validity information).

Best wishes with your research endeavors.

Sincerely,

Alberta M. Gloria, Ph.D.
Professor and Director of Training

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meaningful results. For example, clients routinely take psychological tests (item 1) and see practicum students and interns for counseling (item 6) in some counseling centers. The reverse is true in other counseling centers. Consequently, the "realism" of the client's expectancies must be judged against local practices. Needless to say, the validity of this scale is uncertain. Only future research will reveal whether the realism scale provides information of scientific and/or practical value.

Calculating Scale Scores

Scale scores on the EAC are calculated by summing the responses to the items assigned to each scale (see pages 12-14) and dividing by the number of items. The scale score for motivation, for example, can be obtained by summing the responses to items 14, 15 and 18 and dividing by 3; the scale score for responsibility is the sum of the responses to items, 8, 9, 29 and 30, divide by 4.

Calculating Approximate Factor Scores

Once scale scores are calculated, scores on the factors reported by Tinsley, Workman and Kass (1980) can be obtained by adding the scale scores indicated below and dividing by the number of scale scores indicated.

Personal Commitment	Facilitative Conditions	Counselor Expertise	Nurturance
Responsibility	Acceptance	Directiveness	Acceptance
Openness	Confrontation	Empathy	Self-Disclosure
Motivation	Genuineness	Expertise	Nurturance
Attractiveness	Trustworthiness		Attractiveness
Immediacy	Tolerance		
Concreteness	Concreteness		
Outcome			
Divide by 7	Divide by 6	Divide by 3	Divide by 4

Permission to Use EAC

Permission to use the full or brief EAC in your research, or to use selected scales from the EAC is hereby granted. In return, I ask only that you give appropriate credit for the development of the instruments in reports of your research and that you provide me with a copy of your data or a summary of your results. I am currently evaluating the validity of the EAC and I plan to develop normative data in the future. Your help in providing me with this information will make it much easier for me to keep up-to-date on the research bearing on the EAC.

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Date: Fri, 04 Feb 2005 15:09:03 -0500
From: "Stephenson, Margaret" <mstephenson@berkshirefarm.org>
Subject: Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale
To: gw2@nyu.edu
Thread-topic: Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale
Thread-index: AcUK9V/BJZkLs6NLTPO4kGkfEOknZA==
X-MS-Has-Attach:
X-MS-TNEF-Correlator:
Original-recipient: rfc822;gw2@mail.nyu.edu

Dear Ms. Winograd,
You are welcome to use the Stephenson Multigroup Acculturation Scale (SMAS) for your research.
In return, I ask that you provide me with a copy of any reports, manuscripts, or articles in which you mention results with the SMAS.
Please send me confirmation that you are willing to provide me with copies of any relevant reports.

Good Luck with your work.
Margaret Stephenson, Ph.D.

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