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The concept that emotion carries an impactful role within counseling likely is not surprising. Counseling professionals commonly agree that in-session emotions, either emotions demonstrated by the client or internal affective experiences of the counselor, are used to inform a variety of therapeutic decisions (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Easton, Martin, & Wilson, 2008; Martin, Easton, Wilson, Takemoto, & Sullivan, 2004; Young, 2013). During counselor education, counselor trainees not only are presented with various skills and techniques to master, but also are expected to learn how to conceptualize emotion and to use this knowledge to direct in-session behaviors and the overall course of therapy (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Easton et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2004; Tangen, 2017). As such, it is clear that counseling trainees must develop an ability to be simultaneously aware of their own affect (*self*-emotional awareness) as well as the emotions of their clients (*other*-emotional awareness) across the course of counselor education.

Although the importance of emotional awareness seems theoretically clear within the counseling field, the absence of an instrument to assess counseling-specific self- and other-emotional awareness is noteworthy. Because of this gap, there are considerable limitations around counselor educators' abilities to track, measure, and evaluate progress within the area of emotional awareness development. Thus, the central purpose of this study was to create and explore initial psychometrics of the *Counselors' Emotional Awareness Scale (C-EAS)*, a measure based in the researcher's synthesized and integrated

model of emotional awareness. The model reflects a comprehensive review of relevant literature and serves as a bridge for assessing self- and other- emotional awareness of counselors within one measure.

Through various recruitment strategies, 196 useable responses from counseling students ($n = 85$), counselor practitioners ($n = 81$), and counselor educators ($n = 23$) completed the 56-item C-EAS and associated measures. Though the researcher originally hypothesized a six factor structure, using the current sample, confirmatory and exploratory factor analyses suggested a three factor structural model of the C-EAS: self-emotional awareness, other-emotional awareness, and experiencing emotions.

Psychometric tests provided preliminary evidence of reliability of the instrument as well evidence for the validity of the C-EAS in relationship to the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a) and the Counseling Self-Efficacy Scale (CSES; Melchert et al., 1996).

Limitations, specifically regarding sample size, sample composition, and instrumentation are outlined, along with suggestions for future investigations of the psychometric properties of the measure. Regardless, the work contributes to scholarly efforts by providing needed next steps towards allowing counselor educators to make more informed choices within the classroom and clinical training environments through bridging important gaps in how counselor educators assess, intervene, and understand emotional awareness within counseling trainees.

THE DEVELOPMENT AND VALIDATION OF THE COUNSELORS'
EMOTIONAL AWARENESS SCALE (C-EAS)

by

Jordan L. Austin

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When I first came to UNC Greensboro six years ago, my idea of why I wanted to become a counselor was as rudimentarily defined as “well, I would like to be able to help people.” Through the skillful training of the CED Faculty, my narrative around this is now deeply rich and ebbed with compassion and understanding for myself and others. Though the days have been long and the years quite short, it’s hard to believe my graduate studies are concluding, and that they are concluding with a work such as this.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The concept that emotion carries an impactful role within counseling likely is not surprising. Counseling professionals commonly agree that in-session emotions, either emotions demonstrated by the client or internal affective experiences of the counselor, provide significant information that counselors can use to inform a variety of therapeutic decisions (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Easton, Martin, & Wilson, 2008; Martin, Easton, Wilson, Takemoto, & Sullivan, 2004; Young, 2013). During counselor education, counseling trainees are not only presented with various skills and techniques to master, but students are also expected to learn how to conceptualize emotion and to use this knowledge to direct in-session behaviors and the overall course of therapy (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Easton et al., 2008; Tangen, 2017). As reflected in Batten and Santanello's (2009) model, a counselor's in-session emotions are an important source of information to guide the therapeutic process. Indeed, an essential skill with the development of a counselor is the ability to attend and respond to client emotions while also being aware of one's own internal emotional experiences (Martin et al., 2004; Easton et al., 2008). As such, it is clear that counseling trainees must develop an ability to be simultaneously aware of their own affect (*self*-emotional awareness) as well as the emotions of their clients (*other*-emotional awareness) across the course of counselor education.

Current Knowledge

Emotional awareness is a construct that represents the ability to identify and be aware of emotions from both an intrapersonal and interpersonal perspective (Tangen, 2017), such as the emotional state of both the counselor and client in any given moment. Researchers have suggested that counselors' abilities to be emotionally aware are linked to many important implications for the process of counseling. Counselors who are more aware of their own emotions are more often sensitive to the emotions of their clients (Machado, Beutler, & Greenberg, 1999), and thus more likely to demonstrate higher levels of empathic ability (Constantine & Gainor, 2001; Miville, Carlozzi, Gushue, Schara, & Ueda, 2006). Additionally, counselors in training become more accurate in assessing and responding to clients' emotions as their ability to identify and be aware of emotion increases (Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982; Machado et al., 1999; Tangen, 2017). Young (2013) remarked specifically on the need for counselors in training to develop awareness around affective processes in order to master certain skills, such as reflections of feeling. Furthermore, emotional awareness is thought to aid in building strong therapeutic rapport across diverse clients (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016; Young, 2013), which is a fundamental skill of effective and ethical counselors (Ivey & Ivey, 2011). In short, promoting counseling trainees' ability to be emotionally aware is associated with an increased ability to effectively work with diverse clients, and development of emotional awareness seems to be a universally important element of counselor education.

It is also true, however, that counseling trainees vary in the extent to which they can attend to and be aware of emotions (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Machado et al.,

1999; Tangen, 2017). Emotional awareness is posited to be shaped by a variety of factors, ranging from early childhood interactions with caregivers to close relationships in adolescence and adulthood (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016; Dewitte & De Houwer, 2008; Dewitte, Koster, De Houwer, & Buysee, 2007; Shiota & Kalat, 2012). For example, a child with an emotionally engaged and responsive parent may be more likely to positively facilitate their child's emotional awareness by teaching them particular words for certain emotional reactions (Merchant, Borders, & Henson, 2019; Shiota & Kalat, 2012), which could result in an adult counseling trainee presenting with a more extensive range within their emotional vocabulary or lexicon (Tangen, 2017). On the other hand, if experiences within close relationships result in an individual developing in a less positive way, such as an insecure attachment style, it is possible that this counseling trainee may either approach or avoid certain emotions. Because counseling trainees are beginning counselor education programs with a wide variety of life experiences that likely either promoted or restricted emotional awareness, it seems important for counselor educators to have a framework or conceptualization to better understand how variations across trainees' emotional awareness abilities may impact counselor development.

Conceptual Models of Emotional Awareness in Counselor Education

To conceptualize how emotional awareness variability may be at play during counseling and counselor education, to date the most insight appears to come from scholars focused upon clinical supervision. Supervision researchers have provided developmental outlines for how counseling supervisees may progress along a general spectrum of unawareness of emotion to increasingly sophisticated understandings of

emotion that can be *effectively* applied within the therapeutic context (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Loganbill et al., 1982; Tangen, 2017). Though these scholarly efforts are noteworthy as preliminary efforts to provide a conceptual framework for counselor educators, there are also several limitations at play. With regard to Loganbill and colleagues' (1982) work, these scholars posited that trainees move through three stages of emotional awareness: (a) unawareness of emotion, (b) recognition of emotion, and (c) acceptance of emotion. However, their descriptions of each of these aforementioned stages are quite broad in nature, and the authors provided little guidance around specific techniques that can be utilized by supervisors to promote emotional awareness development. The broadness of descriptive categories can also be observed in the stages of Batten and Santanello's (2009) Four-Phase Model of Emotional Awareness Training: (a) developing emotional awareness skills, (b) generalizing emotional awareness skills to the therapeutic context, (c) linking emotional data to client behavior, and (d) using emotional data to test hypotheses. Though Batten and Santanello did provide descriptions of supervisor and supervisee tasks around bolstering emotional awareness, this model has been criticized for lack of depth within the first stage of developing emotional awareness skills. Tangen (2017), for example, stated that this model may not be descriptive enough to guide and scaffold emotional awareness one step at a time because there is a lack of consideration around how emotional awareness skills specifically develop.

In an important step to provide more depth and context to the development of emotional awareness skills, Tangen (2017) applied the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane, Quinlan, Schwartz, Walker, & Zeitline, 1990) to

counselor education and development. Lane and colleagues presented a developmental model of emotional awareness abilities across five distinct yet progressive levels. This model is sequential and hierarchical in the sense that progression to the next level is contingent upon adequate development within previous levels. Tangen (2017) sought to extrapolate the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990) to counselor education. She conceptualized counseling trainees across the five levels in order to provide a more robust explanation behind the variability across counseling trainees' emotional awareness abilities. In other words, counseling trainees' development of emotional awareness now has a more nuanced conceptualization in comparison to the models outlined by Loganbill et al., (1982) and Batten and Santanello (2009), and Tangen (2017) provided supervisory interventions specific to a counseling trainee's level of emotional awareness in order to foster growth and development in this important area.

Though Tangen (2017) provided the most recent and informative understanding of the variability within counseling trainees' abilities to be emotionally aware, the major limitation of this noteworthy scholarly endeavor is also apparent within each of the aforementioned conceptual models by Loganbill et al. (1982) and Batten and Santanello (2009). Because each of these models are conceptual in nature, researchers have not yet empirically validated the aforementioned stages within counselor education, limiting their validity and utility within the field. In order to validate these clinical supervision conceptual models, however, one must be able to accurately measure emotional

awareness specific to the context in which they occur – in this case, counseling and counselor education.

Measurement of Emotional Awareness

Throughout the literature, measurement of emotional awareness appears as a complex and multifaceted process. Various operational definitions and approaches have been utilized to study emotional awareness and, as such, researchers have utilized a gamut of instrumentation. Though some researchers focus only on aspects of self-emotional awareness (Bailen, Wu, & Thompson, 2019; Davis, Kendall, & Suveg, 2019; Monti & Rudolph, 2014; Silani et al., 2007; Westbrook & Berenbaum, 2016), other researchers also define emotional awareness as the skills of an individual to identify, recognize, and describe the emotional experiences of self *and* others (Ciarrochi, Hynes, & Crittenden, 2005; Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane, Sechrest, Riedal, Schapiro, & Kaszniak, 2000; Lane et al., 1990; Rieffe, Oosterveld, Miers, Meerum Terwogt, & Ly, 2008). Because of these variations within operational definitions of emotional awareness, researchers have employed a variety of instruments or subscales of instruments to assess the construct, including the Twenty-item Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20; Bagby, Parker, & Taylor, 1994), subscales of the Trait-Meta Mood Scale (TTMS; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995), subscales of the Difficulties with Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS; Gratz & Roemer, 2004), the Thirty-item Emotional Awareness Questionnaire (EAQ30; Rieffe et al. 2007), and the Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS; Lane et al., 1990). The use of such a wide variety of instruments to assess one

construct has produced considerable limitations in drawing conclusions from this literature, including lack of generalizability across studies.

However, another salient limitation is that each of the currently available instruments seem to capture only small slices of the construct of emotional awareness. For example, the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a) captures only the ability to label and describe internal emotional experiences; it fails to assess if an individual also has the ability to label and describe the emotional experiences of others. Another similar yet distinct example can be found within the use of two subscales from the DERS (Gratz & Roemer, 2004), Lack of Emotional Awareness and Clarity, to assess emotional awareness. Not only do the aforementioned subscales of the DERS fail to capture the domain of other-emotional awareness, but these subscales were also written to assess the tendency to disregard or fail to acknowledge *difficult* or *negative* emotional experiences only (Gratz & Roemer, 2004). The EAQ30 (Rieffe et al., 2007) and the LEAS (Lane et al., 1990) do assess for other-emotional awareness, but there are limitations in regard to their applicability to study emotional awareness specifically to counseling and counselor education. Most notably, the EAQ30 (Rieffe et al., 2007) is written to only assess emotional awareness in children, and the LEAS (Lane et al., 1990) has been criticized due to a lack of empirical investigations (Tangen, 2017). In short, the significant limitation across the current body of emotional awareness literature seems to be the fact that there is not a single psychometrically sound instrument that adequately captures a robust definition of the construct at hand across domains of both self- and other-emotional awareness.

With regard to counseling-specific emotional awareness, as referenced earlier, counseling trainees must not only develop awareness around their own internal affective processes, or self-emotional awareness; they must also develop insight and understanding regarding their clients' affect, or other-emotional awareness. As reflected within the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model, Lane and colleagues (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990) posited that being self-aware of emotions may be separate from the ability to be aware of other-emotion, and Tangen (2017) also voiced support for this notion. For example, a counseling trainee may be able to identify complex blends of their own emotions, such as experiencing both excitement and anxiety when faced with a new task (e.g., practicing a new clinical intervention), but may struggle to attend to, understand, and be aware of clients' emotions that are equally as complex; it also is possible that their clients' emotions are more complex than the internal emotional life of the counselor. Additional scholars also have hypothesized that individuals who are more in-tune and aware of their own emotions may be more likely to attend to and *accurately* perceive others' emotional expressions (Eckland & English, 2018). This hypothesis, however, has not yet been explored within counselor education nor in the aforementioned conceptual models (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Loganbill et al., 1982; Tangen, 2017); thus, it is currently unclear to counselor educators if bolstering self-emotional awareness would also translate into increased efficacy and accuracy in identifying clients' in-session emotions.

Furthermore, a fundamental tenet of the Levels of Emotional Awareness model is that emotional awareness utilizes cognitive processes (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane &

Pollerman, 2002) similar to components found within cognitive-complexity. The assertion here is that multiple sources of information must be integrated in order to demonstrate emotional awareness (Lane et al., 1990), such as noticing internal somatic sensations and then selecting a word that accurately labels the emotional experience. As such, construct validity for the measurement associated with the model, the Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS; Lane et al., 1990) was partially provided through a moderately positive correlation to a well-established measure of cognitive complexity, the Sentence Completion and Test of Ego Development (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016; Loveinger, Wessler, & Redmore, 1970). Lane and colleagues (1990) investigated participants' *general* emotional awareness and *general* cognitive complexity, or their abilities to be cognitively complex and emotionally aware across any given situation. However, cognitive-complexity is context-specific (Crockett, 1965), such that level of complexity can vary from topic to topic, thus, researchers have argued it is important to measure counseling specific cognitive complexity (Welfare, 2007; Welfare & Borders, 2010) – in this case, complexity of emotional awareness in the clinical setting.

In other words, a counselor in training may demonstrate a seamless ability to integrate multiple sources of information in their personal lives because of increased familiarity with these close relationships, however, this ability may not naturally generalize in parallel into the counseling environment (Welfare, 2007). It is known, though, that certain variables, such as amount of counseling and supervision experiences, are significant predictors of counselor cognitive complexity (Welfare & Borders, 2010). Because of these findings and the possible parallels between cognitive complexity and

emotional awareness, there is a need to create and validate an emotional awareness instrument that is also counseling specific, such that measuring a counseling trainee's emotional awareness should capture awareness and understanding of emotions specific to clients, themselves as a counselor, and the counseling relationship, which would then allow for counselor educators to better understand the specific variables that predict an increase in counseling trainees' emotional awareness.

Operational Definitions of Emotional Awareness

As referenced above, throughout the literature, there is a general lack of consensus around the operationalization of the construct of emotional awareness. Emotional awareness has been conceptually defined as the ability to identify, label, and understand the antecedents and consequences of emotions (Davis et al., 2019), the ability to identify and label one's emotions in order to express them (Monti & Rudolph, 2014), and an attentional process that is required to interpret and evaluate the purpose of emotions (Rieffe et al., 2008). Though some researchers have focused only on the internal aspects of self-emotional awareness, it is also apparent that individuals vary in their abilities to identify, label, and understand the emotional experiences of others (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al. 1990). And as such, some researchers also define emotional awareness as the skills of an individual to identify, explain, and discern the emotional experiences of self and others (Lane & Schwart, 1987; Lane et al., 1990; Van Bevern et al., 2019), as well as the ability to recognize and describe emotions in self and others (Ciarrochi et al., 2005; Lane et al., 2000).

A result from the absence of an agreed upon definition of emotional awareness across the body of emotional awareness literature is a stark lack of clarity around how to best study the construct at hand. From another perspective, however, what is apparently clear from the literature is that emotional awareness, specifically emotional awareness approached from the perspective of both self- and other-emotional awareness, is a complex and multifaceted construct, yet to be sufficiently conceptualized. Accordingly, through a thorough review and synthesis of the literature, the researcher proposes a conceptual model that seeks to capture the most salient variables commonly associated with emotional awareness. This model is organized into six factors: self-identifying emotion, self-experiencing emotions, self-interpreting emotions, other-identifying emotion, other-experiencing emotion, and other-interpreting emotions.

Though Chapter Two will provide an in-depth overview of each of these factors and the components nested within them, it is relevant to mention that this synthesis and integration of the emotional awareness literature was essential, as this work provided a unified operational definition of the construct of emotional awareness. In turn, the researcher utilized this operational definition of emotional awareness within the current study as a source of imperative direction. Specifically, the operational definition provided clarity and direction around what is being sought to be measured, and to ensure that the final product of the instrument adequately addresses the complex and multifaceted construct of emotional awareness, which, and as discussed earlier, is a significant gap within the current body of empirical literature.

Statement of the Problem

Although the importance of emotional awareness seems theoretically clear within the counseling field, to date there is a lack of a psychometrically sound instrument to assess and measure counseling-specific self- and other-emotional awareness. Scholars have pointed to the importance of fostering emotional awareness across counselor education and development (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Easton et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2004; Young, 2013), yet no instrument currently exists to track, measure, and evaluate progress within this area. Because of this significant gap within the current body of literature, it is currently unclear as to which conceptual models or approaches (Bernard & Goodyear, 1992; Loganbill et al., 1982; Stoltenberg & McNeill, 2010) most effectively bolster development of counseling-specific emotional awareness during training. Developing a counseling specific measure of emotional awareness could provide quantitative feedback around the effectiveness of certain training experiences or interventions, such as those outlined within Tangen's (2017) conceptual article, Batten and Santaello's (2006) Four-Phase Model of Emotional Awareness Training, and Loganbill et al.'s (1982) conceptual model of emotional awareness in supervision, which would then allow counselor educators to make more informed choices within the classroom and clinical training environments, such as supervision.

Purpose of the Study

Thus, the central purpose of this study was to create a psychometrically sound measure, the *Counselors' Emotional Awareness Scale (C-EAS)*. Through this work, the researcher addressed limitations within existing measurements for emotional awareness,

as well as presented a synthesized and integrated definition of emotional awareness based upon the various conceptual definitions presented in the model. Thus, in this scholarly effort, the researcher sought to synthesize existing literature while also addressing the significant gap of an absence of a comprehensive, valid, and reliable measure of counseling specific emotional awareness. Furthermore, the study at hand explored the validity of the C-EAS, specifically by investigating convergent and divergent validity against other previously established instruments, the TAS-20 (Bagby et al, 1994a) and the Counseling Self-Efficacy Scale (CSES; Melchert et al., 1996).

Research Questions

The study at hand was designed to create and document the initial validation of the C-EAS through the exploration of the following research questions:

Research Question 1: What is the factor structure of the C-EAS?

Research Question 2: To investigate reliability, what is the internal consistency for items used on the overall C-EAS measure?

Research Question 3: To what extent is there evidence of convergent validity for the C-EAS?

Research Question 4: To what extent is there discriminate validity for the C-EAS?

Research Question 5: Are scores on the C-EAS scores is influenced by socially desirable responding?

Need for the Study

The ability to attend to, interpret, and engage in emotion is a profound and important concept within the field of counseling, though current scholarly efforts behind

this notion are limited. The work at hand bridged the current literature by assessing for self- and other- emotional awareness for counselors within one measure. The importance of this work includes the ability to quantify the construct of emotional awareness, which can provide information around the effectiveness of certain training experiences, as well as allow for more in-depth empirical investigation around emotional awareness for counselors. Specifically, the C-EAS can be used to explore the relationship between emotional awareness and other variables, such as adult attachment strategies or emotion regulation, that may need intervention before counseling students can develop the emotional awareness necessary for their work. Furthermore, having quantitative data to represent the variability between counseling trainees' emotional awareness may also allow for better understanding around why certain individuals present to counselor education programs with restrictive or extensive emotional awareness. Lastly, the C-EAS can be used to explore empirical validation of conceptual models around the development of emotional awareness in counseling trainees, as well as be utilized to direct counselor education curriculum, interventions, and further scholarly efforts within this domain.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, *emotional awareness* represented the ability to identify, experience, and interpret emotions across the domains of *self-emotional awareness* and *other-emotional awareness*. Self-emotional awareness referred specifically to the counselor's, counseling trainee's, or counselor educator's internal awareness of emotion, while other-emotional awareness represented awareness of clients'

emotions. For each, the three proposed facets of emotional awareness: *identifying emotions*, *experiencing emotions*, and *interpreting emotions*, and each of these categories reflected both self and other perspectives. Identifying emotions referred to an ability to demonstrate clear awareness and label of a specific emotional state across self and others; experiencing emotions reflected the extent to which one can be effectively aware of physiological or bodily aspects associated with emotional experience for both self and others; and, interpreting emotions referred to the ability to describe emotions, as well as understand or analyze emotions, in both self and other.

Chapter Summary

This study is presented across a total of five chapters. In the current chapter, the author outlined a brief introduction into our current understanding of the importance of effective work with affect within the counseling environment, the value of the specific construct of emotional awareness within this work, and the rationale for developing a measurement of emotional awareness and complexity as it directly relates to the gaps in the available body of literature. The author's proposed model represents a total of six total factors: self-identifying emotions, self-experiencing emotions, self-interpreting emotions, other-identifying emotions, other-experiencing emotions, and other-interpreting emotions. Additionally, the author provided a statement of the problem, purpose of the current study, research questions, need for the study, and definition of key terms.

Chapter Two will serve as a continuation of the information previously presented through providing an in-depth literature review of emotional awareness, critique of the

measures previously used to study emotional awareness, as well as further integration of emotional awareness within counselor education. In Chapter Three, the author will detail the methodology used to develop the *Counselors' Emotional Awareness Scale (C-EAS)*, including the steps taken to date to create the items, as well as proposed sample participants, participant demographics, instrumentation to be used to test validity, and data analyses aligned with the research questions. In Chapter Four, the author will present the results of the study at hand, and in Chapter Five will present a discussion of the results, limitations, and implications for research, counselor education, and clinical practice.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

In Chapter One, the need and significance for the development of an instrument to assess self- and other-emotional awareness was explored based upon a brief introduction to the body of literature. In the following chapter, an in-depth review of the literature is presented in the following manner: (a) a brief introduction to the literature, including the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990); (b) a critique of the current measurements used to study emotional awareness; (c) a synthesis of the emotional awareness literature into three broad categories of identify, experiencing, and interpreting emotions; and (d) the presence of emotional awareness within counselor education and research.

Emotional Awareness

Across the literature, researchers have targeted emotional awareness as a particular variable of interest (Ciarrochi et al., 2005; Davis et al., 2019; Monti & Rudolph, 2014; Tangen, 2017; Van Beveren et al., 2019). Researchers from various fields of interest pose questions around how emotional awareness may be related to adult attachment styles (Monti & Rudolph, 2014), mental health concerns (Carton et al., 2010; Cole, Llera, & Pemberton, 2009; Derks, Westerhof, Bohlmeijer, 2017; Oldershaw, Hambrook, Tchanturia, Treasure, & Schmidt, 2010; Shouse & Nilsson, 2011), leadership and teaching (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003), parenting (Havighurst, Wilson, Harley,

2010; Lambie & Lindberg, 2016), and gender differences in emotional processing (Barrett, Lane, Sechrest, & Schwartz, 2000; Ciarrochi et al., 2005). Though there is considerably less emotional awareness literature specific to counselor education, scholars have argued the importance of emotional awareness across the domains of training, supervision, and practice (Batten & Santanello, 2004; Loganbill et al., 1982; Tangen, 2017; Young, 2013). From this vast body of literature, it is readily apparent that emotional awareness is regarded as a salient and empirically intriguing construct for researchers, scholars, and educators alike.

In addition to the readily apparent relevance of the construct of emotional awareness, there are also several apparent limitations within our understanding of emotional awareness due to variety of gaps within the current body of literature. First, emotional awareness has been assessed using a wide variety of instruments, including the Twenty-item Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20; Bagby et al., 1994a), subscales of the Trait-Meta Mood Scale (TTMS; Salovey et al., 1995), subscales of the Difficulties with Emotion Regulation Sclae (DERS; Gratz & Roemer, 2004), the Thirty-item Emotional Awareness Questionnaire (EAQ30; Rieffe et al., 2008), and the Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS; Lane et al., 1990); each of these instruments contains both strengths and limitations. Though the implications and limitations of each of these measures will be thorough explored in a later section, a point of concern arises around whether the results across empirical endeavors are generalizable due to the lack of one mutually agreed upon approach to assess emotional awareness.

One possible reason to explain the absence of an agreed upon instrument to assess emotional awareness may be due to a lack of consensus around how emotional awareness should be operationalized. Some researchers focus only on aspects of self-emotional awareness (Davis et al., 2019; Monti & Rudolph, 2014; Rieffe et al., 2008), while other researchers also define emotional awareness as the skills of an individual to identify, recognize, and describe the emotional experiences of self *and* others (Ciarrochi et al., 2005; Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 2000; Lane et al., 1990; Van Bevern et al., 2019). These variations within operational definitions of emotional awareness are a significant limitation towards furthering empirical endeavors on the topic of emotional awareness; thus, the researcher sought to synthesize the emotional awareness literature and organize the most salient variables associated with emotional awareness into a conceptual framework that contains six broad areas, or factors: self-identifying emotions, self-experiencing emotions, self-interpreting emotions, other-identifying emotions, other-interpreting emotions, and other-identifying emotions.

With regard to frameworks of emotional awareness, it is worthwhile to note and explore the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987), which originated due to Lane and colleague's desire to have a framework to explain variations between individuals' abilities to engage in, experience, and understand emotions. There are considerable strengths to Lane and Schwartz's model, including the fact that the model provides a framework to conceptualize variations within emotional awareness abilities organized across five hierarchical levels, and that the model provides scholars with descriptions around what behaviors or abilities are associated with each level. In

other words, the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) provides depth to what may be occurring within an individual to explain a certain score on a quantitative assessment of emotional awareness. For example, a high score on the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a) could mean this individual's emotional awareness is around Level 1 of the model, which is known to be restricted to awareness of somatic sensations only without awareness of a particular emotional state. On the other end of the spectrum, an individual with a low score on the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a) may represent Levels 4 or 5 of the model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) as they have clarity, insight, and an ability to specifically name and describe emotions, or even complex emotional blends that are occurring.

Seemingly because of this described depth and clear framework associated with the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987), Tangen (2017) utilized this model to conceptually organize and explain variations within counseling trainees', or supervisees', abilities to be emotionally aware with clients. For example, a supervisee who struggles to reflect feelings in sessions with clients may be restricted to a lower level of emotional awareness as described by the Lane and Schwartz model. Thus, the supervisor could provide an intervention that helps to teach the supervisee the basic categories of emotion (e.g., sadness, anger, shame, joy fear) and their associated nonverbal facial expressions (Ekman, 2007), which could then facilitate growth within their emotional awareness and improve their effectiveness with clients (Tangen, 2017). Tangen's (2017) work is particularly noteworthy, as her scholarly efforts are the first to

link emotional awareness abilities of counseling trainees to a developmental model and framework.

Within her writing, though, Tangen (2017) drew attention to limitations of the model, including a lack of attention to certain aspects of emotional complexity, such as emotion range, emotional dialecticism, and emotional granularity, and to the fact that the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) has yet to be applied to counselor education. Tangen (2017) stated that this latter fact could be due to the unclear applicability of measurement associated with the model, the Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS; Lane et al., 1990) to counselor education, specifically because the LEAS also fails to address or measure important aspects of emotional range, emotional dialecticism, and emotional granularity. However, it is apparent that the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) does carry particular strengths, as outlined above, and it is worthwhile to explore this model in depth, as Tangen's (2017) work has considerably guided the development of the C-EAS. Thus, the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) will be introduced and discussed in the following section, and the LEAS (Lane et al., 1990) will be explored within the section devoted to current instruments that have been utilized by various researchers to assess emotional awareness.

Levels of Emotional Awareness Model

Though emotions are regarded as a unifying element of social beings (Ekman, 2007), the development of Lane and colleagues' Levels of Emotional Awareness Model originated due to the need for a framework to organize and understand individual

differences in the experience and expression of emotions (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990). Lane and Schwartz (1987) argued that emotional awareness, or the ability to be aware of emotions in oneself and others, is a cognitive skill that is influenced by developmental processes that are similar to those described by Piaget (1962), including the influences of biological development and interaction with the environment. A fundamental tenet within the model is that individual differences in emotional awareness are due to variations in the degree of differentiation and integration within an understanding, or schema, of emotion (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016; Lane et al., 1990). Because of this cognitive process, individuals are limited by the extent of complexity within their emotional schemata. As new ways of engaging with emotion are developed across the increasing levels, an individual can capture and understand more emotional information in more adaptive and flexible ways (Lumley, Gustavson, Patridge, & Labouvie-Vief, 2005). Though the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model is grounded within cognitive-developmental theory, emotional awareness is considered to be a separate line of development from general cognition (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990). As such, emotional awareness may contain some elements of cognitive complexity, though emotional awareness is considered to be a separate line of development (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016; Lane et al., 1990).

The Lane and colleagues' framework, the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987), includes five distinct levels of emotional awareness that are organized within a nested hierarchy; each of the specific levels will be explored in greater detail below. In ascending order, the levels increase in complexity, and each subsequent

level adds to and modifies the previous levels but does not eliminate them (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016; Lane et al., 1990). Thus, within this particular model, individuals' emotional awareness functioning may regress to a lower level of complexity depending on content or environment setting (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990). As such, it is argued that emotional awareness may be domain or context specific (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016; Croyle & Waltz, 2002; Gottman & Porterfield, 1982), and that the progression throughout the stages may be influenced by various sources (e.g., caregiving experiences, interpersonal relationships, and social experiences) (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Subic-Wrana, Beutel, Garfield, & Lane, 2011). Additionally, some individuals may not attain the highest and most sophisticated level of development (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016). Although it is clear that individuals vary in levels of emotional awareness, less scholarly attention has been paid to identifying how certain specific life experiences, such as caregiving or close relationships, may impact the development of complex and well-differentiated understandings of emotion (Kang & Shaver, 2004).

It is also important to note that emotional awareness is a construct that is conceptually distinct from emotional experience and emotional expression (Croyle & Waltz, 2002). Emotional experience is generally understood as the physical sensation or somatic reaction related to an emotion, and emotional expression describes to observable displays of emotion, either verbal or non-verbal. Within both constructs, there is an absence of accounting for the cognitive reflection required to recognize and label emotions in oneself and others, and this cognitive processing is a defining factor associated with the specific construct of emotional awareness (Lane & Schwartz, 1987;

Lumley et al., 2005). Though there are other measure focused on capturing individual differences in emotional experiencing and emotion expression, such as alexithymia (Taylor et al., 1988), these constructs fail to provide insight into the variation within functioning.

Levels of emotional awareness. As described above, the following levels describe categorical organizations around the complexity of emotional experience. At a basic overview, the levels are organized along a continuum that ranges from simple awareness of physiological or somatic sensations to more specific and complex emotional experiences. With each increasing level of emotional awareness, individuals are better equipped to process and regulate emotional responses within themselves, as well as respond to others in manners that are flexible and sensitive to others (e.g., empathy) (Berenbaum & Irvin, 1996; Gohm & Clore, 2002; Wilkowski & Robinson, 2008)

Level 1. The most basic level of emotional awareness is focused upon bodily, or somatic, sensations, that reflect the physiological arousal that serves the foundation of emotional experiences (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016). An example of this may be found within the fight-flight-freeze response associated with autonomic reactions to stressful or threatening situations (Bracha, 2004). Individuals who function primarily within Level 1 may be limited to describing somatic sensations, such as an increased heart rate in response to a stressful situation, though they may be unable to describe the associated emotion, such as frustration or worry (Chhatawal & Lane, 2016; Tangen, 2017).

Level 2. At the next level of development, an individual would be able to describe behavioral reactions, or action tendencies, in response to physiological arousal; however,

individuals continue to remain unable to label their specific emotional experience beyond a broad global experience of positive or negative valence, such as “good” or “bad.” Examples of action tendencies within Level 2 include engaging in a maladaptive reaction to the physiological experience of anger or worry, such as non-suicidal self-injury or avoidance behaviors (Chhatawal & Lane, 2016). Though individuals may engage in action tendencies in responses to behaviors across all levels of the model, the main differentiation within this level revolves around awareness. Individuals within Level 2 of the model will be unable to label or describe the particular emotional experience that correlates with the action tendency, which is different in comparison to the other levels (e.g., an individual with higher levels of emotional awareness would be able to state that they are avoiding interacting with their supervisor out of fear of negative evaluation).

Level 3. Individuals operating at the subsequent level of emotional awareness are able to identify some basic emotions that are often described as one-dimensional and discrete (e.g., “good,” “bad,” or “sad”) (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016; Lane & Schwartz, 1987). However, it is important to note that emotion becomes explicit here, as individuals are now able to consciously reflect upon a specific emotion, an ability that is in comparison to the previous two levels implicit due to lack of conscious appraisal of a specific emotion (Chhatwal & Lane, 2016). For example, individuals experiencing anger may be able to describe this emotion, whether that be reflecting upon the bodily experience or labeling the category of emotion, but they are unable to understand how their anger may be related to also to a second and more complex emotion of feeling hurt. Furthermore, within Level 3, individuals are similarly limited by a unidimensional ability

to attend to and understand the emotions of others, so that they will often be inconsistent or inaccurate about the actual emotional experience of the other individual (Chattawal & Lane, 2016)

Level 4. At the subsequent level, the capacity to experience and understand blends of emotions emerges. Specifically, an individual can now identify that multiple emotions can be simultaneously experienced and expressed, even if they are seemingly conflicting emotions, such as feeling both hurt and angry. Within Level 4, individuals are now aware of their capacity to experience a number of different emotions within a single emotional reaction (Subic-Wrana et al., 2011). Additionally, empathy begins to emerge at this level, and individuals can now anticipate how others may respond to a given situation, though it is likely they would assume the other's emotional reaction would be similar to their own (Chattawal & Lane, 2016).

Level 5. At the final level of emotional awareness, the ability to be aware of combinations of emotional blends emerges (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Tangen, 2017). Within this level, for example, individuals may become aware that they are experiencing hurt, which may be a blend of anger and sadness, as well as anxiety. Individuals operating within Level 5 are also able to demonstrate higher amounts of both cognitive and affective empathy because they are now able to recognize their own emotional experience while also understanding that another individual's emotional reaction in the same situation may be different (Chattawal & Lane, 2016).

Implications and Limitations. Overall, the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) is noteworthy for several reasons. First, Lane and

colleagues (1987, 1990) provided a framework to understand the nuanced differences observed across individuals and their ability to be emotionally aware. Other constructs, such as alexithymia, are understood as a “lack of” emotional awareness, though, from the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990) it becomes clear that emotional awareness is not an “all-or-nothing” process. Rather, the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model provides critical insight behind individual variations in the ability to be emotionally aware that is non-pathologizing. Furthermore, the model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990) establishes that emotional awareness is a developmental process that is also fluid rather than static, meaning individuals can be supported in achieving a higher level of emotional awareness, possibly through supports found within the counselor education and supervision environment.

Though the idea of bolstering emotional awareness is promising as the ability to identify and be aware of emotions is regarded as a salient aspect of counseling (Batten & Santanello, 2004; Easton et al, 2008; Loganbill et al., 1982; Young, 2013), to date and to the writer’s knowledge, there is only one conceptual article (Tangen, 2017) within counseling and counselor education focused on exploring emotional awareness from the perspective of the Lane and colleagues (1987, 1990) model. In addition to the uncertainty around how exactly counseling trainees could be supported in improving their self- and other-emotional awareness abilities, there are also remaining questions around if emotional awareness is context-specific. A fundamental tenet of the Levels of Emotional Awareness model is that emotional awareness utilizes cognitive processes (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane & Pollerman, 2002) similar to components found within

cognitive-complexity. However, it is known that cognitive-complexity is context-specific (Crockett, 1965), and researchers have argued the importance of measuring counseling specific cognitive complexity as it relates to counselor education and supervision (Welfare, 2007; Welfare & Borders, 2010). From these findings, it appears that there is an argument for emotional awareness to also be counseling specific, such that measuring a counseling trainee's emotional awareness must capture awareness and understanding of emotions specific to clients, themselves as a counselor, the counseling relationship, or the counseling process. Thus, an exploration of the measures that researchers have utilized to study emotional awareness, including relevant strengths and limitations of each of the instruments, will be discussed in the next section.

Measures of Emotional Awareness

As briefly referenced above, from a review of the emotional awareness literature, a point of concern arises around the multitude of approaches utilized to measure emotional awareness. Researchers employ a variety of scales, subscales, or even a combination of subscales adopted from various parent instruments, in order to attempt to adequately capture the construct of emotional awareness. The use of various instruments and creative approaches to measure emotional awareness seems to confirm that the construct at hand is indeed complex and multifaceted; on the other hand, considerable limitations are created due to this disjointed approach to measurement throughout the literature.

Not only does the lack of one unifying measure limit generalizability across studies; it is also apparent that each of the current validated instruments fail to adequately

capture the entirety of the construct at hand. For example, many instruments are written to assess only self-emotional awareness (Bagby et al., 1994; Gratz & Roemer, 2004; Salovey et al., 1995) despite the fact that various researchers and scholars have discussed the importance of also being able to perceive, attend to, and label other's emotions within the overall construct of emotional awareness (Ciarrochi et al., 2005; Eckland & English, 2018; Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990; Rieffe et al., 2007). This limitation is particularly important for assessment within counselor education, as the ability to be self-aware of emotional experiences *as well as* aware of others' affect is a necessary and significant skill within counseling (Gutierrez & Mullen, 2016; Gutierrez, Mullen, & Fox, 2016; Tangen, 2017). Thus, the purpose of the following section will be to briefly review common instruments either adapted or created to measure emotional awareness, as well as provide a critique focused specifically on the conceptual and psychometric limitations of each measure for the use of assessing emotional awareness within counseling and counselor education.

Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TTMS). Created by Salovey and colleagues (1995), the TTMS was designed to measure differences across individuals' tendencies to attend to emotions, differentiate between emotions, and regulate emotions. As such, the TMMS is comprised of three subscales to measure the extent to which people attend to and value emotions (Attention), feel clear about which emotion they are experiencing (Clarity), and use positive thinking to change negative affect states (Repair).

The 30-item TTMS utilizes a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The psychometric properties of the TMMS are sound,

with internal consistencies reportedly high with Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .86, .88, and .82 for the subscales, respectively, as well as convergent and divergent validity of the overall measure (Salovey et al., 1995; Salovey, Stroud, Woolery, & Epel, 2002). Within the literature surrounding emotional awareness, researchers have used the Clarity subscale (Monti & Rudolph, 2014; Shouse & Nilsson, 2011) or, more commonly, a combination of both Clarity and Attention subscales to assess emotional awareness within their studies (Boden, Iron, Feldner, Bujarski, & Bonn-Miller, 2015; Boden & Thompson, 2015; Dizén, Berenbaum, & Kerns, 2005; Moon & Berenbaum, 2009).

However, there are limitations to this approach of utilizing the Clarity subscale or a combination of both the Clarity and Attention subscales. Scholars have argued that an individual must be able to attend to and make sense of somatic or physical sensations associated with the experience affect in order to be emotionally aware (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990; Rieffe et al., 2008); neither the Clarity nor Attention subscales, however, include how somatic sensations or physiological reactions are associated with emotional awareness. The TTMS subscales also fail to capture if an individual possesses a broad spectrum of emotional experiences, such as an ability to experience a full emotional range encompassing both positive and negative affect. Emotional dialecticism, or the ability to tolerate multiple emotions at the same time, or even a dialect of conflicting emotions, also is not assessed by the TTMS, and this ability is often described within models of emotional awareness (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990; Tangen, 2017). For example, a counselor trainee with a constricted emotional range and limited emotional dialecticism may not be able to identify that a client is primarily feeling

excited about a new job opportunity, though also experiencing some doubt and anxiety about the newness of the experience.

Additionally, the Clarity and Attention subscales do not incorporate the ability, or lack thereof, to accurately label and describe specific, discrete emotions. For example, someone may score highly on both the Clarity (e.g., “I’m rarely confused about how I feel”) and Attention (e.g., “I pay a lot of attention to how I feel”) subscales, as they are confident in their awareness that they are feeling globally positive and describing their emotional state as “good.” However, because the items are written to assess global awareness of emotions, the subscales are unable to provide more specific or complex emotions, such joy or elation. Scholars have posited that an important facet of emotional clarity is the ability to differentiate between complex emotional states (Boden, Thompson, Dizén, Berenbaum, & Baker, 2012; Lindquist & Barrett, 2008; Tangen, 2017), thus, it appears as if the Clarity and Attention subscales of the TTMS (Salovey et al., 1995) are not robust enough to adequately capture the construct of emotional awareness. Lastly, the TTMS scale does not incorporate both self- and other-emotional awareness, which is a significant limitation for studies investigating interpersonal contexts such as counseling.

Difficulty with Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS). In a similar fashion as with how subscales of the TTMS are used, some researchers have also used subscales from the DERS (Gratz & Roemer, 2004) to measure facets of emotional awareness (Eastabrook, Flynn, & Hollenstein, 2014; Racine & Wildes, 2013). However, it is important to note that the full scale DERS seeks to specifically assess the extent to which individuals

struggle to regulate negative emotions. There are four subscales of the DERS (Lack of Emotional Awareness, Clarity, Acceptance, and Regulation), and the total scale is comprised of 41 items on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (*almost never*) to 5 (*almost always*). Findings suggest that the DERS has high internal consistency with an alpha value of .93, good test-retest validity over a period of four to eight weeks ($r = 0.88$), and adequate construct and predictive validity when compared to established scales of outcomes linked to poor emotion regulation, such as engaging in non-suicidal self-injury and domestic violence (Gratz & Roemer, 2004).

Regarding measurement of emotional awareness, researchers primarily have used two subscales in conjunction with each other: Clarity and Lack of Emotional Awareness. The Clarity subscale is designed to measure the extent to which individuals know and are clear about which emotions they are experiencing, and the Lack of Emotional Awareness subscale was written to assess the tendency to attend to, disregard, or fail to acknowledge emotions (Gratz & Roemer, 2004). However, the approach of employing the Clarity and Lack of Emotional Awareness subscales of the DERS (Gratz & Roemer, 2004) carries similar limitations to those outlined above with the TTMS (Salovey et al., 1995), such as a lack of attention to somatic sensations, measurement of only self-emotional awareness, and unclear incorporation of emotional range and emotional dialecticism. Specific to the DERS, the overall scale was written to assess for responses to *negative* affective states and difficulties with regulating intense *negative* emotion. Example items from the Awareness scale include, “When I’m upset, I acknowledge my emotions” and “When I’m upset, I take time to figure out what I’m really feeling.” At face value, these items further

reaffirm the researcher's concerns around if and how the DERS can thoroughly assess emotional awareness across a broad range and intensity of affect. Lastly, the DERS scale does not measure any aspect of other-emotional awareness.

Twenty-item Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20). The TAS-20 is a commonly used instrument to assess the presence and intensity of alexithymia, which is conceptualized as a clinically impairing lack of ability to describe and label emotions (Sifneos, 1996; Taylor, 1994). The TAS-20 is a total 20-item, self-report Likert-type scale with a range from 1 (*almost never*) to 5 (*almost always*) with three subscales of Difficulty Identifying Feelings (DIF), Difficulty Describing Feelings (DDF), and Externally Oriented Thinking (EOT) (Bagby et al., 1994a). Bagby, Taylor, and Parker (1994b) reported strong psychometric properties for the instrument with test-retest reliability of $r = .77$ and a Cronbach's alpha of 0.81, as well as evidence of convergent and concurrent validity.

Because labeling and describing emotions are often included as salient aspects of emotional awareness (Coffey, Berenbaum, & Kerns, 2003; Davis et al., 2019; Monti & Rudolph, 2014), researchers have used the DIF and DDF subscales of the TAS-20, either separately or together, to measure emotional awareness (Boden & Thompson, 2015; Dizén et al., 2005; Monti & Rudolph, 2014). Example items from the DIF subscale include, "I am often confused about what emotion I am feeling" and "I am often puzzled by sensations in my body." Example items from the DDF subscale are, "It is difficult for me to find the right words for my feelings" and "I am able to describe my feelings easily." The DIF subscale represents one's ability to recognize internal emotional states,

while the DDF represents an ability to translate emotional experiences into words that can be communicated to others (Bagby et al., 1994a, 1994b). Strengths of utilizing the TAS-20 to measure emotional awareness include a focus on physical sensations as a source of affective information, as well as how the process of labeling and describing emotions can hinge one's emotional vocabulary or lexicon.

The DIF and DDF subscales do appear to capture important aspects of emotional awareness, as determined by face validity and factor analyses (Bagby et al., 1994a; Bressi et al., 1996; Taylor, Bagby, & Parker, 2003); however, there are critiques around the holistic utility of this approach as well. Rieffe and colleagues (2007, 2008) critiqued the use of the TAS-20 for measurement of emotional awareness, stating that assuming alexithymia is simply the antithesis of emotional awareness does not adequately capture the latter construct at hand. Specifically, Rieffe and colleagues (2007) noted that the TAS-20 fails to account for the fact that a critical component of emotional awareness is the ability to differentiate between various specific emotions as well as analyze the source or cause of the affect. For example, a client uses the phrase "I feel bad" to represent uncomfortable somatic sensations, though they are unaware of the differences between anger, sadness, or even jealousy that also could occur underneath the broad umbrella of "bad" negative affect. Additionally, as with the TMMS subscales and DERS subscales, the TAS-20 also fails to account for other-emotional awareness.

Thirty-item Emotional Awareness Questionnaire (EAQ30). The EAQ30 was developed by Rieffe and colleagues (2008) in order to assess how children and adolescents aged 9 through 16 years think about and feel their emotions. Though the

instrument was not written or normed for use within adult populations, there are considerable strengths within the design of the measurement. Rieffe and colleagues specifically sought to address the use of the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a) to assess emotional awareness through their critique that assuming alexithymia is simply the antithesis of emotional awareness does not adequately capture the construct at hand. In addition to the point around the need for more attention to emotional differentiation described above, Rieffe and colleagues also argued measures of emotional awareness must assess knowledge around how emotions can be expressed both verbally and non-verbally. Thus, the authors sought to accommodate for how other-emotional awareness is an important aspect of the overall construct. Objectively, the EAQ30 subscales represent many salient concepts of emotional awareness, and this appears to be the strongest attempt at capturing a well-rounded and holistic assessment of emotional awareness. The six subscales of the EAQ30 are as follows: (1) differentiating emotions; (2) verbal sharing of emotions; (3) not hiding emotions; (4) bodily awareness of emotions; (5) attending to other's emotions; and (6) analyses of emotions.

Though the most obvious concern with the EAQ30 and its for relevance within counseling and counselor education is the fact that the scale has not been designed nor normed for use within adults, additional researchers (Lahaye et al., 2010; Mihalca, 2015) also noted some problems with the psychometric properties of the instrument. Namely, both Lahaye et al. (2010) and Mihalca (2015) reported low internal consistencies, with Cronbach's alphas ranging from .61 to .75, as well as problematic factor structures. Both groups of researchers (Lahaye et al., 2010; Mihalca, 2015) suggested that either four- or

five-factor structures provide a better fit, specifically citing redundancy within the items as a source of the problem. As such, while the concepts within the EAQ30 seem to be valuable at face value, there is additional exploration needed to confirm the validity and reliability of the overall measurement.

Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS). Based upon the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987), which will be explained in more depth below, the LEAS (Lane et al. 1990) is an observer-rated questionnaire that is designed to assess both self- and other-emotional awareness. The LEAS is composed of 20 hypothetical scenes, described in two to four sentences, that involve two people, the participant and another individual. After reading the vignette describing the scene, individuals are prompted to write a response to two questions: “How would you feel?” and “How would the other person feel?” For example, one vignette describes two individuals, the participant and a friend, being nominated for an award at work; however, the friend receives the award while the participant does not. From this, the participant is asked to describe their reaction to this event, as well as how their friend may be reacting to the event. The results from the LEAS are then coded, resulting in two separate scores for self-emotional awareness and other-emotional awareness. The combined scores are then situated within the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model, which ranges from Level 1 through Level 5 with each level representing an increase in abilities related to emotional differentiation and integration within the schemas used to understand emotions. The LEAS has shown high inter-rater reliability across studies, with r ranging from .91 to .98 and good internal consistency with alpha coefficients ranging from .83 to

.88 (Lane et al., 1990; Lane, Kivley, Du Bois, Shamasundara, & Schwartz, 1995; Lane, Sechrest, & Riedel, 1998).

In addition to strong psychometric properties, Lane and colleagues (1987, 1990) stated that, because the LEAS is considered a performance-based measure, the LEAS provides a more reliable and valid measurement of true emotional awareness in comparison to self-reports only capturing perceived emotional awareness. However, there is also some debate around the accuracy of this assumption. With regard to reliability, there is a salient question around whether individuals are truly performing at their highest or most optimal levels in their responses to the LEAS vignettes (Ciarrochi, Caputi, & Mayer, 2003). In an experimental study, Ciarrochi, Hynes, and Crittenden (2005) demonstrated that men can be motivated to perform better on the LEAS, which supports the notion that the LEAS does not always assess optimal performance. With regard to validity, Ciarrochi and colleagues (2003) presented findings that showed scores on the LEAS were not related to individuals' ability to label or describe somatic emotional sensations nor detect emotion in faces. Thus, the researchers posited that the LEAS measures styles of cognitive processing related to emotions instead of perceived or actual emotional awareness abilities.

Furthermore, there are points of concern specifically related to the extent that the LEAS is applicable to counseling and counselor education. A fundamental tenet of the Levels of Emotional Awareness model is that emotional awareness utilizes cognitive processes (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane & Pollerman, 2002) similar to components found within cognitive-complexity. However, it is known that cognitive-complexity is

context-specific (Crockett, 1965), and researchers have argued the importance of measuring counseling specific cognitive complexity as it relates to counselor education and supervision (Welfare, 2007; Welfare & Borders, 2010). From these conceptual points, it appears that there is an argument for emotional awareness also to be counseling specific, such that measuring a counseling trainee's emotional awareness must capture awareness and understanding of emotions specific to clients, themselves as a counselor, the counseling relationship, or the counseling process. To date, only one article within the counseling and counselor education literature has explored the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Tangen, 2017), though the author stated that there is a need for more research using the LEAS in order to determine if it is an relevant or suitable measure for counseling and counselor education.

Summary

The study of emotional awareness is a burgeoning area of research, though considerable work remains with regard to arriving at an agreed upon and widely utilized method of measurement that also adequately captures the multifaceted and complex construct at hand, specifically for the unique dynamic of both intrapersonal and interpersonal emotional exchanges that occur within the context of counseling. Within the existing measures used to study emotional awareness, there are important points to consider when approaching the task of measuring and assessing emotional awareness. A significant limitation across all instruments or subscales used to assess emotional awareness is, to date, no instrument has been developed specific to assessing emotional awareness within counseling and counselor education. Thus, the question around if

emotional awareness is context- or relationship-specific remains intriguing yet unanswered, and there a need for an instrument used to assess emotional awareness specifically for counseling trainees to be able to answer this question.

Additionally, there is a large question around how self- and other-emotional awareness abilities may complement or interact with each other. Researchers have posited that limitations in one's ability to identify and describe internal emotional experiences may also be related to impaired performance in recognizing and responding to emotions in others (Eckland & English, 2018; Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990). To date, there is not a developed instrument that has the power to fully assess the dual-fold construct emotional awareness, as most instruments and subscales focus only upon self-emotional awareness; in the review above, the LEAS (Lane et al., 1990) and the EAQ-30 (Reiffe et al., 2008) are the only exceptions, though there are other limitations and concerns with each of these measures, as discussed above. Thus, researchers are currently unable to explore the possible relationship between intrapersonal and interpersonal emotional awareness, which is another significant limitation for research within counseling and counselor education.

However, a strength to be extrapolated from the current body of literature around the measures discussed above is that researchers have outlined key and salient aspects within the overall construct of emotional awareness. Though each of these aspects will be explored with more depth in a later section, it appears as if the most robust definition of emotional awareness includes the abilities to identify, experience, and interpret emotions from both an intrapersonal and interpersonal perspective. As outlined above, there is no

current instrument with the ability to assess each of these areas. This claim is further supported by the observation that several researchers have combined scales or subscales, seemingly in an attempt to compensate for the fact that each instrument or subscale is limited in the sense that they are designed to measure different aspects of emotional awareness (Eastabrook et al. , 2014; Maroti, Lilliengren, & Bileviciute-Ljungar, 2018; Monti & Rudolph, 2014). In conclusion, the concerns regarding the use of the current scales to measure emotional awareness within counseling and counselor education emerge for more complex reasons than psychometric properties alone. In the next section, the researcher will provide an overview and synthesis of the operational definitions that various scholars have used to study emotional awareness.

Emotional Awareness: A Conceptual Model

Throughout the literature, various definitions and approaches have been utilized to study emotional awareness. Emotional awareness has been conceptually defined as the ability to identify, label, and understand the antecedents and consequences of emotions (Davis et al., 2019), the ability to identify and label one's emotions in order to express them (Monti & Rudolph, 2014), and an attentional process that is required to interpret and evaluate the purpose of emotions (Rieffe et al., 2008). Though some researchers focus only on the internal aspects of self-emotional awareness, it is also apparent that individuals vary in their abilities to identify, label, and understand the emotional experiences of others (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al. 1990). And as such, some researchers also define emotional awareness as the skills of an individual to identify, explain, and discern the emotional experiences of self and others (Lane & Schwart, 1987;

Lane et al., 1990; Van Bevern et al., 2019), as well as the ability to recognize and describe emotions in self and others (Ciarrochi et al., 2005; Lane et al., 2000).

Researchers from various fields of interest have posed questions around how emotional awareness may be related to adult attachment styles (Monti & Rudolph, 2014), mental health concerns (Carton et al., 2010; Cole et al., 2009; Derks et al., 2017; Oldershaw et al., 2010; Shouse & Nilsson, 2011), leadership and teaching (Ashkanasy & Dasborough, 2003), parenting (Havighurst et al., 2010; Lambie & Lindberg, 2016), and gender differences in emotional processing (Barrett et al., 2000; Ciarrochi et al., 2005). From this vast body of literature, it is readily apparent that emotional awareness is regarded as a salient and empirically intriguing construct for scholars. However, and as referenced above, the construct of emotional awareness is approached from various perspectives depending on the researcher's operational definition of the construct and subsequent choice of instrumentation; thus, there is also a significant cause for concern around the lack of one unifying model and definition utilized to study emotional awareness. In the absence of an agreed upon approach, there are considerable limitations around the ability to infer, relate, and expand upon previous empirical endeavors.

The construct of emotional awareness is measured using a variety of instruments as well, which is perhaps unsurprising due to the differences in how researchers are conceptualizing and operationalizing the construct. Examples of these measurements include the Emotion Awareness Questionnaire for Children (EAQ; Rieffe et al., 2008), the Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20; Bagby et al., 1994a), and the Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS; Lane et al., 1990). Researchers also have attempted

to measure emotional awareness through the utilization of subscales from parent measures, such as the Clarity and Attention subscales of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS; Salovey, Mayer, Goldman, Turvey, & Palfai, 1995), and the Lack of Emotion Awareness subscale and Clarity subscale of the Difficulties with Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS; Gratz & Roemer, 2004). Although each of the aforementioned scales have degrees of merit, there are also limitations that arise because each of these instruments measure only certain aspects of emotional awareness. Though the strengths and limitations of each of these measurements were thoroughly explored in a later section, an example can be found within the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994). Although the TAS-20 does assess for the ability to identify and describe emotions, these skills are only assessed from an intrapersonal, or self-emotional awareness, perspective.

Furthermore, and because of the tendency of researchers to study emotional awareness solely from the perspective of self-emotional awareness (Davis et al., 2019; Monti & Rudolph, 2014; Rieffe et al., 2008), there is a dearth of information specifically around how emotional awareness may be best understood and studied within interpersonal contexts, such as those that occur within counselor education and supervision. Additionally, several researchers have posited that understanding others' emotions may first require an understanding of one's own emotions, and how well one can perceive others' emotions may be related to one's own abilities to be self-emotionally aware (De Rivera, 1984; Eckland & English, 2003; Kang & Shaver, 2004; Saarni, 1999). These statements are intriguing, though the scarcity of empirical evidence around how

self-emotional awareness relates to other-emotional awareness leaves these statements as merely hypotheses instead of proven facts.

At the current date, few researchers have attempted to explore how emotional awareness, or facets of emotional awareness, such as the ability to simply identify emotions, may relate to counselor education and supervision (Easton et al., 2008; Guitierrez & Mullen, 2016; Guitierrez et al., 2016; Martin et al., 2004; Tangen, 2017). Even within these, though, there is a lack of a mutually agreed upon definition and approach to studying emotional awareness of counseling trainees and counselors. As such, the purpose of the following section is to provide a review of the literature, including proposed salient variables and factors of emotional awareness, as well as commonly used subscales and scales to assess the topic at hand. Specifically, contributions of the abilities to identify, experience, and interpret emotions will be discussed with regard to the overall topic of emotional awareness.

Identifying Emotions

Across the literature, various scholars have suggested that identifying emotions is a central aspect of emotional awareness, and, as such, many researchers have theorized the ability to identify, or label, a particular emotional state is the foundation of higher levels of emotional awareness (Ciarrochi, Scott, Deane, & Heaven, 2003; Davis et al., 2019; Gohm & Clore, 2002; Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Monti & Rudolph, 2014). As such, the concept of identifying emotions appears throughout the literature and across various operational definitions, and identifying emotions is deemed as a core dimension of emotional awareness (Gohm & Clore, 2002; Lane et al., 1990; Monti & Rudolph, 2014;

Salovey et al., 2002). Despite the agreed upon significance, throughout the majority of the literature the domain of identifying emotions is most often approached and measured through the lens of alexithymia.

Alexithymia, a concept first described by Sifneos and colleagues (1976), was coined to describe clinical patients who seemed to lack words for their feelings. As a construct and measure, alexithymia encompasses three broad categories related to awareness of emotions (Nemiah, 1996; Taylor et al., 1988). One of these specifically reflects difficulties identifying emotions (Bagby et al., 1994a), and researchers (Maroti, Lillengren, & Bileviciute-Ljungar, 2018; Monti & Rudolph, 2014) have since conceptualized alexithymia to represent the antithesis of emotional awareness. However, this approach is not without flaws. Several researchers have pointed to concerns around how being able to identify emotions also strongly correlates with concepts such as emotional clarity and emotion differentiation (Coffey et al., 2003; Gohm & Clore, 2000), which means that there may be significant overlap between the constructs. Rieffe et al. (2007) specifically argued against using alexithymia measurements, including the most common alexithymia assessment, the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a), as a measure of identifying emotions, stating that the vital consideration not addressed within the broad domain of identifying feelings is how individuals vary in their ability to differentiate between various emotions and understand nuanced differences. For example, Rieffe and colleagues (2007) drew attention to the fact that individuals might be able to identify that they're experiencing negative affect, but they then could struggle to identify discrete emotions.

Furthermore, within the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990), it is suggested that there are variations within one's ability to identify emotion that appear to increase in sophistication across the hierarchical model. At lower levels of the model, such as Level 3, individuals can start to identify broad or global emotions, though at this stage they are lacking the awareness that there are more complex emotional experiences, such as emotional blends or combinations of multiple emotions. However, as a person progresses throughout the model, individuals begin to be able to specifically, clearly, and unambiguously identify emotions associated with their current affective state. Because of these perspectives, it is also possible that there may be more specific and nuanced mechanisms at play underneath the broad domain of identifying emotions. In order to be able to identify an emotion, an individual must also be able to arrive at a clear awareness of their particular emotional state, as well as differentiate between the experience of various emotions. Therefore, the concepts of emotional clarity, emotion differentiation, and emotion granularity are relevant within the ability to identify emotions.

Emotional clarity. Within the domain of identifying emotions, scholars also discuss emotional clarity, though this concept has been described in various ways. The broadest definition refers to the extent to which emotions are clear and vivid within one's conscious awareness (Coffey et al., 2003). However, more specifically, emotional clarity also refers to an ability to discriminate between various global emotional states and also understand the cause or source of this emotional reaction (Gohm and Clore, 2000; Salovey et al., 1995). Kashdan, Barrett, and McKnight (2015) also stated that emotional

clarity is the degree to which one possesses an understanding of a particular affective experience, ranging from ambiguous and abstract awareness to definite and concrete identification. Individuals with poor emotional clarity will often say they are unsure of what they are feeling, and they may be limited to only noticing somatic changes within their body (Bagby et al., 1994a; Boden et al., 2012), such as noticing discomfort in their stomach but being unaware of their experience of anxiety. In contrast, individuals who have stronger emotional clarity are better able to identify and use emotional information because of a higher degree of certainty and specificity around the cause and characteristics of a particular emotional reaction (Salovey et al. 1995). Though emotional clarity is defined conceptually in various ways, the most common approach to assessing this construct is through the use of the Clarity subscale of the Trait Meta-Mood Scale (TMMS; Salovey et al., 1995), as previously explored above.

Emotion differentiation and granularity. In addition to emotional clarity, scholars also have presented the constructs of emotion differentiation and granularity, though there appears to be an agreement that these two terms represent the same construct (Boden et al., 2012; Tangen, 2017). Overall, both emotion differentiation and granularity refer to the complexity that individuals have around their ability to identify emotional experiences. With lower levels of complexity, individuals are restricted to broad and general categories of emotions, such as using the terms “good” to represent positive affect and “bad” to encompass negative emotional experiences (Lindquist & Barrett, 2008). As complexity within emotion differentiation and granularity increases, individuals are able to recognize the differences between discrete emotional categories

through the use of subtle distinctions between them, such as the differences between annoyance and frustration. Conceptually, emotion differentiation and granularity seem as if they would contribute to emotional clarity, as each of these constructs seems to relate to the overall ability to precisely and accurately identify a particular emotional state, though the mechanisms behind this hypothesis have yet to be empirically investigated.

However, there is some evidence that emotion differentiation, granularity, and emotional clarity are not the exact same constructs. In an empirical investigation exploring the relationship between emotional clarity and emotional differentiation, researchers found the two constructs to have a very small and statistically insignificant degree of association (Boden et al., 2012). The authors suggested this is because emotion differentiation and emotional clarity use different types of knowledge. Specifically, emotional clarity may assess the extent to which people have knowledge around their general experience of affect, whereas emotion differentiation begins to assess the sophistication and complexity within this understanding of affect. From these results, it appears that emotional clarity and emotion differentiation are distinct constructs with unique contributions to emotional awareness, though this implication is limited to findings from one empirical study.

Additionally, scholars have suggested that sophistication and complexity within labeling describing emotions is related to emotional clarity and emotional differentiation (Barret, 2006; Coffey et al., 2003; Gohm & Clore, 2002; Kashdan et al., 2015).

Conceptually, this makes sense, as higher degrees of awareness and specificity around the internal dimensions of an emotional reaction, like somatic changes, would be necessary

in order to find precisely representative words for the emotional experience, particularly if it is an intense or multifaceted emotion. Even if more sophisticated or granulated words exist within individuals' emotional lexicons, their ability to accurately use these words seems dependent on also being able to identify internal specific aspects of their emotional experience.

Identifying emotions in others. As mentioned above, there is currently a considerable lack of research around how self-emotional awareness, specifically the ability to identify one's own emotions, may be related to how well one can identify, or perceive, emotional expressions in others. Researchers (Ekman, 1989; Ekman, 2007) have solidified that basic categories of emotions, such as anger, sadness, fear, disgust, and happiness, are universally and cross culturally-apparent, meaning individuals can perceive these categories of emotions and correctly match these emotions to specific facial expressions (Ekman & Cordaro, 2011; Lindquist, Barrett, Gendron, & Dickerson, 2014). For example, a smile is thought to signal happiness, while a scowl would be perceived as anger. Though Ekman's (1987, 2007) work around a universal ability to identify basic emotions is regarded as one of the dominant paradigms within the literature, there also appears to be room for consideration around how the concepts of emotional clarity, granularity, and differentiation may come into play when attempting to perceive more discrete or specific emotional displays, such as a smile representing the broad category of happiness versus more nuanced aspects of the emotion, such as joy, pride, or elation.

Experiencing Emotions

Within the overarching domain of emotional awareness, several researchers (Bagby et al., 2004; Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990) have pointed to certain aspects of emotional experience as possible factors that influence the overall ability to identify and describe emotions. Specifically, these researchers have suggested that, because emotions also have a physical or somatic sensation associated with them, individuals must first be able to attend to these physiological changes in order to associate felt sensations with particular emotions. Additionally, it is known that the frequency or intensity of somatic reactions can help individuals decipher a particular emotional experience, or if there are multiple emotions occurring at once (Bagby et al., 2006).

Bodily awareness of emotions. Across various models and research, several scholars (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990; Tangen, 2017) have attended to the fact that individuals gain information around their emotional state through awareness of bodily, or somatic, sensations. At the lowest level of the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990), individuals are only aware of the physical sensation of an emotional reaction, such as an increased heart rate, but they are unable to target the specific emotion related to this reaction, even if the emotion falls within a basic category of sadness, anger, or joy (Ekman, 2007; Tangen, 2017). For example, an increased heart rate could be related to either feeling excited or nervous about something in their immediate environment. In a related school of thought, scholars have posited that sensitivity to bodily changes promotes overall insight and awareness

around one's emotional state (Mehling et al., 2012; Price & Thompson, 2007; Tsur, Berkovitz, & Ginzburg, 2015), which could then be used to identify more sophisticated and precise emotional states. Additionally, Tsai and Kohlenberg (1991) suggested that learning to apply words or labels to the physiological responses of emotions is a basic skill that is associated with the development of emotional awareness.

The importance of bodily awareness of emotions also appears within the concept of alexithymia. Bagby et al. (1994) noted that higher levels of alexithymia are associated with difficulty understanding somatic reactions to emotionally soliciting events. Additionally, individuals with alexithymia have difficulty extrapolating specific feelings from bodily sensations (Nemiah & Sifneos, 1970; Nemiah, Freyberger, & Sifneos, 1976). In an attempt to expand the alexithymia construct to approximate more closely emotional awareness abilities in children, Rieffe and colleagues (2007, 2008) again called into view the importance of individuals being able to perceive and understand the bodily sensations associated with emotions. On one end of the spectrum, the researchers posited there are concerns associated with an inability to feel any somatic sensations associated with emotions, while the other end of the spectrum, which is more closely related to the construct of alexithymia, individuals are overwhelmed, confused, or unable to relate physical sensations to particular categories or states of effect.

Non-verbal behaviors. With regard to other-emotional awareness, somatic sensations may relate directly to how emotions are displayed non-verbally. Within the second level of the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990), the authors connect initial somatic sensations to a bodily response, or

action tendency, associated with the emotion. Though individuals in Level 2 would continue to lack awareness of specific or differentiated emotion, they would engage in some behavior due to realization of changes within their bodily sensations. For example, they might notice that they are feeling changes within their stomach because of a challenge within their environment, such as interacting with an unpleasant individual, and they then may engage in behaviors of walking or looking away from this person. To expand upon this connection, Tangen (2017) pointed specifically to the fact that non-verbal behavior provides cues to the emotional state of others, and it is possible that more self-emotional awareness of somatic sensations of emotions would positively relate to one's ability to perceive and attend to non-verbal or bodily displays of affect in others. As referenced above, a significant current limitation of the emotional awareness literature is how aspects of self-emotional awareness may relate to other-emotional awareness (Eckland & English, 2018). Thus, this connection, though conceptually promising, has yet to be empirically explored by researchers.

Emotional range. Emotional range is understood as the ability to experience a wide spectrum of affect, including emotions that are both positive and negative in valence (Kang & Shaver, 2004; Tangen, 2017). For example, individuals with a restricted range of emotion may report being only aware of their experiences of positive affect, while simultaneously denying any occurrence of negative emotions, or vice versa. Additionally, it has been argued that emotional range also includes the ability to perceive and tolerate gradients of emotions or intensity of emotions (Tangen, 2017). For example, though persons may be aware that an emotional experience is rooted within negative affect, they

would not be able to attune to the differences between anxiety and panic or sadness and grief. Though Lane and colleagues (1987, 1990) do not explicitly discuss emotional range within their model, there seems to be the implication that a pivotal development within one's ability to be emotionally aware includes developing insight around both positive and negative emotions. Within Level 3, when broad or global categories of emotions begin to emerge, Lane and colleagues do not take into perspective around how a limited emotional range may hinder overall emotional awareness. For example, persons who are able to experience positive affect may be able to differentiate between more discrete categories joy, elation, and pleasure, but they may be restricted within their ability to label negative affect past an unrefined domain of "bad" or "sad." Though there appear to be connections between emotional range and emotional awareness, emotional range is rarely considered within the literature around emotional awareness, with the exception found in Tangen's (2017) conceptual article around connecting elements of emotional complexity, which included emotional range, to the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990).

Dialecticism. The construct of dialecticism is additionally embedded within Tangen's (2017) conceptual article around emotional complexity and emotional awareness. Dialecticism of emotions is also defined in various ways throughout the literature. Lindquist and Barret (2008) presented the concept as the ability to experience multiple emotions at one point in time and, in a similar fashion, Bagozzi, Wong, and Yi (1999) referred to dialecticism as the ability to understand, attend to, and tolerate multiple emotions even if there is a discrepancy between the valence of these emotions. An

illustrative example of both of these definitions may be found within the experience of grief. Within grief, there may be many emotions of anger and sadness that represent negative affective aspects of the emotion, though there may also be the presence of a more positive emotional experience of acceptance (Kübler-Ross & Kessler, 2005).

Though again Lane and colleagues did not explicitly address dialecticism within their Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990), the construct does seem to be implicitly embedded within their model. Within the latter two levels of the model, the capacity to experience and understand blends of emotions begins to emerge. Specifically, individuals can now identify that multiple emotions can be simultaneously experienced and expressed, even if they are experiencing two different discrete emotions, such as feeling both hurt and angry. Furthermore, individuals are now able to experience multiple emotions even if they are seemingly conflictual or mixed, such as feeling hurt and also relieved while grieving. Tangen (2017) stated that individuals with emotional dialecticism not only can experience but also accept that there may not be one “correct” emotional reaction, and other scholars have supported the notion that empathy is also related to dialecticism. Chhatwal and Lane (2016) and Subic-Wrana et al. (2011) proposed that the ability to experience and understand that one single event may evoke multiple different internal emotions also allows for the conceptualization that others may have different or conflicting emotional reactions to the same event.

Interpreting Emotions

Across the literature, various definitions of emotional awareness include the ability to describe emotional experiences, as well as the ability to explain and understand emotional reactions in both self and others (Ciarrochi et al., 2005; Coffey et al., 2003; Gohm & Clore, 2002; Lane et al., 2000; Monti & Rudolph, 2014; Penza-Clyve & Seman, 2002). Although the researcher has written previous sections exploring emotional awareness by focusing primarily on internal insight or cognitive understanding of emotional experiences, it appears that a significant factor of emotional awareness also includes the ability to interpret or extrapolate meaning from emotions, as well as use these cognitive processes to engage in communication with others (Suslow, Donges, Kersting, & Arolt, 2000).

Describing emotions. Describing emotional experiences can be understood as assigning words or concepts, such as metaphors or images, to represent an emotional experience (Bagby et al., 2006). Despite the fact that describing emotions is often included in various operational definitions of emotional awareness (Ciarrochi et al. 2005, Monti & Rudolph, 2014; Rieffe et al., 2008), there appears to be considerably less information around describing emotions throughout the emotional awareness literature; however, there is some relevance and direction found within the concept and measurement of alexithymia. Though both the ability to identify and the ability to describe emotions utilize emotional vocabularies, or emotional lexicons, there is an argument to support that the two constructs represent separate concepts because of how alexithymia is understood and measured. Specifically, within the TAS-20 scale (Bagby et

al., 1994), a subscale of this measure is devoted to “difficulty describing feelings” and another subscale is written to assess “difficulty identifying feelings.” During the initial development of the TAS-20, interviews were conducted with two groups of individuals, community control participants and those receiving outpatient counseling services. Within these interviews, individuals in both groups reported that they would sometimes struggle to find the right words to represent how they were feeling, though their struggle sometimes depended on the intensity of the emotional reaction. If an emotional reaction was more intense or there were likely multiple emotions occurring at one time, participants reported that these were particular instances in which they perhaps could identify a particular emotional state, but it was difficult to describe their reactions to others (Bagby et al., 1994). Furthermore, during an effort to create a structured interview for the assessment of alexithymia, researchers found that a salient aspect of the ability to describe emotions was related to writing about feelings or talking in-depth about feelings (Bagby et al., 2006). Thus, it seems as if the ability to describe emotions is separate from the ability to identify emotions, as describing emotions relates more so to providing depth or additional insight past assigning a particular word to a particular emotional state.

Describing emotions in others. In a similar fashion to the lack of information around what specifically describing emotions in self encompasses, there is even less information around what describing emotions in others may entail. As previously mentioned, a significant limitation within previous studies and measurement of emotional awareness is to study the concept purely from the focus of self-emotional awareness while disregarding other-emotional awareness (Bailen et al., 2019; Davis et al., 2019;

Monti & Rudolph, 2014); thus, the limited amount of direction around describing emotions in others may be a related limitation. However, within counseling literature, there is some support for the importance of describing emotions through the use of images and metaphors. Various researchers (Babits, 2001; Dennin & Ellis, 2003; Lyddon, Clay, & Sparks, 2001; Robert & Kelly, 2010) have posited that the use of metaphors and images within counseling can help clients explore and symbolize emotions, including emotions that were previously unexpressed or unrecognized, and that metaphors help to foster the conditions for counselors to bring about change and growth within their clients (Wickman, Daniels, White, & Fesmire, 1999). Specifically, metaphors and images can be used to enhance case conceptualizations, therapeutic relationships, and intervention strategies (Robert & Kelly, 2010; Young & Borders, 1998). Thus, though there is limited information within the body of literature specific to emotional awareness, it does seem as if literature from counseling and counselor education provide helpful and relevant directions for asserting the importance of describing emotions.

Analyzing emotions. Various researchers point to the importance of being able to understand or explain emotions as an aspect of emotional awareness (Jellesma, Rieffe, Meerum Terwogt, & Kneepkens, 2006; Rieffe et al., 2008; Van Bevern et al., 2019). Specifically, Rieffe and colleagues (2008) stated that a core aspect of emotional awareness is the ability to understand, or analyze, the causes of particular emotions in both self and others. Though the focus of Rieffe and colleagues' (2008) work was around developing an emotional awareness scale for children, the EAQ30, the authors also drew necessary attention to how understanding the antecedents and results of particular

emotional experiences are important components of emotional awareness. With regard to the results of emotional experiences, Lane and colleagues (1987, 1990) drew some attention to action tendencies, or behaviors, as a result of certain emotions. Thus, the ability to analyze one's own emotions, or understand the causes and results of particular emotional experiences, seems to be particularly relevant within the construct of emotional awareness.

Summary of the Emotional Awareness Literature

As discussed above, the lack of agreement around one conceptual or operational definition of emotional awareness results in many limitations throughout the body of literature around the ability to infer, generalize, and apply empirical findings. As such, the purpose of the current section was to provide a review of the literature, including proposed salient variables and factors of emotional awareness, as well as commonly used subscales and scales to assess the topic at hand. Specifically, contributions of the abilities to identify, experience, and interpret emotions were discussed with regard to the overall topic of emotional awareness. For the purposes of this study, the researcher developed a conceptual model through the integration and synthesis of emotional awareness literature. This model resulted in six total factors: self-identifying emotions, self-experiencing emotions, self-interpreting emotions, other-identifying emotions, other-experiencing emotions, and other-interpreting emotions. As a brief summary of the model: identifying emotions refers to an ability to demonstrate clear awareness and labeling of a specific emotional state across self and others; experiencing emotions reflects the extent to which one can be effectively aware of physiological or bodily aspects associated with emotional

experience for both self and others; and interpreting emotions refers to the ability to describe emotions, as well as understand or analyze emotions, in both self and other.

In conclusion, the need for a conceptual model around emotional awareness arose from observations around a lack of consistency across operational definitions of the construct, as well as a tendency for researchers to approach measuring emotional awareness from multiple vantage points. Because of these inconsistencies, the researcher deemed synthesizing the literature as an important endeavor, as the development of the C-EAS is specifically geared towards creating a robust instrument to assess both self- *and* other-emotional awareness. Furthermore, and as explained further below, there is also a lack of consistency in regard to assessing and understanding facets of emotional awareness within counselor education. Thus, in conclusion, the researcher ultimately hopes the development of the conceptual model with the six aforementioned factors can guide empirical endeavors around emotional awareness within counseling and counselor education.

Emotional Awareness and Counselor Education

Researchers (Batten & Santanello, 2004; Easton et al., 2008; Loganbill et al., 1982; Martin et al., 2004) have posited that building insight and understanding around emotion is an important aspect of counselor development. Counselors-in-training may be more accurate in assessing and responding to clients' emotions as their ability to identify and be aware of emotions increases (Machado et al., 1999; Tangen, 2017). Young (2013) remarked specifically on the need for counselors in training to develop awareness around affective processes to master certain skills, such as reflections of feeling, as well as

building a strong therapeutic rapport with clients. For example, a counselor may notice their own physiological responses of tightness in their muscles and an increase in their rate of breathing in response to a client disclosing experiences of trauma. Then, this counselor may identify “anxious” as their current emotional state. Furthermore, and within this same exchange, the counselor may also notice their client speaking at a more rapid pace with shifting body movements, which would then cause the counselor to label the current emotional state of their client as “anxious” as well.

As briefly outlined, one particular exchange within a solitary counseling session reads as complex and multifaceted with many variables. However, the current body of research around emotional awareness within counselor education is relatively limited and currently lacks the aforementioned depth and complexity associated with the phenomenon. To date, emotional awareness within counselor education appears to be most informed through three scholars and their respective conceptual models: Loganbill et al.’s (1982) conceptual model of emotional awareness in clinical supervision, Batten and Santanello’s (2009) Four-Phase Model of Emotional Awareness Training, and a conceptual article outlining the relationships between emotional awareness and emotional complexity within counseling supervision (Tangen, 2017). Each of the aforementioned models will be explored below, as well as an informed argument for why emotional awareness must be measured and considered within counseling and counselor education.

Conceptual Models in Counselor Education

With regard to Loganbill and colleagues’ (1982) work, the authors described emotional awareness as an “extremely important theme” (p. 21) that refers to counseling

trainees' ability to be aware of and effectively use their emotions within the therapeutic relationship. The authors stated that counselors' own emotional reactions to their clients provide rich and salient material that the counseling trainee must learn to use for the benefit of counseling, such as selection of interventions and diagnoses. In order to do so, however, Loganbill and colleagues (1982) describe that counseling trainees must have both awareness and acceptance of their emotional state, along with a trust that emotional information about the client is relevant, accurate, and useful. As such, Loganbill et al., (1982) posited that counseling trainees must progress through three stages of emotional awareness during counselor education: (1) unawareness of emotion; (2) recognition of emotion; and (3) acceptance of emotion.

Though the stages found within this conceptual model are informative and helpful in the sense that the scholars (Loganbill et al., 1982) clearly stated a need for emotional awareness specific to the counseling session to be developed during training, these stages also have been criticized due to a lack of depth around the stages themselves. Tangen (2017) stated that this model may not be descriptive enough to guide and scaffold emotional awareness one step at a time because there is a lack of consideration around how emotional awareness skills specifically develop. Additionally, the authors failed to provide specific strategies or interventions for how supervisors and educators could foster emotional awareness within counseling trainees. Thus, though the Loganbill et al. (1982) model provides a brief outline and argument for importance of emotional awareness within counselor education, there is a considerable room for expansion and further investigation of the model. Specifically, Loganbill et al.'s (1982) model and argument

could be empirically validated through measuring counseling trainee's emotional awareness as they progress through counselor education and their three aforementioned stages.

In a similar line of thought, Batten and Santanello's (2009) Four-Phase Model of Emotional Awareness Training also provided an argument for the importance of developing emotional awareness throughout a counselor education program. The authors proposed that a counselor's in-session emotions are an important source of information to guide the therapeutic process, a point supported by other researchers (Easton et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2004) who have stated that an essential skill within the development of a counselor is the ability to attend to and respond to client emotions while also managing their own internal emotional experiences. Central to their argument, Batten and Santanello (2009) stated that, though counseling trainees will likely develop emotional awareness skills and abilities as they gain more experience, the authors also argued that emotional awareness skills can be trained directly through clinical supervision. As such, Batten and Santanello (2009) organized the development of emotional awareness across four phases during counselor education: (1) developing emotional awareness skills; (2) generalizing emotional awareness to the therapeutic context; (3) linking emotional data to the client behavior; (4) and using emotional data to test hypotheses.

As a considerable strength to their model, Batten and Santanello (2009) provided specific tasks for both trainees and supervisors to address within clinical supervision in order to bolster trainees' emotional awareness, along with some guidelines around how to assess the emotional awareness abilities of counseling trainees. Though not explicitly

discussed or integrated by Batten and Santanello (2006), there does appear to be overlap between the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) and the Four-Phase Model of Emotional Awareness Training. For example, Batten and Santanello (2006) discussed beginning to build emotional awareness skills by helping trainees attend to bodily sensations first, and then supporting supervisees in placing a label upon those internal experiences. As outlined within the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987), awareness of physiological sensations that are then linked to a specific label of the emotion is reflected in the first and third levels of their model.

However, the connections between Batten and Santanello's (2009) work Lane and colleagues (1987, 1990) model seem to stop there. Tangen (2017) specifically drew attention to the fact that the first stage of Batten and Santanello's Four-Phase Model of Emotional Awareness Training (2009) is "developing emotional awareness skills," meaning that, within Batten and Santanello's model, counseling trainees would move through all five levels of Lane and colleagues Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (1987) in one stage. Furthermore, Batten and Santanello (2009) did not integrate other levels of the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (1987) into their writing. For example, the second level of Lane and colleague's (1987) model reflects the ability to associate a particular a particular emotion to a desired action tendency, which could appear as asking a series of closed-ended questions due to feeling anxious in the counseling setting. Additionally, Batten and Santanello (2009) did not account for the ability to be aware of complex emotional blends, which is reflected in the latter levels of

the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987). This could appear as a counseling trainee being unable to acknowledge that their client is feeling both sadness *and* relief due to ending an unhealthy relationship. Again, because of the absence of a currently available instrument to robustly assess self- and other-emotional awareness in counseling trainees, it is currently not possible to empirically explore if Batten and Santanello's (2009) Four-Phase Model of Emotional Awareness Training does indeed bolster emotional awareness in counseling trainees, or if there does need to be additional emphasis around how the first phase of developing emotional awareness skills may occur.

Regardless, the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) appears to have particular relevance for counseling and counselor education, and this was further explained by Tangen (2017). In an important step to provide more depth and context to the development of emotional awareness skills, Tangen (2017) applied the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) to counselor education and development. As described above, the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) is a developmental model of emotional awareness that categorizes certain abilities across five distinct, yet progressive, levels that are hierarchical in nature, such that progression to the next level is contingent upon adequate development within previous levels. Because of the lack of depth within Batten and Santanello's (2009) and Loganbill et al.'s (1982) models, Tangen (2017) sought to address this by skillfully integrating both the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987;

Lane et al., 1990) and important concepts of emotional complexity to better explain the development of emotional awareness within counseling trainees.

Within this noteworthy work, Tangen (2017) conceptualized counseling trainees across the five levels in order to provide a more robust explanation behind the variability across counseling trainees' emotional awareness abilities. At the lowest level, counselors are aware of *somatic sensations* only, such as muscle tightness, but lack the ability to relate this physical sensation to anxiety. The next level includes counselors who engage in some *action tendency*, such as speaking at a faster rate, in response to the somatic sensation. However, counselors at the second level continue to be unaware of their experience of the specific emotion of anxiety, and thus unable to relate the emotion to their behavior. At the third level, the ability to identify *basic emotions* emerges, such as Ekman's (2007) universal categories of sadness, anger, fear, or joy, or even a less discrete description of simply feeling "bad" in response to the initial somatic sensation. For counselors in the latter two levels of this model, the ability to understand *emotional blends* appears. On the fourth level, a counselor could identify being anxious as well as how fear regarding being confronted with the specific demand of providing trauma informed counseling, for example, influences the overall affective experience. Within the final level, the highest amount of ability and sophistication occurs when an individual can identify a *combination of emotional blends*, such as feeling both fearful and excited by the task at hand, which contributes to the overall experience of anxiety during a counseling session.

In addition to extrapolating the levels to counseling supervision, Tangen (2017) also drew attention to the fact that, though highly informative, the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987) lacks some necessary attention to emotional complexity. Specifically, Tangen (2017) argued that there needs to be further attention to three components of emotional complexity: range, dialecticism, and granularity. According to Tangen (2017), and as reflected in the literature review above, emotional complexity broadly represents the ability to attend to various aspects of emotions, such as a range of both intensity and valence of emotional experiences, as well as emotion combinations, or the ability to engage in more than one emotion, even conflicting emotions, at the same time. Through combining the frameworks of both emotional awareness and emotional complexity, Tangen (2017) provided specific examples around how to assess and intervene with counseling trainees that may present with various levels of emotional abilities. For example, supervisees who may have limited awareness into both dialecticism (emotional complexity) and emotional blends (emotional awareness) may struggle to identify that their client is experiencing more than one emotion at a particular time, and thus they would struggle to provide the client with complex reflections of feeling.

In conclusion, counseling trainees' development of emotional awareness now has a more nuanced conceptualization in comparison to the models outlined by Loganbill et al., (1982) and Batten and Santanello (2009), and Tangen (2017) provided supervisory interventions specific to a counseling trainee's level of emotional awareness in order to foster growth and development in this important area. Though Tangen (2017) provided

the most recent and informative understanding of the variability within counseling trainees' abilities to be emotionally aware, the major limitation of this noteworthy scholarly endeavor is also apparent within each of the aforementioned conceptual models by Loganbill et al. (1982) and Batten and Santanello (2009). Because each of these models are conceptual in nature, researchers have not yet empirically validated the aforementioned stages within counselor education, limiting their validity and utility within the field. Additionally, and in a similar fashion to the larger body of emotional awareness literature, there is an absence of a currently agreed upon approach to conceptualize and understand emotional awareness throughout counselor education. Though each of the aforementioned models are complimentary in certain ways, there also appears to be a need for one uniformed, standardized, and empirically validated model to explain the development of emotional awareness during counselor education. However, in order to validate these clinical supervision conceptual models, one must be able to accurately measure emotional awareness specific to the context in which they occur – in this case, counseling and counselor education. As such, an argument for the need for an instrument to assess self- and other-emotional awareness specific to counseling and counselor education will be considered further below.

Importance of Measuring Emotional Awareness

Though Loganbill et al.'s (1982) conceptual model of emotional awareness in clinical supervision, Batten and Santanello's (2009) Four-Phase Model of Emotional Awareness Training, and Tangen's (2017) work around emotional awareness and emotional complexity are each noteworthy in various ways, a considerable limitation at

this point in time is the fact that none of the models are empirically validated. Thus, although each conceptual model appears to have relevance and validity for informing counselor educators, there are also limitations around the degree in which these conceptual models are generalizable to all counseling students, specifically students who present with various amounts of emotional awareness. Although the lack of a psychometrically valid instrument for assessing counseling-specific emotional awareness limits current knowledge around why certain trainees may have differences within their emotional awareness abilities, Tangen (2017) postulated that, for some counselors in training, the language of emotions and development of a cognitive understanding of emotions may not have occurred during early human development; therefore, counseling trainees may present to counselor education programs with either restricted or bolstered levels of emotional awareness. However, as mentioned, the processes behind how and why counselors in training are at differing developmental levels of emotional awareness have yet to be empirically validated.

Regardless, a multitude of researchers have pointed to the importance of developing insight, awareness, and understanding of emotions throughout counselor education. During counselor education, counseling trainees are not only presented with various skills and techniques to master, but students are also expected to learn how to conceptualize emotion and to use this knowledge to direct in-session behaviors and the overall course of therapy (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Easton et al., 2008; Tangen, 2017). In-session emotions, either emotions demonstrated by the client or internal affective experiences of the counselor, provide significant information that counselors can use to

inform a variety of therapeutic decisions (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Easton et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2004; Young, 2013). Young (2013) remarked specifically on the need for counselors in training to develop awareness around affective processes to master certain skills, such as reflections of feeling, as well as building a strong therapeutic rapport with clients.

Additionally, there is some evidence that the ability to identify emotions in self and others is related to stronger amounts of counseling self-efficacy for counseling trainees and counseling practitioners. In a two-phase study, researchers found that the perceived ability to identify one's own emotions and one's perceived ability to identify other's emotions were related to confidence in executing microskills, attending to client process, and dealing with difficult client behaviors, all of which are considered to be central aspects of counseling self-efficacy and clinically competent behaviors (Easton et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2004). Martin and colleagues (2004) stated that the ability to identify one's own emotions is an essential skill within the counseling environment, specifically pointing to the fact that counselors must be aware of emotions in order to regulate them as well as effectively prevent concerns around transference and countertransference. Additionally, Easton and colleagues (2008) postulated that identifying other's emotions was central to certain microskills, such as reflection of feeling, and the ability to assist clients in accurately observing and interpreting their feelings.

Though these findings are promising, a significant limitation within the body of literature emerges through a critique of their methodology. Both Easton et al. (2008) and

Martin et al. (2004) utilized a measure of emotional *intelligence*, the Emotional Judgement Inventory (EJI; Bedwell, 2002). Although emotional awareness and emotional intelligence seem to be similar constructs, from the thorough review of the literature presented above, it becomes apparent that these constructs do not address the same facets. Emotional intelligence is historically regarded as an ability to reason about emotions and use emotions to enhance thought (Salovey, Mayer, & Caruso, 2004), as well as an ability to recognize the meaning of emotions and use this insight for problem solving (Mayer, Caruso, & Salovey, 1999; Mayer, 2004). Thus, emotional intelligence fails to adequately capture facets of emotional awareness, such as emotional granularity, dialecticism, emotional range, and bodily or somatic sensations. It is also worthwhile to note that the construct of emotional intelligence was specifically designed for application within business environments (Mayer et al., 1999; Salovey et al., 2004; Bedwell, 2002); thus, the EJI and other emotional intelligence instruments are not likely to accurately assess emotional abilities specific to the counseling environment. Relatedly, Hall (2009) critiqued the use of the EJI (Bedwell, 2002) or other emotional intelligence inventories within counseling and counselor education, noting they lack construct validity because the skills counselors need for working within therapeutic environments are arguably different than those required for work within the business environment.

Regardless, it may be worthwhile to briefly note that additional researchers have investigated certain aspects of counseling and counselor education as they relate to the construct of emotional intelligence, as emotional intelligence inventories do tend to assess the ability identify the emotional states of self and others (Bedwell, 2002; Mayer et

al., 1999; Schutte et al., 1997). Through the use of total scores on the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire-Short Form (TEIQue-SF; Petrides & Furnham, 2001), Guitierrez and Mullen (2016) explored the connection between emotional intelligence and burnout, and Guitierrez, Mullen, and Fox (2016) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence, empathy, and stress. The researchers found that emotional intelligence had a significant and negative correlation to burnout and stress (Guitierrez & Mullen, 2016; Guitierrez et al., 2016), which signifies the importance of bolstering awareness of emotions during training because both counselor education programs and the field of counseling are regarded as taxing and sometimes stressful environments that can easily lead to burnout (Lee, Cho, Kissinger, & Ogle, 2007; Roach & Young, 2007; Young & Lambie, 2007). Furthermore, Guitierrez et al. (2016) found that emotional intelligence has a positive and significant correlation with both cognitive and affective empathy. Because empathy historically has been regarded as a key component to how and why counseling works (Duan & Hill, 1996; Rogers, 1957), it seems apparent that counselor educators should gain a deeper and more robust understanding of how the emotional abilities of counselors relate to such salient variables of the counseling relationship.

Chapter Summary

In short, through various empirical and conceptual endeavors, it is clear that counseling trainees must develop an ability to be simultaneously aware of their own affect (*self*-emotional awareness) as well as the emotions of their clients (*other*-emotional awareness) across the course of counselor education. As previously expounded upon,

various aspects of emotional awareness have direct implications for counseling self-efficacy, counselor development, the counseling relationship, and counselor wellness (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Easton et al., 2008; Guitierrez & Mullen, 2016; Guitierrez et al., 2016; Loganbill et al., 1982; Martin et al., 2004; Tangen, 2017). Thus, it is imperative to seek further understanding around the processes that influence counseling students' emotional awareness, both prior to entering an entry-level training program as well as throughout counselor development. However, and as frequently referenced throughout the current chapter, the need and significance of the study at hand is to create and validate a psychometrically sound instrument to assess self- and other-emotional awareness within counseling and counselor education.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

In Chapters One and Two, a rationale and a literature review were presented in support of a study to develop an instrument to assess self- and other-emotional awareness within counseling trainees. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a description of the methods by which the current study will be conducted, including hypotheses, steps in instrument development, and study methodology.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1: What is the factor structure of the C-EAS?

Hypothesis 1: A factor model with six factors will produce an adequate model fit.

Research Question 2: To investigate reliability, what is the internal consistency for items used on the overall C-EAS measure?

Hypothesis 2: There will be adequate internal consistency for the C-EAS as evidence by a Cronbach's alpha coefficient of .70 or above for the overall scale.

Research Question 3: To what extent is there evidence of convergent validity for the C-EAS?

Hypothesis 3: The C-EAS factors will have a significant and negative correlation with a conceptually similar scale, the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994).

Research Question 4: To what extent is there discriminate validity for the C-EAS?

Hypothesis 4: The C-EAS factors will have a significant and negative correlation with a conceptually different scale, the Counseling Self-Efficacy Scale (CSES; Melchert et al., 1996).

Research Question 5: Are scores on the C-EAS scores influenced by socially desirable responding?

Hypothesis 5: The ten-item Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS-10; Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972) will not significantly correlate with scores on the C-EAS.

Development of the Counselors' Emotional Awareness Scale (C-EAS)

Using guidelines provided by DeVellis (2011), the process of instrument development will occur in seven steps, outlined below.

Determine What is to be Measured

According to psychometric scholars (DeVellis, 2011; Lee & Lim, 2008), the first step of instrument development is to specifically determine and outline the construct to be measured. It is important for this first step to be guided by theory for two reasons: (1) to strengthen the validity and reliability psychometric properties of the instrument and (2) to increase the utility of the results in interpretation and application (DeVellis, 2011). As outlined by a review of the literature throughout Chapter Two, it is apparent that there is no single or solitary theory or approach that adequately captures the construct of emotional awareness. Though previous instruments were used to guide the overall process of item development, the researcher also considered theories of emotional awareness, such as the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987),

and also the synthesis and integration of the emotional awareness literature in order to create a new instrument with a variety of new items. Thus, the development of the CEA-S has been guided by an integration of various instruments previously used to measure aspects of the construct (Bagby et al., 1994; Gratz & Roemer, 2004; Lane et al., 1990; Rieffe et al., 2007; Salovey et al., 1995), the clinically-based concept of alexithymia (Sifneos, 1996; Taylor, 1994), and the Levels of Emotional Awareness Model developed by Lane and colleagues (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990). Additionally, the development of the C-EAS has been considerably guided by the researcher's development of a conceptual model of emotional awareness encompassing identifying, experience, and interpreting emotions across the domains of both self and others.

In addition to theory, DeVellis (2011) highlighted the importance of making clear whether the focus is specificity or generality within instrument development, which means the extent to which an instrument measures either a specific construct within a specific environment or a general construct within a general environment. An instrument, for example that is designed to measure a broad construct, such as cognitive complexity in general or day-to-day interactions, may contain less specific and more general language than a measure designed to assess cognitive complexity specific to counseling (Welfare, 2007). Additionally, scale specificity can vary along a number of dimensions, including content domains (general insight of emotions vs. counseling specific emotional awareness), settings (home or personal venues vs. professional training environments), or population (all working adults vs. counselors).

Because the purpose of the study at hand is to design an instrument for relevance to counseling and counselor education, the C-EAS will have specificity as it relates to counseling specific self- and other-emotional awareness. Scholars (Ciarrochi et al., 2005; Eckland & English, 2018; Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1990; Rieffe et al., 2007) have outlined that emotional awareness has domains of both intrapersonal (self-emotional awareness) and interpersonal (other-emotional awareness). Secondly, the researcher hypothesizes that emotional awareness, like cognitive complexity, may be domain or context specific because of theoretical models that propose emotional awareness uses similar cognitive process as those found within cognitive complexity (Chhatawal & Lane, 2019; Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane & Pollerman, 2002; Welfare, 2007; Welfare & Borders, 2010). However, due to the current lack of a psychometrically valid instrument to assess counseling-specific emotional awareness, the development of the C-EAS is the first step of exploring this hypothesis in a later study. In short, the C-EAS is designed to measure the two dimensions of both self- and other-emotional awareness as it specifically relates to the counseling environment.

Continuing to expound upon the purpose of the study, Devellis (2011) stated the reasons for developing the scale at hand must also be considered when determining what is to be measured by the instrument. The CEA-S is being developed to create a psychometrically sound instrument to robustly capture the complex and multifaceted construct of emotional awareness as it directly pertains to counseling and counselor education as laid out within Chapter Two. With the ability to validly and reliably assess counseling trainees' emotional awareness, the C-EAS can be used to inform and direct

counselor education curriculum and supervision interventions, as well as further scholarly efforts within this domain.

Generate an Item Pool

Generating an item pool, according to Lee and Lim (2008), is one of the most crucial steps within instrument development, as the robustness of the measure hinges on the quality of the items included. DeVellis (2011) added that the content of each item should primarily reflect the essence of the construct of interest, or the components of the construct of interest, as each item will directly relate to the strength of the associated latent variable. Thus, it is important to develop items that fully and clearly reflect the scale's purpose. Ultimately, the description of what exactly the scale is intended to do should guide the item development process. DeVellis suggested that the researcher generate a large pool of items first, and then those items will be candidates for eventual inclusion or exclusion from the scale. For determining how many items will be included in the initial item pool, DeVellis advised generating at least two to three times as many items as needed for the final measure. Kline (2011) provided a rule of thumb that, for the final scale, two items per factor is a minimum, three items per factor is acceptable, and four is best, though more than four can only improve validity and internal consistency.

As described in Chapter Two, The C-EAS is proposed to have six *a priori* factors: Self-Identifying Emotions, Self-Experiencing Emotions, Self-Interpreting Emotions, Other-Identifying Emotions, Other-Experiencing Emotions, and Other-Interpreting Emotions. Therefore, the researcher generated a total of 95 items for the initial item pool (Appendix A). With regard to the syntax and structure of the items, the researcher

followed the advice of Kline (2011) and DeVellis (2011) and sought to develop items (a) focused on one specific concept to prevent double barreled items, or items that convey two or more ideas at a time; (b) were brief and precise by including only relevant information; and (c) avoided ambiguity, biases, double-negatives, and all-or-none language. An additional consideration at hand was to develop *negatively worded* items to represent low levels of the construct (e.g., “I struggle to find words to describe my feelings”) as well as *positively worded* items (e.g., “I find it easy to understand the emotions of my clients”). DeVellis noted that inclusion of both positively and negatively worded items within the same scale helps to prevent acquiescence, or agreement bias.

Determine the Format for Measurement

DeVellis (2011) provided the instruction that the format of the measure should directly compliment the wording of the items. For example, items generated for an observational checklist would be written differently than items intended to measure perceived abilities around a certain construct, such as emotional awareness. As noted in Chapters One and Two, the majority of instruments related to emotional awareness are self-report measures using Likert-based scales with the items scored on a 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). The C-EAS will employ a similar scaling structure whereby higher scores on items will reflect stronger emotional awareness abilities, with the exception of items that will be reverse scored.

Have Initial Item Pool Reviewed by Experts

As suggested by DeVellis (2011), the items used within the measure should be reviewed by individuals with expert knowledge or experience with the construct at hand.

After the initial item pool for the C-EAS was generated, the researcher employed two methods for item review utilizing three expert reviewers. Each expert reviewer met inclusion criteria of a minimum of five years of experience within counselor education and supervision, specifically including experience in supervision and instruction of emotional-based counseling skills, and/or a demonstrated scholarly agenda exploring emotions within counseling, counselor education, or supervision. The first review method involved asking each of the expert reviewers to participate in an item sorting task (see Appendix B). The sorting task involved providing the expert reviewers with a table outlining the proposed factors of the model, along with operational definitions and descriptions of each of the proposed factors (see Appendix C). The expert reviewers were then asked to use this information to sort each of the items in the initial item pool into the correct factor. In other words, the expert reviewers were asked to determine which factor the item seemed to be measuring. After completing the sorting task, the second review method involved requesting for the expert reviewers to provide feedback for the initial item pool around item wording, clarity of items, redundancy within the items, and whether the items had face validity to represent the construct of emotional awareness (see Appendix D). Because expert review of the items was included within the pilot study, the specific steps and results of this process will be detailed below in the pilot study section.

Consider Inclusion of Validation Items

According to DeVellis (2011), it is often helpful, and relatively convenient, to include additional items on a scale to control for potential flaws or errors within the responses that will ultimately impact the validity of the final instrument. One

phenomenon to consider is that of social desirability, which is related to internal motivations to answer the items in ways that are determined to be desirable or socially preferred answers. DeVellis recommended employing a short social desirability scale in order to assess if certain participants' responses should be excluded from the data. If items on a social desirability scale are significantly correlated with other items, then this occurrence would merit consideration for exclusion. For the purposes of this study, the researcher will use a shortened, 10-item version of the Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972), which is described below, to test if a significant proportion of a participant's score can be accounted for by socially desirable responding.

Main Study

The fifth and sixth steps outlined by DeVellis (2011) include administering the items to a development sample and evaluating the items, while the seventh and final step includes optimizing scale length and factor analysis. For the study at hand, each of the three latter steps of instrument development (DeVellis, 2011) will be included within the main study.

Administer Items to Development Sample and Evaluate the Items

For purposes of outlining the study methodology, the fifth and sixth steps of administering the items to a development sample and evaluating the items are combined within the following section and described together.

Participants. Across the literature, it appears that there are no consistent recommendations for sampling sizes when creating an instrument. For factor analysis,

general recommendations for a participant to item ratio range from 5-10:1, with an additional suggestion to obtain a minimum sample size of at least 200 participants (Mvududu & Sink, 2013; Tinsely & Tinsely, 1987). Furthermore, and as referenced earlier, the validity and internal consistency of the scale can be improved by the inclusion of four or more items per factor (Kline, 2011). Because the C-EAS has a total of six *a priori* factors within the scale, the researcher sought to include at least six items for each factor, chosen based on the pilot study procedures (see below). This resulted in a total of 56 items on the C-EAS for the main study. Thus, a minimum of 280 participants will be needed for this study in order to provide adequate data to investigate the validity and reliability of the instrument at hand.

In order to provide variability within the sample, which will maximize the variance on the items, the researcher will seek a sample composed of three subgroups: counseling students, counseling practitioners, and counselor educators. After obtaining approval from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), the researcher will employ convenience and snowball sampling techniques. Participants will be contacted via email and social media outlets (e.g., LinkedIn, Facebook, Twitter); specific details regarding how each subgroup of participants are defined and will be sampled are outlined below. For participant recruiting via known email addresses, the researcher will contact each of these individuals to request participation in the study (see Appendix E-F). With regard to snowball sampling, the researcher will ask all participants at the end of the online survey to forward the survey link to anyone they know to be eligible to participate in the study (see Appendix G).

Counseling students. For the purposes of this study, counseling students will be defined as individuals who are enrolled either full-time or part-time in a CACREP accredited program at either master's or doctoral levels of study. Because the C-EAS includes items written specifically to assess ability to be aware of clients' emotions, master's level students will be eligible to participate if they have completed at least one semester of study to ensure that they are at least familiar with the term "client," as well as some familiarity of how emotions and self- and other-emotional awareness may be used in counseling. CACREP accreditation is deemed to be preferable as it provides standardization for educational and training experiences of the participants. After obtaining IRB approval, counseling students will be contacted via two methods. First, the researcher will reach out to various faculty members of counselor education programs, known to the researcher and/or her doctoral committee members, via email with a request to disseminate an online survey to all currently enrolled entry-level and doctoral students (see Appendix E). The second method of recruitment will occur via social media outlets, such as Facebook, LinkedIn, and Twitter (see Appendix H). The researcher views the latter recruitment strategy as beneficial as this may allow for direct contact with counseling students instead of relying only on faculty dissemination of the survey. Additionally, counseling students will be asked to engage in snowball sampling and send the study information to other eligible peers who are also counseling trainees.

Counselor educators. Counselor educators will be defined as individuals (faculty) who hold a Ph.D. in counseling and counselor education/counselor education and supervision and who are currently working in a counselor education program. After

obtaining IRB approval, counselor educators will be recruited in two ways, similar to the methods that will be employed to recruit counseling students. First, the researcher will directly contact counselor educators through known email addresses, such as alumni or retrieval of faculty email addresses from departmental websites (see Appendix E). The researcher hopes that this direct and engaging method of contact, (e.g., emails addressed specifically to each faculty member) will encourage the counselor educators to complete the survey themselves, as well as disseminate the study information directly to their students via snowball sampling (see Appendix G). In a similar fashion to recruitment of counseling trainees, aforementioned social media outlets will be used as the second method of recruitment for counselor educators (see Appendix H).

Practitioners. Counseling practitioners will be defined as individuals who are either fully licensed or provisionally licensed as a professional counselor within their respective states. After obtaining IRB approval, the researcher will contact alumni and professional colleagues via email with a request to both participate in and disseminate the survey link (see Appendix F). The researcher also plans to contact state licensure boards for professional counselors (e.g., the North Carolina Board of Licensed Professional Counselors [NCBLPC] and the Virginia Board of Counseling) to ask for access to a list of individuals seeking or holding professional counselor licensures in the respective state. Additionally, the researcher will use social media outlets (e.g., mental health professional groups on Facebook, LinkedIn) and snowball sampling to recruit participants within this subgroup (see Appendix H), which may be desirable as counseling practitioners' contact

information, such as email addresses, may not be publicly listed or released by their respective licensing boards.

General procedures. As briefly mentioned above, a link to a Qualtrics survey will be included in each email or social media contact sent to the participants using the aforementioned outlets. The link will first take participants to an informed consent document (see Appendix I), which will brief participants regarding the purpose of the study; at the end of the informed consent, participants will need to indicate electronically that they have read and understood the document and are consenting to participate in the study before they are allowed to proceed to the next page where they will indicate if they are a counseling student (either master's or doctoral), a counselor educator, or a counseling practitioner. After completing all of the survey measures, which will be explored below, participants will complete a brief demographic form (see Appendix J). The researcher's decision for placing demographic items after completing each of the survey measures is supported by survey design scholars (Dillman, Smyth, & Christian, 2014). Because the length of the overall survey can be perceived as lengthy with an approximate completion time of 15 minutes, Dillman et al. (2014) recommends placing the demographic items at the end of the survey to reduce participant burden and thus attrition from the survey. Furthermore, if participants should elect to leave the survey prior to completing the demographic measures, the researcher will still be able to use data from these participants in order to investigate reliability and validity of the C-EAS.

Instruments. The following section will outline in detail the instrumentation employed within the study to assess the validity and reliability of the C-EAS.

C-EAS. The C-EAS (Appendix K) consists of 56 items and is designed to assess self- and other-emotional awareness in counseling trainees. The researcher has identified six *a priori* factors Self-Identifying Emotions, Self-Experiencing Emotions, Self-Interpreting Emotions, Other-Identifying Emotions, Other-Experiencing Emotions, and Other-Interpreting Emotions (see Appendix C). The response format for the items is self-report, with items scored using a 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*) Likert based scale. Example items from the self-identifying emotions and other-identifying emotions include “I find it easy to know exactly what emotion I’m experiencing” and “When my clients are experiencing an emotion, I feel confused about what specific emotion they are experiencing (reverse coded),” respectively. For the self-experiencing and other-experiencing factor, respective example items are “When I am experiencing more than one emotion at a time, I don’t feel confused by this” and “Some client actions (e.g., crossing arms, looking away, facial expressions) suggest to me they may be experiencing specific emotions.” Lastly, for the self-interpreting and other-interpreting emotions factors, example items include “I often do not know why I feel a certain way (reverse coded)” and “I find it hard to put into words what my clients are experiencing (reverse coded),” respectively. For a full list of items, including which items are reversed scored, please see Appendix K. A higher score on the overall scale will reflect stronger emotional awareness abilities and higher levels of emotional awareness. Through the use of item correlations and confirmatory factor analysis, the researcher will investigate if the measure should be scored using a total score, or if the C-EAS can be scored across two

subscales: self-emotional awareness and other-emotional awareness. Further details regarding this procedure will be outlined within Chapter Four.

TAS-20. The TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a; Appendix L) will be used to capture participants' abilities to identify and describe their own emotions. Because the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a) and C-EAS are proposed to measure conceptually overlapping areas of emotional awareness, the TAS-20 will function as a measure of concurrent (convergent) validity. However, and as mentioned in Chapter Two, the TAS-20 only assesses a lack of self-emotional awareness, while the C-EAS is being designed to measure both self- and other-emotional awareness. The TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994) is a 20-item, self-report Likert-type scale with a range from 1 (*not at all like me*) to 5 (*completely like me*) with three subscales: Difficulty Identifying Emotions, Difficulty Describing Emotions, and Externally Orienting Thinking. Example items from the measure include "I am often confused about what emotions I am feeling" and "I am able to describe my feelings easily." Total scores on the measure range from 20 to 100, and higher mean scores on the TAS-20 reflect higher levels of alexithymia, or lower levels of emotional awareness. Thus, the total score will be used within the current study at hand. Bagby et al. (1994b) reported internal reliabilities of $\alpha = .80$, $\alpha = .89$, and $\alpha = .90$ for the subscales, respectively, and a Cronbach's alpha of 0.81 for the total measure. Additionally, Bagby and colleagues reported test-retest reliability of $r = .77$, as well as evidence of discriminate, convergent, and face validity in a population of adult men and women with an average age of 35 years.

CSES. The CSES (Melchert et al., 1996; Appendix M) is a 20-item measure that assesses perceived counseling self-efficacy, specific to the perceived knowledge and perceived skills pertaining to the practice of both group and individual counseling. The CSES (Melchart et al., 1996) is designed to assess these areas across a broad range of participant training and experience, such as the range of participants' years of experience and training in the study at hand. The CSES uses a five-point Likert scale with a range from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*), and scores range from 20 to 100 with higher scores reflecting higher levels of counseling self-efficacy. Example items from the measure include "I can effectively facilitate client self-exploration" and "My knowledge of ethical issues related to counseling is adequate for me to perform professionally." The CSES was found to have strong internal consistency with Cronbach's alpha of .91 and a test-retest reliability of $r = .85$ in a sample of 138 participants with a range of no clinical experience to 15 years of clinical experience (Melchert et al., 1996). Additionally, the authors reported that convergent validity between the CSES and another conceptually similar measure of counselor self-efficacy, the Self-Efficacy Inventory (Friedlander & Snyder, 1983) was high with an $r = .83$ for the same sample. With regard to the impact of level of training and amount of experience on CSES, Melchert et al. (1996) found that when the level of training and years of clinical experience were entered as independent variables into a multiple regression to predict CSES scores, participants' level of training and amount of clinical experience together accounted for 43% of the variance in the CSES scores. However, when investigated independently, level of training accounted only 18% of the variance while clinical experience accounted for 14% of the variance.

Specific to the study at hand, the CSES (Melchert et al., 1996) was chosen for several reasons. Though other measures of counseling self-efficacy do exist (e.g., Friedlander & Snyder, 1983; Larson et al., 1992; Lent, Hill, & Hoffman, 2003), these instruments are primarily intended and often observed for use with counseling students. However, the CSES (Melchert et al., 1996) was created and normed to assess counseling self-efficacy around perceived knowledge and perceived skills across their professional career. As referenced above, the psychometric properties of the CSES were obtained using a sample of participants with a range from no clinical experience to 15 years of clinical experience. Because the sample of the current study at hand will include variability across counseling trainees, counseling practitioners, and counselor educators, the CSES (Melchert et al., 1996) seems to be the most appropriate measure because of the variation within amount of training and years of experience. Additionally, only two of the items on the CSES seem to address concepts somewhat similar to emotional awareness (“I am not able to accurately identify client affect” and “I am not able to accurately identify my own emotional reactions to clients”), and each of these items are reverse coded. Lastly, because the CSES (Melchert et al., 1996) includes only 20-items, this instrument is shorter than other available counseling self-efficacy measures; thus, the CSES will help minimize participant burden due to the lengthiness of the survey at hand.

SDS-10. The Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (SDS) was originally created by Crowne and Marlowe (1960) as a 33-item measure of social desirability. Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) developed a shortened 10-item version of the scale that also holds strong psychometric properties (SDS-10; Appendix N). Scores on the SDS-10

(Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972) range from 1 to 10, and items are answered using a dichotomous true-false scale (e.g., “I am always willing to admit it when I make a mistake”). The higher the score, the greater the level of socially desirable responding. The SDS-10 was found to have high internal consistency and strong correlations with the original version of the measure (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). Specifically, Strahan and Gerbasi (1972) reported Kappa coefficients ranging between .59 and .70, and Fischer and Fick (1993) reported strong internal consistency reliability ($\alpha = .876$) and a significant and positive correlation between the SDS and SDS-10 ($r = .968$). Additionally, and similar to the reasons behind selection of the CSES (Melchert et al., 1996), the SDS-10 is recommended for use when the overall item number within the survey is considered to be high (DeVellis, 2011), such as the study at hand, to decrease participant burden.

Data analysis. The following subsection will detail how the data will be analyzed, as broken down by hypotheses. Prior to hypothesis testing, item descriptive statistics will be examined to look for trends within item variability, to flag items for potential removal, to check for normality within the data, and to investigate if there are group differences within the sample (e.g., differences between level of training and experience, racial or ethnic groups, genders). These steps are essential because confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) will be used to investigate Hypothesis 1. CFA requires multivariate normality to perform maximum likelihood estimations, and any prominent skew or kurtosis in the data may impact the results. Thus, non-normality within the data may result in low standard error estimates, which could lead to Type 1 error (Kline, 2011). If this occurs, the researcher will seek to remove any outliers from

the data set. Additionally, because a covariance matrix is used with CFA, it will be important to screen the data for outliers because covariance matrices are sensitive to outliers (Huber & Ronchetti, 2009), and this will also help reduce any non-normality within the data.

To begin the data analysis process, the database will first be screened for any missing data. Next, the items will be evaluated based on item means, standard deviations, item-total correlations, and skewness and kurtosis values. If item-total correlations are below .2, these items will be flagged for removal (Everitt, 2002). In regard to skewness and kurtosis, Kline (2011) noted that item skewness indices above three reflect high skew and kurtosis indices above 10 reflect high kurtosis. With regard to group differences, the researcher will conduct a series of ANOVA's, and the researcher will utilize Tukey post hoc tests should there be significant differences between two or more groups in order to determine which specific groups significantly differ. Chapter Four will include a discussion how the aforementioned steps were conducted, as well as results from these efforts.

Hypothesis 1. Construct validity will be assessed by testing the factor structure of the C-EAS using CFA. Because the C-EAS is designed around a model with six *a priori* factors, CFA is the optimal methodology because it can adequately assess the goodness of fit for an *a priori* model (Kline, 2011; Mvududu & Sink, 2013). Using MPlus 8 (Muthen & Muthen, 2017), the hypothesized six factor model will be evaluated via goodness of fit indices, such as Chi-square, root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), and comparative model fit (CFI). A Chi-square statistic that is higher than

zero and significant ($p < .05$) may indicate poor model fit, however, Chi-square can be sensitive to large sample sizes, such as the desired $N = 280$ for the study at hand. The RMSEA can account for model complexity and sample size (Raykov & Marcoulides, 200), thus, a RMSEA $< .05$ indicates a strong model fit, indices between .05 and .08 are acceptable fits, and indices above a .10 reflect poor model fit. With regard to CFI, Hu and Bentler reported that a CFI above .90 suggests good model fit. The evaluation of each of the aforementioned goodness of fit indices will indicate if Hypothesis 1 is supported in the current study at hand.

Hypothesis 2. Internal consistency reliability of the C-EAS factors will be assessed by Cronbach's alpha. Cronbach's alpha coefficients between .70 and .80 are viewed as acceptable, between .80 and .90 are considered very good, and above .90 are excellent values of internal consistency (DeVellis, 2011). Internal consistency reliability will determine if the proposed items and factor structure are adequately measuring the construct of emotional awareness. Hypothesis 2 will be supported if Cronbach's alpha coefficient values are determined to be above a .70.

Hypothesis 3. Evidence for convergent validity for the C-EAS will be assessed by correlating the C-EAS with the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a). Though each of these instruments assesses conceptually similar aspects of emotional awareness, specifically identifying and describing emotions, the C-EAS measures ability to be emotionally aware though the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a) assess *lack of* the ability to be emotionally aware. Higher scores on the TAS-20 will reflect lower emotional awareness abilities, while higher scores on the C-EAS will reflect higher emotional awareness abilities. Thus,

the researcher hypothesizes that scores on the C-EAS will significantly and negatively correlate with the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a).

Hypothesis 4. Evidence for discriminant validity on the C-EAS will be assessed by correlating the C-EAS with the CSES (Mechert et al., 1996). Because each of these instruments are measuring conceptually different variables, evidence of discriminant validity should be reflected by significant and negative correlations between the C-EAS and the CSES (Mechert et al., 1996).

Hypothesis 5. To test if scores on the C-EAS are influenced by socially desirable responding, scores on the C-EAS will be correlated with scores on the SDS (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). A nonsignificant correlation will suggest that socially desirable responding will not influence scores on the C-EAS.

Optimize Scale Length

The final step of instrument development as recommended by DeVellis (2011) is to optimize the length of the final scale. If Cronbach's alpha coefficients are above .90 or factor loadings are above .85 for some items, there is likely to be redundancy. In these cases, DeVellis recommended shortening the scale by dropping items from the instrument that have Cronbach's alpha coefficients above .90 or factor loadings above .85. This final step of the instrument development process will be described in more detail during the item analysis section of Chapter Four.

Pilot Study

Prior to administration and testing with the full participant sample, the researcher conducted a pilot study that consisted of two steps: requesting experts to review the

proposed items for the C-EAS and soliciting feedback regarding the overall survey from individuals who would meet the qualifications for participation in the main study. The primary purposes of the pilot study included to address the following questions: What is the face validity for the initial item pool of the C-EAS? What is the content validity of the initial item pool of the C-EAS? Are the items within both the initial item pool and the final item pool clear and without redundancy? What is the ease and clarity of the overall survey? The description and results of each phase of the pilot study will be detailed below.

Expert Review

Method. After the initial item pool for the C-EAS was generated, the researcher employed two methods for item review utilizing three expert reviewers. Each expert reviewer met inclusion criteria of a minimum of five years of experience within counselor education and supervision, specifically including experience in supervision and instruction of emotional-based counseling skills, and/or a demonstrated scholarly agenda exploring emotions within counseling, counselor education, or supervision.

The first review method involved asking each of the expert reviewers to participate in an item sorting task (see Appendix B). The sorting task involved providing the expert reviewers with a table outlining the proposed factors of the model, along with operational definitions and descriptions of each of the proposed factors (see Appendix C). The expert reviewers were then asked to use this information to sort each of the items in the initial item pool into the correct factor. In other words, the expert reviewers were asked to determine which factor the item seemed to be measuring. After completing the

sorting task, the second review method involved requesting the expert reviewers to provide feedback for the initial item pool around item wording, clarity of items, redundancy within the items, and whether the items had face validity and content validity to represent the construct of emotional awareness (see Appendix D).

Results. The results of the sorting tasks revealed that, while the expert reviewers were in agreement around the face validity for the majority of the items, there was some confusion around the factors of self-identifying emotions and self-interpreting emotions. In the original model, the researcher proposed that labeling an emotional state, or assigning a word to particular affective experience, would be best understood within the self-interpreting or other-interpreting categories because an individual would have to engage in some level of cognitive processing that involved accessing a lexicon of emotional vocabulary to interpret emotional experiences. However, each of the reviewers suggested in their written feedback to shift the items focused on assigning a particular word or words for an emotional state into the self-identifying and other-identifying categories, explaining their views that labeling an emotion is a salient element of being able to recognize or identify the emotion. For both self-interpreting and other-interpreting emotions, the expert reviewers suggested retaining the items that involved describing, thinking, or analyzing the emotion. Additionally, in the written feedback, expert reviewers pointed to concerns around content validity for several of the items, such as “I assume my clients feel the same that I do about a situation,” “If my client has a reaction to something, I tend to think that they’ve had a change in their emotional state,” and “When an unexpected event happens, I am aware of how my emotions change.” From

their feedback, the researcher elected to incorporate the suggestion to move items pertaining to labeling emotions to both the self- and other-identifying emotions category, as well as use their written feedback to inform the final item pool. For a full list of the initial item pool of 95 items, along with directions for the expert review and explanations for the researcher's decisions around each item, please see Appendix O.

From the results of the expert review, a total of 56 items were retained for the C-EAS out of the original pool of 95 items. Though six items were dropped due to a lack of clarity around the item itself, the majority of the items were dropped because of redundancy within the final scale. Because of the suggestion to have approximately six to seven items per factor (R. Henson, personal communication, October 18, 2019), the researcher selected items for the final scale that robustly represented each of the factors with minimal redundancy. For a list of final items, including Likert scale and participant directions, please see Appendix K.

Participant Feedback

Method. In order to gain understanding around the experiences of desired participants, the researcher administered the entire survey, including each of the aforementioned instruments and demographic questionnaires, to a small group of individuals ($N = 5$) who met the qualifications for participation in the main study. The researcher used convenience sampling to recruit the sample at a CACREP-accredited counselor education program in the southeastern United States. Of the sample, the majority of individuals identified their race and ethnicity as Caucasian and non-Hispanic ($n = 4$, 80%), though one participant identified did not report their racial or ethnic

background. Additionally, the majority of the sample was female ($n = 4$, 80%) and one identified as being a male. All five participants reported being currently enrolled in a CACREP-accredited doctoral program. Each of the participants was asked to provide feedback around the length of time it took to complete the survey, the clarity of the instructions and items within the survey, and any overall comments or suggestions.

Results. Participants' feedback indicated that the overall instructions and items were clear and easy to understand, though two individuals commented on the SDS-10 because of the dichotomous true-false response scale. Specifically, each of these individuals stated a desire for the option of a more expansive Likert-based scale, such as 1 (*not at all true*) to 5 (*very much true*). However, the vast majority of social desirability scales are normed and designed using a true-false response scale, including the SDS-10 (Andrews & Meyer, 2003; Latkin, Edwards, Davey-Rothwell, & Tobin, 2017; Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). Because it is typical for social desirability scales to utilize a dichotomous true-false response, the researcher elected to retain the SDS-10. Lastly, participants reported the range of time required to complete the survey spanned from the quickest at 8 minutes to the longest at 30 minutes, suggesting rounded average of 17 minutes to complete the survey. Because of this, the researcher will inform participants within the recruitment and informed consent for the main study that the survey will require approximately 15-20 minutes of time to complete.

Chapter Summary

Throughout this chapter, the process of developing the C-EAS was outlined, including the research questions and hypotheses, steps of instrument development,

overall study methodology, and proposed data analysis, as well as the pilot study results. Results of the full study examining evidence for the validity and reliability of the C-EAS will be explored in the following chapter.

Limitations

As with any empirical endeavor, there are limitations to the current study at hand. The first limitation arises around the self-report nature of the C-EAS. Because participants can only answer what they are *aware* of, there may be some limitations around whether the C-EAS is measuring actual versus perceived abilities. However, the C-EAS could later be tested against an observational measure of emotional awareness to investigate this concern. Additionally, though the C-EAS is considerably grounded within the literature, the factors, and thus proposed items, are derived from the researcher's synthesis and integration of the current literature instead of one clearly defined conceptual or empirical model, which could again limit aspects of the construct validity of the measure. Other researchers might propose a different model structure and/or model components, or other researchers might differently write items for the current model that lead to different results. With regard to the convergent and discriminate validity employed within the study, there may be limitations around whether the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994a) and the CSES (Melchert et al., 1996) will be valid measures within the study.

Lastly, the researcher believes it is important to address cultural considerations within the creation and validation of the C-EAS. The researcher and the members of her dissertation committee each identify as White or Caucasian individuals, and this cultural

identity is also endorsed by each of the expert reviewers. Though there is limited information around how emotional awareness may differ across cultures, Lane (2006) stated that cultures may differ in the ways in which emotional information is both displayed and processed, which could have implications for how emotional awareness needs to be assessed. However, because there is limited direction within the current literature around how to accommodate for this, cultural implications may be a significant limitation of the current study. Though ideally the study will be sensitive to multiculturalism, the researcher cannot guarantee that the sample used for the study will be representative of cultural diversity.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Chapter Three detailed the steps taken to develop the Counselors' Emotional Awareness Scale (C-EAS), methodology used to test the instrument, research questions and hypotheses, and data analyses. Additionally, the researcher conducted a pilot study utilizing both expert reviewers and a small participant sample. The results from the pilot study, located in Chapter Three, prompted adjustments to item and instructional wording on the C-EAS as well as the format of the online survey prior to administration to the full sample field testing. In this chapter, the results of the data analyses are reported. First, participant characteristics from the survey sample will be presented. Second, item-level analyses as described in Chapter Three are discussed. Lastly, the researcher will present the results of the data analyses used to test the study's hypotheses.

Description of Participants

A sample size of 280 participants was sought for the current study, to include counseling students (both master's or doctoral level), counseling practitioners, and counselor educators, via convenience and snowball sampling methods. The researcher recruited participants through a variety of sources, including alumni listservs, direct email contact with counselor educators, local and regional counseling practitioner organizations, and social media. A total of two hundred and seventy-five participants

began the study. However, two participants did not meet eligibility for participation, and a total of 76 participants completed less than half of the survey (71% completion rate). Because of this, data from 196 participants were included in the study (see Table 1). Participants largely self-identified as Caucasian (72.4%), followed by 14 as African American (7.1%), four as Asian-American (2.0%), 3 participants stated they preferred not to state their racial background (1.5%), and 5 (2.5%) participants selected other; 28 participants (14%) did not respond to this item. In regard to ethnicity, 13 (6.6%) participants identified as Hispanic or Latino/a, 150 (76.5%) self-identified as not Hispanic or Latino/a, two participants preferred not to state, and 31 participants did not respond to this item. Participants were allowed to choose more than one racial/ethnicity category and decline to select any. In regard to gender, a majority of participants ($n = 146, 74.5\%$) participants self-identified as female, 18 (9.2%) as male, two (1.0%) as other, and one (.5%) preferred not to state. Participants self-reported ages ranged from 22 to 75 years ($M = 32.9; SD = 10.4$); 33 (16.8%) participants did not report their age.

Table 1

Participant Demographics ($n = 196$)

	Student	Practitioner	Counselor Educator	Other
Male	9	2	5	2
Female	61	66	14	5
Gender queer/non-conforming	1	0	0	0
Prefer not to state	1	0	0	0
Other	2	0	0	0
Missing	11	13	3	0

African-American	9	4	1	0
Asian-American	1	1	2	0
Caucasian	58	63	14	7
Prefer not to state	2	0	1	0
Other	4	0	1	0
Missing	11	13	4	0
Hispanic or Latino/a	9	3	0	1
Not Hispanic or Latino/a	63	65	17	5
Prefer not to state	1	0	1	0
Missing	12	13	5	1

Of the 196 participants, both students and practitioners were well represented: 85 (43.3%) indicated their role as counseling students (master's or doctoral level), 81 (41.3%) indicated counseling practitioners, 23 (11.7%) indicated counselor educators, and 7 reported others (3.6%; see Table 2 for "other" descriptions).

Table 2

Role Description: Other

PsyD student; post-master's counseling student
Licensed marriage and family therapist and professional counselor in the state of Utah
I am both a counseling practitioner and a doctoral counseling student
Counseling Student and Practitioner (Doc student, fully licensed)
Career Counselor/Student Affairs
And counselor educator adjunct last year
Actively all of the above

Among the 85 counseling student participants, 58 (29.6%) participants indicated they were currently enrolled in a master's level program while 17 (8.7%) participants reported enrollment in a doctoral level program; however, 10 participants did not report their current enrollment status. Credit hour completion ranged from six to over 100, and 70 participants indicated current enrollment in a CACREP-accredited program. A total of

16 doctoral students indicated that they were licensed as a counselor in their respective state, with two reporting full licensure while 14 reported provisional licensures. Current counseling track concentration among entry level students were as follows: 40 clinical mental health counseling, 11 school counseling, 6 marriage, couple, and family counseling, and 1 additions counseling. For doctoral students, the following tracks were indicated for their entry-level of study: 9 clinical mental health counseling, 5 marriage, couple, and family counseling, 1 school counseling, 1 addictions counseling, and 1 student affairs and college counseling.

For the 81 counseling practitioner participants, 32 reported they were fully licensed as a counselor in their state, and 31 indicated that they were provisionally licensed in their state; however, 18 participants did not respond to this item. With regard to years of experience, participants reported a range from six months to 25 years ($M = 6.06$; $SD = 6.29$). Counseling practitioners identified with counseling backgrounds as follows: 54 clinical mental health counseling, 7 marriage, couple, and family counseling, 4 addictions counseling, 2 student affairs and college counseling, and 1 career counseling; 13 participants did not respond to this item. A total of 65 (80.2%) counseling practitioner participants reported graduating from a CACREP-accredited program, 3 indicated that they did not, and 13 participants did not respond to this item. 64 practitioners had master's degrees, 4 have doctoral degrees, and 13 participants again did not respond to this item.

Among the 23 counselor educators, there were 10 assistant professors, three associate professors, two full professors, three tenure track faculty, three non-tenure track

faculty, one visiting professor, one adjunct professor, and one who indicated other but did not provide a text description of their role. Participants were allowed to select more than one option response. For years of experience as a counselor educator, the participants ranged from one to 29 years of experience ($M = 5.94$; $SD = 6.68$). Thirteen participants indicated that they currently taught in a CACREP-accredited counseling program, while 6 reported that they did not currently teach in a CACREP-accredited counseling program. With regard to counseling backgrounds and previous education, eleven counselor educator participants indicated that they graduated from a CACREP-accredited program for both master's and doctoral level training, 7 reported graduating from a CACREP-accredited program for their doctoral degree only, and one reported they did not graduate from a CACREP-accredited program; however, 5 counselor educator participants did not respond to this item. Clinical backgrounds for counselor educators included the following: 11 clinical mental health counseling, 3 marriage, couple, and family counseling, 2 career counseling, 2 addictions counseling, 1 school counseling, and 4 participants did not respond to this item. For counseling licensure within this group, six counselor educators reported full licensure, six indicated provisional licensure, seven were not licensed, and four participants did not respond to this item.

Results of Hypothesis Testing

The following section describes the results of the analyses used to test the five hypotheses associated with the study at hand. Proposed data analyses for each of the hypotheses were outlined in Chapter 3, and the data analyses included confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) with follow-up exploratory factor analysis (EFA), Cronbach's

alpha (α), and Pearson product moment correlations (r). The researcher conducted several item-level analyses prior to hypothesis testing to assess for statistically weak items and non-normality within the data for the C-EAS.

Item-Level Analysis

The dataset was scanned for missing data. A total of 76 participants completed less than half of the survey (71% completion rate), meaning they did not respond to the C-EAS items; as such, these participants were removed from the dataset used for CFA. Item means (M), standard deviations (SD), and skew and kurtosis indices for each C-EAS item are listed in Table 3. Higher means reflect participants indicated more emotional awareness as measured by the item, whereas lower means suggest less emotional awareness as measured by the item. Most means were around 4.0 with a SD less than 1.0, suggesting a small amount of variability around the mean. None of the items demonstrated either high skew (> 3.00) or kurtosis (> 10.00), which suggested that the items were normally distributed within the sample. Item numbers 1 through 27 were intended to measure self-emotional awareness, while items 28 through 56 were intended to measure other-emotional awareness.

Table 3

C-EAS Item Descriptive Statistics

Item	M	SD	Skew	Kurtosis
1	4.25	.661	-.889	2.573
2	4.12	.690	-1.064	3.604
3	4.06	.566	.015	.132
4	4.10	.743	-1.275	3.372
5	4.12	.602	-.949	4.488

6	4.22	.625	-.469	.688
7	4.04	.629	-.686	2.707
8	3.95	.798	-.874	1.127
9	4.09	.616	-.888	3.804
10	4.06	.545	-.359	2.076
11	4.06	.653	-.768	2.586
12	3.89	.996	-.860	.167
13	4.46	.551	-.514	.423
14	4.09	.733	-1.143	2.634
15	4.09	.738	-1.118	2.948
16	4.04	.873	-.770	.288
17	3.41	.981	-.270	-.847
18	4.14	.824	-1.196	2.336
19	4.06	.654	-1.002	3.383
20	4.32	.756	-1.427	3.451
21	4.11	.718	-1.043	2.507
22	3.99	.493	-.286	2.318
23	4.51	.750	-1.937	4.460
24	3.44	.770	-.453	.260
25	3.95	.542	-.448	1.836
26	3.60	.772	-.725	.737
27	4.06	.665	-.509	.797
28	4.47	.732	-2.152	7.287
29	3.77	.707	-.518	.417
30	3.92	.867	-.753	.395
31	3.43	1.001	-.330	-.877
32	4.03	.931	-1.013	.550
33	3.34	.955	-.213	-.817
34	4.14	.826	-1.375	2.950
35	3.75	.928	-.982	.949
36	3.95	.705	-1.121	2.713
37	3.98	.688	-1.263	3.442
38	3.95	.702	-1.048	2.585
39	4.20	.606	-.438	1.028
40	4.05	.764	-1.015	1.882
41	3.90	.862	-.736	.394
42	3.77	1.014	-.498	-.677
43	4.39	.686	-1.452	4.038
44	3.45	1.029	-.777	-.126
45	3.35	1.080	-.291	-.976
46	3.80	.849	-.827	.550
47	3.41	1.086	-.255	-.976
48	3.52	.948	-.479	-.496

49	3.71	.832	-.638	.269
50	2.94	1.015	.094	-1.166
51	4.07	.697	-1.035	2.834
52	4.11	.749	-1.018	1.598
53	4.21	.685	-.955	2.586
54	3.57	1.016	-.524	-.429
55	3.89	.903	-.784	.246
56	4.35	.606	-.659	1.163

Notes: *M* = mean, *SD* = standard deviation

For the grand mean of the C-EAS, which includes all items written for both self- and other-emotional awareness, the overall score distribution of the C-EAS was normally distributed (see Figure 1). In regard to items written to assess self-emotional awareness, the overall score distribution for these items also appeared to be normally distributed (see Figure 2). However, for the items written to assess other-emotional awareness, there appeared to be a slight negative skew, which suggested that participants rated themselves higher on items associated with other-emotional awareness (see Figure 3).

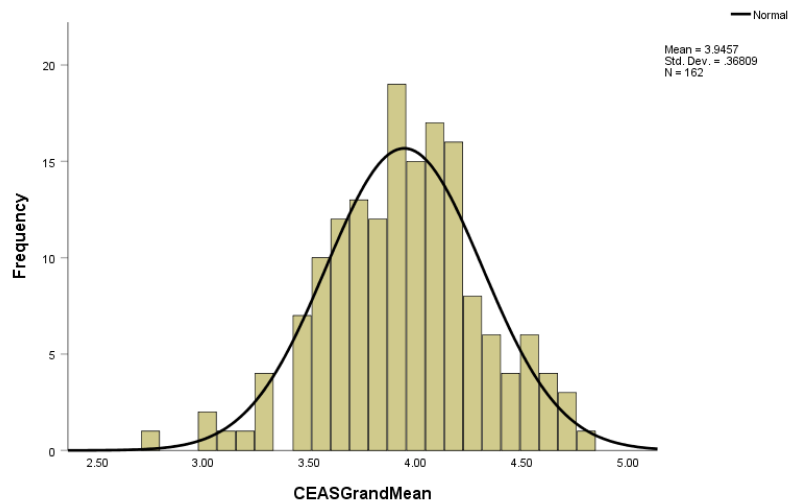


Figure 1. Overall C-EAS Histogram.

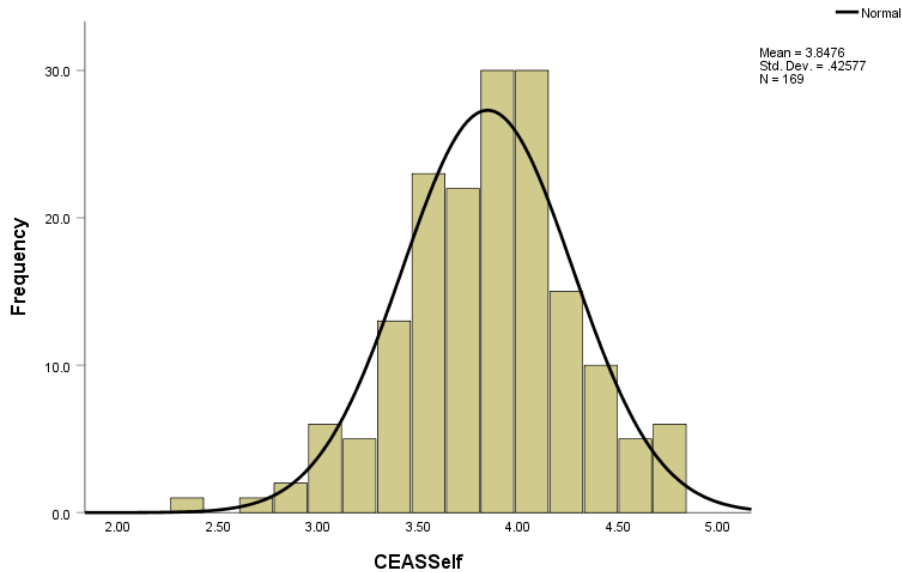


Figure 2. Self-Emotional Awareness Items

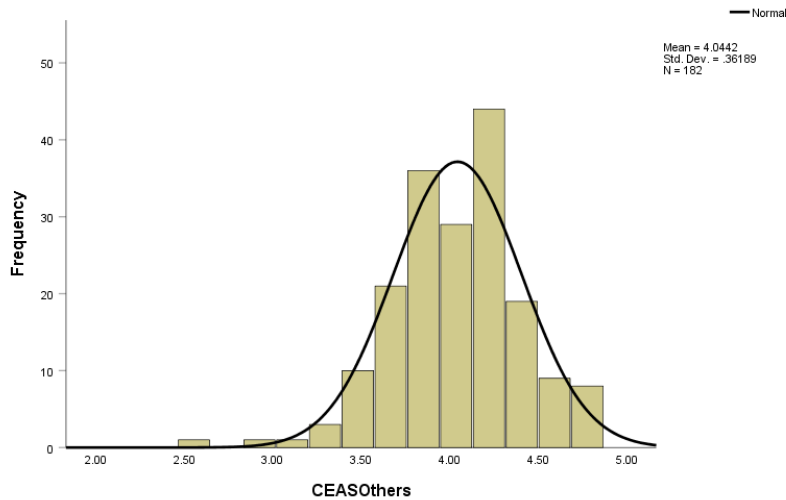


Figure 3. Other-Emotional Awareness Items

Item-total correlations organized by associated C-EAS factor are displayed below in Table 4. As suggested by Everit (2002), items should be removed before hypothesis testing if the item-total correlations were below a cutoff of .2. Results from the data suggested that items 28 (“Emotions have a physical side to them”) and 50 (“I tend to use

the same words to describe my feelings”) should be removed prior to analyses due to an item-total correlations of .188 and .185, respectively, because the items were detracting from the overall reliability of the instrument factor.

Table 4

Item-Total Correlations by Hypothesized C-EAS Factor

Self-Identifying			Self-Experiencing			Self-Interpreting		
Item	CITC	α delete	Item	CITC	α delete	Item	CITC	α delete
31	.583	.756	28*	.188	.687	29	.442	.761
32	.480	.773	30	.436	.649	34	.497	.752
33	.501	.770	36	.369	.663	35	.452	.759
38	.443	.780	37	.233	.680	39	.636	.742
41	.618	.753	43	.619	.629	40	.624	.736
44	.348	.796	45	.257	.685	42	.264	.792
47	.496	.772	46	.343	.665	50*	.185	.805
49	.589	.758	48	.265	.679	53	.720	.727
			51	.342	.666	55	.607	.734
			52	.377	.661			
			54	.278	.679			
			56	.301				
Factor $\alpha = .793$			Factor $\alpha = .687$			Factor $\alpha = .778$		
Other-Identifying			Other-Experiencing			Other-Interpreting		
Item	CITC	α delete	Item	CITC	α delete	Item	CITC	α delete
2	.554	.701	4	.548	.728	1	.350	.745
3	.343	.740	6	.292	.759	10	.549	.719
5	.514	.712	8	.601	.718	13	.553	.718
7	.540	.706	11	.427	.744	14	.413	.736
9	.582	.699	12	.297	.768	16	.383	.747
18	.407	.736	15	.449	.741	19	.494	.723
22	.289	.748	17	.302	.766	24	.308	.755
26	.376	.740	20	.592	.721	25	.529	.721
			21	.598	.722	27	.460	.728
			23	.284	.762			
Factor $\alpha = .750$			Factor $\alpha = .763$			Factor $\alpha = .755$		

Notes: CITC = corrected item-total correlation, α delete = Cronbach's alpha (for factor) if item deleted

However, several items were flagged as potentially problematic due to lower item-total correlations. Kline (2011) suggested that items with moderately low item-total correlations, such as around .3, can be deleted to improve the overall Cronbach’s alpha value (reliability) for the factor if there is a theoretically-grounded reason for removing the item from the dataset. Examples of rationales for removing an item include unclear item wording that could be confusing for participants, notable item skew, or little variance in participant responses to the item (i.e., the vast majority of participants selected “strongly agree”). From the results displayed in Table 4 above, the researcher flagged items 12, 17, 42, and 44 for further investigation to continue the reduction of poorly fitting items. Table 5 contains the researcher’s rational for the deletion of additional items from the C-EAS prior to hypothesis testing, as well as the resulting Cronbach’s alpha value for the associated C-EAS factor after the item was removed from the data set.

Table 5

C-EAS Initial Reduction of Poorly Fitting Items

Item Number	Factor	Item Wording	Initial Factor α	Reason for deleting	Revised Factor α
12	Other-Experiencing	I am uncomfortable when my clients seem to be experiencing negative emotions, such as anger.	.763	Low item response variance	.768
17	Other-Experiencing	If my client is feeling two conflicting emotions at one time, I tend to want to focus on just one emotion at a time.	.768	Low item response variance	.779

42	Self- Interpreting	I get clarity around what my emotions mean through the use of images or metaphors.	.778	Unclear wording	.792
44	Self- Identifying	I'm seldom unsure of what I am feeling.	.793	Negative item skew	.796

Hypothesis One: Factor Analysis

Model 1: Six factor CFA. The researcher first tested a six factor model using confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) in which items were entered as observed variables by their respective latent factors (e.g., Table 4 above). To determine if the overall fit of the model was appropriate, the researcher consulted various fit indices provided by MPlus 8 (Muthen & Muthen, 2017). Table 6 provides the numerical values for four fit indices from the six factor CFA, named Model 1. The Chi-square index was significant ($\chi^2=1948.102$, $df=1160$, $p=.000$), which suggested that the six factor model was a poor fit to the data. Additionally, the CFI value suggested a poor fit, as the value of .754 did not fall between .90 and .95. However, the remaining two fit indices indicated the model may be a good fit, as the RMSEA value of .060 fell between .05 and .08, and the SRMR value of .0754 was less than 0.08.

Table 6

Model 1: Six-Factor CFA

Fit Index	Values
χ^2	1948.102, $p = .000, df = 1160$
RMSEA	0.060
SRMR	0.071
CFI	0.754

Because the fit indices provided inconclusive results, the researcher consulted the standardized parameter estimates and factor loadings for the six factor model. Although all of the factor loadings were statistically significant at a p value of less than .05, there was concern around the values associated with the factor loadings. Kline (2011) argued that factor loadings should ideally be high (e.g., $>.7$) and those less than or around .3 are potentially problematic. The factor loadings, standard errors, and significance values of Model 1 are displayed in Table 7.

Table 7

Model 1: Six-Factor CFA Factor Loadings

Self-Identifying				Self-Experiencing				Self-Interpreting			
Item	<i>Est.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	Item	<i>Est.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	Item	<i>Est.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
31	.638	.049	.00	30	.581	.055	.00	29	.515	.059	.00
32	.532	.057	.00	36	.361	.071	.00	34	.614	.050	.00
33	.550	.057	.00	37	.345	.071	.00	35	.534	.058	.00
38	.550	.056	.00	43	.747	.042	.00	39	.734	.039	.00
41	.759	.037	.00	45	.354	.071	.00	40	.756	.036	.00
47	.524	.059	.00	46	.439	.067	.00	53	.830	.028	.00
49	.639	.049	.00	48	.276	.075	.00	55	.653	.047	.00
				51	.404	.068	.00				
				52	.466	.064	.00				

				54	.332	.072	.00				
				56	.289	.076	.00				
Other-Identifying				Other-Experiencing				Other-Interpreting			
Item	<i>Est.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	Item	<i>Est.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Sig.</i>	Item	<i>Est.</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>Sig.</i>
2	.610	.053	.00	4	.651	.048	.00	1	.327	.071	.00
3	.316	.072	.00	6	.337	.070	.00	10	.642	.049	.00
5	.672	.047	.00	8	.636	.051	.00	13	.589	.055	.00
7	.598	.054	.00	11	.583	.053	.00	14	.521	.058	.00
9	.626	.052	.00	15	.589	.053	.00	16	.409	.066	.00
18	.480	.062	.00	20	.644	.049	.00	19	.626	.050	.00
22	.325	.071	.00	21	.633	.051	.00	24	.278	.074	.00
26	.553	.057	.00	23	.325	.071	.00	25	.599	.053	.00
								27	.621	.050	.00

Notes: Est. = estimate, SE = standard error

In order to explore if additional reduction of poorly fitting items would be appropriate, the researcher first began by flagging items with low factor loadings, which was determined to be less than .4. Next, the researcher performed a series of steps to investigate if there was merit to remove the item from the dataset (R. Henson, personal communication, March 26, 2020). First, a principle axis exploratory factor analysis (EFA) with a direct oblimin rotation was conducted in SPSS. The researcher fixed the factors at six and the correlation values were suppressed at .3; this allowed for items with sufficient loadings (i.e., at or above a .3) to be loaded upon six factors, as proposed within Model 1. If an item did not properly load onto a factor (i.e., less than .3), then the item would be excluded from results. The researcher then compared the results from the EFA to determine if the item was associated with the correct latent variable within the original six factor model. If EFA suggested that the item might be better associated with another factor, the item was moved. Next, the researcher performed frequency distributions in SPSS for each potentially problematic item (i.e., low factor loadings as

displayed in Table 7) to determine if participants were largely responding in the same way to the item; if participants were predominately selecting one response to the item, such as “strongly agree,” the item was deemed to be unnecessary as it was not explaining variance within the sample.

Lastly, if factor loadings and frequency distributions supported that the item was indeed problematic, the researcher consulted theory and literature (see Chapter Two for an overview) for further consideration if the item should be removed from the dataset. If the item appeared to be either poorly worded or potentially confusing to participants, the item was removed from the dataset. If the item could also be theoretically associated with another factor, then the item was moved into another factor and tested for fit. The researcher re-conducted the CFA and consulted fit indices after each item was either removed from the dataset or moved within the structure of Model 1. Table 8, found below, provides an outline for the researcher’s decisions related to each potentially problematic item ($n = 10$), as well as the resulting fit indices after moving or removal of each item. Overall, this process resulted in 10 items being dropped.

Table 8

Continued Reduction of Poorly Fitting Items

Item	Action	Reasoning	χ^2 sig.	Fit Indices		
				RMSEA	CFI	SRMR
48	Dropped	Poor wording and low item variance	.00	0.061	0.756	0.070
56	Dropped	Low item variance	.00	0.061	0.763	0.070

24	Moved to Other- Interpreting	EFA suggests different factor loading; theoretically grounded	.00	0.061	0.762	0.070
24	Dropped	Low CFA loading	.00	0.06	0.773	0.069
3	Moved to Other- Identifying	EFA suggests different factor loading; theoretically grounded	.00	0.06	0.773	0.069
3	Dropped	Low item variance; low CFA	.00	0.06	0.788	0.067
1	Dropped	Low item variance; low CFA	.00	0.06	0.788	0.067
22	Moved to Other- Identifying	EFA suggests different factor loading; theoretically grounded	.00	0.06	0.789	0.067
22	Dropped	Low item variance; low CFA	.00	0.061	0.789	0.067
54	Dropped	Poor wording and low item variance	.00	0.061	0.793	0.067
36	Dropped	Low item variance; low CFA	.00	0.062	0.795	0.067
23	Dropped	Low item variance; low CFA	.00	0.062	0.802	0.067
6	Dropped	Low item variance; low CFA	.00	0.064	0.803	0.067

Model 2: Six factor CFA. After the researcher removed ten additional items, the remaining forty items were then again tested by CFA using a six factor model. The items were assigned to latent factors as outlined below in Table 10. To determine if the additional reduction of poorly fitting items improved the fit of the model, the researcher again consulted fit indices (see Table 9). Again, the Chi-square index was significant ($\chi^2 = 1283.539$, $df = 725$, $p = .00$), which suggested that Model 2 was a poor fit to the data. Additionally, the CFI value suggested a poor fit as the value of .803 was not between .90 and .95. However, the remaining two fit indices again indicated the model may be a good

fit, as the RMSEA value of .064 fell between .05 and .08, and the SRMR value of .067 was less than 0.08.

Table 9

Model 2

Fit Index	Values
χ^2	1283.539, $p = .00, df = 725$
RMSEA	0.064
SRMR	0.067
CFI	0.803

Because the fit indices again provided inconclusive results, the researcher consulted the standardized factor loading estimates, which can be found in Table 10, as well as correlation values, or parameter estimates, between the latent factors (see Table 11). All factor loadings for Model 2 were statistically significant ($p < .001$), although the factor loadings continued to be relatively low when compared to Kline's suggested .70 value or above. Additionally, upon consulting the correlations between the factors, high parameter estimate values with correlations close to 1 suggest several latent factors could be collapsed into one factor. Specifically, self-interpreting and self-identifying appeared to be one latent factor, other-interpreting and other-identifying appeared to be a second latent factor, while self-experiencing and other experiencing appeared to be a third and final latent factor. In sum, the high parameter estimates and correlational values between latent factors within Model 2 (six factor model) indicated that a three factor model might yield an acceptable fit.

Table 10

Model 2: Six-Factor CFA Loadings

Self-Identifying				Self-Experiencing				Self-Interpreting			
Item	Est.	SE	Sig.	Item	Est.	SE	Sig.	Item	Est.	SE	Sig.
31	.637	.049	.00	30	.569	.055	.00	29	.513	.059	.00
32	.531	.058	.00	37	.340	.069	.00	34	.611	.051	.00
33	.548	.057	.00	43	.712	.045	.00	35	.533	.058	.00
38	.553	.056	.00	45	.358	.069	.00	39	.737	.038	.00
41	.760	.036	.00	46	.443	.065	.00	40	.757	.036	.00
47	.523	.059	.00	51	.399	.068	.00	53	.832	.028	.00
49	.639	.049	.00	52	.457	.064	.00	55	.651	.047	.00
Other-Identifying				Other-Experiencing				Other-Interpreting			
Item	Est.	SE	Sig.	Item	Est.	SE	Sig.	Item	Est.	SE	Sig.
2	.591	.054	.00	4	.663	.046	.00	10	.620	.051	.00
5	.685	.045	.00	8	.628	.052	.00	13	.571	.056	.00
7	.588	.054	.00	11	.590	.053	.00	14	.527	.058	.00
9	.605	.053	.00	15	.594	.053	.00	16	.395	.066	.00
18	.472	.063	.00	20	.633	.050	.00	19	.627	.050	.00
26	.570	.055	.00	21	.625	.051	.00	25	.576	.056	.00
								27	.618	.050	.00

Notes: Est. = estimate, SE = standard error

Table 11

Parameter Estimates of Model 2

Latent Factors	Est.	SE	Sig.
Self-Experiencing with Self-Identifying	.786	.060	.000
Self-Interpreting with Self-Identifying	.977	.024	.000
Self-Interpreting with Self-Experiencing	.867	.047	.000
Other-Identifying with Self-Identifying	.652	.066	.000
Other-Identifying with Self-Experiencing	.802	.059	.000
Other-Identifying with Self-Interpreting	.567	.069	.000
Other-Experiencing with Self-Identifying	.629	.066	.000

Self-Experiencing	.976	.041	.000
Self-Interpreting	.686	.057	.000
Other-Identifying	.865	.045	.000
<hr/>			
Other-Interpreting with			
Self-Identifying	.758	.054	.000
Self-Experiencing	.818	.058	.000
Self-Interpreting	.723	.054	.000
Other-Identifying	.974	.037	.000
Other-Experiencing	.882	.043	.000

Notes: Est. = estimate, SE = standard error

Model 3: Three factor CFA. Lastly, a three factor model was tested using the observed latent variables as listed in Table 13. Again, the fit indices provided inconclusive results to the three factor model; however, the RMSEA (.065) and SRMR (.069) values suggested Model 3 was an adequate fit to the data. Additionally, the standardized factor loadings and parameter estimates between factors indicated an appropriate fit to the data, and these values are located in Tables 13 and 14, respectively. All factor loadings were statistically significant, and the majority of the factor loadings are considered moderately high (>.4) to high (.7), according to Kline (2011). Lastly, the parameter estimates between latent factors suggested that there were differences between each of the latent factors in Model 3, as the correlation values were not close to 1.

Table 12

Model 3

Fit Index	Values
χ^2	1323.733, $p = .000, df = 737$
RMSEA	0.065
SRMR	0.069
CFI	0.793

Table 13

Item-Total Correlations by C-EAS Three Factor

Self-Emotional Awareness				Other-Emotional Awareness				Experiencing Emotions			
Item	Est.	SE	Sig.	Item	Est.	SE	Sig.	Item	Est.	SE	Sig.
29	.509	.059	.00	2	.577	.054	.00	4	.653	.047	.00
31	.628	.049	.00	5	.687	.044	.00	8	.616	.051	.00
32	.531	.057	.00	7	.600	.052	.00	11	.579	.053	.00
33	.549	.056	.00	9	.591	.052	.00	15	.600	.052	.00
34	.614	.050	.00	10	.618	.050	.00	20	.649	.047	.00
35	.541	.057	.00	13	.552	.056	.00	21	.607	.052	.00
38	.541	.057	.00	14	.530	.057	.00	30	.565	.056	.00
39	.720	.040	.00	16	.403	.066	.00	37	.334	.071	.00
40	.762	.035	.00	18	.466	.062	.00	43	.710	.042	.00
41	.756	.036	.00	19	.632	.049	.00	45	.336	.071	.00
47	.523	.059	.00	25	.578	.054	.00	46	.439	.065	.00
49	.622	.050	.00	26	.543	.056	.00	51	.402	.067	.00
53	.831	.028	.00	27	.620	.050	.00	52	.472	.062	.00
55	.644	.048	.00								

Notes: Est. = estimate, SE = standard error

Table 14

Parameter Estimates of Model 3

Latent Factors	Est.	SE	Sig.
Experiencing Emotion with Self- Emotional Awareness	.744	.044	.000
Other-Emotional Awareness with Self-Emotional Awareness	.682	.050	.000
Experiencing Emotion	.860	.033	.000

Notes: Est. = estimate, SE = standard error

The squared multiple correlations (R^2) for each observed variable are displayed in Table 15. These values represent the proportion of variance in the latent factor that was accounted for by the item. The R^2 values indicated acceptable reliability with the exception of five items: 16, 37, 45, 46, and 51. Figure 4 represents a path diagram of the Model 3, which displays the three latent factors of Model 3. To summarize, the original factors of self-interpreting and self-identifying collapsed into one latent factor, the original factors of other-interpreting and other-identifying converged into one latent factor, and the original factors of self-experiencing and other-experiencing also collapsed into one latent factor. The researcher will describe these three latent factors as self-emotional awareness, other-emotional awareness, and experiencing emotion throughout the continuation of the current and following chapters.

Table 15

Squared Multiple Correlations for Model 3

Item	R^2
2	.333
4	.426

5	.472
7	.360
8	.380
9	.350
10	.382
11	.335
13	.305
14	.281
15	.360
16	.163
18	.217
19	.399
20	.421
21	.368
25	.334
26	.295
27	.384
29	.259
30	.319
31	.394
32	.282
33	.301
34	.377
35	.293
37	.112
38	.293
39	.518
40	.580
41	.572
43	.504
45	.113
46	.193
47	.274
49	.387
51	.162
52	.223
53	.690
55	.415

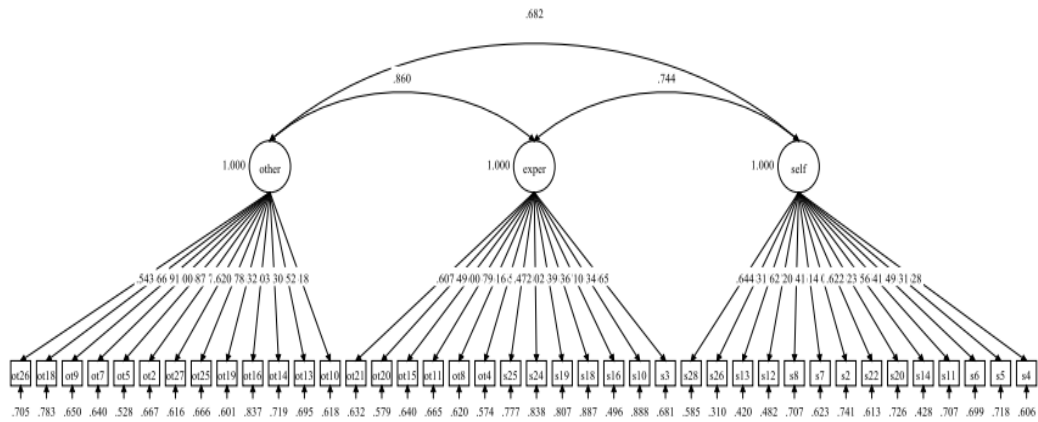


Figure 4. Path Diagram for Model 3

Based upon the results yielded from CFAs of Models 1, 2, and 3, the results suggested that a three factor model yielded a good fit for the data, whereas a six factor model did not. Thus, hypothesis one was not supported by the CFAs.

As a follow up, then, the researcher employed an additional EFA to investigate if there was a more parsimonious model (i.e., less than three factors). Additionally, the researcher sought to confirm the decision to collapse the original factors of self-identifying and self-interpreting into self-emotional awareness, other-identifying and other-interpreting into other-emotional awareness, and self-experiencing and other-experiencing into experiencing emotions. This decision would be confirmed if an EFA constrained to three factors loaded items in similar groupings as displayed in Table 13.

EFA. A principle axis EFA with direct oblimin rotation was again conducted in SPSS to assess the underlying structure of the remaining 40 items of the C-EAS. Factors were extracted based upon eigenvalues greater than one. Because of random missing data

points, the EFA analyses were conducted with an N of 163, which resulted in a smaller sample size for the EFA. However, several tests of assumptions did hold. Specifically, the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was equal to .888, which is well above the recommended .70 for reliable EFA modeling (Leech, Barret & Morgan, 2015), and indicated that there were a sufficient number of items for each specified factor. Additionally, the Bartlett’s Test of Sphericity was significant ($\chi^2 = 3183.428$, $df = 780$, $p = .000$), which signified that the items were highly correlated enough for factor analysis.

The EFA produced a total of nine factors with an eigenvalue greater than one. The nine factors accounted for a total of 52.57% of the variance; however, it was worth noting that the first factor alone explained 31.02% of the variance (see Table 16). Upon examination of the scree plot, the “elbow rule” (see Figure 5) suggested that a three factor model could be a possible fit, as the plot flattened considerably after the third factor (Rencher, 2002). The initial communalities, which reflect the relationship between one item with all other given items, are displayed in Table 17. Most values were above the desired .3 (Leech et al., 2015), with the exception of item 37 (“I can only focus on how my body feels when experiencing an emotion.”). For items with communalities above .3, it is assumed that the item is adding to the overall model by accounting for variance.

Table 16

EFA Eigenvalues Table

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %

1	12.862	32.155	32.155	12.409	31.022	31.022
2	2.640	6.600	38.755	2.200	5.500	36.522
3	1.659	4.146	42.901	1.204	3.010	39.532
4	1.614	4.036	46.937	1.134	2.834	42.366
5	1.527	3.818	50.755	1.076	2.689	45.055
6	1.422	3.556	54.311	.942	2.355	47.410
7	1.319	3.298	57.608	.859	2.147	49.557
8	1.108	2.769	60.378	.625	1.563	51.120
9	1.099	2.748	63.126	.580	1.450	52.570
10	.976	2.441	65.567			
11	.911	2.278	67.845			
12	.856	2.141	69.986			
13	.823	2.057	72.043			
14	.776	1.939	73.983			
15	.718	1.795	75.778			
16	.696	1.740	77.518			
17	.672	1.680	79.198			
18	.650	1.625	80.822			
19	.590	1.474	82.297			
20	.554	1.386	83.683			
21	.511	1.278	84.961			
22	.498	1.245	86.207			
23	.487	1.217	87.424			
24	.451	1.128	88.551			
25	.422	1.056	89.607			
26	.417	1.043	90.650			
27	.403	1.007	91.656			
28	.377	.943	92.600			
29	.347	.868	93.467			
30	.336	.840	94.307			
31	.326	.815	95.122			
32	.300	.750	95.872			
33	.291	.729	96.601			
34	.269	.672	97.273			
35	.246	.615	97.888			
36	.227	.568	98.456			
37	.197	.493	98.949			
38	.150	.375	99.324			
39	.139	.348	99.672			
40	.131	.328	100.000			

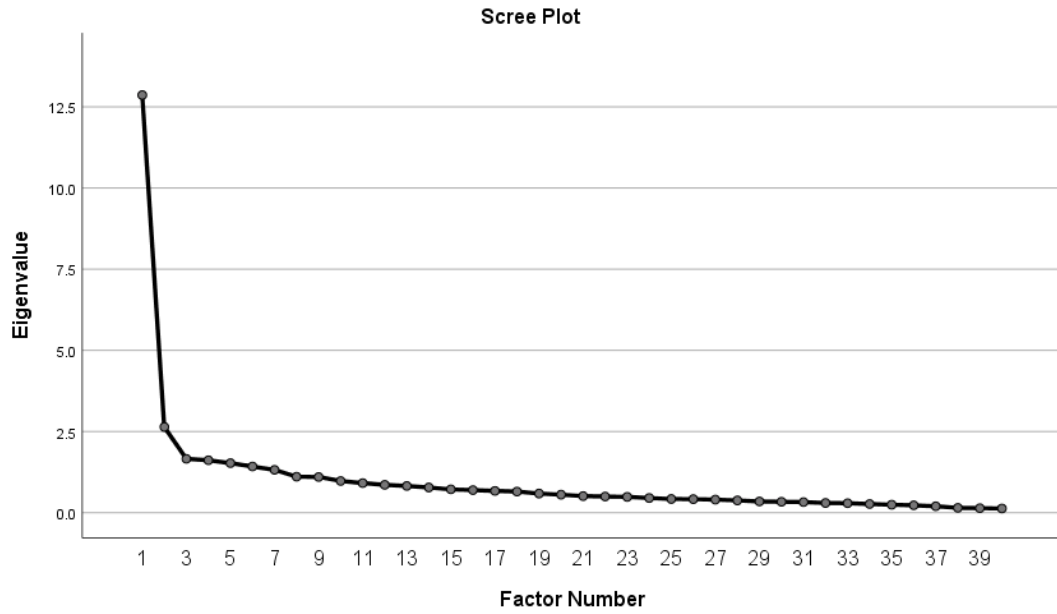


Figure 5. EFA Scree Plot

Table 17

EFA Item-Level Communalities

Item	Initial	Extraction
2	.539	.478
4	.510	.453
5	.596	.519
7	.528	.487
8	.640	.682
9	.535	.515
10	.609	.579
11	.536	.484
13	.542	.530
14	.482	.485
15	.556	.518
16	.430	.461
18	.469	.403
19	.590	.488
20	.563	.569
21	.652	.679
25	.540	.563
26	.647	.547

27	.546	.463
29	.494	.446
30	.514	.499
31	.585	.580
32	.451	.400
33	.515	.500
34	.446	.432
35	.538	.588
37	.274	.252
38	.581	.543
39	.736	.731
40	.662	.610
41	.671	.704
43	.653	.653
45	.503	.502
46	.573	.611
47	.509	.388
49	.599	.541
51	.442	.435
52	.437	.335
53	.776	.778
55	.584	.597

Because the results from the CFA as well as the scree plot from the EFA supported the notion that a three factor model could fit the data well, the researcher then performed a subsequent EFA with direct oblimin rotation and with number of factors to be extracted set at three. Again, the *N* for the EFA analysis was 163 and assumptions of EFA held, as evidenced the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy of .888 and a significant Bartlett's Test of Sphericity ($\chi^2 = 3183.428$, $df = 780$, $p = .000$). The three factor EFA accounted for a total of 38.581% of the variance prior to rotation, and the first factor accounted for a total of 30.699% of the variance (see Table 18). Using the previously described "elbow rule" (Rencher, 2002), the scree plot again suggested there might be three factors within the model (see Figure 6).

Table 18

EFA Eigenvalues Table

Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	12.862	32.155	32.155	12.280	30.699	30.699
2	2.640	6.600	38.755	2.084	5.209	35.908
3	1.659	4.146	42.901	1.069	2.673	38.581
4	1.614	4.036	46.937			
5	1.527	3.818	50.755			
6	1.422	3.556	54.311			
7	1.319	3.298	57.608			
8	1.108	2.769	60.378			
9	1.099	2.748	63.126			
10	.976	2.441	65.567			
11	.911	2.278	67.845			
12	.856	2.141	69.986			
13	.823	2.057	72.043			
14	.776	1.939	73.983			
15	.718	1.795	75.778			
16	.696	1.740	77.518			
17	.672	1.680	79.198			
18	.650	1.625	80.822			
19	.590	1.474	82.297			
20	.554	1.386	83.683			
21	.511	1.278	84.961			
22	.498	1.245	86.207			
23	.487	1.217	87.424			
24	.451	1.128	88.551			
25	.422	1.056	89.607			
26	.417	1.043	90.650			
27	.403	1.007	91.656			
28	.377	.943	92.600			
29	.347	.868	93.467			
30	.336	.840	94.307			
31	.326	.815	95.122			
32	.300	.750	95.872			
33	.291	.729	96.601			
34	.269	.672	97.273			
35	.246	.615	97.888			

36	.227	.568	98.456
37	.197	.493	98.949
38	.150	.375	99.324
39	.139	.348	99.672
40	.131	.328	100.000

Next, the researcher sought to compare the factor loadings from the pattern matrix of the EFA to the items the researcher elected to assign to the three latent variables in Model 3 of the CFA (see Table 13). Specifically, the researcher compared the groupings of items that were allowed to load freely to how the researcher elected to group items into certain factors, or latent variables, observed in the CFA of Model 3. If items within from the EFA appeared to mostly group together and in a similar structure as Model 3, then the researcher's decision to collapse certain factors would hold strong. Based on this scrutiny of the items, the items assigned to the three latent variables in Model 3 of CFA (see Table 13) also appeared to be grouped together within the EFA (see Table 19). Although six items did not follow the predicted pattern and are noted with asterisks in Table 19 below, the researcher's decision was largely supported by the analyses.

Table 19

EFA Pattern Matrix for Three Factor Model

Item	Factor		
	1	2	3
8	.703		
15	.613		
51	.592		
26*	.568		
16*	.558		
11	.527		
21	.485		

30	.483		
27	.450		
43	.430		
52	.421		
4	.409		
55		-.799	
39		-.756	
31		-.746	
53		-.733	
41		-.707	
33		-.665	
49		-.601	
40		-.601	
46*		-.537	
35		-.536	
45*		-.531	
29		-.523	-.313
47		-.523	
34		-.484	
32		-.475	
38	.302	-.421	
13*		-.347	
18			-.771
7			-.693
2			-.512
14			-.503
10			-.462
27			-.461
25			-.443
5	.429		-.431
19			-.430
9			-.402
20*			-.376

In conclusion, based upon the results from the CFAs and EFAs, a six factor model did not fit the data well. In contrast, a three factor model produced an adequate fit accounting for a significant proportion of the variance. Thus, a six factor model was rejected and hypothesis one was not supported. In the item analysis section above, the

item-total correlations were reported in relation to the previously hypothesized six factor model and the original 56 items. Because a three factor model appeared to better fit the data, as well as the fact that the C-EAS was reduced to a total of 40 items because of poor item fit, the researcher revisited the item-total correlations in relation to the new three factor model. Again, all items performed above the .2 cutoff, meaning removal of the item would not improve internal consistency (see Table 20); thus, all remaining C-EAS items were retained for further hypothesis testing.

Table 20

Item-Total Correlations for C-EAS Three Factor Model

Self-Emotional Awareness			Other-Emotional Awareness			Experiencing Emotions		
Item	CITC	α delete	Item	CITC	α delete	Item	CITC	α delete
29	.498	.893	2	.549	.838	4	.590	.818
31	.628	.888	5	.600	.836	8	.560	.820
32	.522	.892	7	.597	.836	11	.550	.822
33	.560	.891	9	.546	.839	15	.571	.820
34	.561	.890	10	.547	.840	20	.559	.820
35	.529	.892	13	.486	.843	21	.553	.821
38	.483	.893	14	.510	.841	30	.484	.826
39	.675	.888	16	.340	.857	37	.299	.837
40	.683	.886	18	.429	.848	43	.661	.815
41	.681	.885	19	.592	.836	45	.315	.844
47	.521	.894	25	.554	.839	46	.422	.830
49	.630	.887	26	.502	.842	51	.404	.831
53	.756	.884	27	.535	.840	52	.463	.827
55	.606	.888						
Factor α = .896			Factor α = .852			Factor α = .837		

Notes: CITC = corrected item-total correlation, α delete = Cronbach's alpha (for factor) if item deleted

Hypothesis Two: Internal Consistency

From the results of the factor analyses, a three factor model emerged to be the best fit to the data from the sample. Because of this, and as referenced above, internal consistency of the C-EAS was evaluated as three factors: self-emotional awareness, other-emotional awareness, and experiencing emotions. The reliability tests for the three factors of the C-EAS yielded Cronbach's alphas of .896, .852, and .837, respectively (see Table 20). Cronbach's alpha coefficients between .70 and .80 are viewed as acceptable, between .80 and .90 are considered very good, and above .90 are excellent values of internal consistency (DeVellis, 2011). Thus, the reliability of the factors of the C-EAS was considered to be very good, and hypothesis 2 was supported by the data.

Hypothesis Three: Convergent Validity

In order to investigate convergent validity, the researcher correlated the total scale scores of the C-EAS with total scale scores from the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994), a theoretically similar scale. Using a bivariate correlation, the C-EAS correlated significantly and negatively, which was the hypothesized direction, with the TAS-20 ($r = -.724, p = .000$; see Table 21 for C-EAS correlation matrix). Thus, lower scores on the C-EAS correlated significantly with higher scores on the TAS-20. These results suggested that individuals with higher levels of emotional awareness, for either self or others, will demonstrate lower levels of alexithymia, which is described as a clinically impairing lack of ability to describe and label emotions (Sifneos, 1996; Taylor, 1994). Therefore, based upon these findings, hypothesis three was supported.

Table 21

C-EAS Correlation Matrix

	1	2	3	4
1	1			
2	-.724*	1		
3	.626*	-.491*	1	
4	.003	-.153	-.084	1

*Notes: 1 = C-EAS, 2 = TAS-20, 3 = CSES, 4 = SDS-10. * $p < .01$*

Hypothesis Four: Discriminant Validity

To explore the discriminant validity of the C-EAS, the researcher correlated the total scale scores of the C-EAS with total scale scores of the CSES (Melchert et al., 1996), a theoretically distinct measure intended to measure counseling self-efficacy. The researcher hypothesized the C-EAS would have a significant and negative correlation with the CSES, however, a significant and positive correlation was found within the data ($r = .626, p = .000$), as noted in Table 21. Only two items on the CSES are related to affect within counseling (“I am not able to accurately identify client affect” and “I am not able to accurately identify my own emotional reactions to clients”); thus it was reasoned that the two scales would not be highly correlated in a positive direction. However, this result suggested that higher scores on the C-EAS are related to higher scores on the CSES, meaning there may be an overlap between self- and other-emotional awareness abilities and perceived counseling self-efficacy (for further discussion, see Chapter Five). Regardless, hypothesis four was not supported by the data.

Hypothesis Five: Social Desirability

Lastly, to investigate if social desirability impacted responses on the C-EAS, the researcher correlated the total scores of the C-EAS with the SDS-10 (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). As noted in Table 21, the C-EAS had a very small and non-significant correlation with the SDS-10 ($r = .003, p > .05$). This result supported hypothesis five, suggesting responses on the C-EAS were not impacted by socially desirable responding.

Chapter Summary

In this chapter, the researcher explored the five research questions by investigating the hypothesis detailed in Chapters One and Three. For the first research question, the researcher hypothesized the six factor model of self- and other- emotional awareness would produce an adequate fit to the data within the current sample at hand. However, results from CFA revealed that hypothesis one was not supported, as fit indices did not indicate an adequate fit with a six factor model. Additional CFA and EFA analyses revealed that, instead, a three factor model fit well and explained a significant proportion of variance within the observed scores.

In regard to research question two, the researcher proposed that there would be acceptable internal consistency within the factors of the C-EAS, as evidenced by Cronbach's alphas at or above .70. Because the factor analyses suggested a three factor model, the researcher investigated the internal consistency across three factors: self-emotional awareness, other-emotional awareness, and experiencing emotions. The results yielded Cronbach's alphas of .896, .852, and .852, respectively, which supported hypothesis two, and suggested adequate internal consistency within the C-EAS.

Research questions three and four sought to investigate the construct validity of the C-EAS. In research question three, the researcher hypothesized that there would be evidence of convergent validity, as demonstrated by a negative, significant correlation between the C-EAS and the TAS-20; the data supported this hypothesis. For research question four, the researcher hypothesized that there would be evidence of discriminant validity due to a significant and negative correlation between the C-EAS and CSES. However, data revealed a significant and positive correlation between the aforementioned scales, which did not support hypothesis four. Lastly, the researcher investigated the effects of socially desirable responding within the C-EAS; a nonsignificant correlation between the C-EAS and SDS-10 supported the hypothesis that responses on the C-EAS would not be biased by socially desirable responding.

In sum, from the results of the analyses, there was evidence of construct validity, convergent validity, and internal consistency reliability for the C-EAS, though discriminant validity measures did not yield the hypothesized results. A deeper discussion of the results, including exploration of implications for research and practice, study limitations, and directions for future research are presented within Chapter Five.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

The results for the development and initial validation study for the Counselors' Emotional Awareness Scale (C-EAS) were presented within Chapter Four. The purpose of the following chapter is to provide a discussion of the results, as well as how the results are linked to implications for future research and practice. The chapter at hand is divided into the following sections: summary of results, integration with existing literature, limitations of the study, and implications for future research, practice, and training as it relates to self- and other-emotional awareness for counselors.

Summary of Results

Through a thorough review of the literature, the need for a conceptual model around emotional awareness arose from observations around a lack of consistency across operational definitions of the construct of "emotional awareness" in clinical work, as well as a tendency for researchers to approach measuring emotional awareness from multiple vantage points. Because of these inconsistencies, the researcher deemed synthesizing the literature as an important endeavor, and the researcher proposed a conceptual model of both self- and other-emotional awareness. The initial conceptual model proposed by the researcher reflected six theoretically distinct domains, or factors, of emotional awareness: self-identifying, self-interpreting, self-experiencing, other-identifying, other-interpreting,

and other experiencing. The conceptual model was then used as a framework for the initial development and validation of the C-EAS, a 40 item instrument written to assess emotional awareness in a population of counselors.

Participants

A sample size of 280 participants was sought for the current study, to include counseling students (both master's or doctoral level), counseling practitioners, and counselor educators, via convenience and snowball sampling methods. The researcher recruited participants through a variety of sources, including alumni listservs, direct email contact with counselor educators, local and regional counseling practitioner organizations, and social media. Because of the snowball sampling approach, the total response rate for the survey is unknown. Though a total of 274 individuals participated in the study, data from 196 participants (85 counseling students, 81 counseling practitioners, and 23 counselor educators) were analyzed. A total of 77 participants were removed from dataset prior to hypothesis testing due to missing data, most often if they did not complete the items found on the C-EAS.

Instrumentation

Within the study, the researcher used the C-EAS, TAS-20 (Bagby et al, 1994), CSES (Melchert et al., 1996), and SDS-10 (Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). For the C-EAS, construct validity for a six factor model was not found, though there was evidence for a three factor model instead. The test for internal consistency among the three factor model for the C-EAS was found to be very good (α 's = .896, .852, and .852, respectively). For

the study at hand, the internal consistency reliabilities for the CSES, TAS-20, and SDS-10 were also found to be good (α 's = .890, .847, and .70, respectively).

Research Question One

In Chapter Two, the researcher presented a model of emotional awareness for counseling trainees that was derived from a variety of sources, including previously established measures, conceptual articles, and Lane's Levels of Emotional Awareness Model (Lane & Schwartz, 1987; Lane et al., 1991). The initial conceptual model proposed by the researcher reflected six theoretically distinct domains, or factors, of emotional awareness: self-identifying, self-interpreting, self-experiencing, other-identifying, other-interpreting, and other experiencing. As such, the first research question sought to investigate the factor structure of the C-EAS. The researcher hypothesized a six factor model, reflected in the original 56 items, would yield an adequate fit to the data. Before hypothesis testing began, a total of 16 items were removed from the dataset due to poor item wording, low item variance, or low item reliability.

However, based upon results from confirmatory factor analysis (CFA), the researcher determined that a six factor model did not adequately represent the constructs described within the six factor model. Instead, it appeared that the latent variables of self-identifying and self-interpreting, other-identifying and other-interpreting, and self-experiencing and other-experiencing were highly related, as evidenced by strong correlations between the latent factors. In follow-up CFA and EFA analyses, a three factor model of emotional awareness emerged, as both methods of analyses supported

that a three factor model produced a better fit (see Appendix P for final item list). From this, the researcher elected to name the three new factors as follows: self-emotional awareness, other-emotional awareness, and experiencing emotions. The reasoning behind this decision included the fact that the identifying and interpreting emotions across the domains of self and other, two original theoretical factors, were not as differentiated as the researcher originally proposed. Additionally, there was a strong relationship between one's ability to experience emotions within self along with the ability to co-experience emotions with others, such as clients. Considerations around proceeding with the current three factor model are discussed within the limitations section.

Research Question Two

To investigate reliability, research question two sought to establish the internal consistency for the items used on the overall C-EAS measure through determining Cronbach's alpha values. The internal consistency reliability among the items associated with each of the three factors of the C-EAS was considered to be very good (α 's = .896, .852, and .852, respectively), suggesting that items related to each of the factors were likely to produce similar scores. Thus, the 40 items on the measure seemed to measure a three factor model of emotional awareness: self-emotional awareness, other-emotional awareness, and experiencing emotions. Additionally, the reliability of the overall C-EAS instrument was demonstrated to be excellent, as evidenced by a Cronbach's alpha of .904.

Research Question Three

For the third research question, the researcher investigated the extent of evidence of convergent validity for the C-EAS. In order to do so, the researcher correlated the C-

EAS with the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994). The TAS-20 is a commonly used instrument to assess the presence and intensity of alexithymia, which is conceptualized as a clinically impairing lack of ability to describe and label one's own emotions (Sifneos, 1996; Taylor, 1994). Researchers have often used the TAS-20 to assess emotional awareness (Boden & Thompson, 2015; Dizén et al., 2005; Monti & Rudolph, 2014); however, the TAS-20 does not assess other-emotional awareness. Furthermore, though previous researchers have conceptualized alexithymia as the opposite of emotional awareness, there are flaws within that logic. Specifically, the TAS-20 takes a deficit approach; thus, the TAS-20 is not intended to measure strengths-based emotional awareness abilities but rather the lack thereof. There was a significant and negative correlation found between the two measures in the current study. Though evidence is still preliminary, these results indicated that individuals within the study who demonstrated higher levels of emotional awareness, for either self and/or others, demonstrated lower levels of alexithymia.

Research Question Four

For research question four, the researcher explored evidence of discriminant validity for the new scale. The researcher correlated the C-EAS with the CSES (Melchert et al., 1996), an instrument designed to assess counseling self-efficacy. Specifically, the CSES assesses perceived knowledge and perceived skills pertaining to the practice of both group and individual counseling, and the measure is designed to assess these areas across a broad range of participants' training and experience. In other words, the CSES purports to accurately assess counseling self-efficacy for both neophyte and seasoned clinicians, versus other counseling self-efficacy scales that are written and normed for

novice counselors in training (e.g., Friedlander & Snyder, 1983; Larson et al., 1992; Lent, Hill, & Hoffman, 2003).

Theoretically, it was reasoned that the CSES is conceptually distinct from the C-EAS, as one measure is designed to assess counseling self-efficacy while the instrument developed in the current study assesses self- and other-emotional awareness. Only two items on the CSES are related to affect within counseling (“I am not able to accurately identify client affect” and “I am not able to accurately identify my own emotional reactions to clients”); thus it was reasoned that the two scales would not be highly correlated in a positive direction. However, the researcher found a significant and positive correlation ($r = .626, p = .000$) between the C-EAS and the CSES. This result suggests that higher scores on the C-EAS are related to higher scores on the CSES. Though the results do not support hypothesis four nor provide discriminant validity for the C-EAS, it is possible that the two instruments are not as distinct as the researcher originally proposed.

During counselor education, counseling trainees not only are presented with various skills and techniques to master, but also are expected to learn how to conceptualize emotion and to use this knowledge to direct in-session behaviors and the overall course of therapy (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Easton et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2004; Tangen, 2017). Counseling trainees are taught these skills through experiences in coursework, practica, internship, and other clinical activities. Researchers have suggested that, typically, the more exposure counseling trainees have in the aforementioned clinical environments, then more counseling self-efficacy will increase

(Larson & Daniels, 1998; Loganbill, Hardy, & Delworth, 1982). Thus, it is possible that emotional awareness and counseling self-efficacy are positively related (or overlap) within the overall concept of counselor education and development rather than inversely, as originally hypothesized.

Research Question Five

Research question five investigated whether scores on the C-EAS were influenced by socially desirable behaviors. According to DeVellis (2011), it is often helpful, and relatively convenient, to include additional items on a scale to control for potential flaws or errors within the responses that will ultimately impact the validity of the final instrument. In Chapter 3, the researcher presented the argument that investigating the phenomenon of social desirability, which is related to one's internal motivations to answer items in ways that are determined to be desirable or socially preferred by others, would be important in the study at hand as the ability to understand and explore emotions with client is often regarded as a cornerstone of therapy (Easton et al., 2008; Martin et al., 2004; Tangen, 2017). Thus, because the participant demographics of the sample included counseling students, counseling practitioners, and counselor educators, the researcher sought to investigate if their responses on the C-EAS were influenced by socially desirable responding. Because a small and non-significant correlation was found between the C-EAS and the SDS-10, a short form of social desirability measure developed by Strahan and Gerbasi (1972), the researcher concluded that social desirability did not impact the validity of the C-EAS with the current sample. This evidence, though again preliminary, suggested that counselors may be able, and perhaps willing, to accurately

reflect upon and report their emotional awareness abilities. However, future research, as discussed in a later section, will be needed to explore this notion further.

Item Analyses and Supplemental Validity Information

In Chapter Four, the researcher performed a series of item-level analyses (e.g., descriptive statistics, histograms, item-total correlations, and Cronbach's α) to examine C-EAS item performance either across the total scale or factors within the C-EAS structural model. In all investigations, the vast majority of item-total correlations were above the .2 cutoff, which indicated that these items are sufficiently related to the other items either within the factor or the scale (for an overview of item-analyses, please see Chapter Four). Based upon these analyses, it appears that items written to assess emotional awareness, either self-emotional awareness, other-emotional awareness, or experiencing emotions, are all related with each other. In other words, the items assigned to factors worked together to measure the construct well.

For item-mean scores on the final 40 item C-EAS measure, there was an average overall mean of 3.97 with an overall standard deviation of .427, meaning that most participants endorsed either "neither agree nor disagree" or "agree" with a small amount of variance in either direction around the mean. Similarly, item-means scores and standard deviations for the three factors of self-emotional awareness ($M = 3.84$; $SD = .55$), other-emotional awareness ($M = 4.06$; $SD = .41$), and experiencing emotions ($M = 4.01$; $SD = .46$) followed a similar pattern for participant responses. Additional exploratory analyses revealed that there was a significant effect by participant subgroup (i.e., counseling student, counseling practitioner, or counseling educator) on mean scores

of the C-EAS ($F(3,159) = 4.47, p = .005$). Post-hoc Tukey comparisons indicated that the means scores for counselor educators ($M = 4.23, SD = .47$) were significantly higher in comparison to both counseling practitioners ($M = 4.00, SD = .33$) and counseling students ($M = 3.86, SD = .47$). This result suggests that counselor educators may demonstrate higher levels of emotional awareness in comparison to counseling students or counseling practitioners, though additional research, as discussed in a later section, will be necessary to explore this notion further.

Integration with Literature

As discussed in previous chapters, notably in Chapter Two, the researcher proposed a six factor model of emotional awareness with the intent to synthesize and integrate previously disjointed literature. Although the importance of emotional awareness seemed theoretically clear within the counseling field, until the current study at hand there was an absence of a psychometrically sound instrument to assess and measure counseling-specific self- and other-emotional awareness. From a review of parallel bodies of literature, several gaps within current understanding and conceptualization of emotional awareness emerged. First, emotional awareness had been assessed using a wide variety of instruments, including the 20-item Toronto Alexithymia Scale (TAS-20; Bagby et al., 1994a), subscales of the Trait-Meta Mood Scale (TTMS; Salovey et al., 1995), subscales of the Difficulties with Emotion Regulation Scale (DERS; Gratz & Roemer, 2004), the Thirty-item Emotional Awareness Questionnaire (EAQ30; Rieffe et al., 2008), and the Levels of Emotional Awareness Scale (LEAS; Lane et al., 1990). Each of these instruments contains both strengths and limitations, although

none of the aforementioned measures were written or normed specifically for assessing counselors, and the TAS-20 and DERS instead measure the “absence” of emotional awareness. Additionally, there was a lack of consensus around how emotional awareness should be operationalized. Some researchers focused only on aspects of self-emotional awareness (Davis et al., 2019; Monti & Rudolph, 2014; Rieffe et al., 2008), while others defined emotional awareness as the skills of an individual to identify, recognize, and describe the emotional experiences of self *and* others (Ciarrochi et al., 2005; Lane & Schwart, 1987; Lane et al., 2000; Lane et al., 1990; Van Bevern et al., 2019).

As such, a significant contribution of the current work was an initial attempt to develop a conceptual model of self- and other-emotional awareness as it relates to counseling and counselor education. Empirical analyses provided initial evidence that counseling-specific emotional awareness may be reflected by a conceptual model comprised of three broad factors. Items on the first factor, *self-emotional awareness*, reflect one’s perceived ability to demonstrate a clear awareness of internal affective experiences, which can then be used to provide labels, descriptions, and analyses of the current emotional state. Example items from the self-emotional awareness factor include, “I am usually very clear about my feelings” and “I know how to talk about what emotion(s) I am experiencing.” Items on the second factor, *other-emotional awareness*, reflect counselors’ abilities to be aware of others’ affective states, such as clients’ emotions. This factor represents counselors’ perceived abilities to be aware of their clients’ affective experiences in session, and then use that awareness to clearly verbalize, analyze, or integrate this information into sessions. Example items of the other-emotional

awareness factor include, “My clients often say that I have clearly named the emotion they are feeling at the moment” and “When I reflect back on any given session, I can describe the emotional reactions of my clients.”

In regard to the third factor, *experiencing emotions*, items on this factor reflect the extent to which one can be effectively aware of physiological or bodily aspects associated with affect, such as somatic responses and action tendencies, and how these aspects provide information about the emotional experiences for *both* self and others.

Additionally, experiencing emotions also encompasses an acceptance and understanding around the complexity of emotions, such as range, intensity, and dialecticism (e.g., a client may feel both sadness and relief while grieving, though the sadness may be more intense). Though the researcher originally hypothesized that there would be two distinct factors of self-experiencing and other-experiencing, both CFA and EFA analyses from the sample suggested that these were not two distinct factors. Rather, empirical evidence from the current study at hand suggested that counselors’ abilities to engage in internal emotional experiences relates to their abilities to engage with the emotional experiences of their clients. Example items from the experiencing emotions factor include, “I am aware of times in which I’ve experienced more than one emotion at a time,” “I am aware of certain things that I do (tapping my foot, pacing, crossing my arms, etc.) when I am experiencing a particular emotion,” and “When clients tell me about physical sensations in their bodies, I connect these reports to how they might be feeling.”

In sum, the researcher was able to contribute to the current body of literature in several ways. First, the researcher presented a synthesized overview of the body of

literature related to emotional awareness, as well as how emotional awareness is a salient aspect of counseling and counselor education. Secondly, the researcher's conceptual model of self- and other-emotional awareness for counseling and counseling trainees was partially supported. Lastly, initial steps were taken towards the development of psychometrically sound instrument to measure emotional awareness within counseling trainees and counselors. However, the conclusions presented within this section should be taken in consideration with the limitations discussed below.

Limitations

Though this study provided initial steps towards a better understanding and assessment of self- and other-emotional awareness within counseling, there are several methodological, sampling, and measurement limitations to be considered. First, the researcher initially sought to gain an *N* of 280 participants. The targeted sample size met the general recommendations for an item to participant ratio of 5:1 for factor analysis, as well as a minimum sample size of at least 200 participants (Mvududu & Sink, 2013; Tinsely & Tinsely, 1987). Though a total of 274 participants began the study, a considerable number of participants were removed from the study due to ineligibility or incomplete responses. After the researcher removed 77 participants, the resulting sample size of 196 fell below the sample size recommendation. Thus, it is possible that the sample did not provide adequate data to fully investigate the validity and reliability of the C-EAS. The final sample size resulted in a smaller sample than originally intended and, although the sample size to item number ratio is deemed adequate by some (Mvududu & Sink, 2013; Myers, Ahn, & Jin, 2011), the sample size is a considerable limitation of the

study. The specific implications and limitations of the reduced sample size will be explored in a later section.

The sample reflected a similar number of counseling students and counseling practitioners but a smaller number of counselor educators. Though the data may be representative of individuals in training or trained in providing counseling services, such as students and practitioners, there may be limitations on the applicability for counselor educators, who had receive at least some advanced training in clinical supervision and related counseling pedagogies (CACREP, 2016). Furthermore, the sample consisted of primarily White (72.4%) female (91%) participants with an average age of 33 years ($SD = 10.4$). Because of the overrepresentation of certain racial and gender groups, as well as the small proportion of participants who identify as counselor educators, the results of this study should be viewed with the acknowledgment that additional research is needed to further explore the self- and other-emotional awareness among these populations.

Furthermore, there are limitations to be found within the sampling strategy employed by the researcher. For recruitment, the researcher used convenience and snowball sampling strategies to obtain a sample comprised of three subgroups: counseling students, counseling practitioners, and counselor educators. The researcher elected to seek participants across the three subgroups in order to maximize variance within the sample. However, of the sample obtained, the majority of the participants identified as either counseling students or counseling practitioners (88.3%), whereas a total of only 23 counselor educators were represented within the study. Additionally, of the counseling students, the average completed credit hours reported for entry level

students was 36.57 ($SD = 18.39$). According to CACREP (2016) standards, a this is approximately halfway through a master's level training experience. In other words, truly novice counselors, such as first semester students, were not well represented within the sample. Thus, it is possible that the sampling strategies did not result in enough variance within the sample. As such, the composition of the sample by professional role may be a limitation, and there may also be additional limitations around the diversity of other participant demographics. For example, the majority of participants identified as White (72.4%) females (74.5%) aged an average of 32.9 years ($SD = 10.4$). Although the sample reflects the general composition of counselors, there should be caution around generalizing the results of this study beyond these groups. Additional research will be needed to explore if the results found by the researcher are applicable to more culturally diverse populations.

Lastly, all instruments employed in the study measure *perceived* abilities as related to affective processes, counseling self-efficacy, and socially desirable behaviors. Participants could only answer what they were *aware* of, either based upon their own reflections or from feedback (e.g., clinical supervisors or clients), so there may be some limitations around whether the instruments employed measured actual versus perceived abilities. However, other instruments developed to assess aspects of emotional functioning, such as the TAS-20 (Bagby et al., 1994) or the TTMS (Salovey et al., 1995) also use a self-report Likert based scale. Additionally, and as addressed with research question three above, a limitation emerged around the discriminant validity of the C-EAS. Upon further reflection, it is possible that the counseling related emotional

awareness and counseling self-efficacy are not as distinct as the researcher proposed, which is a limitation of the design of the current study.

Implications

Research. In this study, the researcher sought to develop and provide evidence of validity and reliability of a counseling specific instrument to assess self- and other-emotional awareness. Though the results continue to strengthen the argument around the need for such an assessment, there are additional and necessary next steps, particularly in consideration of the limitations discussed above. First and foremost, additional research is needed with larger and more diverse samples of counseling students and counseling professionals. A larger sample with more diversity (i.e., counselor educators, pre-practicum counselors in training, minority populations, etc.) will likely increase the variance found within a dataset, and this could be used to further investigate the factor structure, reliability, and validity of the C-EAS. Future researchers may wish to employ a more robust sampling strategy, perhaps quota sampling, to ensure each of the three counseling subgroups and participant demographics are well-represented. This would allow for a deeper level of analysis around between group differences to investigate if gender or cultural differences influence emotional awareness. Furthermore, it is currently unclear if the C-EAS is applicable to other parallel helping professional fields, such as social work, clinical psychology, or coaching. Additional research with participants outside of the field of counseling will allow for further investigation around the psychometric properties of the C-EAS.

Researchers could also use the C-EAS to investigate the relationship between self- and other-emotional awareness with other variables, such as adult attachment strategies and emotion regulation skills. For example, does attachment-related avoidance influence one's ability to be aware of or engage with client emotions? Additionally, because the experiencing emotions factor within the current study encompasses range and intensity of emotions, do stronger emotion regulation skills correlate with higher amounts of emotional awareness? Continued investigation in this area will deepen understanding around the construct of emotional awareness, and this may allow for a more robust conceptual model of emotional awareness as well, thus making it more amenable to research questions focused on counselor education and counseling practice.

Counselor Education. With regard to counselor education, the preliminary development of the C-EAS lends certain implications for training and clinical supervision. Counselor educators can use the C-EAS to track the longitudinal emotional awareness development of counselors in training. Specifically, counselor educators could investigate how certain experiences, whether instructional assignments or interventions in clinical supervision, bolster emotional awareness. Longitudinal studies using the C-EAS may also give better insight into whether emotional awareness is linear, in the sense that it develops at a relatively constant rate over the course of a program, or if there are certain points in which emotional awareness dips or accelerates, such as a clinical internship when counseling students enter a new environment, with new clients and new challenges. Such longitudinal information could help counselor educators develop the most effective curriculum sequences for their students.

Specific to clinical supervision, the current body of literature provided several conceptual models around the development of emotional awareness (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Loganbill et al., 1982; Tangen, 2017). However, one considerable limitation within the aforementioned models was the fact that they are not empirically validated. Though the works of Batten and Santanello (2009) and Tangen (2017) provide example interventions for bolstering the emotional awareness of supervisees that are theoretically sound, it is unclear whether these interventions are effective – due to the lack of a measure of desired outcomes around emotional awareness. Clinical supervision researchers now could use the C-EAS to explore validity of these models, as well as investigate some of the more nuanced occurrences within supervision. For example, are there differences between how supervisees would self-report their emotional awareness abilities versus how their clinical supervisor would rate their emotional awareness based upon observations? Additionally, because the supervisory working alliance is paramount (Bordin, 1983), are supervisors who are more emotionally aware more adept at establishing and maintaining supervisory relationships?

Practice. Lastly, there are implications for clinical practice from the current study at hand. First, researchers could further investigate how emotional awareness contributes to client outcomes – the ultimate question. Although counseling professionals commonly agree that in-session emotions, either emotions demonstrated by the client or internal affective experiences of the counselor, provide highly significant information that informs a variety of therapeutic decisions (Batten & Santanello, 2009; Easton, Martin, & Wilson, 2008; Martin, Easton, Wilson, Takemoto, & Sullivan, 2004; Young, 2013),

researchers have yet to connect client wellbeing to counselor emotional awareness. Furthermore, it is unclear whether theoretical orientations or advanced training in certain modalities influence emotional awareness abilities. For example, it is possible that counselors with training in Emotionally Focused Therapy or Somatic Experiencing would have more developed abilities to a greater extent because these orientations rely heavily on affective processes (Levine, 2010; Johnson, 2008).

Chapter Summary

The purpose of this study was to develop an instrument to assess self- and other-emotional awareness and to investigate the reliability and validity of a measure of this construct. Based upon the analyses conducted for the C-EAS, a three factor model of emotional awareness emerged: self-emotional awareness, other-emotional awareness, and experiencing emotions. Overall, the researcher provided satisfactory preliminary evidence around the reliability and validity of the instrument, which will significantly contribute to future scholarly efforts. This study bridges important gaps in understanding how counselor educators assess, intervene, and understand emotional awareness within counseling trainees.

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APPENDIX A

INITIAL ITEM POOL FOR C-EAS

Self-Identify Emotions:

1. I find it easy to know exactly what emotion I'm experiencing.
2. I'm seldom unsure of how I am feeling.
3. I have feelings that I can't quite figure out what they are.
4. I have feelings that I can't quite identify.
5. I am rarely confused about how I feel.
6. When I'm feeling sad, sadness seems to be the only emotion that I'm experiencing.
7. When I'm feeling sad or distressed, I struggle to identify specific emotions other than "bad."
8. I can easily tell the difference between nervous and excited.
9. When an unexpected event happens, I am aware of how my emotions change.
10. When I'm angry, it's like anger is the only emotion I'm experiencing.
11. I am usually very clear about my feelings.
12. I often identify my emotional state as "good," "bad," "fine," or "okay"
13. For me, there is a difference between feeling upset and aggravated.
14. Anxious and scared are the same emotions.
15. For me, there is a difference between feeling hopeful and confident.
16. Sad and hopeless mean two different things to me.
17. Emotions can best be described as broadly "good," "bad," or "neutral."
18. My emotions are vivid.
19. I can tell when my emotions change, even if it's a subtle difference (e.g., embarrassed to disrespected or peaceful to optimistic).

Other-Identifying Emotions:

20. When my clients are experiencing an emotion, I feel confused about what specific emotion they are experiencing.
21. When I reflect emotion to my clients, they typically agree with which emotion I choose to reflect to them.
22. I can never tell exactly what my clients are feeling.
23. When my clients report that they are feeling "good," I wonder if there are more emotions at play.
24. When working with clients, I can tell the difference between when they are feeling anxious and when they are feeling vulnerable.
25. When working with clients, I generally assume that how I'm reacting to their situation is exactly like their emotional reaction.
26. I can tell how my clients are feeling, even if I don't verbalize the emotion to them.
27. I feel the same exact emotions as my clients.

28. I am able to connect to the exact emotions my clients are feeling.
29. When listening to a client's story, I can differentiate between the different emotions that they are talking about.
30. If my client is suddenly talking faster, I tend to observe that they are just thinking about a lot.
31. My clients often say that I have clearly named the emotion they are feeling at that moment.
32. I feel fairly certain that I am accurate in how my clients are feeling at a particular moment.

Self-Experiencing Emotion

33. If I'm experiencing more than one emotion at a time, I often want to decide on only one emotion to focus on at a time.
34. I am aware of times in which I've experienced more than one emotion at a time.
35. When I'm experiencing more than one emotion at a time, I don't feel confused by this.
36. I notice certain sensations in my body when I'm experiencing a particular emotion.
37. I can only focus on how my body feels when I'm experiencing an emotion.
38. My emotions are complex.
39. I experience all feelings at the same intensity.
40. Some of my emotions are stronger than others.
41. When I'm reacting to something, I notice the physical sensations in my body.
42. Emotions have a physical side to them.
43. I either feel mostly positive or mostly negative in any given day.
44. I can think of times when I've experienced multiple emotions at once.
45. When things are bad or difficult, I only want to focus on the positive things.
46. I'm aware of certain things that I do (tapping my foot, pacing, crossing my arms, etc.) when I'm experiencing a particular emotion.
47. I feel overwhelmed when I'm experiencing two emotions at one time, such as anger and rejection.
48. It's normal for me to feel contradictory emotions at the same time.

Other-Experiencing Emotion

49. I'm quick to notice if my client's non-verbals change.
50. It's easy for me to connect my clients' non-verbals to the emotion that they're experiencing.
51. If my client has a reaction to something, I tend to think that they've had a change in their emotional state.
52. I feel confused if my client is crying and they say they disappointed and relieved.
53. In any given session, I notice a range of positive and negative emotions in my clients.
54. In any given session, I notice a range of intensity of emotions in my clients.

55. I assume that my clients feel the same that I do about a situation.
56. Client non-verbals aren't related to how they are feeling.
57. When clients tell me about physical sensations in their bodies, I connect these reports to how they might be feeling.
58. It's too much for me to focus on if my client is telling me about multiple emotions at one time.
59. When someone is angry, I think there are likely more emotions at play.
60. If my client is feeling two conflicting emotions at one time, I tend to want to focus on just one emotion at a time.
61. I am uncomfortable when my clients seem to be experiencing negative emotions such as anger.
62. Some client actions (e.g., crossing arms, looking away, facial expressions) suggest to me they may be experiencing specific emotions.

Self-Interpreting Emotion

63. I can make sense of my feelings.
64. I can describe my feelings to others.
65. I can label my emotional experiences.
66. I know how to talk about what emotion(s) I'm experiencing.
67. When I feel a strong emotion, I don't know how to talk about it.
68. When I feel joy, I know exactly how to describe this emotion to others around me.
69. I often do not know why I feel a certain way.
70. When someone asks me how I'm feeling, I can describe to them what emotion(s) I'm currently having.
71. If I have an emotional reaction to something, I know what caused it.
72. I feel confused if I suddenly have a shift in an emotional reaction.
73. There are times when I can't verbalize my feelings to others.
74. I think about my emotions through images or metaphors.
75. I get clarity around what my emotions mean through the use of images or metaphors.
76. I tend to use the same words to describe my feelings.
77. I can be precise with the words I use to describe my feelings.

Other-Interpreting Emotions

78. When my clients are distressed, I can find the right words to describe what they are experiencing.
79. I find myself using the same emotion word(s) with clients.
80. I find it hard to put into words what my clients are experiencing.
81. When I reflect back on any given session, I can describe the emotional reactions of my clients.
82. My client's emotions make sense to me.
83. I don't understand my client's emotional reactions.
84. I often know why my clients are feeling a certain way.

85. When I ask my clients how they are doing, I know when they are describing feelings to me.
86. If my client has an emotional reaction to something, I can generally make sense of why this may have happened.
87. When my clients express an emotion, I can explain how this emotion likely connects to what they are describing.
88. It's worth my time in session to help clients interpret their emotions.
89. It is important for me to know what emotions my clients are experiencing.
90. I can explain emotions to my clients.
91. I provide my clients with images or metaphors that help them clarify what emotions they are feeling/experiencing.
92. I provide my clients with images or metaphors that help them understand what their emotion(s) mean in relationship to their situations/problems/issues.
93. Images and metaphors help me explain to clients the complexity of their emotions.
94. I often help my clients understand the complexity of their emotions.
95. I help my clients understand the meaning of their contradictory emotions.

APPENDIX B

EXPERT REVIEW SORTING TASK

Good morning,

Thank you for your willingness to provide feedback around the initial items proposed to be included in the development of the *Counselors Emotional Awareness Scale (C-EAS)*. You were asked to provide feedback due to your expertise in counselor education, training and supervision, and/or scholarly activity around emotional processes. As part of this process, we are asking you to complete two tasks: 1) a sorting activity, and 2) general feedback around the items.

Attached you will find two Word documents. One document (Initial Item Pool) contains the initial item pool, and the other document (Factor Chart and Descriptions) has a chart describing the proposed factors of the C-EAS along with operational definitions of each factor.

After reviewing the “Factor Chart and Descriptions” document, please click on the link below that will take you to an online Qualtrics survey. Proposed items will be on the left side, and the factors will be listed on the right side. Using the information in the “Factor Chart and Descriptions” document, please click and drag the items on the left into the factor on the right that you think the items belong. *That is, which factor does the item seem to be measuring?* Your responses will be confidential as we are not collecting any personal or identifying data.

https://uncg.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_2hiOnSapYfUknNr

Next, please review the document “Initial Item Pool.” Please comment on the questions below. You may track changes and make comments directly in the Word document.

1. Are the items clearly worded? What changes in wording do you suggest?
2. Are any items redundant? If so, what items do you suggest might be deleted?
3. Do all the items seem to represent to construct of emotional awareness? Which, if any, do not seem to represent the construct of emotional awareness and why? How might they be reworded to better represent the construct of emotional awareness?
4. Do any additional items that come to mind? If so, what items do you suggest and why do you think they are important?
5. Please add any additional comments or suggestions that you think would improve the items?

Thank you in advance for your consideration and help. If you have any questions, please feel free to reach out!

APPENDIX C

FACTOR CHART AND DESCRIPTIONS

	Identify	Experience	Interpret
Self and Other	Granularity	Somatic/Bodily	Describe
	Clarity	Range	Analyze
	Differentiate	Non-verbal	Understand
	Label	Dialecticism	

Identify Emotions: Ability to demonstrate clear awareness and label of a specific emotional state across self and others.

Reflects emotion differentiation and granularity, which refer to the ability to discriminate between broad affective states (happy, mad, sad, etc.) to specific and discrete emotions (joyful, frustrated, despair, etc.). Additionally, this encompasses emotional clarity, or the extent to which individuals are sure of emotional states (e.g., “I don’t know how I’m feeling” or “I feel fine” vs. “I know exactly how I feel”), whether internally (self) or observed in others (e.g., “I have a hard time reading others’ emotions”). Lastly, identifying emotions also encompasses the ability to assign a particular word, or label, to an emotional state.

Experience Emotions: Reflects the extent to which one can be effectively aware of physiological or bodily aspects associated with emotional experience for both self and others.

Reflects bodily awareness across a range of emotions, such as how somatic responses, action tendencies, or non-verbal reactions can provide information around emotional experiences for both self and other (e.g., “What can my body tell me about this particular emotion?”). Emotional range refers to the ability to fully engage in affect across a broad range of positive and negative affect, as well as the ability to attune to variations in intensity of the emotional reactions. Additionally, encompasses an ability to be aware of multiple emotions occurring at one time, or dialecticism, even if they seem to be conflicting (e.g., feeling both sadness and relief during grief).

Interpret Emotions: Ability to describe emotions, as well as understand or analyze emotions in both self and others.

Reflects the ability to verbalize or provide word representations (descriptions, metaphors, images, etc.) to communicate emotional experiences, whether that be communicating an internal emotional experience (self) or talking about others’ emotions. Additionally, encompasses an ability to use awareness of emotions to

understand or conceptualize situations (e.g., “Where did this emotion come from and why?”).

APPENDIX D

EXPERT REVIEW ITEM FEEDBACK

Below are the proposed items for the initial item pool. The items are organized by the factor that they were intended to conceptually measure. Please feel free to comment on the following:

- 1. Are the items clearly worded? What changes in wording do you suggest?*
- 2. Are any items redundant? If so, what items do you suggest might be deleted?*
- 3. Do all the items seem to represent to construct of emotional awareness? Which, if any, do not seem to represent the construct of emotional awareness and why? How might they be reworded to better represent the construct of emotional awareness?*
- 4. Do any additional items that come to mind? If so, what items do you suggest and why do you think they are important?*
- 5. Please add any additional comments or suggestions that you think would improve the items?*

You may track changes and make edits or comments directly in the Word document.

Self-Identify Emotions:

1. I find it easy to know exactly what emotion I'm experiencing.
2. I'm seldom unsure of how I am feeling.
3. I have feelings that I can't quite figure out what they are.
4. I have feelings that I can't quite identify.
5. I am rarely confused about how I feel.
6. When I'm feeling sad, sadness seems to be the only emotion that I'm experiencing.
7. When I'm feeling sad or distressed, I struggle to identify specific emotions other than "bad."
8. I can easily tell the difference between nervous and excited.
9. When an unexpected event happens, I am aware of how my emotions change.
10. When I'm angry, it's like anger is the only emotion I'm experiencing.
11. I am usually very clear about my feelings.
12. I often identify my emotional state as "good," "bad," "fine," or "okay"
13. For me, there is a difference between feeling upset and aggravated.
14. Anxious and scared are the same emotions.
15. For me, there is a difference between feeling hopeful and confident.
16. Sad and hopeless mean two different things to me.
17. Emotions can best be described as broadly "good," "bad," or "neutral."
18. My emotions are vivid.

19. I can tell when my emotions change, even if it's a subtle difference (e.g., embarrassed to disrespected or peaceful to optimistic).

Other-Identifying Emotions:

20. When my clients are experiencing an emotion, I feel confused about what specific emotion they are experiencing.
21. When I reflect emotion to my clients, they typically agree with which emotion I choose to reflect to them.
22. I can never tell exactly what my clients are feeling.
23. When my clients report that they are feeling "good," I wonder if there are more emotions at play.
24. When working with clients, I can tell the difference between when they are feeling anxious and when they are feeling vulnerable.
25. When working with clients, I generally assume that how I'm reacting to their situation is exactly like their emotional reaction.
26. I can tell how my clients are feeling, even if I don't verbalize the emotion to them.
27. I feel the same exact emotions as my clients.
28. I am able to connect to the exact emotions my clients are feeling.
29. When listening to a client's story, I can differentiate between the different emotions that they are talking about.
30. If my client is suddenly talking faster, I tend to observe that they are just thinking about a lot.
31. My clients often say that I have clearly named the emotion they are feeling at that moment.
32. I feel fairly certain that I am accurate in how my clients are feeling at a particular moment.

Self-Experiencing Emotion

33. If I'm experiencing more than one emotion at a time, I often want to decide on only one emotion to focus on at a time.
34. I am aware of times in which I've experienced more than one emotion at a time.
35. When I'm experiencing more than one emotion at a time, I don't feel confused by this.
36. I notice certain sensations in my body when I'm experiencing a particular emotion.
37. I can only focus on how my body feels when I'm experiencing an emotion.
38. My emotions are complex.
39. I experience all feelings at the same intensity.
40. Some of my emotions are stronger than others.
41. When I'm reacting to something, I notice the physical sensations in my body.
42. Emotions have a physical side to them.
43. I either feel mostly positive or mostly negative in any given day.
44. I can think of times when I've experienced multiple emotions at once.

45. When things are bad or difficult, I only want to focus on the positive things.
46. I'm aware of certain things that I do (tapping my foot, pacing, crossing my arms, etc.) when I'm experiencing a particular emotion.
47. I feel overwhelmed when I'm experiencing two emotions at one time, such as anger and rejection.
48. It's normal for me to feel contradictory emotions at the same time.

Other-Experiencing Emotion

49. I'm quick to notice if my client's non-verbals change.
50. It's easy for me to connect my clients' non-verbals to the emotion that they're experiencing.
51. If my client has a reaction to something, I tend to think that they've had a change in their emotional state.
52. I feel confused if my client is crying and they say they disappointed and relieved.
53. In any given session, I notice a range of positive and negative emotions in my clients.
54. In any given session, I notice a range of intensity of emotions in my clients.
55. I assume that my clients feel the same that I do about a situation.
56. Client non-verbals aren't related to how they are feeling.
57. When clients tell me about physical sensations in their bodies, I connect these reports to how they might be feeling.
58. It's too much for me to focus on if my client is telling me about multiple emotions at one time.
59. When someone is angry, I think there are likely more emotions at play.
60. If my client is feeling two conflicting emotions at one time, I tend to want to focus on just one emotion at a time.
61. I am uncomfortable when my clients seem to be experiencing negative emotions such as anger.
62. Some client actions (e.g., crossing arms, looking away, facial expressions) suggest to me they may be experiencing specific emotions.

Self-Interpreting Emotion

63. I can make sense of my feelings.
64. I can describe my feelings to others.
65. I can label my emotional experiences.
66. I know how to talk about what emotion(s) I'm experiencing.
67. When I feel a strong emotion, I don't know how to talk about it.
68. When I feel joy, I know exactly how to describe this emotion to others around me.
69. I often do not know why I feel a certain way.
70. When someone asks me how I'm feeling, I can describe to them what emotion(s) I'm currently having.
71. If I have an emotional reaction to something, I know what caused it.
72. I feel confused if I suddenly have a shift in an emotional reaction.

73. There are times when I can't verbalize my feelings to others.
74. I think about my emotions through images or metaphors.
75. I get clarity around what my emotions mean through the use of images or metaphors.
76. I tend to use the same words to describe my feelings.
77. I can be precise with the words I use to describe my feelings.

Other-Interpreting Emotions

78. When my clients are distressed, I can find the right words to describe what they are experiencing.
79. I find myself using the same emotion word(s) with clients.
80. I find it hard to put into words what my clients are experiencing.
81. When I reflect back on any given session, I can describe the emotional reactions of my clients.
82. My client's emotions make sense to me.
83. I don't understand my client's emotional reactions.
84. I often know why my clients are feeling a certain way.
85. When I ask my clients how they are doing, I know when they are describing feelings to me.
86. If my client has an emotional reaction to something, I can generally make sense of why this may have happened.
87. When my clients express an emotion, I can explain how this emotion likely connects to what they are describing.
88. It's worth my time in session to help clients interpret their emotions.
89. It is important for me to know what emotions my clients are experiencing.
90. I can explain emotions to my clients.
91. I provide my clients with images or metaphors that help them clarify what emotions they are feeling/experiencing.
92. I provide my clients with images or metaphors that help them understand what their emotion(s) mean in relationship to their situations/problems/issues.
93. Images and metaphors help me explain to clients the complexity of their emotions.
94. I often help my clients understand the complexity of their emotions.
95. I help my clients understand the meaning of their contradictory emotions.

APPENDIX E

RECRUITMENT EMAILS – COUNSELING STUDENTS AND
COUNSELOR EDUCATORS

Hello, Dr. [Insert Name]

My name is Jordan L. Austin, and I am current doctoral candidate in Counseling and Counselor Education at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro in the process of completing my dissertation under the guidance of Dr. L. DiAnne Borders. The purpose of this study is to create and validate a new measure focused on emotional processes within counseling, and participants are eligible if they are currently a *counseling student (master's or doctoral), counselor educator, or counseling practitioner*. Though we often discuss bolstering affective awareness for our students during counselor educator, there is not yet a measure to track the development of emotional awareness specific to the counseling setting.

My hope is that this empirical effort will address this gap, though I need your help to do so. I am reaching out to ask if you would be willing to participate in my IRB-approved study, as well as consider forwarding this study along to your **students and colleagues**.

Participation in the study will take approximately 15 minutes, and there is more information for the study below. Please feel free to email me with any questions. I very much appreciate your consideration and any willingness to help!

Best regards,
Jordan L. Austin
jlaustin@uncg.edu

The purpose of this study is to validate a measure around emotional processes and experiences within counseling in order to advance our training and research efforts within the field of counselor education, which could then serve as a benefit to our students and their clients. My measure applies to counseling students, counselor educators, and counseling practitioners, so your valuable contribution and participation could benefit the field of counseling as a whole. Your participation will take approximately 15-20 minutes.

The data collected will be kept **private and totally confidential** and will not be traceable to you in any way, as no identifying information will be collected. The data will be held in a secure password-protected computer accessible to only the principal investigator.

Choosing not to participate in the study or withdrawing from the study will have no negative consequences.

To be eligible to participate in this study, you must be a:

1. Master's or doctoral students currently enrolled (either part-time or full-time) in counseling programs
2. Individuals who have a Ph.D. in counselor education, and
3. Counseling practitioners who are either fully or provisionally licensed as a professional counselor in their respective state.

Your participation is strictly voluntary. If you decide to participate, you are free to refuse to answer any questions or stop the survey at any time **without consequence**. If you choose to participate, you can access the survey at the following link: LINK

Thank you in advance for your time and consideration. *Please feel free to pass this message along to others that you believe might be eligible and interested in participating.* Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at jlaustrin@uncg.edu or my dissertation chair, Dr. L. DiAnne Borders at ldborders@uncg.edu.

APPENDIX F

RECRUITMENT EMAILS – COUNSELING PRACTITIONERS

Hello, [Insert Name]

My name is Jordan L. Austin, and I am current doctoral candidate in Counseling and Counselor Education at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro in the process of completing my dissertation under the guidance of Dr. L. DiAnne Borders. I am reaching out to ask if you would be willing to participate in my IRB-approved study, as well as consider forwarding this study along to your colleagues. The purpose of this study is to create and validate a new measure focused on emotional processes within counseling, and participants are eligible if they are currently a ***counseling practitioner, counseling student (master's or doctoral), or a counselor educator.***

Your valuable contribution could benefit the field of counseling as a whole, and your participation will take approximately 15-20 minutes. The data collected will be kept **private and totally confidential** and will not be traceable to you in any way, as no identifying information will be collected. The data will be held in a secure password-protected computer accessible to only the principal investigator. Choosing not to participate in the study or withdrawing from the study will have no negative consequences, as your participation in the survey is strictly voluntary.

If you are interested in participating in the study, a link to an online survey can be found [here](#). *Please pass along this email and information to others that you believe might be interested in participating.* Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at jlaustin@uncg.edu or my dissertation chair, Dr. L. DiAnne Borders at borders@uncg.edu.

Thank you in advance for your time and consideration!

Best regards,
Jordan L. Austin

APPENDIX G

SNOWBALL SAMPLING

Thank you for your time completing this study! Now, I need your help recruiting more participants, like you, to complete the survey. If you could, please take a moment to email a link to this study to any people that you know to be eligible participants. As a reminder, this study is open to:

1. Master's or doctoral students currently enrolled (either part-time or full-time) in counseling programs
2. Individuals who have a Ph.D. in counselor education, and
3. Counseling practitioners who are either fully or provisionally licensed as a professional counselor in their respective state.

This study would not be possible without you, and I thank you for completing the survey and considering passing the following message along to eligible others:

Hello, and I hope this email finds you well. My name is Jordan L. Austin, and I am a doctoral candidate in Counseling and Counselor Education at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. I am in the process of completing my dissertation under the guidance of Dr. L. DiAnne Borders. I am writing to request your participation in my study on experiences of emotions in counseling, which the IRB at UNCG has approved. The purpose of this study is to validate a measure of emotions in counseling in order to advance our research and training efforts within counselor education. My measure applies to counseling students, counselor educators, and counseling practitioners, so your valuable contribution and participation could benefit the field of counseling as a whole. Your participation will take approximately 15-20 minutes.

The data collected will be kept **private and totally confidential** and will not be traceable to you in any way, as no identifying information will be collected. The data will be held in a secure password-protected computer accessible to only the principal investigator.

Choosing not to participate in the study or withdrawing from the study will have no negative consequences.

To be eligible to participate in this study, you must be a:

4. Master's or doctoral students currently enrolled (either part-time or full-time) in counseling programs
5. Individuals who have a Ph.D. in counselor education, and
6. Counseling practitioners who are either fully or provisionally licensed as a professional counselor in their respective state.

Your participation is strictly voluntary. If you decide to participate, you are free to refuse to answer any questions or stop the survey at any time **without consequence**. If you choose to participate, you can access the survey at the following link: LINK

Thank you in advance for your time and consideration. *Please feel free to pass this message along to others that you believe might be eligible and interested in participating.* Should you have any questions, please feel free to contact me at jlaustrin@ung.edu or my dissertation chair, Dr. L. DiAnne Borders at border@uncg.edu.

APPENDIX H

SOCIAL MEDIA RECRUITMENT

Hello, everyone! Are you currently a licensed professional counselor, counseling student (master's or doctoral), or a counselor educator? If so, please consider participating in my IRB-approved dissertation study to create an instrument to assess emotional processes and experiences within counseling.

Participation is strictly voluntary – you may choose to not answer any items or withdraw, without penalty, at any time – and all data will be confidential, as no identifying information will be collected. Participation should take approximately 15 minutes, and the survey can be found at the following link: [LINK](#). If you any have questions, please reach out to me at jlaustin@uncg.edu or my dissertation chair, Dr. L. D. Borders at ldborders@uncg.edu.

Please feel free to share this information with others that you believe might be eligible and interested in participating. Thank you for your time and consideration!

APPENDIX I

INFORMED CONSENT

UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO CONSENT TO ACT AS A HUMAN PARTICIPANT

Project Title: Development and Validation of the C-EAS

Principal Investigator and Faculty Advisor: Jordan L. Austin and L. DiAnne Borders

What are some general things you should know about research studies?

You are being asked to take part in a research study. Your participation in the study is voluntary. You may choose not to join, or you may withdraw your consent to be in the study, for any reason, without penalty.

Research studies are designed to obtain new knowledge that may help others in the future. There may not be any direct benefit to you for being in the research study. There also may be risks to being in research studies. If you choose to not be in the study or leave the study before it is done, it will not affect your relationship with the researcher or the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Details about this study are discussed in this consent form. It is important that you understand this information so that you can make an informed choice about being in this research study.

If you have any questions about this study at any time, you should ask the researchers named in this consent form. Their contact information is below.

What is the study about?

This is a research project. Your participation is voluntary. The purpose of this research project is to gain understanding around emotions in counseling as well as obtain your feedback around a new measure related to emotional processing within counseling. The researchers are seeking to test a new survey designed to measure counselors' emotions.

Why are you asking me?

You are being asked to participate in this study because you are either a master's or doctoral level student enrolled in a CACREP accredited counselor education program, you are a faculty member of a counselor education program, you are a fully or provisionally licensed professional counselor in your current state of practice.

What will you ask me to do if I agree to be in the study?

If you agree to participate, you will be asked to respond to a series of surveys about you and your emotional experiences during counseling. Participating in this study is not likely

to cause you any stress, pain, or any other unpleasant reactions. The study will take approximately 20 minutes to complete, and your responses are anonymous. If you have questions now or at any time during the study, you may contact Jordan L. Austin (contact information below).

What are the risks to me?

The Institutional Review Board at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro has determined that participation in this study poses minimal risk to participants. If any question in this study makes you uncomfortable, you may choose not to respond.

If you have questions, want more information, or have suggestions, please contact Jordan L. Austin at jlaustin@uncg.edu or Dr. DiAnne Borders at borders@uncg.edu.

If you have any concerns about your rights, how you are being treated, concerns or complaints about this project or benefit or risks associated with being in this study please contact the Office of Research Integrity at UNCG toll-free at (855)251-2351.

Are there any benefits to society as a result of me taking part in this research?

Benefits to society may include a better understanding of emotions within counseling and ways to measure it. If we better understand how to measure emotional experiences during counseling, we may be able to research it in more depth and be able to train/teach it more effectively to counselors.

Are there any benefits to *me* for taking part in this research study?

There are no costs to you or payments may for participating in this study.

How will you keep my information confidential?

Your responses to this research study are completely anonymous. No identifying information will be collected, including no IP addresses, no names, or no email addresses. However, if you use a public computer to complete the study, privacy of others walking past the computer cannot be guaranteed. Absolute confidentiality of data provided through the Internet cannot be guaranteed due to the limited protections of Internet access. Please be sure to close your browser when finished so no one will be able to see what you have been doing. Your responses will be stored electronically on a password-protected computer. All data will be de-identified to ensure participant information remains confidential. All information in this study is strictly confidential unless disclosure is required by law.

What if I want to leave the study?

You have the right to refuse to participate or to withdraw at any time, without penalty. If you do withdraw, it will not affect you in any way. If you choose to withdraw, you may request that any of your data which has been collected be destroyed unless it is in a deidentifiable state. The investigators also have the right to stop your participation at any

time. This could be because you had an unexpected reaction, or have failed to follow instructions, or because the entire study has been stopped.

What about new information/changes in the study?

If significant new information relating to the study become available which may relate to your willingness to continue to participate, this information will be provided to you.

Voluntary Consent by Participant:

By clicking the appropriate button below, you are agreeing that you have read, or it has been read to you, and you fully understand the contents of the consent document. By clicking yes, you are openly and willingly consenting to take part in this study. All of your questions concerning this study have been answered. By clicking the appropriate button below, you are agreeing that you are 18 years of age or older and are agreeing to participate.

- Yes, I am at least 18 years old. I have read and understood the content of this consent document, I meet the requirements to participate, and I wish to participate.
- No, I do not wish to participate in this research study or do not meet the requirements to participate.

APPENDIX J
DEMOGRAPHIC ITEMS

Background Questions

What year were you born? _____

What is your self-identified gender?

- _____ Male
- _____ Female
- _____ Transgender
- _____ Gender-queer/gender non-conforming
- _____ Other

How would you describe your racial background? (*please check all that apply*)

- _____ American Indian/Native Alaskan
- _____ African-American/Black
- _____ Asian-American
- _____ Caucasian/White
- _____ Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander
- _____ Prefer not to state

How would you describe your ethnicity?

- _____ Hispanic or Latino
- _____ Not Hispanic or Latino
- _____ Prefer not to state

Which of the following best describes your current role?

- _____ Counseling Student (master's or doctoral)
- _____ Counseling Practitioner
- _____ Counselor Educator
- _____ Other

Counseling Student:

Are you currently enrolled as a master's or doctoral student?

- Master's
- Doctoral

Are you currently enrolled in a CACREP-accredited counseling program?

- Yes
- No

Are you currently providing or have you ever provided counseling services to clients (i.e., advanced practicum, internship, professional practice):

- Yes
- No

How many **credit hours** have you completed in your current program to date? _____

If you are a doctoral student and currently licensed as a professional counselor, what level of licensure do you currently hold?

- Full licensure
- Provisional/associate/intern licensure
- N/A

What is your current track/concentration?

- Career Counseling
- Clinical Mental Health Counseling
- Marriage, Couple, and Family Counseling
- School Counseling
- Student Affairs and College Counseling
- Addictions
- Counselor Education
- Other: (Please specify) _____

If you are a doctoral student, what was your track/concentration in your master's program?

- Career Counseling
- Clinical Mental Health Counseling
- Marriage, Couple, and Family Counseling
- School Counseling
- Student Affairs and College Counseling
- Addictions
- Other: (Please specify) _____

Counselor Educator:

Which of the following best describes you? (Please check all that apply)

- Assistant Professor
- Associate Professor
- Professor
- Tenure-track
- Non-tenure track (e.g., clinical professor)
- Visiting Professor
- Adjunct Professor
- Other: (Please specify) _____

How many years have you worked as a counselor educator? _____

Do you currently teach in a CACREP-accredited counseling program?

- Yes
- No

With which of the following counseling backgrounds do you most strongly identify?

- Career Counseling
- Clinical Mental Health Counseling
- Marriage, Couple, and Family Counseling
- School Counseling
- Student Affairs and College Counseling
- Addictions
- Other: (Please specify) _____

Did graduate from a CACREP-accredited counseling program?

- Yes, for both entry-level and doctoral
- Yes, for entry-level only
- Yes, for doctoral
- No

If you are a licensed professional counselor in your state, at what level are you currently licensed?

- Full licensure
- Provisional/associate/intern licensure

Counseling Practitioner:

At what level are you licensed as a professional counselor in your state?

- Full licensure
- Provisional/associate/intern licensure

How many years have you worked as a counselor? _____

With which of the following counseling backgrounds do you most strongly identify?

- Career Counseling
- Clinical Mental Health Counseling
- Marriage, Couple, and Family Counseling
- School Counseling
- Student Affairs and College Counseling
- Addictions
- Other: (Please specify) _____

What is your highest attained degree?

- Master's
- Doctoral?

Did you graduate from a CACREP-accredited counseling program?

- Yes
- No

APPENDIX K

COUNSELORS' EMOTIONAL AWARENESS SCALE (C-EAS)

Directions: While answering the following questions, please reflect upon how you generally are in your counseling sessions with clients. Try to be as accurate in your report as you can. Rate each of the following statements by selecting the option that best describes you using a scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. I help my clients understand the meaning of their contradictory emotions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. My clients often say that I have clearly named the emotion that they are feeling at that moment.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. I feel fairly certain that I am accurate in sensing how my clients are feeling at a particular moment.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. It's too much for me to focus on if my client is telling me about multiple emotions at one time.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. When listening to a client's story, I can differentiate between the different emotions that they are talking about.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

6. Some client actions (e.g., crossing arms, looking away, facial expressions) suggest to me they may be experiencing specific emotions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. When my clients are experiencing an emotion, I feel confused about what specific emotion they are experiencing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. In any given session, I engage with range of intensity of emotions in my clients.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. I can sense how my clients are feeling, even if I don't verbalize the emotion to them.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. When I reflect back on any given session, I can describe the emotional reactions of my clients.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. When clients tell me about physical sensations in their bodies, I connect these reports to how they might be feeling.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. I am uncomfortable when my clients seem to be experiencing	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

negative emotions
such as anger.

13. I can explore emotions with my clients.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. I find it hard to put into words what my clients are experiencing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. I'm quick to notice if my client's non-verbals change.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. I provide my clients with images or metaphors that help them clarify what emotions they are experiencing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. If my client is feeling two conflicting emotions at one time, I tend to want to focus on just one emotion at a time.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. I can never tell exactly what my clients are feeling.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. When I ask my clients how they are doing, I know when they are describing feelings to me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. I feel confused if my client is crying and they say they are disappointed and relieved.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. In any given session, I engage with range of positive and	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

negative emotions in my clients.					
22. When I reflect emotion to my clients, they typically agree with which emotion I choose to reflect to them.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
23. Client non-verbals aren't related to how they are feeling.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
24. I often know why my clients are feeling a certain way.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
25. When my clients are distressed, I can frequently find the right words to describe what they are experiencing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
26. When working with clients, I can sense the difference between when they are feeling anxious and when they are feeling vulnerable.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
27. My client's emotions make sense to me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

Directions: While answering the following questions, please reflect upon how you are in general. Please try to be as accurate in your report as you can be around how things typically are for you. Rate each of the following statements by selecting the option that best describes you using a scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

Items	Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly Agree
1. Emotions have a physical side to them.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. If I have an emotional reaction to something, I know what caused it.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. My emotions are vivid.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. I am rarely confused about how I feel.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. When I'm feeling distressed, I struggle to identify specific emotions other than "bad."	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. I have feelings that I can't quite identify.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. I know how to talk about what emotion(s) I'm experiencing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. I often do not know why I feel a certain way.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. When I'm feeling sad, sadness seems to be the only emotion that I'm experiencing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

10. I can only focus on how my body feels when I'm experiencing an emotion.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. I can tell when my emotions change, even if it's a subtle difference (e.g., embarrassed to disrespected or peaceful to optimistic).	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. I can make sense of my feelings.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. When someone asks me how I'm feeling, I can describe to them what emotion(s) I'm currently having.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. I am usually very clear about my feelings.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. I get clarity around what my emotions mean through the use of images or metaphors.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. I am aware of times in which I've experienced more than one emotion at a time.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. I'm seldom unsure of what I am feeling.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. I feel overwhelmed when I'm experiencing two emotions at one time, such as anger and rejection.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

19. When I'm experiencing more than one emotion at a time, I don't feel confused by this.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. I often identify my emotional state as "good," "bad," "fine," or "okay."	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. It's normal for me to feel contradictory emotions at the same time.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. I find it easy to know exactly what emotion I'm experiencing.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
23. I tend to use the same words to describe my feelings.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
24. I'm aware of certain things that I do (tapping my foot, pacing, crossing my arms, etc.) when I'm experiencing a particular emotion.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
25. When I'm reacting to something, I notice the physical sensations in my body.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
26. I can describe my feelings to others.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
27. When things are bad or difficult, I only want to focus on the positive things.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
28. When I feel a strong emotion, I don't	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

know how to talk
about it.

29. Some of my emotions are stronger than others.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
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APPENDIX L

TWENTY-ITEM TORONTO ALEXITHYMIA SCALE (TAS-20)

Directions: Please rate each of the following statements by selecting the option that best describes you in general using a scale ranging from *not at all like me* to *completely like me*.

Items	Not at all like me	Somewhat like me	Completely like me		
1. I am often confused about what emotions I am feeling.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
2. It is difficult for me to find the right words for my feelings.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
3. I have physical sensations that even doctors don't understand.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
4. I am able to describe my feelings easily.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
5. I prefer to analyze problems rather than just describe them.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
6. When I am upset, I don't know if I am sad, frightened, or angry.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
7. I am often puzzled by the sensations in my body.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. I prefer to just let things happen rather than try to understand why they turned out that way.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

9. I have feelings that I can't quite identify.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. Being in touch with emotions is essential.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. I find it hard to describe how I feel about people.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. People tell me to describe my feelings more.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. I don't know what's going on inside me.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. I often don't know why I am angry.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. I prefer talking to people about their daily activities than about their feelings.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. I prefer to watch "light" entertainment shows rather than psychological dramas.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. It is difficult for me to reveal my innermost feelings, even to close friends.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. I can feel close to someone, even in moments of silence.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. I find examination of my feelings useful in solving personal problems.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. Looking for hidden meanings in movies or plays distracts from their enjoyment.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

APPENDIX M

COUNSELING SELF-EFFICACY SCALE (CSES)

Directions: The following statements will ask you to reflect on your self-efficacy with various aspects of the practice of counseling. Please indicate your degree of agreement to each of the statements listed using the scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

Items	Not at all like me	(1)	(2)	Somewhat like me	(3)	(4)	Completely like me	(5)
1. My knowledge of personality development is adequate for counseling effectively.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)			
2. My knowledge of ethical issues related to counseling is adequate for me to perform professionally.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)			
3. My knowledge of behavior change principles is not adequate.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)			
4. I am not able to perform psychological assessment to professions standards.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)			
5. I am able to recognize the major psychiatric conditions.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)			
6. My knowledge regarding crisis intervention is not adequate.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)			

7. I am able to effectively develop therapeutic relationships with clients.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
8. I can effectively facilitate client self-exploration.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. I am not able to accurately identify client affect.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. I cannot discriminate between meaningful and irrelevant client data.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. I am not able to accurately identify my own emotional reactions to clients. (11)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. I am not able to conceptualize client cases to form clinical hypotheses.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. I can effectively facilitate appropriate goal development with clients.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. I am not able to apply behavior change skills effectively.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. I am able to keep my personal issues from negatively affecting my counseling.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. I am familiar with the advantages and disadvantages of group counseling as a form of intervention.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. My knowledge of the principles of group	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

dynamics is not adequate.					
18. I am able to recognize the facilitative and debilitating behaviors of group members.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. I am not familiar with the ethical and professional issues specific to group work.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. I can function effectively as a group leader/facilitator.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

APPENDIX N

SOCIAL DESIRABILITY SCALE TEN ITEM (SDS-10)

Directions: Read each item and decide whether the statement is true or false as it pertains to you personally. Try to answer by reflecting upon how you most often are instead of how you would ideally be.

Items	True	False
1. I'm always willing to admit when I make a mistake.	(1)	(2)
2. I always try to practice what I preach.	(1)	(2)
3. I never resent being asked to return a favor.	(1)	(2)
4. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.	(1)	(2)
5. I have never deliberately said something that hurt somebody's feelings.	(1)	(2)
6. I like to gossip at times.	(1)	(2)
7. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone	(1)	(2)
8. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget.	(1)	(2)
9. At times, I have really insisted on having things my own way.	(1)	(2)
10. There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things.	(1)	(2)

APPENDIX O

INITIAL AND REVISED C-EAS ITEMS PER EXPERT REVIEW

Original Item & Factor	Decision	Final Revised Item
Self-Identifying Emotions:		
1. I find it easy to know exactly what emotion I'm experiencing.	Kept as worded	
2. I'm seldom unsure of how I am feeling.	Reworded <i>Per suggestion of Reviewer 2, "how" was replaced with "what" to provide clarity.</i>	I'm seldom unsure of what I am feeling.
3. I have feelings that I can't quite figure out what they are.	Dropped <i>This item appeared to be redundant to other items.</i>	
4. I have feelings that I can't quite identify.	Kept as worded	
5. I am rarely confused about how I feel.	Kept as worded	
6. When I'm feeling sad, sadness seems to be the only emotion that I'm experiencing.	Moved <i>This item was retained in the measure though moved to self-experiencing category, as per suggestion of Reviewers 1 and 3.</i>	
7. When I'm feeling sad or distressed, I struggle to identify specific emotions other than "bad."	Reworded <i>"Sad" was removed from the item because sadness is a discrete emotion. Thus, "distressed" was</i>	When I'm feeling distressed, I struggle to identify more specific emotions other than "bad."

	<i>considered to be more diffused.</i>	
8. I can easily tell the difference between nervous and excited.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	
9. When an unexpected event happens, I am aware of how my emotions change.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	
10. When I'm angry, it's like anger is the only emotion I'm experiencing.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
11. I am usually very clear about my feelings.	Kept as worded	
12. I often identify my emotional state as "good," "bad," "fine," or "okay"	Kept as worded	
13. For me, there is a difference between feeling upset and aggravated.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	
14. Anxious and scared are the same emotions.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	

15. For me, there is a difference between feeling hopeful and confident.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	
16. Sad and hopeless mean two different things to me.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	
17. Emotions can best be described as broadly “good,” “bad,” or “neutral.”	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
18. My emotions are vivid.	Moved <i>This item was moved to the self-experiencing category per suggestion of Reviewers 1 and 3.</i>	
19. I can tell when my emotions change, even if it’s a subtle difference (e.g., embarrassed to disrespected or peaceful to optimistic).	Kept as worded	
Other-Identifying Emotions:		
20. When my clients are experiencing an emotion, I feel confused about what specific emotion they	Kept as worded	

are experiencing.		
21. When I reflect emotion to my clients, they typically agree with which emotion I choose to reflect to them.	Kept as worded	
22. I can never tell exactly what my clients are feeling.	Kept as worded	
23. When my clients report that they are feeling “good,” I wonder if there are more emotions at play.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	
24. When working with clients, I can tell the difference between when they are feeling anxious and when they are feeling vulnerable.	Reworded <i>This item was reworded by replacing “tell” with “sense” per suggestion of Reviewer 2.</i>	When working with clients, I can sense the difference between when they are feeling anxious and when they are feeling vulnerable.
25. When working with clients, I generally assume that how I’m reacting to their situation is exactly like their emotional reaction.	Dropped <i>This item was dropped due to a lack of clarity.</i>	
26. I can tell how my clients are feeling, even if I don’t verbalize the emotion to them.	Reworded <i>This item was reworded by replacing “tell” with “sense” as it is more tentative, per suggestion of Reviewer 2.</i>	I can sense how my clients are feeling, even if I don’t verbalize the emotion to them.
27. I feel the same exact emotions as my clients.	Dropped	

	<i>This item was dropped due to a lack of clarity.</i>	
28. I am able to connect to the exact emotions my clients are feeling.	Dropped <i>This item was dropped due to a lack of clarity.</i>	
29. When listening to a client's story, I can differentiate between the different emotions that they are talking about.	Kept as worded	
30. If my client is suddenly talking faster, I tend to observe that they are just thinking about a lot.	Dropped <i>This item was dropped due to a lack of clarity.</i>	
31. My clients often say that I have clearly named the emotion they are feeling at that moment.	Kept as worded	
32. I feel fairly certain that I am accurate in sensing how my clients are feeling at a particular moment.	Kept as worded	
Self-Experiencing Emotions:		
33. If I'm experiencing more than one emotion at a time, I often want to decide on only one emotion to focus on at a time.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
34. I am aware of times in which I've experienced	Kept as worded	

more than one emotion at a time.		
35. When I'm experiencing more than one emotion at a time, I don't feel confused by this.	Kept as worded	
36. I notice certain sensations in my body when I'm experiencing a particular emotion.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
37. I can only focus on how my body feels when I'm experiencing an emotion.	Kept as worded	
38. My emotions are complex.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
39. I experience all feelings at the same intensity.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
40. Some of my emotions are stronger than others.	Kept as worded	
41. When I'm reacting to something, I notice the physical sensations in my body.	Kept as worded	
42. Emotions have a physical side to them.	Kept as worded	
43. I either feel mostly positive or mostly negative in any given day.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	

44. I can think of times when I've experienced multiple emotions at once.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
45. When things are bad or difficult, I only want to focus on the positive things.	Kept as worded	
46. I'm aware of certain things that I do (tapping my foot, pacing, crossing my arms, etc.) when I'm experiencing a particular emotion.	Kept as worded	
47. I feel overwhelmed when I'm experiencing two emotions at one time, such as anger and rejection.	Kept as worded	
48. It's normal for me to feel contradictory emotions at the same time.	Kept as worded	
Other-Experiencing Emotions:		
49. I'm quick to notice if my client's non-verbals change.	Kept as worded	
50. It's easy for me to connect my clients' non-verbals to the emotion that they're experiencing.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
51. If my client has a reaction to something, I tend to think that	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which</i>	

they've had a change in their emotional state.	<i>factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	
52. I feel confused if my client is crying and they say they disappointed and relieved.	Kept as worded	
53. In any given session, I notice a range of positive and negative emotions in my clients.	Reworded <i>This item was reworded to reflect an ability to engage with or tolerate emotional intensity.</i>	In any given session, I engage with a range of positive and negative emotions in my clients.
54. In any given session, I notice a range of intensity of emotions in my clients.	Reworded <i>This item was reworded to reflect an ability to engage with or tolerate emotional intensity.</i>	In any given session, I engage with a range of intensity of emotions with my clients.
55. I assume that my clients feel the same that I do about a situation.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	
56. Client non-verbals aren't related to how they are feeling.	Kept as worded	
57. When clients tell me about physical sensations in their bodies, I connect these reports to how they might be feeling.	Kept as worded	
58. It's too much for me to focus on if my client is telling me about	Kept as worded	

multiple emotions at one time.		
59. When someone is angry, I think there are likely more emotions at play.	Dropped <i>This item was dropped due to lack of specificity.</i>	
60. If my client is feeling two conflicting emotions at one time, I tend to want to focus on just one emotion at a time.	Kept as worded	
61. I am uncomfortable when my clients seem to be experiencing negative emotions such as anger.	Kept as worded	
62. Some client actions (e.g., crossing arms, looking away, facial expressions) suggest to me they may be experiencing specific emotions.	Kept as worded	
Self-Interpreting Emotions:		
63. I can make sense of my feelings.	Kept as worded	
64. I can describe my feelings to others.	Kept as worded	
65. I can label my emotional experiences.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	

66. I know how to talk about what emotion(s) I'm experiencing.	Kept as worded	
67. When I feel a strong emotion, I don't know how to talk about it.	Kept as worded	
68. When I feel joy, I know exactly how to describe this emotion to others around me.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
69. I often do not know why I feel a certain way.	Kept as worded	
70. When someone asks me how I'm feeling, I can describe to them what emotion(s) I'm currently having.	Kept as worded	
71. If I have an emotional reaction to something, I know what caused it.	Kept as worded	
72. I feel confused if I suddenly have a shift in an emotional reaction.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	
73. There are times when I can't verbalize my feelings to others.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
74. I think about my emotions through images or metaphors.	Dropped	

	<i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
75. I get clarity around what my emotions mean through the use of images or metaphors.	Kept as worded	
76. I tend to use the same words to describe my feelings.	Kept as worded	
77. I can be precise with the words I use to describe my feelings.	Dropped <i>There was a lack of agreement around which factor this item appeared to be measuring.</i>	
Other-Interpreting Emotions:		
78. When my clients are distressed, I can find the right words to describe what they are experiencing.	Reworded <i>This item was reworded to include the "frequently," as per the suggestion of Reviewer 2.</i>	When my clients are distressed, I can frequently find the right words to describe what they are experiencing.
79. I find myself using the same emotion word(s) with clients.	Dropped <i>This item was dropped due to a lack of clarity.</i>	
80. I find it hard to put into words what my clients are experiencing.	Kept as worded	
81. When I reflect back on any given session, I can describe the emotional reactions of my clients.	Kept as worded	

82. My client's emotions make sense to me.	Kept as worded	
83. I don't understand my client's emotional reactions.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
84. I often know why my clients are feeling a certain way.	Kept as worded	
85. When I ask my clients how they are doing, I know when they are describing feelings to me.	Kept as worded	
86. If my client has an emotional reaction to something, I can generally make sense of why this may have happened.	Dropped <i>This item was dropped due to a lack of clarity.</i>	
87. When my clients express an emotion, I can explain how this emotion likely connects to what they are describing.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
88. It's worth my time in session to help clients interpret their emotions.	Dropped <i>This item as dropped due to lack of face validity.</i>	
89. It is important for me to know what emotions my clients are experiencing.	Dropped <i>This item as dropped due to lack of face validity.</i>	
90. I can explain emotions to my clients.	Reworded	I can explore emotions with my clients

	<i>This item was reworded, as per suggestion of reviewer 2, to emphasize “explore” rather than “explain.”</i>	
91. I provide my clients with images or metaphors that help them clarify what emotions they are feeling/experiencing.	Reworded <i>This item was reworded by deleting “feeling” and retaining “experiencing” to help provide item clarity.</i>	I provide my clients with images or metaphors that help them clarify what emotions they are experiencing.
92. I provide my clients with images or metaphors that help them understand what their emotion(s) mean in relationship to their situations/problems/issues.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
93. Images and metaphors help me explain to clients the complexity of their emotions.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
94. I often help my clients understand the complexity of their emotions.	Dropped <i>This item viewed as redundant to other items.</i>	
95. I help my clients understand the meaning of their contradictory emotions.	Kept as worded	

APPENDIX P

FINAL C-EAS ITEMS

Self-Emotional Awareness

1. I find it easy to know exactly what emotion(s) I'm experiencing.
2. I am rarely confused about how I feel.
3. I have feelings that I can't quite identify. [Reverse code]
4. When I'm feeling distressed, I struggle to identify specific emotions other than "bad." [Reverse code]
5. I am usually very clear about my feelings.
6. I often identify by emotion state as "good," "bad," "fine," or "okay." [Reverse code]
7. I can tell when my emotions change, even if it's a subtle difference (e.g., embarrassed to disrespected or peaceful to optimistic).
8. I can make sense of my feelings
9. I can describe my feelings to others.
10. I know how to talk about what emotion(s) I'm experiencing.
11. I often do not know why I feel a certain way. [Reverse code]
12. When I feel a strong emotion, I don't know how to talk about it. [Reverse code]
13. When someone asks me how I'm feeling, I can describe to them what emotion(s) I'm currently having.
14. If I have an emotional reaction to something, I know what caused it.

Other-Emotional Awareness

15. When my clients are experiencing an emotion, I feel confused about what specific emotion they are experiencing. [Reverse code]
16. When working with clients, I can sense the difference between when they are feeling anxious and when they are feeling vulnerable.
17. When listening to a client's story, I can differentiate between the different emotions that they are talking about.
18. My clients often say that I have clearly named the emotion they are feeling at that moment.
19. I can sense how my clients are feeling, even if I don't verbalize the emotion to them.
20. I can never tell exactly what my clients are feeling. [Reverse code]
21. When my clients are distressed, I can frequently find the right words to describe what they are experiencing.
22. I find it hard to put into words what my clients are experiencing. [Reverse code]
23. My client's emotions make sense to me.
24. When I reflect back on any given session, I can describe the emotional reactions of my clients.

25. When I ask my clients how they are doing, I know when they are describing feelings to me.
26. I can explore emotions to my clients.
27. I provide my clients with images or metaphors that help them clarify what emotions they are feeling/experiencing.

Emotional Experiencing

28. I am aware of times in which I've experienced more than one emotion at a time.
29. When I'm experiencing more than one emotion at a time, I don't feel confused by this.
30. I can only focus on how my body feels when I'm experiencing an emotion.
[Reverse code]
31. I am aware of certain things that I do (tapping my foot, pacing, crossing my arms, etc.) when I'm experiencing a particular emotion.
32. I feel overwhelmed when I am experiencing two emotions at one time, such as anger and rejection. [Reverse code]
33. My emotions are vivid.
34. When I'm reacting to something, I notice the physical sensations in my body.
35. I am quick to notice if my client's non-verbal's change.
36. I feel confused if my client is crying and they say they are disappointed and relieved. [Reverse code]
37. In any given session, I engage with a range of positive and negative emotions in my clients.
38. When clients tell me about physical sensations in their bodies, I connect these reports to how they might be feeling.
39. It's too much for me to focus on if my client is telling me about multiple emotions at one time. [Reverse code]
40. In any give session, I engage with a range of intensity of emotions in my clients.