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**The impact of teaching clinicians about implementing exposure therapy with patients
with eating disorders: A non-randomised controlled study**

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Running head: TEACHING EXPOSURE FOR EATING DISORDERS

1 **The impact of teaching clinicians about implementing exposure therapy with patients**
2 **with eating disorders: A non-randomised controlled study**

3

4

Abstract

5 **Objective:** Exposure therapy is a central part of cognitive behavior therapy (CBT) for eating
6 disorders, but is underused in routine clinical practice, at least partly because clinicians often
7 hold very negative views about this technique. While uncontrolled cohort studies suggest that
8 teaching clinicians to use exposure improves their attitudes, there is a need for more robust
9 empirical designs. This study uses a non-randomised controlled design to test whether
10 teaching on exposure improves clinicians' attitudes to its use, and whether clinician
11 characteristics influence such change

12 **Methods:** Forty-seven clinicians undertook 90 minutes of teaching on exposure therapy within
13 CBT, while 42 other clinicians undertook 90 minutes of teaching on CBT for eating disorders.
14 Each completed the Therapist Beliefs about Exposure Scale at the outset and end of the
15 intervention, and the Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale at the outset.

16 **Results:** Both groups showed improved attitudes to exposure therapy following the teaching,
17 but the change was substantially larger in the Exposure teaching group ($d = 0.85$) than in the
18 Comparison group ($d = .30$). Pre-teaching characteristics did not have any substantial
19 influence on this change in attitudes to exposure.

20 **Discussion:** These findings strengthen the conclusion that a simple teaching intervention can
21 improve clinician attitudes to the exposure therapy element of CBT (and other therapies).
22 However, the non-randomised design and self-selected sample limit the interpretability of the
23 findings. Further research is suggested to develop these findings and determine their link to
24 clinician behavior in therapy.

25

26 **Keywords:**

27 exposure therapy; cognitive behavior therapy; eating disorders; anxiety; teaching

1 **The impact of teaching clinicians about implementing exposure therapy with patients**
2 **with eating disorders: A non-randomised controlled study**

3
4 Exposure therapy is a key element of evidence-based cognitive behavioral therapy
5 for eating disorders (CBT-ED; National Institute for Health and Care Excellence, 2017). It is
6 used in the form of exposure to feared foods, exposure to emotional and interpersonal
7 triggers to eating, body image exposure, binge cue exposure, and working with comorbid
8 anxiety-based disorders (e.g., Becker, Farrell & Waller, in press; Fairburn, 2008; Waller,
9 Cordery, Corstorphine, Hinrichsen, Lawson, Mountford, & Russell, 2007; Waller, Turner,
10 Tatham, Mountford & Wade, 2019). It is relevant for use in the full range of settings where
11 eating disorders are treated, including outpatient and more intensive units. However, just as
12 exposure is an essential element of CBT for anxiety disorders (e.g., Barlow, 2002) but is
13 under-used in treating such patients (e.g. Harned, Dimeff, Woodcock, & Contreras, 2013;
14 van Minnen, Hendricks, & Olf, 2010), exposure therapy is substantially under-used in
15 treating eating disorders (e.g., Cowdrey & Waller, 2015; Mulkens, de Vos, de Graaf & Waller,
16 2018; Turner, Tatham, Lant, Mountford, & Waller, 2014; Waller, Stringer & Meyer, 2012).

17 The lack of use of this key therapeutic technique is related to clinicians' own anxiety
18 and distress levels (Deacon & Farrell, 2013; Waller et al., 2012) and clinicians' negative
19 beliefs about exposure therapy (e.g., Harned, Dimeff, Woodcock, & Contreras, 2013).
20 However, it is also possible that clinicians are not aware of or comfortable in using exposure-
21 based techniques (e.g., Becker, Zayfert, & Anderson, 2004).

22 The need to train clinicians in the competent delivery of exposure therapy has been
23 identified as a priority (McHugh & Barlow, 2010). Given the factors that seem to prevent
24 clinicians using exposure, such an intervention is likely to need to address clinicians'
25 knowledge, attitudes and anxiety in relation to this technique. Suggestions have included
26 experiential interventions such as attitude inoculation, use of role plays, and use of case
27 material (e.g., Farrell, Deacon, Dixon, & Lickel, 2013). However, such interventions are likely
28 to be expensive and difficult to disseminate widely.

1 A less expensive and more easily implemented approach is to teach clinicians' about
2 exposure therapy, so that their enhanced knowledge might improve their attitudes and
3 willingness to implement this therapeutic technique. Early educational interventions have
4 proven promising in this way. Deacon et al. (2013) have shown that a one-day didactic
5 workshop has a very substantial positive effect on improving attitudes towards exposure
6 therapy among clinicians working with anxiety. In the field of eating disorders, Waller, D'Souza
7 Walsh, and Wright (2016) have shown a similar impact of a 90-minute didactic teaching
8 session on clinicians' attitudes to exposure. In both cases, the effect size of the intervention
9 was very large (Cohen's $d = \sim 1.6$).

10 While the Deacon et al. (2013) and Waller et al. (2016) studies show promising results,
11 they are both limited by the lack of any control condition. It could be hypothesised that there is
12 no need for the specific teaching to be related to exposure therapy, and that simply reviewing
13 the eating disorders more generally in teaching might trigger clinicians to think more positively
14 about treatment methods for such patients. Therefore, to confirm the value of teaching
15 clinicians about the use of exposure therapy, a meaningful comparison condition is needed –
16 in this case, generic teaching about eating disorders.

17 This study will replicate the work of Waller et al. (2016) by testing the effects of the
18 same teaching on a similar group of eating disorder clinicians' attitudes to exposure therapy,
19 and will extend that work by comparing the impact of such teaching with the impact of a generic
20 teaching session (of the same length). The main hypothesis is that exposure-specific teaching
21 will result in improved attitudes to exposure therapy, to a greater degree than generic teaching.
22 It is also hypothesised that exposure-specific teaching will have a greater impact on such
23 attitudes among some clinicians – particularly those who are more anxious and who have more
24 negative attitudes to exposure at the outset of the teaching.

25

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Method

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Ethics

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Ethical approval was granted for the study by the University of Sheffield's Department

1 of Psychology Research Ethics Committee. All participants gave informed consent.

2 **Design**

3 The study employed a non-randomised controlled design, with between-subject
4 (teaching condition) and within-subject (time) factors. One teaching condition group received
5 teaching on exposure for eating disorders, and the other received general teaching on eating
6 disorders. Data were collected at the beginning and end of the teaching sessions.

7 **Sample size calculation**

8 Sample size analysis (G*Power v 3.1.5, Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner, 2007) was
9 conducted using the primary outcome variable of attitude to exposure therapy scores as
10 influenced by the type of intervention (assuming two groups at two time points). With an alpha
11 of 0.05, a power of 0.9, and an effect size of $f = 0.25$, a total sample size of 46 participants
12 would be needed (i.e., 23 per group). If the effect size were lower, then more participants would
13 be needed (e.g. with an effect size of $f = 0.2$, then 34 would be needed per group). Given the
14 effect sizes of the previous studies (Deacon et al., 2013; Waller et al., 2016), these f values
15 are relatively conservative, meaning that a smaller sample would be likely to be adequate.

16 **Participants**

17 The participants were all qualified clinicians, specialising in delivering therapy to eating-
18 disordered patients. They were recruited at two teaching sessions regarding treating eating
19 disorders. Forty-seven participants took part in the exposure teaching, while 42 took part in the
20 comparison teaching group. Thus, the study was adequately powered.

21 Table 1 shows the mean age, time working as a therapist, time working with eating
22 disorders and contact hours with patients for each of the two groups. The only difference was
23 in the time that the members of the two groups had spent working with eating disorders, with
24 the exposure teaching group having worked longer with them than the comparison teaching
25 group. In the Exposure group, 85.1% were female, versus 76.2% in the Comparison group.
26 Considering ethnicity, 85.1% of the Exposure group were Caucasian, versus 71.4% in the
27 Comparison group.

28

1 _____
2 Insert Table 1 about here
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5 **Measures**

6 The participants completed three measures prior to receiving the teaching: the
7 Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale – IUS-12 (Carleton, Norton, & Asmundson, 2007); the
8 Therapist Beliefs about Exposure Scale – TBES (Deacon et al., 2013); and a measure of the
9 frequency of use of exposure techniques (Frequency of Exposure – FOE) designed for this
10 study. As the primary aim was to determine change in clinician’s attitudes to exposure, they
11 then completed the TBES again at the end of the teaching session.

12 The **IUS-12** is a short, 12-item version of the original 27-item Intolerance of Uncertainty
13 Scale (Freeston, Rhéaume, Letarte, Dugas, & Ladouceur, 1994), measuring responses to
14 uncertainty, ambiguous situations, and the future. The scale consists of two subscales -
15 Prospective Anxiety and Inhibitory Anxiety (Carleton, 2007). It has good convergent and
16 discriminant validity, as well as internal consistency (Carleton et al., 2007; McEvoy & Mahoney,
17 2011). In this sample, the internal consistency (Cronbach’s *alpha*) of the Prospective Anxiety
18 scale was .818, and the internal consistency of the Inhibitory Anxiety scale was .824. Higher
19 scores indicate greater intolerance of uncertainty.

20 The **TBES** consists of 21 items (e.g., ‘Most clients have difficulty tolerating the distress
21 exposure therapy evokes’; ‘Exposure therapy is difficult to tailor to the needs of individual
22 patients’), where the participant is asked to indicate how strongly they agree or disagree with
23 each statement. The TBES has a clear single-factor structure, excellent internal consistency,
24 and high six-month test-retest reliability (Deacon et al., 2013). Its internal consistency in this
25 study was *alpha* = .891. Higher TBES scores indicate more negative beliefs about the value of
26 exposure therapy.

27 The **FOE** was developed for this study to ascertain how frequently clinicians report
28 using exposure techniques with their clients, rating each of 12 items on a 5-point Likert scale

1 (1 = Never; 2 = Rarely; 3 = Occasionally; 4 = Frequently; 5 = Every time I have seen my
2 patients). Clinicians are asked: 'Thinking back over the last two months, how often have you
3 used the following techniques in sessions with your patients?', followed by items such as:
4 'Asked my patients to eat feared foods', 'Asked my patients to carry out body image exposure in front
5 of a mirror in the session' and 'Let my patients know their specific weight after weighing'. A higher item
6 mean score (range = 1-5) indicates that the clinician using more exposure-based methods
7 within therapy. The internal consistency of the FOE scale was satisfactory ($\alpha = .896$). This
8 measure is available on request from the authors.

9 **Intervention**

10 Both teaching sessions were delivered in the same year, as workshops to groups of
11 clinicians attending international conferences on eating disorders. Attendees signed up for
12 each workshop as part of a wider range of options. Therefore, each clinician had a specialist
13 interest in eating disorders and in the topic of the specific workshop. No attendees overlapped
14 the two sessions. Each workshop was delivered by one of the authors (GW), so that there
15 would not be an effect due to different teachers for the two topics.

16 Clinicians who attended the exposure teaching intervention group undertook a 90-
17 minute teaching session on exposure therapy for eating disorders. Those attending the
18 comparison teaching intervention group had a 90-minute teaching session relating to CBT and
19 eating disorders, without any specific teaching about exposure therapy as an element of CBT.
20 Each session was a combination of didactic presentation, role play, case presentations, and
21 discussion of attendee case material and experiences. The slides from the two teaching
22 sessions are available on request from the authors.

23 **Data Analysis**

24 Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests showed that all of the scales were normally distributed, with
25 the exception of the IUS-12 Inhibitory Anxiety scale. Given the preponderance of normally
26 distributed scores, parametric tests were used throughout.

27 Analysis of Covariance (time x group) was used to compare the pre- and post-teaching
28 TBES scores of each group, correcting for clinicians' pre-teaching levels of anxiety. Paired t-

1 tests were used to interpret any interaction, with Cohen's d (corrected for within-subject
2 analyses) used to determine effect sizes. Stepwise multiple regressions were used to
3 determine whether pre-treatment clinician characteristics were associated post-intervention
4 TBES scores, once the pre-intervention TBES scores had been accounted for.

5

6

Results

Group characteristics

8 In addition to the temporal characteristics outlined above, Table 1 details the mean
9 scores on the IUS-12, FOE and TBES for the two groups. There were no group differences on
10 the two IUS scales, but the Exposure teaching group had a lower score on the TBES and a
11 slightly higher score on the FOE, indicating that they were slightly more likely to use exposure
12 and less negative about exposure before the teaching sessions. It should be noted that the
13 mean TBES scores of each group were higher than those of the group of clinicians working
14 with anxiety reported by Deacon et al. (2013). Therefore, it can be concluded that clinicians
15 working with eating disorders are no more positive about exposure therapy than clinicians
16 working with anxiety.

Impact of exposure teaching on beliefs about exposure

18 Table 2 shows the mean TBES scores of the two groups before and after the teaching
19 sessions. The group (teaching condition) x time (pre/post) ANCOVA showed no significant
20 main effect of time ($F = 0.07$, NS) and no significant covariate effects of the IUS Prospective
21 and Inhibitory scales ($F = 0.55$ and $F = 0.57$, respectively). There was a main effect of group
22 ($F = 20.8$, $P < .001$), showing that those who attended the Exposure teaching had lower TBES
23 scores overall than those who attended the distraction teaching. However, this main effect is
24 subsumed by the significant interaction between group and time ($F = 10.8$, $P < .002$).

25

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Insert Table 2 about here

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1 Paired t-tests were used to interpret this interaction. They showed that TBES scores
2 fell during the teaching for each group, indicating that attitudes towards exposure therapy
3 improved. However, that the effect was substantial and very large for those who attended the
4 exposure teaching ($d = 0.85$), but was smaller for those who attended the comparison teaching
5 session (medium effect size; $d = 0.30$). The confidence intervals for the two effect sizes did not
6 overlap, supporting the conclusion that the effect of the exposure teaching was much more
7 substantial than the effect of the comparison teaching condition.

8 **Association of clinician characteristics with impact of exposure and control teaching**

9 Multiple regression analyses were used to determine whether improvements in TBES
10 scores were associated with clinician characteristics (age, duration of time delivering
11 therapy/working with eating disorders, number of cases seen, anxiety, use of exposure). The
12 regressions were carried out separately for each group. They used a stepwise approach,
13 whereby the initial TBES score was entered ahead of the remaining variables in order to
14 determine which of the remaining variables had any association with the final TBES score
15 above and beyond the impact of the initial TBES score. Table 3 shows the result of each
16 analysis. In each case, the initial TBES score was the strongest predictor of the post-group
17 TBES score. There was only one additional effect – in the Exposure teaching group, those
18 who had spent less time working with eating disorders showed greater reductions ended the
19 intervention with a higher level of TBES scores. However, there was no evidence of the
20 hypothesised effects of anxiety.

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22 Insert Table 3 about here
23 _____

25 **Discussion**

26 This non-randomised controlled trial has built on the work of Deacon et al. (2013) and
27 Waller et al. (2016). Both of those studies demonstrated that teaching clinicians about
28 exposure is effective in improving clinicians' attitudes to exposure therapy – a key determinant

1 in whether clinicians use this highly effective element of CBT for anxiety and eating disorders.
2 However, the lack of any control condition in those previous studies means that it was not
3 possible to determine whether any disorder-related teaching would have had this effect. This
4 study has demonstrated two key features in relation to exposure-related teaching, with an
5 adequate power. First, teaching clinicians about exposure does impact positively on their
6 beliefs about the value of this technique. While the clinicians who had more generic teaching
7 showed a small improvement in their TBES scores ($d = 0.30$), the effect of the specific teaching
8 was much larger ($d = 0.85$). The large effect of exposure teaching here and in previous work
9 (Deacon et al., 2013; Waller et al., 2016) supports the conclusion that exposure-specific
10 teaching has an effect on clinicians' beliefs about exposure. Second, this change in beliefs is
11 a general one, which is largely unrelated to clinicians' pre-intervention characteristics, including
12 anxiety and temporal characteristics, meaning that characteristics such as anxiety reduce
13 clinicians' use of exposure-based techniques (e.g., Arch, Twohig, Deacon, Landy, & Bluett,
14 2015; Turner, Tatham, Lant, Mountford, & Waller, 2014), but does not stop them learning from
15 training and changing their attitudes to this key therapeutic method for addressing eating
16 disorders.

17 The use of a comparison group allows for firmer conclusions about the value of
18 teaching CBT clinicians about exposure than the previous work in this area. However, the non-
19 randomised nature of the design is a major limitation, as it might mean that the attendees were
20 primed for greater attitudinal change because they were already interested in the topic that
21 they chose. Each group attended the workshops by choice, so there is a self-selection bias
22 that is likely to be relevant to the findings (e.g., the lower initial TBES score in the group who
23 opted for the Exposure training). This self-selection bias involved in who attended what
24 teaching session needs to be considered in future controlled studies, using randomisation in
25 group allocation. It will also be important to ensure that such teaching effects are not teacher-,
26 site- or disorder-specific, by rolling out this evidence-based approach to training to by different
27 teachers, in different settings and to clinicians working with a wider range of clinical groups.
28 Future research should also determine whether these findings are influenced by other clinician

1 characteristics, such as qualification, profession and work setting. Evidence-based training
2 needs to be considered as a research priority in developing greater clinician competence with
3 a range of elements of CBT, and with other therapies.

4 Of course, the studies to date have focused on changing clinician attitudes. The next
5 stage in such research will be to conduct longer-term follow-up studies, with an adequate
6 sample size, where changes in clinician behavior can be measured. It is possible that the
7 attitudinal changes that have been demonstrated to date (Arch et al., 2015; Deacon et al.,
8 2013; Waller et al., 2016) will be adequate to result in clinicians using exposure more in their
9 everyday practice. In that case, the training should show longer-term changes in clinician
10 adherence to protocols and in patient outcomes. Alternatively, it is possible that the attitudinal
11 change will only be effective in the context of focused supervision (e.g., Öst, Karlstedt, & Widén,
12 2012) or where educational approaches are used in combination with effective behavior
13 change methods, such as the development of implementation intentions (e.g., Webb &
14 Sheeran, 2006). Alternatively, there might need to be consideration of other educational
15 interventions, such as addressing clinician's unevidenced concerns about 'patient fragility'
16 (Meyer, Farrell, Kemp, Blakey, & Deacon, 2014). It is also possible that the TBES is not the
17 ideal tool for measuring short-term change in attitudes, and further research might extend the
18 validation of the TBES by exploring this element of its clinical utility.

19 To summarise, simple education about the use of exposure-based methods within CBT
20 is an effective strategy, which might go some way to ensuring that this highly effective
21 intervention is used by many more clinicians (Harned et al., 2013). Furthermore, such
22 education is most effective when working with clinicians who might be seen as needing it most
23 (those who are more anxious and who hold more negative views about exposure as part of the
24 treatment of eating and other disorders). In the eating disorders, there is clearly a need to
25 ensure that more clinicians use the most effective therapies, including CBT-ED (Tobin, Banker,
26 Weisberg, & Bowers, 2007), and that they use them appropriately (Turner et al., 2014; Waller
27 et al., 2012). Exposure is key to the implementation of techniques such as changing eating,
28 reducing bulimic behaviors, weighing patients and effective body image interventions (e.g.,

1 Becker, Farrell & Waller, in press; Fairburn, 2008; Waller, Cordery, Corstorphine, Hinrichsen,
2 Lawson, Mountford, & Russell, 2007; Waller, Turner, Tatham, Mountford & Wade, 2019; Waller,
3 Cordery, Corstorphine, Hinrichsen, Lawson, Mountford, & Russell, 2007), many of which apply
4 more widely than CBT-ED (e.g., Lock & Le Grange, 2012; Waller & Mountford, 2015).
5 Therefore, it will be important to ensure that clinicians understand and implement exposure
6 work across therapies for the eating disorders.

7

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9 **Authors' declaration of interest**

10 The authors have no interests to declare.

11

12 **Data statement**

13 The data used are available on reasonable request to the corresponding author.

14

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1 **Table 1**

2 Temporal characteristics and scores on the measures of the two groups prior to the training
 3 sessions

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	Exposure group		Comparison group		t-test	
	<i>M</i>	(<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i>	(<i>SD</i>)	<i>t</i>	<i>P</i>
Measure ¹						
Age (years)	38.3	(11.4)	40.8	(10.8)	1.00	<i>NS</i>
Time working as a therapist (years)	10.8	(9.80)	9.1	(10.8)	0.94	<i>NS</i>
Contact time with patients (hours/week)	17.4	(10.1)	16.6	(8.7)	0.38	<i>NS</i>
Time working with eating disorders (years)	9.3	(9.0)	4.3	(6.0)	2.77	.05
Initial TBES score	39.0	(10.2)	45.2	(9.2)	2.6	.05
Initial FOE score	3.9	(0.6)	3.5	(0.8)	2.63	.05
Initial IUS Prospective score	15.2	(4.6)	14.2	(3.9)	1.03	<i>NS</i>
Initial IUS Inhibitory scores	7.4	(2.4)	8.1	(3.1)	1.08	<i>NS</i>

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¹ TBES = Therapist Beliefs about Exposure

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Scale; IUS = Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale;

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FOE = Frequency of Exposure Scale.

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1 **Table 2**

2 Impact of different teaching sessions (exposure-based vs comparison) on clinicians' attitudes
 3 to exposure therapy (Therapist Beliefs about Exposure Scale scores)

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Teaching group		Time point		Post hoc paired t-tests		Effect size	
		Pre teaching	Post teaching	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>d</i>	95% CI for effect sizes
Exposure (<i>N</i> = 47)	Mean (<i>SD</i>)	39.03 (10.57)	30.87 (8.51)	8.21	.001	0.85	0.62 - 1.08
Comparison (<i>N</i> = 42)	Mean (<i>SD</i>)	45.17 (8.43)	42.34 (10.55)	2.52	.017	0.30	0.11 - 0.48

1 **Table 3**

2 Regression analyses, showing the relationship between clinician variables and post-group

3 Therapist Beliefs about Exposure Scale (TBES) scores, controlling for initial TBES scores.

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	Step 1			Step 2			T	Beta
	Overall effect F	Independent variable	Variance explained	Overall effect	Additional variance explained	Independent variable		
Exposure	70.3 ***	Initial TBES	67.1%	14.1 ***	8.4%	Initial TBES	8.04 ***	.819
						Age	0.90	.184
						Face to face contact	0.59	.067
						Years in practice	1.55	.445
						Years working with ED	2.07 *	-.568
						FOE	0.36	.032
						IUS	0.67	.100
						Prospective IUS Inhibitory	2.01	-.270
	Comparison	27.7 ***	Initial TBES	58.4%	4.54 ***	1.2%	Initial TBES	5.07 ***
						Age	1.01	-.265
						Face to face contact	0.62	.119
						Years in practice	1.51	.458
						Years working with ED	0.25	-.049
						FOE	0.85	.134
						IUS	2.01	.393
						Prospective IUS Inhibitory	1.15	-.227

5 Notes: TBES = Therapist Beliefs about Exposure Scale; IUS = Intolerance of6 Uncertainty Scale; FOE = Frequency of Exposure Scale. * $P < .05$; *** $P < .001$

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