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## ABSTRACT

These two journal issues are dedicated to the study and development of the counseling profession. The journal's emphasis on multiculturalism is evident in the article selected for this volume. The first issue contains the following articles: (1) "Message from the Co-Editors: The Strength of Diversity" (Andrew L. Carey and Clifford W. Brooks, Jr.); (2) "Executive Coaching: A Future Specialty of Counseling?" (John McCarthy); (3) "Collaborative Research: Implications for the Counseling Profession" (Lori A. Bruch and LeeAnn M. Eschbach); (4) "Masculinity Ideology as a Correlate of Self-Reported Aggression in Preadolescent Males" (Bradley A. Janey and John M. Robertson); (5) "Who Is Teaching Multicultural Counseling Studies?" (Edil Torres-Rivera, Loan T. Phan, and Michael T. Garrett); and (6) "Impact of Initial Therapy Interviews on College Students' Levels of Anxiety and Depression" (Kristen A. Sagun). Articles in the second issue include: (1) "Message from the Co-Editors: Unity through Diversity" (Andrew L. Carey and Clifford W. Brooks, Jr.); (2) "Ecological Systems Approach to Counseling: The Case of an Asian Client" (Mark H. Chae); (3) "Positive Psychology: What Might it Mean for Counseling?" (Robert W. McAlister, Sheila C. McElroy, Phylis Y. Thompson, and John McCarthy); (4) "Exploring the Complexities of Measuring Multicultural Competencies of Counselors in Training" (Jan Arminio and Christy Raukar); and (5) "The Team: Explorations in Group Process" (Rhonda Myers). (Contains 118 references.) (JDM)

# The Journal of the Pennsylvania Counseling Association

Clifford W. Brooks, Jr. and  
Andrew L. Carey  
Editors

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Clifford W. Brooks, Jr. and  
Andrew L. Carey, Editors

Volume 3, Number 1 Fall, 2000

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# The Journal of the Pennsylvania Counseling Association

## Contents

**Message from the Co-Editors: The Strength of Diversity**  
*Andy Carey and Ford Brooks* .....3

### Articles

Executive Coaching: A Future Specialty of Counseling? .....5  
*John McCarthy*

Collaborative Research: Implications for the Counseling Profession.....13  
*Lori A. Bruch and LeeAnn M. Eschbach*

### Research

Masculinity Ideology as a Correlate of Self-Reported Aggression  
in Preadolescent Males .....25  
*Bradley A. Janey*

Who is Teaching Multicultural Counseling Studies? .....33  
*Edil Torres-Rivera, Loan T. Pham, and Michael T. Garrett*

Impact of Initial Therapy Interviews on College Students' Levels  
of Anxiety and Depression .....43  
*Kristin A. Sagun*

**Guidelines for Authors**.....inside back cover

# **The Strength of Diversity**

*Andrew L. Carey*

*Clifford W. Brooks, Jr.*

**A**s you can see in this issue, the topics are quite diverse. Topics include executive coaching, a collaborative research model, and research articles of practical value for working with aggressive or violent adolescent boys, for re-evaluating the multicultural coursework and instructors in counseling programs, and for determining the usefulness of initial interviews for clients on waiting lists in university counseling centers. Each article is interesting and thought-provoking.

We welcome diverse topics and new ideas. While we still urge you to submit articles that are practical in nature, diversity is very important to us. There is strength in diversity. There is strength gained through being challenged with new and stimulating ideas. There is strength gained through encountering others with different values from our own. There is even strength gained when we encounter those who are controversial to us or cannot accept us as we are.

When we approach life as purposeful rather than accidental, as if each event and person we encounter is for our learning and growth, we will gain strength. We will grow as long as we are humble enough to learn from the challenges and the diversity placed in our paths. When we approach life and people with humility rather than defending and holding on to past, possibly rigid values or conclusions, we finally have the potential of learning from and valuing all people. We finally are able to benefit from what and whom we encounter as opposed to striking out or tearing down what we face.

We encourage you to be thankful for the new things and people that life places in your path. In the end, we will all be better off when we embrace the challenges and diversity as friendly building blocks to our health and wholeness.

## Executive Coaching: A Future Specialty of Counseling?

John McCarthy

*The recently emerging trend of executive coaching in the business world is examined for its connections to the counseling profession. Executive coaching has various definitions, perhaps reflective of its infancy. Though many similarities to counseling are evident in the helping nature of both, executive coaching differs from counseling in the area of ethics, history, and theories. Finally, in light of the popularity of executive coaching, suggestions for the counseling profession are offered as a way for it to become more aligned with this trend of helping.*

Several definitions of executive coaching have been postulated. As defined by Judge and Cowell (1997), executive coaching is “a series of one-on-one interactions between a coach and an executive that attempt to improve the latter’s performance on the job” (p. 71). Kilburg (1996) described it as a “helping relationship formed between a client who has managerial authority...and a consultant who uses a wide variety of behavioral techniques” to assist the client with “mutually identified goals” in improving performance of the consultant and the organization (p. 142). Witherspoon and White (1996) added the ideas of confidentiality and a “highly personal learning process” to their definition (p. 127). Belf (1996) discussed the element of executive coaching taking place “over a specified period of time” (p. 1). A similar definition adopted by the Professional and Personal Coaches Association included the aim of increasing the client’s “level of awareness and responsibility”.

In this paper I examine the executive coaching trend in the business world, comparing it to the current role of professional counselor, and suggest that counseling professionals may be well served in knowing more about this career trend. It is written for counselor educators interested in related positions in non-traditional areas for counselors and for those professionals seeking possible alternative employment that utilizes counseling skills.

According to Hall, Otazo, and Hollenbeck (1999), tens of thousands executive coaches exist in this country, and coaching represents one of the faster growing areas of corporate employment. The 15 coaches interviewed in their study indicated that more requests for their services were being received than they could accept. They further speculated that executive coaching is on the rise since it allows corporate employees to address issues that otherwise go unattended because of hectic schedules.

There are different types of executive coaches. Coaches can be from within the company or organization. They can also be either within the same department (e.g., one

person in the marketing division coaching another person in the marketing division) or external to it (e.g., a human resources director coaching a sales manager). A third kind of coach would be entirely external to the company. This professional would represent a neutral party and may either be hired by the person being coached or the employers. Two clear advantages of this arrangement are privacy and confidentiality in that few, if any, colleagues would know that coaching was being sought by the professional (S. J. Atkinson, personal communication, January 22, 2000). It is with this scenario in mind that professional counselors may find avenues of employment that lie outside of the more traditional areas.

### **Coaching: Comparisons to counseling**

Clear parallels are evident when executive coaching is compared to counseling. Gladding's (1996) definition of counseling includes the domains in which counseling is performed, which may involve intra and interpersonal concerns related to employment and vocational concerns. As with executive coaching, counseling is done with people who are deemed to be in a normal range of functioning (Gladding, 1996), and a similar objective of both is to aid in decision-making and creating new ways of behaving, feeling, and thinking. Finally, as suggested by Gladding, counseling is relatively short-term in nature, and this is also reflective of the executive coaching process.

Five core differences exist, however. First, executive coaching has a strikingly briefer history than the roots of the counseling profession. The word "coach" was originally used in English in the 1500s in describing a carriage. The verb "to coach" subsequently included the notion of transporting people of value to their desired place, which is reflective of the coaching process (Evered & Selman, 1989; Witherspoon & White, 1996). Hall et al. (1999) summarized its more recent history by stating that "charm school" preceded executive coaching, for it was there that many employee relation skills were taught. Managers later experienced "shock therapy" at the National Training Laboratories' Human Interaction Laboratory in the 1970s, and, by the early 1980s, General Electric created a personal effectiveness program for managers. Later in the decade, 360-degree feedback programs were instituted (Hall et al., 1999). These assessment tools represent inquiries about executives' strengths and weaknesses from their colleagues, subordinates, and supervisors in a company as a way for them to receive wide-ranging feedback. This information is gathered by the executive coach utilizing either standardized instruments or specific questionnaires (Strickland, 1997).

O'Hefferman (1986) claimed that the term "executive coaching" was initially used by Borough, a California practitioner, to describe activities in leadership development in 1985. Shortly thereafter, coaching was described as a mixture of psychotherapy and management consulting in a *Forbes* magazine article (Machan, 1988) and became more widespread in the business world in the 1990s.

Second, counseling is theory-based (Gladding, 1996). Although executive coaches whose background is in counseling or psychology often utilize theory-based approaches, other executive coaches may come from backgrounds that include law, business, education, human resources, and drama. Brotman, Liberi, and Wasylyshyn (1998)



reported that a World Wide Web search revealed more than 300 links to the words "executive coach." Further, they maintained that people entering executive coaching claim to have the necessary competencies, thereby leading to a variety of definitions of executive coaching. Witherspoon and White (1996) called for a "practice theory," one based on experience, in the future of executive coaching (p. 133). This contrasts sharply with the counseling profession, which is rich in theories. Hundreds of theories have been proposed to explain humans and change, with the number increasing 600% since the 1960s (Miller, Hubble, & Duncan, cited in Hubble, Duncan, & Miller, 1999).

Third, counseling has a steeped history in ethical codes and revisions to those codes, dating back to APGA's code in 1961 (Gladding, 1996). Within a more recent Code, an entire section is devoted to confidentiality (ACA, 1997). Dual relationships are also addressed, as the Code warns counselors to be aware of their influence and avoid situations with others in which their judgement may be impaired in such a way to harm clients. Hall et al. (1999) included this area as one of their three primary concerns for the future of executive coaching. Problems with dual role/multiple relationship can often arise when an internal human resources person coaches another person in the organization, particular those in lower-level management, with the fear being that information may get back to top management. They suggest that external coaches be utilized for issues that are more sensitive in nature. Further, organizations that employ coaching must create its own coaching ethical code for decisions about the coach-client assignment process and about the use of information that comes out of coaching.

Fourth, research is fundamental to the counseling profession, with one of the more critical questions in outcome research being, "Does what we're doing 'work?'" In executive coaching, however, little empirical research is evident, and this may be reflective of the infancy of this field. Kilburg (1996) noted a trend in books published on the topic (Deeprise, 1995; Maxwell, 1995; Shula & Blanchard, 1995), yet the literature is founded on few, approximately a dozen, studies examining the role of managers as coaches. Within his company, Peterson (1996) cited two empirical studies that showed support for sustained, longer-term (at least two years) change after being coached.

Fifth, for the most part, counseling has traditionally taken place in the counselor's office. Coaching, on the other hand, has venues utilized in various proportions, even at this stage of its development. Judge and Cowell's (1997) survey found that most coaching (52%) takes place at the client's site. This was followed by the coach's office (25%) and the telephone (12%).

Despite these differences between executive coaching and the counseling profession, it is important to note that recent changes in coaching parallel those that have been done in counseling. For instance, the International Coach Federation (ICF) has created an ethical code that is increasingly becoming the standard in the coaching domain (S. J. Atkinson, personal communication, January 22, 2000). Several training programs have been established, including the Coaches Training Institute, Success Dynamics Executive Coaching Institute, and the Academy of Coach Training. Credentialing standards are also being developed by ICF as well (S. J. Atkinson, personal communication, January 22, 2000; see [www.coachfederation.org/credential.htm](http://www.coachfederation.org/credential.htm)).

## **Roles of the executive coach**

The importance of combining knowledge about motivation, emotion, and interpersonal style with the many facets of organizational settings has also been noted (Hayes, 1997). Yet another description of coaches included a person who is “a bit of a detective” and “able to combine pure business pragmatism with intuitive gifts” (Strickland, 1997, p. 205).

As the role of coaches moved more into the mainstream during the 1990s, the training element of executive coaches also expanded. The International Coach Federation was established in 1992. Since then it has garnered over 2600 members, a membership that has doubled in the mid-1990s, while enrollment at “Coach University” increased from 285 to 785 in 1996 alone (Nakache, 1997). Whether coaching is consulting appears to be more uncertain. Consulting firms often offer executive coaching services in which the helper is designated as a “consultant,” and, in the first sentence of his article, Kilburg (1996) equates executive coaching as “consultation activities” (p. 134). Yet another line of thinking is that, while coaching has been borne out of consulting, clear distinctions are being made between them. Consultants have expertise in the field of the client; coaches do not necessarily have that knowledge, nor do they have to. In this respect, coaches represent themselves as facilitators, not advisors, and this approach allows them to assist people in a business setting (S. J. Atkinson, personal communication, January 22, 2000).

To fill their roles successfully, coaches utilize several qualities common to counseling. Communication skills are essential. “Coaching is about communicating,” one senior executive commented in Hall et al.’s (1999) study. “If you’re a good communicator, you’ll get through” (p. 46). Knowledge is also deemed as necessary. Judge and Cowell’s (1997) survey of executive coaches supports this perception: About 45% had Ph.D.s, and 80% were between the ages of 35 and 55 years old, averaging 24 years of work experience in their careers. Further, they contended that “many executives would find it difficult to accept advice from a very young person” (p. 72).

Just as in counseling, executive coaches implement six key tasks in fulfilling their roles: listening, clarifying, mediating, educating, training, and follow-up (Strickland, 1997). Setting mutual goals comes out of the clarifying, and cognitive reframing is tied into the training element. Within this come two possibilities that can be used at the outset, the first of which is helping the executive to see the difficulty not as a “problem,” but as an opportunity or resource waiting to be explored (Katz & Miller, 1996). The second relates to the notion of weaknesses really being strengths gone awry (Strickland, 1997). Finally, the true test of executive coaching is in the follow-up. While immediate results will hopefully be seen, “a significant amount of time will reveal the true value and lasting benefits” of executive coaching (Strickland, 1997).

## **The process of executive coaching**

As in many forms of counseling, the essence of executive coaching is to improve one's performance (behavior) within the setting of the organization (environment). Within the process the concept of feedback is essential: Feedback describes the performance, while coaching focuses on the changing portion of the process (Hillman, Schwandt, & Bartz, 1990).

To be able to offer feedback, however, assessment is vital. In executive coaching, a variety of approaches have been discussed in the literature. Peterson (1996) encouraged coaches to build a partnership, a counseling alliance of sorts, in which they must learn how the coaching participant views the world. He often begins by asking about coaching goals and how their work situation is seen by them. Clear expectations of confidentiality are set, and all of the skills in this stage involve listening, patience, and an understanding of human behavior. Insight and motivation are then built upon by gathering goal-related information. Working upon the belief that discrepancy feeds into motivation, Peterson collects information on "GAPS"—goals, abilities, perceptions, and standards—as a way to foster insight. Abilities can be discovered through performance evaluations, personal mission statements, exercises, and career instruments. Perceptions arise from others' perspectives of the coaching participant and can be obtained from feedback surveys and 360-degree feedback surveys. Organizational standards come from discussions with organizational leaders, job descriptions, and team goals. By analyzing the four areas for discrepancies, participants can begin to clarify and prioritize goals.

Hayes (1997) offered a different process at the outset, one initiated by a meeting between the prospective coach and the person in the organization, a human resource manager or line manager who sought the referral. The latter would outline the goals or current performance issues that preceded contact with the coach. A meeting between the coach and the candidate would follow, and the candidate may often react with anger, confusion, and/or skepticism around realistic expectations of the coaching process. Coaching is defined and clarified, and a timeframe is established. The candidate's self-assessments can often be integral in establishing a common language for use throughout the coaching process. A 360-degree evaluation is also done at this juncture. The third step involves the assessment feedback, in which the self-assessment is processed in such a way to highlight how motivations and behaviors can be perceived in discrepant ways. From this an awareness in the client is raised so that an understanding of behaviors can be seen as effective or ineffective. This stage is followed by utilizing various assessment tools—input from the direct supervisor, the 360-degree evaluation, and the self-assessment—and integrating them to create themes.

Diedrich (1996) described yet another approach with information in the executive coaching model. In the Hay/McBer Executive 360, critical competencies compose the core of the process. These competencies drive the coaching, as the position of the client is established in comparison to the competencies of the "star" performer. An in-depth, structured interview may also be employed in the beginning of coaching using other assessment tools like the FIRO-B, the Strength Deployment Inventory, and the 16PF. The "looped feedback" element of this model reflects the process by which "data

are reviewed several times, with each loop becoming more specific and interactive” (p. 62).

Executive coaching techniques closely parallel those used in counseling. Kilburg summarized the comparison by asserting that “some but not all” of the characteristics of executive coaching and psychotherapeutic interventions are similar and that, “consequently...some of the factors that have been demonstrated to contribute to negative outcomes in psychotherapy may cross over and generalize to coaching situations” (p. 141). His list of 27 coaching techniques could be broken down into stages (assessment and feedback); forms of delivery (group process interventions); techniques (empathy and encouragement; clarification); roles (education and training); and interventions (journaling; punishment and extinction of maladaptive behaviors). Finally, and again consistent with the counseling process, he suggested that the termination stage be one of evaluating effectiveness. More often than not, most clients maintain that a more helpful gain in the executive coaching process is the beneficial experience obtained from examining aspects of their work performance.

Consistent with the idea that effective counseling is incumbent upon what takes place before counseling begins as well as the first sessions, Diedrich (1996) offered nine tips for executive coaches. He encouraged coaches to be detailed in the initial discussion with the organizational contact person before creating the proposal. In the contract, the executive coach should recommend a period of 12 months or longer. At a minimum, nothing less than six months should be proposed. The coaching process should be described in detail within the contract and then reviewed with the people involved before commencing. Setting clear and consistent boundaries is essential at the outset, with the idea being to clarify which data will be public and which will be confidential. All people involved in the coaching process should have identical expectations on outcome and format. Regular review sessions for the coach, the coaching candidate, and the supervisor/organizational contact should be scheduled. Finally, the executive coach should have clear access to observing the client at work with her/his subordinates.

## **Conclusion**

The future of coaching appears strong for three primary reasons. First and perhaps foremost, its cost-effectiveness will continue to make the executive coaching process lucrative. Secondly, more and more people are joining the ranks of the coaching profession, as the International Coach Federation now has an enrollment of 2000, with over 300 coaches who are either professionally certified coaches or masters certified coaches (S. J. Atkinson, personal communication, January 22, 2000). Thirdly, positive outcomes are evident from the limited number of studies and surveys that are in the literature. In Hall et al.'s (1999) survey, most clients who had been coached rated the experience as “very satisfactory” (p. 48), with executives acquiring new skills or insights not present before coaching. They added, “...executive coaching has become increasingly widespread—and shows no signs of slowing down” (p. 52).

What might the trend in executive coaching mean to the counseling profession? First, counselors are well suited and well positioned to become a part of this occupation

Fundamental counseling techniques are essential to successful coaching, and the coaching process is highly similar to the counseling process, starting with a thorough assessment phase before goal-setting and interventions of change. The backdrop of executive coaching and counseling run in parallel directions. Both are short-term ventures that aid persons who are psychologically well functioning. Though counseling is theory-based, executive coaching appears to lack theories specific to the process and utilizes many approaches that are consistent to counseling.

From an occupational standpoint, professional counselors who have become disgruntled with managed care and increasing competition from other mental health professionals may find executive coaching an appealing option. As an executive coaching consultant, professionals could bring their abilities to the aid of a candidate without concern for third party payments or utilization reviews. In his discussion of current trends and issues in counseling, Gladding (1996) described career counseling as an area of great interest with increasing attention to the lifespan, the global economy, and technology. As an outgrowth of career counseling, executive coaching can now be added to the list.

From a curricular perspective, counselor educators may consider adding coaching as a segment of their career counseling coursework or creating a course entirely devoted to this area. It would seem an inherent section of such a course would be business-related topics. In fact such a course may be co-listed with a school or college of business and team-taught with faculty from that discipline. A joint venture between counseling and business departments may not only bring increased understanding of counseling skills by business faculty, but also assist counseling students in gaining business concepts that will undoubtedly help for those interested in coaching and private practice.

All in all, executive coaching is an area that merits greater attention by the counseling profession. Counselors no doubt possess the skills necessary for the assessment and change phases of the executive coaching process. As counseling looks back upon its first 100 years, the field of executive coaching may become one of the leading areas of growth in its future.

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# Collaborative Research: Implications for Counselor Preparation

Lori A. Bruch  
LeeAnn Eschbach

*This article examines both current literature and practices on collaborative research. The authors describe a collaborative research model involving educators, students and practitioners that connects research with practice. Practical strategies for establishing a relational research emphasis for counseling activities from education to service delivery are outlined.*

As counselor educators prepare counselors-in-training with the competencies necessary for practicing counseling in the 21st century, they are challenged to address the varied and diverse content areas of counselor preparation and practice. Research requires a style of thinking, which is somewhat different from other graduate study content areas. This article links research practices with the relational perspective, providing collaboration in both learning and research. This integrated collaborative research approach capitalizes on the relationship skills valued in the counseling profession, as well as facilitates counselor educators, counseling students, and counseling practitioners to be active producers as well as consumers of research. Involving students and practitioners as collaborators with counselor educators, as an informed community network, offers a contemporary paradigm to teach, apply, and utilize research in a meaningful way.

Successful collaborative research requires utilizing appropriate research methodologies, a relational or connected learning research curriculum, and counseling research integrated with counseling practice. This collaborative research model fosters interdependence and instills the value of research in all aspects of education and practice because educators, practitioners, and students work as a team.

Each partner on this research team benefits from, and contributes uniquely to, successful collaboration. Counseling practitioners offer practical settings for applied research experiences. However, many practitioners often conceptualize research as time-consuming, perceive minimal usefulness of research activities, and have limited research experience (Robinson, 1994). Yet, research results can provide insight for their program planning and evaluation. Counselor educators are in a natural position to nurture collaborative research endeavors with students and practitioners. Collaboration provides an avenue for counselor educators to share the value of research and to gain fresh perspectives from students and practitioners. Students are a key part of this team as well in that they carry out the research at a practical level. Collaborative research projects actively engage students and link research to other counseling curriculum content areas. Such research can be a vehicle that brings meaning to coursework and training experiences.

The purpose of this article is to describe a collaborative research model that connects education with practice so as to increase research self-efficacy and implementation of research in the professional lives of counselors. In addition, we outline practical strategies for establishing a relational research emphasis in counseling activities from education to service delivery.

## **The Importance of Collaborative Research in Counseling**

### **Framework for Research Collaboration**

Quality counseling research needs to be relevant. Marshall and Reason (1993) succinctly described such a standard for relevant research. All good research speaks to three audiences: (1) It is "for them", or consumers of counseling research, to the extent that it produces some kind of generalizable ideas and outcomes. (2) It is "for us", as members of a collaborative research team, to the degree that it is timely and responds to concerns for our research agenda. (3) It is "for me", the individual researcher, if the process and outcomes respond directly to the researcher's goals and career needs.

Critical analysis, the generation and utilization of new knowledge, and accountability of services are hallmarks of the counseling profession. Infusing research into counselor training and practitioner activities can potentially link scholarship and practice. Collaborative research assumes that both the generation of research ideas as well as the analysis of results is more valuable when a group of individuals is involved. As collaborative researchers, the counselor educator, practitioner, and student join together to identify critical issues in the community that are appropriate for research projects linking scholarship and practice (See Figure 1). This model provides for flexibility, allowing variable involvement of researchers, building upon the strengths of research team members. For counseling students, the result is a professional counselor who embraces research in his or her career. An equally important result is the counseling practitioner, who contributes to the scientific base of the profession. Consequently, counseling research is not just for counselor educators.

### **Research Self-efficacy**

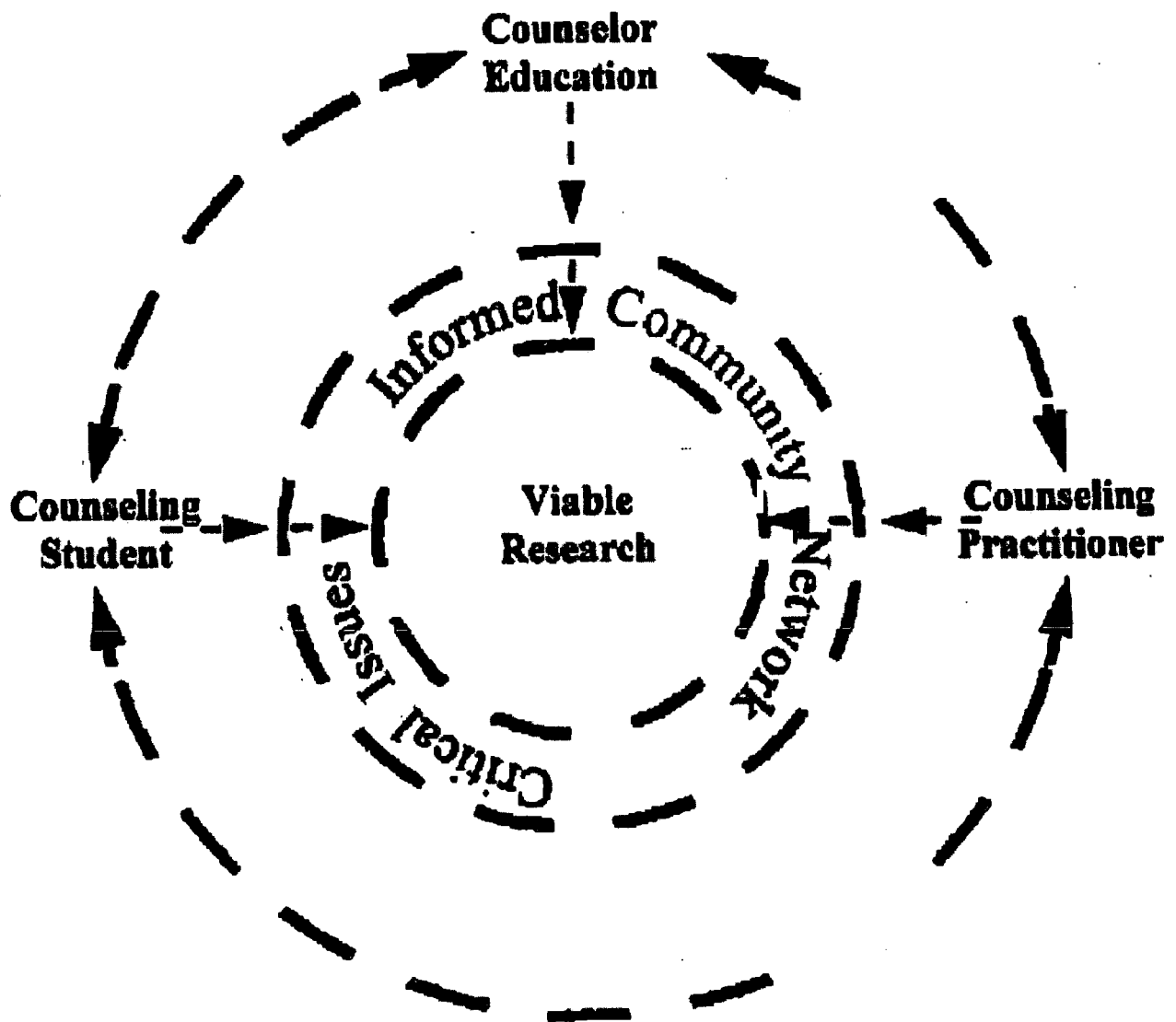
There is an ongoing struggle among counselors to balance both their clinical self-efficacy and research self-efficacy. Initially introduced by Bandura (1977), self-efficacy has been extended to many domains. Research self-efficacy encompasses a person's confidence to engage in research, the perceived utility of research endeavors, and eliminating the anxiety associated with research activities (Heppner, Gelso, & Dolliver, 1987).

Improving research self-efficacy involves three components: managing anxiety, understanding relevancy and utility, and having the opportunity for performance-based activities (Bandura, 1977). Addressing emotional fears toward research is a key to managing research anxiety. Schaller and Parker (1977) documented that decreasing research anxiety increased research self-efficacy. Learning and implementing research methodologies that target counseling concerns in the community would enhance the perceived relevance and utility of research endeavors. Self-efficacy theory also suggests that multiple



Figure 1

### Collaborative Research Process



opportunities for research-related activities both in the community and in the classroom would lead counselors to believe that they can successfully engage in research. Collaborative research is an obvious venue to enhance research self-efficacy.

### A Relational/Connected Learning Research Environment

Typical research activities build on traditional developmental theories, which value solitary activities. These conventional research endeavors suggest that independent endeavors yield a personal sense of accomplishment. While this is a successful strategy for some researchers, an emerging paradigm, the relational perspective (Jordan, 1997) may be a more productive approach allowing educators, students, and practitioners to work together. This relational perspective emphasizes that the primary experience of individuals is relational, and that growth occurs within the context of important relationships. Surrey (1991) contends that the "...self gain vitality and enhancement in relationship is not reduced or threatened by connections" (p. 62). Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, and Tarule's (1986) construct of connected knowing also emphasizes relationships. Connected knowing involves components of research by weaving interpersonal, interactive experiences, and connecting colleagues through sharing ideas and interpretations.

### **Collaborative Research Model**

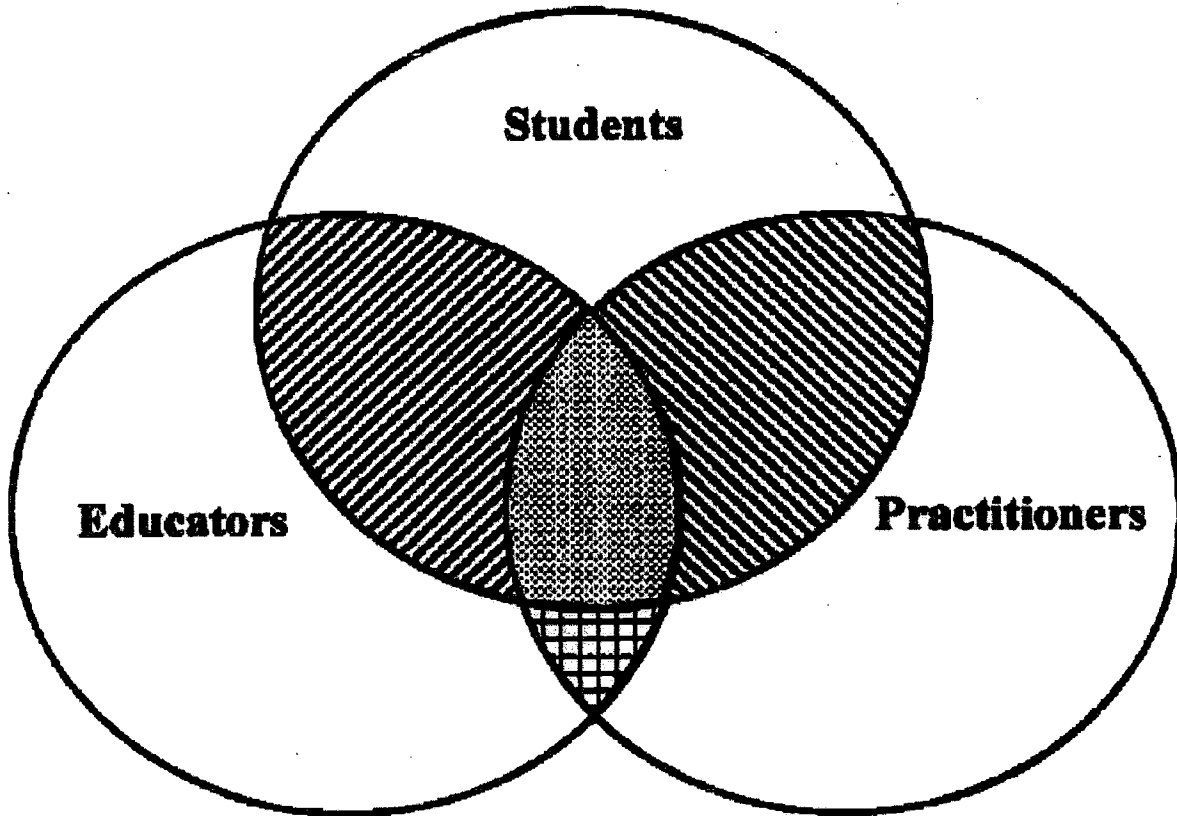
Collaborative research addresses counselors' efficacy as scientist-practitioners, their interest in doing research, and the value placed on research in the future (Gelso, Betz, Friedlander, Helms, Hill, Patton, Super, & Wampold, 1988). Successful collaborative research requires three components: an informed community network, endeavors integrating research with practice, and a relational research training curriculum (see Figure 2). An informed community network succinctly describes the collaboration between practitioners and educators. The community connections established between students and practitioners offer a meaningful environment to integrate research with practice. A counseling curriculum utilizing a relational approach for research training connects educators and students. The three collaborative components overlap. They become operationalized in a collaborative research team, which increases research self-efficacy of counselor educators, students, and practitioners, and enhances the implementation of research.

### **An Informed Community Network**

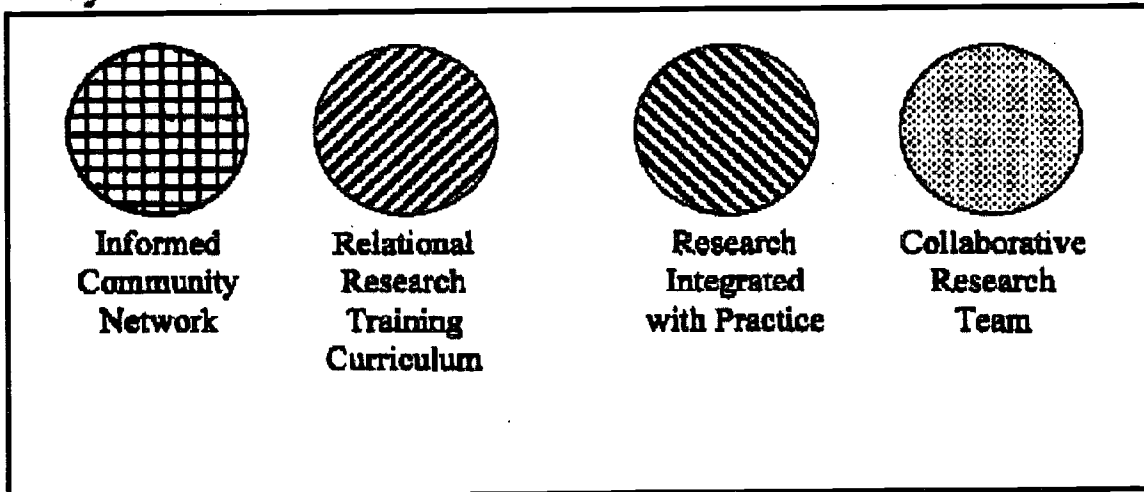
People connecting with people are the lifeline of the counseling profession. Communities challenge educators, students, and practitioners to recognize and address an increasing number of social issues. From proactive to reactive, counselors need to focus on strategies generated through research that make a difference. Counselors today need to substantiate the efficacy of services they deliver. Growing numbers of persons are seeking counseling services and utilizing third party payments in systems that demand results. When budgets are

Figure 2

### Counseling Collaborative Research Model



Key:



threatened and policy is changing, counselors need data to support their service delivery. Applied research strategies, such as outcome research advocated by Sexton, Whiston, Bleuer, and Walz (1997) would provide support for services provided by counselors in all specialty areas.

Sexton and colleagues (1997) profess that "...practitioners continue to perceive research as irrelevant, difficult to understand, and impossible to incorporate into daily practice" (p. vii). Collaborative research offers a practical approach and provides a venue for being part of the solution to pressing community needs.

Woolsey (1986) asserts that the gap between research and practice is due in large part to a lack of competence with research methods that appropriately target significant counseling issues. There is a strong need for greater diversity in counseling research methods (Hoshmand, 1989; Robinson, 1994). Counselor educators, students and practitioners need competence with a variety of methodologies so that the research question, rather than familiarity with a particular design, would drive research studies. Consider the following alternatives: programmatic research, evaluation studies, needs assessments, satisfaction surveys, outcome research, and qualitative research approaches.

In summary, the research-related activities and attitudes of counseling practitioners, educators and students need to address the gap between practitioners and researchers. Stensrud and Stensrud (1981) discuss the value of counselors recognizing that their actions have an impact, that they can make a difference, and that they are inextricably connected to what is happening around them. Integrating collaborative research and practice responds to these concerns, while increasing research self-efficacy. Collaborative research capitalizes on team synergy, and provides a link between curriculum and community.

### **Research Integrated with Practice**

A counselor-training curriculum, which values its community connections, offers many natural extensions for collaborative research projects. Building informal networks of involved community counseling practitioners is paramount to the successful training of students. There are numerous threads that offer possibilities for collaborative research endeavors: connections to professional organizations, community agencies and boards, school advisory committees, student clinical training sites, as well as academic program alumni.

### **Research Training Curriculum**

It is well established that research training is important in counselor training programs (Brown, 1989; Falvey, 1989; Lichtenberg, 1986). Strategies for integrating research into the counseling curriculum have received much attention in the literature (Galassi, Stoltz, Brooks, & Trexler, 1987; Heppner, et al., 1987; Loughhead, Black, & Menefee, 1991; Schaller & Parker, 1997; Szymanski, Whitney-Thomas, Marshall, & Sayger, 1994). The common thread in this discussion is the artificial dichotomy between research and practice (Hoshmand & Polkinghorne, 1992).

Are counseling students receiving adequate preparation in research design and statistics? Wampold (1986) does not believe so. Studies addressing how students view research consistently reveal that students rank research low in importance. Karon (1995) claims that when graduate students have a free choice, they will not choose to conduct research partially based on their prior research training experiences. The consensus in the literature seems to be that it is not the concept of research that is difficult, but the process by which programs provide training (Fong & Malone, 1994; Gelso, 1993; Heppner et al., 1987).

However, research need not be an isolated experience. The counseling curriculum too often positions research methodology as a solitary course, detached from both the counseling skills courses and the research activities of counselors. Alternatively, research competencies can be infused in both the classroom experiences and diverse academic department activities, facilitating the development of professional counselors who are both skilled researchers and practitioners.

Following are guidelines for infusing research into the counselor-training curriculum:

- **Include collaborative approaches to learning.** In collaborative learning environments, learners are responsible for some of both the content and process learning decisions (Hughes-Caplow & Kardash, 1995). "Acquisition of new knowledge and restructuring of existing knowledge comes about as individuals with differing viewpoints and levels of knowledge about a particular topic engage in testing, reconciling, and ultimately forging a new, shared understanding of that topic through interaction with another" (Hughes-Caplow & Kardash, 1995, p. 209).

Collaborative learning can be fostered in various modalities. In the classroom, incorporate discussion groups and team approaches for applied projects. With faculty, Osberg and Raulin (1989) outline effective student-faculty collaboration strategies. Within the community, Wagner (1990) proposes service-oriented research opportunities to examine the real issues facing counselors in the community.

Collaborative learning can also be nurtured in cooperation with other counselor training programs. Consider a colloquium series which allows students to experience a number of research projects vicariously (Sullivan, 1991), or an interuniversity research team consisting of educators and students (O'Brien, 1995).

- **Address the value of research.** Counselor educators need to ask themselves reflective questions on the value of research. Am I teaching students to apply research findings to address problems and answer real-life questions? Am I teaching research with meaningful examples? Am I teaching research in such a way that students can value their role as both producers and consumers of research? Am I sharing research methodologies that offer practicality in answering current questions in the counseling profession?

- **Introduce research concepts early.** Boyle and Boice (1995) stress immersion in research early, viewing the first year of a graduate program as a

critical period for learning. Sullivan (1991) outlined a process of introducing scholarly skills on a continuum, with increasing collaborative opportunities as students progress through their studies. Consider integrating research skills with clinical skills and connecting research concepts to work experiences (Schaller & Parker, 1997; Szymanski et al., 1994).

- **Expand classroom activities.** The counseling classroom that provides instruction and practice in scholarly skills can foster research self-efficacy. Diverse learning opportunities can potentially reduce students' anxiety, increase their research self-confidence and their perceptions of research utility. Possible classroom activities include: (a) applying research design concepts to hypothetical scenarios or case studies; (b) conducting a professional literature review, annotated bibliography, or meta-analysis for a class assignment; (c) utilizing meaningful props (Schaller & Parker, 1997; Szymanski et al., 1994); (d) completing a mini-proposal; (e) utilizing articles for research critique that parallel students' career goals; (f) encouraging research proposals in other courses besides the research methods course; (g) applying theoretical constructs with a needs assessment or program planning project; and (h) generating research questions as a natural outgrowth from studying the counseling needs of a specific client population.

- **Emphasize the informal curriculum.** Create a research climate throughout the academic department. Capitalize on natural opportunities for research sharing. Strategies to infuse research into the departmental culture include: faculty and student seminars, departmental sharing of conference presentations, program manuals or new student orientation highlighting faculty research interests, research seminars at counseling student organization meetings, departmental library or computer seminars, discussion groups on incorporating ethical guidelines or applying knowledge in the counseling field, and recognition of student scholarly endeavors.

- **Incorporate applied and outcome research.** These research methodologies could provide utility and relevance for students with counselor practitioner goals. Many researchers (Hosie, 1994; Schaller & Parker, 1997; Sexton et al., 1997; Szymanski et al., 1994) emphasize approaching relevant, practical research with program evaluation, needs assessment, focus group, and other applied methodologies. Also, students' work or clinical experiences can be sources for outcome-based research endeavors.

In conclusion, when research is integrated throughout the curriculum students can begin to understand the personal relevancy and usefulness of research.

### **Collaborative Research Teams**

Collaborative research provides an opportunity for connection with others. Counselor educators, counseling students, and counseling practitioners can be connected through sharing and interdependent learning experiences within collaborative research teams. The following guidelines provide tactics and considerations for collaborative research teams.

- **Membership composition.** We envision research team membership including educators, students, and practitioners. These collaborative research teams may exist

within the nearby communities of the university, through connections with alumni and/or professional relationships in counseling organizations, or through a common interest area. Connections can be global and accessed with electronic technology.

- **Clarify relationships and negotiate team members' roles.** All participants need to feel a sense of ownership in the project. This can be accomplished through sharing reasons for involvement and expected benefits. Team members should also discuss: (a) defining the relationship, (b) eventual authorship decisions, (c) responsibilities for each research team member, and (d) regularly scheduled meetings for feedback and support.

- **Explore personal meanings of scientist-practitioner model.** All research team members need to share their beliefs about research. Why is research important to me? Are we applying the scientific method? How will our results or outcomes benefit the counseling field? How will we evaluate our own activities in contributing to the ongoing research of the collaborative research teams? Sharing one's beliefs with each other facilitates connected knowing (Belenky et al., 1986) and promotes connections among team members.

- **Approaches to clarify topic ideas.** Each person in the research team can potentially contribute topic ideas.

A student's vitality and passion can bring enormous energy to the group. Counseling students do have meaningful experiences, which can provide insight for relevant research. Work, practicum, and internship experiences, papers from previous coursework, as well, as life and career aspirations may provide a foundation for a research idea. Karon (1995) asserts that students usually have an interesting and important topic of concern yet students typically dismiss it as not being worthy or possible to investigate. Dunn and Toedter (1991) describe a technique whereby several students can approach the same data set with different questions and each student can examine unique relationships among certain variables.

Practitioners have a myriad of potential research topics emerging from real-life, actual needs. Such topics lend themselves to needs assessments, program/project evaluation, satisfaction surveys, outcome-based studies, or preliminary research for grant applications. In addition, practitioners can analyze topics in order to target specific concerns, or provide a sample for the population under study. Practitioners can also share an awareness of communication styles appropriate to the field (Brown, 1987), and potentially serve as role models.

A collaborative research team can be initially seen as problematic for counselor educators who are caught up in their own active research agenda. Yet, a collaborative project can build on the counselor educator's research agenda and extend the research in a related or "next step" direction.

Guidelines for working with students. Recognize that this is a learning experience for students and build in opportunities for teaching or reviewing skills that will be needed. For new tasks, incorporate a process for follow-along and support. Identify activ-

ities that build on and extend current skills. Plan for student supervision. Incorporate a process for student peer review and support.

- **Develop a time line.** All team members should share upcoming time-intensive activities, being cognizant of "crunch times"; for example, periods of heavy client loads, exam schedules, intensive teaching or committee involvements, and internship responsibilities. All collaborators need to reflect on the time commitment involved. Working with a research team generates unique time commitment concerns. Besides group meetings, sessions with individual students still need to occur (Dunn & Toedter, 1991). Brown (1989) noted additional time-line concerns when programs are expected to use new information and in sufficient time to allow new ideas to have impact.

- **Seek funding sources.** Many institutions have research support services that can assist faculty and others in identifying potential sources of funds. Professional counseling organizations may also be a source of funds for research. Applications for funds are often strengthened when presented as part of a collaborative activity which engages educators, practitioners, and students.

### **Implications and Conclusion**

The word "conclusion" suggests a closing statement but what we propose is a beginning or starting point. The benefits of community networks, a relational curriculum experience, and a collaborative research team project has the potential to increase research productivity and utility. Conceptualizing research as a relational experience connects counseling colleagues through providing support, and resource access. Infusing research into training and service delivery environments offers a practical paradigm to enhance research self-efficacy building research confidence, demonstrating the utility of research, and applying research knowledge and skills in meaningful ways for counseling educators, students and practitioners. Research teams increase motivation and accomplishment by capitalizing on the excitement created from teamwork, shared goals, and enthusiasm.

All involved learn from each other with collaborative research projects. It is within these creative alliances that the team is able to bring a project to fruition. The "team" approach is based on the assumption that "none of us is as smart as all of us" (Bennis & Biederman, 1997, p. 1). Through the synergy of collaborative research a research plan is set into action and the end result is a counseling profession with quality research accomplishments.

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# Masculinity Ideology as a Correlate of Self-Reported Aggression in Preadolescent Males

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*This study examined the relationship between aggression and endorsement of traditional beliefs about masculinity in 10-13-year-old boys. Two hundred and thirty-three boys from six rural school districts completed questionnaires containing the Male Role Attitudes Scale (MRAS; Pleck, Sonenstien, & Ku, 1993) and the Olweus Aggression Inventory (Elkblad & Olweus, 1986). Results indicate a significant positive relationship between higher scores on the MRAS and higher levels of self-reported aggression and lower levels of aggression control. Implications for counselors in school and mental health settings are discussed.*

On the subject of violence Gillian (1996) notes, "Most violent behavior is and always will be the work of men...It is clear that both cross-culturally and trans-historically, males have been the more violent sex." Because of the rash of school shootings which took place at the end of the millennium this statement must be extended to include boys, as one of the perpetrators was eleven years-old. National crime statistics also illustrate violence and aggression as a gendered issue: Eighty percent of juvenile crimes that lead to trial are committed by boys, as are 95 percent of homicides (Uniform Crime Reports, 1990). Boys are perpetrators and they are also victims. A young male is three times more likely to be murdered than a female of the same age (Uniform Crime Reports, 1990). This presents a perplexing and persistent question to counselors and researchers in the social sciences: Why are boys so much more aggressive than their female counterparts? Unique aspects of male biology such as testosterone cannot be ignored (Olweus, Mattsson & Schalling, 1988) yet research also indicates early learning and socialization processes play a key role (Eron, Walder & Leftkowitz, 1971). Thus the question becomes: What is unique about the early learning and socialization of boys which put them at so much greater risk to become aggressive?

A gender-related construct known as "masculinity ideology" (Pleck, Sonenstien, & Ku, 1994) has the potential to partially explain the highly salient nexus between masculinity and aggression. At present, however, there have been no studies testing this relationship using a sample of preadolescent boys. This represents a substantial gap in the research given results which indicate masculinity ideology is a powerful predictor of other types of aggression using samples of older males. Research in this area is also critical because findings indicate boys in this age group are at a pivotal point in the development of aggression (Huesmann & Guerra, 1997). Therefore, the purpose of this study was to investigate the possible relationship between aggression in young boys and masculinity ideology using available measures.

## **Masculinity Ideology**

Until recently, masculinity research has been dominated by the sex-role orientation perspective. This approach assesses gender-related descriptive norms (i.e., culturally defined personality traits boys and men actually have). An assessment tool associated with the sex-role orientation is the widely known Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem 1974). In contrast, masculinity ideology (Pleck, et al., 1994) assesses individual endorsement of idealized sociocultural norms associated with the masculine role (i.e., cultural prescriptions for what men and boys should be) (Thompson & Pleck, 1986). The norms perspective appears to offer new insights into male behavior because of the inclusion of social forces which are thought to influence the lives of men and boys (Luddy & Thompson, 1997) without an emphasis on the instrumental/expressive dichotomy associated with the sex-role orientation perspective (Spence & Helmreich, 1980).

The earliest definitions of masculine ideology came from Brannon's "Blueprint for Manhood" (1976) which outlined four broad themes that define the roles that "real men" are expected to aspire to in western culture. They are 1) "No Sissy Stuff" (a rejection of everything feminine); 2) "The Sturdy Oak" (a steadiness and reliability and an air of toughness); 3) "The Big Wheel" (seeking of power and dominance over the environment and everyone in it); and 4) "Give 'em Hell" (achieving a particular goal regardless of the consequences to one's self or others).

These themes provide the theoretical foundation for scales designed to measure an individual's endorsement of male sex-role norms (Thompson & Pleck, 1986; Thompson, Pleck & Ferrera, 1992). Though boys have been neglected in masculinity research there is considerable research using older men. Findings reveal a relationship endorsement of the traditional male role and: intimacy with other men (Thomson, Grisanti, & Pleck, 1985); higher levels of homophobia (Sinn, 1993; Stark, 1991); hostility (Sinn, 1993); and psychological violence in courtship (Thomson, 1990). Higher levels of endorsement are also associated with less condom use (Marsiglio, 1993; Pleck, Sonenstien & Ku, 1993), less concern about unwanted pregnancy (Marsiglio, 1993); and more frequent sexual encounters with less intimacy (Pleck, et al., 1993; 1994). Also linked are adversarial beliefs about heterosexual relationships (Marsiglio, 1993; Pleck, et al., 1993; 1994; Sinn, 1993), rape supportive attitudes (Luddy & Thompson, 1997) school suspensions, substance use, frequency of arrest, and forcing sexual encounters (Pleck, et al., 1994).

## **Social Information Processing Theory**

That endorsement of traditional masculinity may be related to aggression is predicted by Social Information Processing theory (for a comprehensive review, see Heusmann, 1998). In brief, this model describes the social acquisition of cognitive scripts pertaining to procedural knowledge (i.e. "how things are done") and how subsequent behavioral output of aggression is presumed to be mediated by schemas about the self, normative beliefs about aggression, and negative emotional states such as fear or anger.

As suggested by elements of the Sturdy Oak and Give 'Em Hell themes (Brannon, 1976; Pollack, 1998), boys are socialized towards the idealization of toughness

and risk-taking. This may sensitize them towards learning opportunities that provided a more extensive network of aggressive procedural scripts. Also because of these themes, boys may be more likely to possess schemas about self that are more aggressive in character and evaluate aggressive procedural scripts more positively with lower internal inhibitions against their use.

Traditional masculinity norms may also lead to actual or expected reinforcement from socializing agents, such as enhanced status or greater environmental control. This is suggestive of the Big-Wheel theme in masculinity ideology. It may also be consistent with the findings of Rodkin, Farmer, Pearl, and Van Acker, (2000) indicating highly aggressive boys can be among the most popular and socially connected. Such social reinforcement may in turn, result in norms more approving of aggression. Such norms have been found to stabilize and become predictive of later aggression near the age of ten or eleven (Huesmann & Guerra, 1997).

An overlapping process may involve arousal levels and negative emotional states. Possibly because of the association with femininity and the No Sissy Stuff theme, boys are strongly socialized towards restricted emotionality almost from birth (Fivush, 1989; Greif, Alvarez & Ulman, 1981). According to Long (1987), this cultural expectation may lead males to funnel all of their feelings of fear and vulnerability down to the single emotion they are allowed to express openly: anger. This may facilitate more integrated cognitive connections with a memory node labeled as "anger" (Huesmann, 1998). Although anger does not always lead to aggression, and aggression is not always precipitated by anger (Bandura, 1986), yet it carries great potential to lead to an aggressive response (Heusmann, 1998).

Extrapolating from previous theory on aggression and masculinity (Brannon, 1976; Heusmann, 1998; Pollack, 1998) and findings from masculinity research cited previously, it was hypothesized that endorsement of traditional masculinity ideology would be positively associated with aggression in boys.

## **Method**

**Sample and Procedure** The participants were two hundred and thirty-three fifth and sixth grade boys. They were recruited from primarily rural school districts located near a small Mid-western community. Data was collected from twenty-five classrooms in eleven school buildings in six school districts. Participation rates at each site ranged from 23-75%. Participants ranged in age from 10 to 13 ( $M = 11.2$ ,  $SD = .34$ ). Family configuration was predominantly intact (79%); with the remainder of the sample being from blended families (12%), single parent families (6%), and other (2%). All the boys were volunteers who returned informed consent forms signed by themselves as well as a parent. They were debriefed after testing. At each site, participants were administered a 27 item questionnaire by a male graduate student containing instruments described below. To offset possible ordering effects, three forms of the questionnaire were used with the order of the instruments counterbalanced. Participants were told only that this was a study that would help researchers "learn more about how boys think and feel and deal with other people sometimes."

## **Instruments**

**Self-Reported Aggression.** Self-reported aggression was assessed using the Olweus Aggression Inventory (Elkblad & Olweus, 1986), a 17-item self-report scale consisting of two dimensions: General Aggression and Aggression Control. The General Aggression dimension contains items pertaining to: physical aggression directed against peers (e.g., "When a boy or girl teases me, I try to give him or her a good beating."), participants' response to criticism from adults (e.g., "When an adult is unfair to me, I get angry and protest."), aggressive impulses in the absence of an identified frustrator (e.g., "I am often so upset that I feel like smashing things."), and fantasies of aggression directed at persons whom the participant dislikes (e.g., "It is pleasant to watch someone you don't like getting beaten up.") (Ekblad & Olweus). The second dimension of Aggression Control contains five items which measure intropunitive reactions in response to adults (e.g., "When an adult is annoyed with me, I usually feel like I am at fault."), expressions of bad conscience (e.g., "I am often angry at myself for having behaved badly."), and depreciations of aggressive behaviors or impulses (e.g., "You should be nice to those who are nasty to you.") (Ekblad & Olweus).

Internal consistency measures with male participants in a previous sample were .83 for general aggression and .67 for aggression control (Ekblad & Olweus, 1986). For the current sample, alpha levels were .86 and .66 for general aggression and aggression control respectively.

Items for both dimensions were rated on a 6-point Likert-type scale on frequency (1 = never, 6 = always) and applicability (1 = not at all like me, 6 = exactly like me). The possible range for scores for General Aggression was 12 to 48, with higher scores indicating higher levels of aggression. Range for Aggression Control was 5 to 30, with higher scores representing lower levels of aggression. Reliability evidence is indicated by a negative correlation between the general aggression score and aggression control. Previous research obtained an  $r$  value of  $-.32$  (Elkblad & Olweus, 1986).

**Masculinity Ideology.** Masculinity Ideology was assessed using the Male Role Attitudes Scale (Pleck, et al., 1993). The original scale used eight items, seven of which were extracted from the 26-item assessment identified in Thomson and Pleck's (1986) Male Role Norms Scale (MRAS). In this sample the item regarding sexuality (e.g., "Men are always ready for sex.") used previously was dropped because it was deemed inappropriate for a sample of preadolescent boys. Alpha coefficients using the MRAS tend to be low due to the smaller number of items (Thompson, et al, 1992). Pleck et al, (1993) and Doss and Hopkins (1998) reported internal consistency estimates of .61 and .67 respectively using similar samples. Internal consistency in this sample was estimated at .56. The lower value may be due to the age of the sample and the item regarding sexuality that was excluded. Boys rated their level of agreement with each statement using a 4-point Likert type scale (1= disagree a lot 4 = agree a lot). The range of scores was 7 to 28. Higher scores reflect more traditional attitudes toward the male role.

**Results**

The negative correlation between general aggression (M = 23.23, SD = 10.04) and aggression control (M = 15.76, SD = 4.45) was slightly higher ( $r = -.33$ ) than that found in previous research (Elkblad and Olweus, 1986). It is apparent that individuals who scored higher on the measure of masculinity ideology (M = 19.83 SD = 3.05) also scored higher on self-reported general aggression ( $r = .30$ ) and lower on aggression control ( $r = -.20$ ). Conversely, individuals scoring low on self-reported aggression and higher on aggression control, also scored lower on masculinity ideology.

Table I presents results of regression analysis performed on the criterion variables of self-reported aggression and aggression control. Variables were entered simultaneously, and with alpha levels of .05, the equations were significant: self-reported general aggression,  $F(1,232) = 22.43$   $p < .0001$ ,  $MSE = 92.28$ ; and for aggression control,  $F(1,232) = 9.17$   $p < .003$ ,  $MSE = 19.10$

**Table 1**

Summary of Bivariate Regression Analysis for Masculinity Ideology Predicting General Aggression and Aggression Control (N = 233)

Variable	B	SE B	$\beta$
General Aggression	.98	.21	.30
Aggression Control	-.285	.09	-.20

Note.  $R^2 = .11$  for General Aggression and  $R^2 = .04$  for Aggression Control

**Discussion**

In this study, we examined the hypothesis addressing the relationship between masculinity ideology and self-reported aggressive behavior. Findings indicated that boys endorsing more traditional norms for the masculine role also tended to score higher on self-reported aggression, and lower on aggression control. Regression analysis revealed that higher masculinity ideology scores significantly predicted higher scores on self-reported aggression and lower scores on aggression control.

Previous research masculinity research has neglected boys. However this result is consistent with the findings of Pleck et al, (1993) in which the same global assessment of masculinity ideology endorsement was related to similar problematic behaviors. Results reported here are also somewhat consistent with previous research using the more comprehensive Male Role Norms Scale (Thomson & Pleck, 1986) with adult samples. Higher scores on this instrument were related to other domains of aggression such as perceptions of heterosexual rape (Luddy & Thomson, 1997) and rape supportive attitudes (Truman, et al., 1996). These results are also in agreement with other findings that masculinity ideology was a powerful predictor of violence-supporting beliefs and behaviors against women.

In light of social information processing (Huesmann, 1998) it appears likely that as boys learn and aspire to traditional conceptions of the male gender role, they develop cognitive schemas about self which are more aggressive in nature and normative beliefs that evaluate the outcomes of aggressive behavior more positively. Furthermore, as a consequence of socialization into male culture it is plausible that more aggressive boys may have easier access to a larger number of behavioral scripts that include the use of aggression to solve interpersonal problems. Finally, because of the association between emotionality and femininity (Long, 1987; Pollack, 1998), boys could be socialized towards more integrated connections to a cognitive "anger" node which are proposed to make aggressive responses in social situations more likely (Huesmann, 1998).

### **Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research**

When interpreting the results of this study, there are several limitations that should be considered. The first is that methods relied upon a self-report measure of aggression. Had other measurements been used, results might have been different. Future research using objective measures of aggression such as teacher or peer nominations is clearly needed. A second limitation may have been the homogeneity of the sample, which raises cautions about generalizing the results to populations other than white males living in a rural environment. Third, is the use of the MRAS derived from the MRNS (Thompson & Pleck, 1986). There are two problems associated with the use of this instrument. The first is low alpha coefficients, suggesting that it is only right a little more than half the time. Also, the youngest sample in which this measure had been used previously was a group of males 15-19 years of age (Pleck, et al., 1993). Results may have been influenced by using a measure that was normed with participants substantially older. On the other hand, the MRAS was used because it is currently the only existing measure of masculinity ideology containing items relevant to the everyday lives of boys rather than men, as is the case with the MRNS. This weakness also presents a suggestion for future research. Study of the adult male sex role has matured greatly, yet investigation into boyhood conceptions of masculinity is inchoate. For it to progress, a more comprehensive instrument appropriate for this age group needs to be designed that would permit more fine-grained analysis of boyhood conceptions of masculinity and reveal social and emotional correlates.

Finally, the effect size of the relationship between masculinity ideology and aggression was not large, and the bivariate correlation between these variables was only moderate. However this is not surprising considering that persistent aggression has multiple causes such as coercive parenting (Patterson, 1995), inappropriate punishment (Eron, et al., 1971), and hormonal levels (Olweus, et al., 1988). No single factor by itself explains more than a small portion of variability in aggressive behavior (Huesmann, 1998; Parke & Slaby, 1983).

Considering these limitations, results do suggest that masculinity ideology is significantly associated with self-reported aggression in preadolescent boys. Therefore, it may be advisable for counselors to engage boys in an open dialogue about traditional male roles, and provide them with the opportunity to personalize how the societal expectations placed upon them could contribute to negative interactions with peers



(Truman, et al, 1996). This could be accomplished in small group or individual therapy in school or mental health settings, or at a universal level in school-based violence prevention programs (for a complete outline, see Sprague, Sugai, Horner, & Walker, 1999). A second step could be providing more positive models of the male role in which toughness and risk are equated with the personal power to turn away from potentially aggressive social interactions and allows boys an emotional vocabulary which extends beyond anger. As Kindlon & Thompson (1999) suggest, "If your tool box only contains a hammer, it isn't a problem as long as equipment is running right or repairs call only for pounding. But as tasks become more complex, the limitations of the hammer become clear" (p.24). If counselors can provide a safe environment, support alternatives to traditional masculinity, and facilitate the development of a wider range of emotional tools, perhaps boys may become capable of coping with complex interpersonal problems in non-aggressive ways.

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# Who is Teaching Multicultural Counseling Studies?

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*This investigation explored some demographics of thirty-six professors/instructors teaching multicultural counseling in graduate programs accredited by the Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP).*

**F**orty-six states have institutions accredited by the Council for the Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs, subsequently referred to as CACREP (CACREP, 2000). Although independent of the American Counseling Association (ACA), the major counseling organization in the United States, CACREP is encouraged and endorsed by ACA.

CACREP accredited institutions were selected for this study because of the uniformity of the standards related to multicultural counseling that must be met for accreditation. The standards (1994) that must be fulfilled read:

## II. Curriculum . . .

**J.** Curricular experiences and demonstrated knowledge in each of the eight common-core areas are required of all students in the academic unit. The eight common-core areas follow.

1. Human Growth and Development . . .
2. Social and Cultural Foundations studies that provide an understanding of issues and trends in a multicultural and diverse society.

Studies in this area include, but are not limited to the following:

- a. multicultural and pluralistic trends including characteristics and concerns of diverse groups;
- b. attitudes and behavior on such factors as age, race, religious preference, physical disability, sexual orientation, ethnicity and culture, family patterns, gender, socioeconomic status and intellectual ability;
- c. individual, family, and group strategies with diverse populations, and;
- d. ethical considerations (CACREP Standards, 1994, pp. 51, 52).

These standards are the guidelines that counselor education departments must follow in order to achieve accreditation. It should be noted that the use of the word "studies" (CACREP Standards, 1994, p. 51) in the CACREP standards may imply that coverage of multicultural counseling issues can be "infused" into other courses.

In the last ten years much emphasis has been placed on teaching multicultural counseling in institutions that are accredited by CACREP, as well as by the American

Psychological Association (APA, 1993; CACREP 1994). An increase in the number of publications in the journals of the American Counseling Association divisions (i.e., Counselor Education and Supervision; Counseling and Values; Journal of Counseling and Development; Journal for Specialists in Group Work) about multicultural issues supports growing interest in the multicultural field (DeLuccia-Waack, 1996; Dinsmore & England, 1996; Dinsmore & Hess, 1999; Maher, 1996; Smart & Smart, 1997). However, these publications have focused on the quality and effectiveness of the multicultural counseling training itself and not necessarily on the people providing the training (Ponterotto, 1997). Currently, information has become available concerning basic demographic information related to the minority representation among faculty and students, program offerings, program designs, and the level of faculty engagement in multicultural training of institutions accredited by CACREP (Dinsmore & England, 1996; Dinsmore & Hess, 1999; Ponterotto, 1997). Three of the five studies of multicultural training (Dinsmore & England, 1996; Dinsmore & Hess, 1999; Hills & Strozier, 1992; Quintana & Bernal, 1995; Ponterotto, 1997) presented encouraging data concerning the progress made by CACREP and APA accredited programs toward increasing diversity among faculty and students, and program development in the multicultural training of graduate students. Again, these studies only presented data about the training itself and not about the people teaching the multicultural counseling coursework.

Arredondo and Glauner's (1992) model of personal identity assert that characteristics such as age, culture, ethnicity, gender, language, race, etc. are visible variables that invite solicited and unsolicited feedback. This information can and will change individual worldview and/or behavior (Torres-Rivera, 1996). That assumption is consistent with new development in the use of chaos theory constructs in counseling. The construct of iteration indicates that a person's life experiences can alter his or her worldview and/or behavior (Torres-Rivera, 1996). Therefore, it seems logical that in order to present a clear picture of the multicultural training in CACREP accredited institutions, we must examine the demographics of those professors/instructors who are teaching multicultural counseling. Ponterotto (1997) pointed out that ethnic minority representation among faculty members is a critical consideration when establishing an effective multicultural training program. Another important element in creating and maintaining an effective multicultural training program is the presence of at least 30% of ethnic minorities among the student population (Ponterotto, 1997). This is important and critical in order to maintain the preferred model of infusion/integration as supported by previous studies (D'Andrea & Daniels, 1995; LaFromboise & Foster, 1992; Margolis & Rungta, 1986). However, no indication was found in the five studies used as a resource for this study on how students are influenced by the person teaching multicultural counseling (Dinsmore & England, 1996; Dinsmore & Hess, 1999; Hills & Strozier, 1992; Ponterotto, 1997; Quintana & Bernal, 1995).

As mentioned before the demographics (i.e., socio-economic status of the counselor educator, family of origin while growing up, political affiliation, ethnicity, primary language and/or languages spoken, area of concentration in their studies, etc.) of those professors/instructors teaching multicultural counseling are important variables to be considered when evaluating or examining the effectiveness of the multicultural counselor training in CACREP accredited institutions.

**Method**

The initial survey was sent to the department chairs of 46 CACREP accredited programs (one per state) as identified by the World Wide Web (CACREP, 2000). The letters to the department chairs requested that the survey be completed by those professors/instructors who were teaching multicultural counseling in their departments. The respondents were given a four-week deadline for return. By the deadline, as indicated in the cover letter, 33 of the 46 surveys (72%) had been returned. While no additional attempts were made to increase the return rate, three additional surveys were returned and included in the final analysis, resulting in 36 surveys (78%).

The survey addressed the following areas: (a) demographics, including gender, age, ethnicity, and college generation of the respondents; (b) reasons for teaching multicultural counseling; (c) number of courses offered in multicultural counseling and if the course(s) was part of the instructor's/professor's regular course load; (d) acceptance of the course as important to the program (requirement or elective) by the rest of the faculty and the infusion of multicultural themes in other courses (as perceived by the person completing the survey); (e) the graduation year of the instructor/professor and area of concentration; (f) design that the instructor/professor followed to teach multicultural counseling and if a demonstration of counseling skills with culturally different clients or students was a course requirement; (g) if a section on Euro-American culture was presented in the course(s) and how many different cultures were presented in the course; finally, (h) the respondents were asked the percentage of ethnic minority students enrolled in their multicultural courses. Most of the responses required a simple yes or no along with an explanation in the space provided. All of the responses were anonymous.

**Table 1**  
Report of the Respondents College Generation by mean Age of the Professors/Instructors Teaching Multicultural Counseling Courses in CACREP Accredited Institutions.

College Generation	Mean Age	Percentage
First Generation	45	44
Second Generation	39	7
Third Generation	48	7

Note: Six of the respondents did not answer one or both questions about college generation and or age.

**Results**

**Demographics**

The mean age for the respondents was 44 years. The mode age for the respondents was 50 years with a median of 43 years (see Table 1). The oldest respondent was



### *Who is Teaching Multicultural Counseling Studies?*

67 and the youngest was 29 years old. Since the national mean age for full professors in colleges of education in the United States is 50 years of age (U. S. Department of Education, National Study of Postsecondary Faculty, 1993), one might conclude that these courses are being taught by senior professors. Sixty-one percent of the respondents (n = 22) indicated that they were first generation college students, 22% (n = 8) indicated being second generation college students, 6% (n = 2) indicated being third generation college students, and 11% (n = 4) left this item blank (see Table 2). Thirty-six percent (n = 13) of the respondents indicated that they were Caucasian. Thirty-one percent (n = 11) indicated being African-American, 17% (n = 6) indicated being Latino/a, 5% (n = 2) indicated being Asian-American instructors, and 11% (n = 4) indicated other ethnic origins. Of those indicating "other," one person reported being biracial (European-American and African-American), another person also reported biracial heritage (Filipino, and did not mention the other ethnicity), and a third respondent reported being Italian and Spanish. The last respondent who reported "other" wrote multiracial, marking all race/ethnic backgrounds in the questionnaire with the exception of Asian American. In terms of gender, the respondents indicated that 56% (n = 20) were males and 44% (n = 16) were females.

**Table 2**

Report of the College Generation of the Professors/Instructors Teaching Multicultural in CACREP Accredited Institutions.

College Generation	Frequency (N=36)	Percentage
First Generation	22	61.0
Second Generation	8	22.2
Third Generation	2	5.6
No Answer	4	11.1

### **Reasons for teaching multicultural counseling**

The reasons for teaching multicultural counseling appeared to encompass three major categories. The categories were: (1) education, experience, and ethnicity; (2) strong interest and knowledge; and (3) research interest. For the category of education, experience and ethnicity 11% (n = 4) of the respondents indicated that this category was the main reason for teaching multicultural counseling. Fifty-eight percent (n = 21) of the respondents indicated having a strong interest in the subject and special knowledge about multicultural counseling. Twenty-two percent (n = 8) indicated the reason for teaching multicultural counseling as having a research interest in the subject. One of the respondents indicated that nobody else in that institution wanted to teach the subject, and two respondents indicated that the reason for teaching the course was that it was part of the curriculum (5.6%). A goodness-of-fit chi-square analysis indicated significantly different percentages (see Table 3) with the reasons for teaching multicultural counseling,  $X^2(3, N=35) = 25, p < .001$ .

**Table 3**

Reason of the Professors/Instructors for Teaching Multicultural Courses in CACREP Accredited Institutions.

Reasons	Frequency (N=36)	Percentage
Education, Experience and Ethnicity	4	11.1
Strong Interest	21	58.9
Research Interest	8	22.2
Nobody is Willing to Teach the course	1	2.8
Part of the Curriculum	2	5.6

**Number of courses offered in multicultural counseling/Was the course(s) part of the professor's/instructor's regular course load**

Seventy-eight percent (n = 28) of the respondents indicated that their institutions offered one course in multicultural counseling. Fourteen percent (n = 5) indicated offering two courses and 5% (n = 2) marked three courses. One respondent did not answer this question.

Ninety-four percent (n = 34) of the respondents indicated that the multicultural course they were teaching was part of their regular course load. Only one person indicated otherwise and one respondent did not answer this question.

**Acceptance of the course by the department faculty and infusion of multicultural themes in other courses**

Eighty-six percent (n = 31) of the respondents indicated that their department colleagues valued the multicultural course that they were teaching. Eight percent (n = 3) indicated otherwise, and two respondents did not answer this question.

Forty-seven percent (n = 17) of the respondents answered that they felt the theme of multiculturalism was infused in all core courses. Forty-two percent (n = 15) of the respondents indicated that multiculturalism themes were not infused in all core courses and such infusion was mainly dependent upon the instructors' willingness to make an effort to infuse those themes into their classes. Eleven percent (n = 4) did not answer this question.

**Year of degree completion of the professor/instructor teaching multicultural counseling**

Sixty-one percent (n = 22) of respondents indicated receiving their degrees before 1992. Seventeen percent (n = 6) indicated degrees awarded between 1992 and 1995. Nineteen percent (n = 7) of those responding to this question indicated obtaining

their degrees after 1995. One person did not respond to this question.

**Design that the instructor followed to teach multicultural counseling and if a demonstration of counseling skills with culturally different clients or students in class was a class requirement**

Most of the respondents (78%,  $n = 28$ ) indicated using an integrated approach to teach multicultural counseling. An integrated approach is determined as a combination of personal development, culture specific knowledge, and skill development. Six percent ( $n = 2$ ) indicated using a personal development approach only, and 16% ( $n = 6$ ) indicated other designs to teach the course. However, one of the professors/instructors indicated using a combination of politics (the respondent did not clarify what he/she meant by the use of the word "politics") and counseling to help counselors-in-training empower their clients.

For the skills demonstration question, the majority answered that they did not require an in-class demonstration of counseling skills in their multicultural courses (56%,  $n = 20$ ). In contrast, 44% ( $n = 16$ ) answered that they required a live demonstration of counseling skills with a culturally different client in class.

**A section on Euro-American culture was presented in the course(s) and how many different cultures were presented in the multicultural class**

Sixty-nine percent ( $n = 25$ ) of responses indicated that a section on Euro-American culture is part of the multicultural course, mainly as a point of comparison and contrast. Thirty-one percent ( $n = 11$ ) responded that they did not present a section on Euro-American culture in their multicultural counseling course.

The largest percentage (50%,  $n = 18$ ) of the respondents indicated that they presented more than five cultures in their multicultural counseling course. The lowest percentage (11%,  $n = 4$ ) presented four cultures. Respondents indicated that the cultures presented in their course were Asian-Americans, Latinos/as/Hispanics, African-Americans, American-Indians, and Gays and Lesbians of all ethnic/race backgrounds.

**Percentage of ethnic minority students in the respondents' multicultural counseling classes**

Forty-seven percent ( $n = 17$ ) of respondents indicated that their courses (other than multicultural counseling courses) were composed of less than five percent ethnic minority students. A cumulative percentage of 72% ( $n = 26$ ) of all respondents indicated having less than 15% of ethnic minority students in all courses, including multicultural counseling classes. The other 28% ( $n = 10$ ) indicated having more than 15% of ethnic minorities in their classes. Through a goodness-of-fit analysis the percentage for each category of ethnic minority students in the multicultural classes was found to be significantly different  $\chi^2(5, N=35) = 27.52, p < .001$ .



## **Discussion**

As concluded in previous studies where demographics were investigated (Dinsmore & England, 1996; Dinsmore & Hess, 1999; Hills & Strozier, 1992), the initial picture appears to suggest a significant number of ethnic minorities teaching multicultural counseling courses and the infusion of multicultural themes into core curricula of CACREP accredited institutions.

Results of the study suggest questions about the seriousness of achieving cultural diversity among the student body population. As indicated by the respondents more than 60% of all of the students in their classrooms (courses other than multicultural courses) consisted of less than 5% students of color. The question arises, how can one counsel ethnic minorities effectively without exposure to them during the training period? This finding suggests that the students in these departments learn about ethnic minorities only from readings and the instructors'/professors' expertise and/or experience in this area.

Another issue emerging from the study results is that one-third of the respondents did not answer the question about college student generation (see Table 2). The implication here suggests that perhaps those who did not respond to this question did not understand the question. The college generation of the professor/instructor could be vital when working with first generation college students of ethnic minority groups (i.e., Latinos/as/Hispanics, American-Indians, and African-American) because the success/failure rate in college/graduate school oftentimes depends on the social support that they can gain from professionals in positions who can serve as role models (Constantine & Barón, 1997; Lee & Bailey, 1997). However, further investigation is needed to determine the real meaning of this lack of response. Another important issue is the number of individuals teaching multicultural counseling who received their degree before 1992. If 61% received their degree before 1992, and the CACREP Standards (1984 and 1988) related to "Social and Cultural Foundations" did not stress significant preparation (as do the 1994 Standards), how well were these professors/instructors trained in this area of teaching and who did the training?

Related to the number of multicultural counseling courses offered by these CACREP accredited institutions, the largest percentage (79%, n=28) of the respondents indicated teaching only one course. This response could be interpreted as the attempt to meet the minimum requirements by CACREP guidelines. Because it is important to remember that the Standard reads "Studies" not courses, the authors of this study believe that it is essential for student knowledge to require a multicultural course within the core curriculum. The authors believe that this study evokes more questions than answers.

## **Implication for further study**

If the counselor education profession is advocating that graduate students should be prepared to meet the diverse needs of a multicultural society, then it should follow that those teaching these courses do it by choice, are prepared to do so, and the courses are supported by other faculty in the department. Questions generated from this study that suggest further investigation include: Are the counselor educators who teach

### *Who is Teaching Multicultural Counseling Studies?*

multicultural counseling well prepared and desirous in doing so? Are they aware of their own biases and stereotypes? Do they possess culture specific knowledge and skills in order to develop culture specific interventions? Who assesses the professor's/instructor's skills and knowledge in these areas if formal coursework was not integral to their own preparation (61% of the 33 respondents received their degree prior to 1992 and prior to the strengthening of the Social and Cultural Foundations Standard) (CACREP 1994)? Also, how does one teach multicultural counseling while avoiding instruction related to the majority culture, if only for comparison and contrast? This article reports on the results of a study that explored who is teaching multicultural counseling but not necessarily how well-prepared they are in that area. Therefore further studies are needed in this area. Limitations

This investigation had many limitations. First, since the survey was self-reported it is virtually impossible to verify the validity and reliability of the responses. Second, since the study was done using one institution per state, only 46 institutions were identified by the World Wide Web, which excludes the full range of 115 or more institutions that are CACREP accredited in the United States. Therefore, the sample may not be representative of all other institutions. Another limitation was the design of the study, which was casual in nature and not intended to bring out hard statistical results. Thus, people who are unfamiliar with nonparametric designs may look at this investigation as an opinion rather than a useful tool to improve the quality of multicultural education in CACREP accredited programs.

### **Conclusion**

This exploratory study was initiated to help determine the demographics of professors/instructors who are teaching multicultural counseling courses, how many courses are taught, and how they view the acceptance of other department faculty regarding the need and importance of multicultural counseling preparation in their graduate students. Institutions having achieved CACREP accreditation were surveyed because this accreditation ensures that these particular institutions have met minimum academic standards determined by the counseling profession.

Results suggested more questions than answers, assuming that the casual design of the study was valid in gathering information about the professors/instructors who are teaching multicultural counseling courses. If present and future counselors are being trained to be agents of social change, then it would appear that significant attention should be devoted by counselor education faculty to increase the effectiveness of graduate student preparation to serve clients in an increasingly multicultural and global society.

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# Impact of Initial Therapy Interviews on College Students' Levels of Anxiety and Depression

*Kristin A. Sagun*

*It is a fact that many university counseling centers need to utilize waiting lists to accommodate the increasing number of students who desire services. As waiting lists become more of a common reality, university counseling centers need to understand how these wait list delays impact students and to determine how best to meet these students' needs. The purpose of this study was to determine whether or not initial therapy interviews impact college students' (n=30) depression and anxiety levels while on waiting lists. Results indicated no statistically significant decrease in college students' depression and anxiety levels following initial therapy interviews. However, students' anxiety levels did increase and depression levels did decrease (approaching significance) as a result of initial interviews. Implications for counselors and scheduling practices are discussed.*

## **Introduction**

The diversity of students attending college today in our society is ever increasing. On college campuses individuality and group cohesiveness is fostered and encouraged in order to promote student development, expression, and learning. College typically exemplifies a transition and growth period within a student's life that is marked by interpersonal and academic achievements. Therefore, it is not surprising that Keutzer, Morrill, Holmes, Sherman, Davenport, Tistadt, Francisco, & Murphy's (1998) study on presenting problems within university counseling centers showed that of the students seeking services 43% were assessed as having developmental problems in nature, 28% were categorized with situational issues, and 29% were assessed as exhibiting underlying pathology. Within college counseling centers there has been an increased, yet debatable, expression of concern over the dramatic increase in the severity of college student problems presented to college counselors (Gallagher, Bruner, & Lingenfelter, 1993). Keutzer, et al's (1998) study found that there was an increase in interpersonal problems as the students' ages increased, and the most common symptom of distress reported was depression. Female college students tended to register higher degrees of distress on initial presentation whereas their male counterparts were more likely to be judged as exhibiting psychopathology in part because of their increased tendencies to display aggression and drug abuse (Keutzer, et al.).

Some researchers on the topic of the increased psychopathology of college students argue that the elevated symptoms of distress exhibited by college students (interpersonal sensitivity and depression) may illustrate symptomatology that is within an expected range of response for the developmental tasks of early adulthood (Sharkin, 1997). Attention to college student symptomatology has increased as the number of students seeking services has increased as well. It has also become more common for uni-

versity counseling centers to utilize psychological assessment instruments and employ psychiatrists for further evaluation and medication prescriptions. Sharkin (1997) asserted his skepticism on the topic of increased psychopathology of college students within his statement, "the diagnosis of psychopathology, rather than severe psychopathology per se, may have increased" (p. 279).

## **Literature Review**

By understanding the nature of psychological disturbances presented by college students, college and university counseling centers, as with other mental health settings, seek to improve client-counseling outcomes. The progress and outcome of ongoing counseling which suggests that while the majority of clients will experience a reduction in their symptoms, a small minority experience no change, while others experience an increase in their symptoms (Lambert & Cattani-Thompson, 1996). It is a common assumption that as counselors we acknowledge the many components that play into a successful counseling experience for the client but may rely heavily on the utilization of congruent techniques with the client's problems and issues. Lambert & Cattani-Thompson stated that the research tends to not support this common assumption taken on by counselors. "It seems that outcome is determined to a great deal by the client, not the counselor" (Lambert & Cattani-Thompson, p. 602). Lambert & Cattani-Thompson cited Garfield's research, "his analysis suggests that some client variables can change (rapidly) early in counseling (e.g. motivation, expectations for improvement) whereas other client variables are relatively immutable in the short run (personality styles)" (p. 603). This evidence suggested that much of the therapeutic outcome that the client experiences is beyond the counselor's control.

How college and university counseling centers deal with the potential increase of student pathology while striving to create positive counseling outcomes has become a daunting challenge that is often woven into increased budget cuts. It is a fact that many university counseling centers need to utilize waiting lists in order to accommodate the increasing number of students who desire services. As waiting lists become more of a common reality, college counseling centers need to pay attention to how these lists and delays impact the students in need who are seeking counseling services. Research on the topic of waiting list influences mostly reveals that waiting lists and time delays before ongoing therapy does not negatively impact counseling outcomes. Freund, Russell, and Schweitzer (1989, as cited in May, 1990) found in their research into this topic that there was no relationship between client perceptions of the counselor, counseling outcomes, or attrition and the length of delay before counseling. Their results actually suggested that counseling outcomes may even be improved as the result of a delay. In a subsequent study, Freund, Schweitzer, and Russell (1991) again determined that the length of time before continuing counseling did not have a negative effect on client evaluations of counseling or client perceptions of counselors. The researchers do cite that their subjects were informed and agreed in writing to the potential of a four or more week delay before counseling began.

Westbrook (1995) also studied the effects of time delays before on-going counseling is undertaken. Within this study both treatment groups were placed on a waiting list for continuing counseling. One group received two initial assessment sessions by a

counselor prior to being placed on the list while the other treatment group received just a letter informing them of their placement on the waiting list. The results indicated that the two treatment groups did not differ significantly on counseling outcomes evaluations. However, upon a 12 month follow-up review, the group that received the two assessment sessions was shown to be continually improving while the other treatment group exhibited more relapse symptoms (Westbrook, 1995). Westbrook also noted that clients, when asked, preferred to receive the initial two assessments prior to being placed onto the waiting list.

These two studies examined the impact of the length of the delays between initial sessions as they related to the outcomes of on-going therapy. Their focus was not to evaluate the immediate implications of continuing counseling after an initial assessment versus client placement on waiting list prior to an initial assessment. This poses the question, is it more therapeutically warranted to provide a client with an initial assessment prior to placement onto a waiting list? Or, is it more therapeutically warranted to utilize a waiting list system for initial assessments for clients so continuing counseling can be immediately pursued?

Hutchinson, Krippner, & Hutchinson (1988) tested a similar hypothesis that examined client depression and anxiety levels immediately before intake sessions and also immediately following intake sessions. Hutchinson, et al., found no significant differences in client depression and anxiety levels as measured by the Beck Depression Inventory and State Trait Anxiety Inventory. The results they yielded actually tended to fall in the opposite direction as was initially anticipated. A slight increase, as opposed to a decrease, in client anxiety and depression was observed in subjects following an intake interview (Hutchinson, et al.).

This present study was a repeated attempt at seeking data to indicate how initial therapy interviews potentially affect client symptomology. As a reduction of client anxiety and depression was predicted in the Hutchinson, et al. (1988) study, this study also predicted that there will be a significant decrease in clients' levels of anxiety and depression following an intake interview. This study hypothesized that clients who experienced an initial therapy interview prior to completing the assessment instruments would display a significant decrease in their levels of anxiety and depression as compared to the clients who completed the assessment instruments prior to the initial therapy interviews.

## **Method**

**Participants.** Participants in this research were 30 (19 females, 11 males) clients ranging in age from 18 to 30 who sought counseling at a central Pennsylvania university counseling center. Fifteen (10 females, 5 males) subjects received Treatment A. Fifteen (9 females, 6 males) received Treatment B. The sample for this study included 30 college students whom independently sought counseling during the administration of this study. There were no obvious differences found regarding age and socioeconomic characteristics. Ethnic demographics indicated that 29 of the subjects identified themselves as Caucasian and one subject identified as African American. The subjects sought counseling for a variety of symptoms and issues including, dating relationships, sexual

orientation, depression, anxiety, self-esteem, academic struggles, past traumatic events, career concerns, and family conflicts.

**Counselors.** Four senior staff counselors (3 doctoral level, 1 master's level) and three master's seeking graduate interns were instructed to follow the standard counseling center's procedure for intake interview sessions. In total, there were four females and two males ranging in age from 23 to 38 years that participated as intake counselors. All of the counselors identified as Caucasian. Each of the counselors utilized had prior experience in conducting initial intake sessions and writing intake evaluations within this center. The three graduate interns were all under direct clinical supervision as was required by their internship guidelines.

**Design and Procedures.** In both treatment groups clients were assigned to a counselor for an initial intake interview based on the mutual compatibility of the client's schedule and the available intake time slots given by each participating counselor. In some cases clients were referred after the intake session to another in-house counselor if future schedule conflicts between the client and counselor occurred. Prior to the intake interview, clients were requested to arrive 15 minutes early in order to complete an intake questionnaire that included general demographics, family history, and symptom severity and duration checklist. Intake sessions were scheduled for 50 minute time periods in accordance with the center's policy. The purpose of the intake interview at this counseling center is to identify the client's presenting issue(s), establish a center and client relationship, and assess the level of client pathology for appropriate treatment planning and/or referral to a more specialized outside agency. The counselors performing the intake sessions were not educated as to the purpose of this study in order to protect the uniformity and consistency of their presentation during the sessions.

Treatment A. (Assessment Instruments Before Intake Interview) The assessment instruments utilized in this study included the Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II) and the Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI). These instruments were presented to the client by the counseling center receptionist with the standard intake questionnaire. The clients were then instructed to complete the intake questionnaire, the BDI-II, and the BAI prior to the intake session. Clients were also debriefed in writing and were given the opportunity to ask general questions pertaining to the research or counseling at the center.

Treatment B. (Intake interview before the assessment instruments) The intake interview was conducted with subjects immediately following the regular procedure of completing the intake questionnaire. Upon completion of the intake interview, the counselor administered the assessment instruments. Clients were then debriefed in writing and were given the opportunity to ask general questions pertaining to the research or counseling at the center.

## **Instruments**

Beck Depression Inventory-II (BDI-II). The BDI-II is a 21 item self-report assessment tool designed to assess the severity of depression in adults and adolescents (ages 13 and higher) (Beck, Steer, & Brown, 1996). Within each item clients are asked to pick out one of four possible statements that best describes how they have been feeling over the



past two weeks. This particular instrument was chosen because of its high level of reliability, user-friendly instructions, and speed of completion (5-10 minutes). As presented in the BDI-II Manual, the internal consistency of the BDI-II is extremely high at .93. This alpha coefficient is based on a 120 subject college student sample (Beck, Steer, & Brown, 1996).

Beck Anxiety Inventory (BAI). The BAI is a 21 item self-report scale that assesses the severity of anxiety in adolescents and adults (Beck & Steer, 1993). Each item is rated on a four point system that ranges from 0 to 3 with the maximum score being 63. The BAI was chosen because of its high reliability ease of administration, and speed of completion (5-10 minutes). The internal consistency alpha coefficient of the BAI is .92 (Beck & Steer, 1993).

**Table 1**  
Impact of Initial Therapy Interviews on Client's Depression and Anxiety Levels

	BDI-II	BAI
Inventories Before Interview	n=15 M=19.86 s=7.78	n=15 M=12.80 s=10.01
Interview Before Inventories M=15.80	n=15 M=18.40 s=10.45  t= 1.21 p> .05	n=15  s=15.34  t= -1.18 p> .05

**Results**

The data was statistically analyzed using two independent sample t-tests to test for significance at the  $p>.05$  level. The results to this experimental hypothesis revealed no statistically significant change within the client depression and anxiety levels as measured by the BDI-II and the BAI. Data revealed that the decrease in client depression levels approached significance with  $t = 1.21$ , but did not surpass the necessary significance level of  $t = 1.7$ . The results of the client anxiety levels yielded  $t = -1.18$  which also did not surpass the necessary significance level of  $t = 1.7$ . Thus, although not reaching significance, client depression levels did decrease while client anxiety levels surprisingly increased.

**Discussion**

This study was designed to expand current understanding of how initial therapy interviews impact clients on waiting lists. Specifically, this research sought to expand on the findings of Hutchinson, et al. (1998) by hypothesizing that clients would experience a reduction of depression and anxiety levels after an intake therapy session. Overall, results of this research provided mixed support for the experimental hypothesis: one of

the two predicted relations were observed as approaching significance (depression) and one was contradicted (anxiety). Because neither relation reached significance, clear conclusions cannot be drawn. However, because data revealed that the client mean depression level decreased and the client mean anxiety level increased following the initial therapy interviews, some tentative interpretations are worthy of consideration.

It seems that a reduction of client depression levels as the result of an initial therapy interview is a positive indication regarding the potential of client symptomology being reduced after only an initial session. This could suggest that the presence, interest, and support of another person may perhaps be just as therapeutic, if not more, than the utilization of specific theoretical counseling techniques (which normally do not occur during an initial session). The increase of client anxiety levels supports Hutchinson, et al.'s (1988) data results that also found higher client anxiety levels within the group that received the treatment batteries after the intake session. This current study's results yielded an even stronger increase in client anxiety levels. Clients may experience an increase in anxiety following an initial therapy session for many reasons. It is plausible that clients may gain an increased awareness into the breadth of their problems, thus increasing anxiety levels. Also, the introduction of a new person (the counselor) and relationship into the client's life may trigger a performance anxiety that stems from concerns as to whether the counselor likes the client.

### **Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research**

Several limitations are important to consider when interpreting the results from this study and planning future research. First, the research population subjects is a relatively small sample size at  $n=30$ . Second, the logistics of the study did not allow for the intake counselors to regularly alternate the order of the treatment conditions to the clients. Therefore, some counselors participated as intake counselors within one treatment group more frequently as compared to the other treatment group. Client tardiness resulting in limited time sessions and unanticipated client cancellations and no shows contributed to this limitation. Third, the researcher participated as an intake counselor and could have contributed to experimental biases within intake sessions.

While depression and anxiety are relatively common constructs to measure, it is possible that a gender bias existed towards the types of symptoms displayed. Ruble, Grenlich, Pomerantz, & Gochberg (1993) found that women are more likely to display distress in the form of anxiety and depression while men exhibit distress in the form of aggression and drug abuse. Perhaps this is suggesting that by measuring levels of anxiety and depression, we are not achieving a valid measure of how an intake therapy session truly impacts male clients. Another potential limitation relates to the previous counseling experiences of the subjects. Since the subjects' past experience with counseling may have varied, the researcher cannot be sure how their expectations, attitudes, and knowledge impacted their anxiety and depression levels. It has been found that how clients anticipate what the session will be like, is an important factor in relating to the actual counseling experience for the client (Tinsley, Tokar, & Helwig, 1994).

Further research may focus on the individual effects of gender and age differences between the counselor and client. Also, the level of client presenting disturbance

could be assessed and related to the impact of the initial therapy session. Finally, client expectations of counseling may be highlighted and correlated with client symptom reduction or exacerbation.

### Implications for Counseling

The results have important implications for counselors and counseling center practices. Based on Hutchinson, et al.'s (1998) study, the effects of placing clients on waiting lists before an intake session may be more therapeutically beneficial. This current research finds both pros and cons for the different waiting list procedures. With the evidence of increased anxiety levels after initial therapy interviews, perhaps utilizing a waiting list for an intake session that is immediately followed by an on-going counseling is the best choice. However, when examining the reduction in depression levels this research yielded, it may be just as therapeutic to offer a client an initial therapy session immediately before placement to a waiting list for on-going counseling. Perhaps these results suggest that either waiting list procedure is a confident viable option for clients. Since the depression levels tended to decrease after the initial interview, this provides hope that clients will not be necessarily placed at risk if they are then put onto a waiting list before immediate on-going counseling. This is not to say that anxiety levels are less important per se, but depressive symptoms are commonly linked to suicide.

This research suggests that initial therapy session approaches taken by counselors should be more closely examined. Should counselors present to clients that they may experience an unanticipated increase in symptoms and distress simply by sharing concerns and by having their awareness heightened? Also, counselors may learn to better anticipate client symptom reduction and exacerbation based on the content and flow of the initial session and subsequent sessions. This may further the counseling process and outcomes by reducing the total number of sessions required and eliminating early termination.

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1. Manuscripts should not exceed 20 pages.
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3. The title page should include two elements: title, and author affiliation. Identify the title page with a running head and the number 1 typed in the upper right-hand corner of the page.
4. Begin the abstract on a new page, and identify the abstract page with the running head and the number 2 typed in the upper right-hand corner of the page. The abstract should be approximately 125 words.
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551

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# The Journal of the Pennsylvania Counseling Association

## Contents

<b>Message from the Co-Editors: Unity through Diversity</b> <i>Andy Carey and Ford Brooks</i> .....	3
<b>Articles</b>	
Ecological Systems Approach to Counseling: Case of an Asian Client .....	5
<i>Mark H. Chae.</i>	
Positive Psychology: What Might it Mean for Counseling .....	13
<i>Robert W. McAlister, Shiela C. McElroy, Phylis Y. Thompson, and John McCarthy</i>	
<b>Research</b>	
Exploring the Complexities of Measuring Multicultural Competencies of Counselors in Training .....	19
<i>Christopher J. Quarto</i>	
<b>Book Review</b>	
The Team: Explorations in Group Process .....	29
<i>Reviewed by Rhonda Myers</i>	
<b>Guidelines for Authors</b> .....	31

## Unity through Diversity

*Andrew L. Carey*

*Clifford W. Brooks, Jr.*

A profession grows most when it makes use of the many voices and gifts within the profession. Any group or organizational body will limp along in a state of incompleteness, or lack of wholeness, if it does not utilize and even seek out the voices and talents of those within the organization. Like a living, physical body cannot function properly without the various parts, such as the eyes, ears, mouth, arms, and legs, so too an organizational body is ineffective without utilizing the various parts. Furthermore, those various parts are supposed to be different from one another, and it's those differences between the various parts that come together to bring about a better whole.

As editors of the *Journal of the Pennsylvania Counseling Association* (JPCA), we want the many voices within our organization to be heard and validated. Our desire is for the various talents and voices to contribute to JPCA, to the Pennsylvania Counseling Association (PCA), and to the other associations to bring about a greater unity and wholeness. We encourage you to become involved professionally through writing, becoming an officer within an association, or presenting at a conference, and that through these efforts, you would "contribute to bring about a better whole."

We welcome Mark Kenney as the incoming president of PCA. He has already put forth much effort toward preparing for the PCA conference in October. The theme he has chosen for the conference, "Unity through Diversity: Working Together to Make a Difference," continues the multicultural/diversity emphasis that has been important within PCA. PCA strongly supports diversity and the need for respecting and celebrating differences. This issue of JPCA once again shows the multicultural focus within our state. Not only does PCA support this focus, but also, manuscript submissions for JPCA regularly demonstrate a multicultural emphasis among counseling professionals within Pennsylvania.

JPCA's attention to multicultural issues is probably one of the reasons for the journal's success. Recently, the American Counseling Association evaluated and compared JPCA with various journals within the profession. As a result, JPCA received the "First Place Award, Small Branch, for Best Journal." We congratulate all those who have participated in bringing about a quality state journal.

We give special thanks to the authors, reviewers, and most importantly, to Dr. LeeAnn Eschbach for all of her hard work doing the final preparations for printing. Again, this is just another example of many necessary and unique parts coming together for a unified creation far better than the individual parts.

# Ecological Systems Approach to Counseling: The Case of an Asian Client

Mark H. Chae

*This article presents an integrative ecological approach to counseling Asian American clients. A detailed discussion of Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory is presented expounding upon the micro-, meso-, exo-, and macrosystems. A case presentation of an Asian American client from an ecological systems perspective further illumines the applications of the model. Conceptualization and treatment considerations are presented from a blend of cultural perspectives.*

**E**cological systems theory is a systematic approach to organizing cognitions about experience and phenomenon (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1986, 1989). This theoretical perspective provides a framework for understanding the complex and interactive nature about an individual's social context. The theory assumes that people are the way they are because of the contextual factors in which they are surrounded. Moreover, the theory suggests that these factors interact with and often are contingent upon the resilience of self and the individual's stage of psychological development.

Counseling a client from the perspective of ecological systems theory may be an especially useful approach to identifying contextual factors related to the client's presenting issues in therapy. Indeed, multicultural specialists have pointed out that for many persons of color, psychological issues may be traced to external sources related to systematic, sociocultural and sociopolitical injustices (Atkinson, Thompson, & Grant, 1993; Helms & Cook, 1999; Kiselica, 1999; Sue, Bingham, Porche-Burke, & Vasquez, 1999). Therefore, an ecological systems approach to counseling may be especially effective for treating clients from racial and ethnic minority populations. Counselors and other change agents who employ such a theoretical approach to counseling may be better able to identify contextual factors related to the client's well being. In order to support this assertion, an overview of Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory is presented expounding upon the micro-, meso-, exo-, and macrosystems. A case presentation of an Asian client in counseling from an ecological systems perspective will further illumine the applications of the model.

## Ecological Systems Theory

### Microsystem

Microsystem refers to the intricate interrelations mediating the developing person and ecological influences in an immediate setting comprising that person. The microsystem consists of interpersonal relationships involving face-to-face interactions with individuals who are influential in her or his life, and who, in turn, are influenced by the individual (e.g., family context, school, work place) (Bronfenbrenner, 1979, 1989).

Paulson, Marchant, and Rothlisberg (1998) noted that the family is the most prominent microsystem, followed by friends and school.

Microsystems constantly change for individuals as they move in and out of different social settings. For example, the child's movement from a self-contained classroom in elementary school to the more socially accessible environment of the playground at recess may illustrate this phenomenon. In the classroom, the child may demonstrate a quiet and reserved demeanor. However, when allowed to play freely with peers during recess, the child may demonstrate a more outgoing and sociable demeanor. The interactions that occur in these differing contexts may signal differing social expectations, which may in turn, bring about new attitudes and behaviors.

### **Mesosystem**

"A mesosystem comprises the interrelations among two or more settings in which the developing person actively participates" (Bronfenbrenner, 1989, p.25). The mesosystem is a network of relationships between the various microsystems. The most basic characteristic of this system is multi-setting participation. Bronfenbrenner (1979) indicated that this type of interconnection "occurs when the same person engages in activities in more than one setting — for example when a child spends time both at home and at the day care center" (p. 209). As with the microsystem, the mesosystem consists of interrelationships; however, these connections are related to the linkage of two or more microsystems.

The richness of a mesosystem is contingent upon the transition from the micro- to the mesosystem and the role demands of the different settings (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). The healthy mesosystem can be established when the person in transition is accompanied by someone else from the microsystem. For example, if a child is going to school for the first day, the accompaniment of the mother can create a smooth passage bridging the two microsystems. A second characteristic of a rich mesosystem is that the individual has similar roles in the different microsystems. For example, an adolescent who is well behaved at school will likely be well behaved in others social settings.

In essence, the mesosystem's strength and richness are dependent upon the inter-relatedness of the microsystems. The transitions that occur from the original microsystem play an important role in the richness of the mesosystem. It is evident that the family system is a significant determinant to whether the ecological transition is smooth or thwarted (Bronfenbrenner, 1986).

### **Exosystem**

"An exosystem is an extension of the mesosystem embracing other specific social structures, both formal and informal, that do not themselves contain the developing person but impinge upon or encompass the immediate setting in which that person is found..." (Bronfenbrenner, 1977, p. 515). The exosystem refers to the larger community in which the individual lives, although she or he may not have direct contact with this context. For example, a father who faces daily occupational stress at the work place because of a difficult boss may displace his frustrations at home onto his wife and children. In this case, the father's stress experienced in one system is indirectly brought home, which in turn influences a second system. This dynamic exemplifies the concept of the exosystem. Bronfenbrenner (1986) indicates that there are three exosystems that

are especially likely to affect the child's development. These include the parent's workplace, parent's social networks and the community's influence on family dynamics.

### **Macrosystem**

The macrosystem consists of the "cultural blueprint that underlies the organization of institutions" (Garbarino, 1985, p. 60). It refers to the constituents of the lower form systems (i.e., micro-, meso-, exosystems) that exist at the level of culture (Bronfenbrenner, 1979). This may include cultural ideology, political context, values, media as well as belief systems. Hence, the macrosystem contains the larger cultural fabric in which the lower level systems are inextricably interwoven. An example of macrosystemic effects may be the sociopolitical barriers embedded within institutions that prevent people of color from advancing in certain fields, such as business and education (Sue, 1995; Thompson & Carter, 1997).

## **The Case of Sally**

### **Presenting Problem**

The client will be referred to as Sally to ensure the confidentiality of the client's identity and psychosocial history. Sally sought counseling because of identity issues. She feels a strong tie to her Asian background, but at the same time identifies with American culture. She is unable to integrate these two parts of herself. Also, Sally indicated that when she was younger, she experienced harsh discipline by her parents. A counselor informed her that what she experienced was child abuse. She had seen a counselor at her college for approximately a month (one year ago). She sought counseling in college because she felt depressed and hopeless. The client noted that she still feels depressed and hopeless.

### **Psychosocial History**

Sally is a twenty-one year old Chinese American woman. In therapy, she recalled that her parents spent very little time with her as a child. She is the second of three children. She has an older and younger brother. She described her parents as traditionally Chinese. She was born in China and came to the United States at the age of four. She described her father as quiet and honorable but temperamental and very distant from the family. Sally recalled her father being involved only to spank the children. He spent most of his time at work as an assistant to a chemist. He often came home angry. Sally attributed this anger to the fact that in China he was one of the leading chemists in his company. In the United States, because he didn't speak English fluently, he was unable to gain a position as a chemist. In addition, his education and experience was not acknowledged in his current position.

Sally described her mother as overbearing and cold. As Sally was growing up she felt that her mother treated her very badly—hitting her a lot. Sally just assumed that this was part of Chinese culture. She was aware that females had a lower place in Asian culture than males and assumed that America was like that as well. She was surprised when she later found out through speaking with friends that physical discipline was not as widespread in the United States as it is in China.

Sally demonstrated a different demeanor at home compared to the times that she was with her friends or at school. At home, Sally felt confined and restricted. She was often quiet and proper. However, when she went out with her friends, she was labeled as the "wild one" of the bunch. She loved to talk and laugh with her friends. She remembered on one occasion when her friends came over for dinner; they were astonished by her radically different behavior at home. Sally's friends didn't see a gregarious and outgoing "party girl." Rather, they saw a reserved, submissive and placating bore.

### **Analysis: An Ecological Framework**

It is evident that Sally has been affected in some way by all the systems. Sally's microsystemic influences included the dynamics that occurred within the family context. Based on Sally's case history, it is plausible that her parents physically abused her according to American laws. It is important for counselors to keep in mind that in some Asian cultures, physical punishment is a prominent fixture within child rearing strategies. Therefore, what may be regarded as physical discipline in Asia may qualify for abuse in America (Kagan, 1984; Maitra, 1996; Sue & Sue, 1999). For example, in China it is common practice for teachers to strike students who have misbehaved in the classroom. While in the United States, there are a few schools that condone physical discipline by teachers, in Asian cultures, physical punishment is significantly more frequent and widespread (Hong & Hong, 1991). Research has shown that Asian parents employ more severe restriction and harsh punishment as forms of child socialization compared to Caucasian families (Hong & Hong, 1991; Lum, 1998).

In addition, Sally was influenced by the mesosystem. In her mesosystem, she had the family microsystem as well as the interactions with peers. It is evident based on her case study that in the family context, she was viewed as shy, quiet and appropriate. These are traditional characteristics of Chinese families. Lung and Sue (1997) noted that Chinese parents encourage and praise their children for being submissive, quiet, and docile. Conversely, they may perceive extroverted or autonomous behavior as abnormal. They noted that an adolescent who states their opinion about an issue may be perceived by their parents as "talking back," which is a sign of disobedience. While Sally demonstrated this culturally appropriate behavior at home, Sally did not express this part of her identity to her friends or while at school.

Next, the exosystem played a role in Sally's life. Her father's socioeconomic status seemed to affect his behavior at home. His frustrations at work were displaced and brought home, where he took it out on the children. Research supports that economic hardship for the "bread winner" of the household indirectly affects children because they are often faced with more punitive discipline compared to parents who aren't facing economic hardship (Elder, 1979; Ortiz & Farrell, 1993). This phenomenon may be particularly exacerbated for Asian immigrants (Lum, 1998; Song & Moon, 1998). As Asians immigrate to the United States, they often find that their education level and prior experience in Asia do not translate well into the American job market. In one study, Song (1996) found that 58% of Asian men who were abusive worked in jobs that were at a lower employment level prior to immigration. As in the case of Sally's father, he could only obtain a position as an assistant to a chemist in the United States, whereas in China, he was acknowledged as a fully qualified chemist. This position was far below his abilities and experience, and probably caused feelings of frustration and anger. Such occupational barriers coupled with language difficulties can increase the prevalence of family

violence (Lum, 1998).

Finally, the macrosystem seemed to also play an indirect yet significant role in Sally's life. Sally's justification for the abuse was that a woman's role was considered lower than that of a man. This belief was a part of Chinese cultural ideology (Sue, 1997) that she had internalized. However, it is also evident that Sally was aware that American values espoused a more egalitarian view of men and women. This was exemplified by her behavior with friends at school. Her school friends perceived her as outgoing and "wild." It is evident, at least to some extent, that Sally maintained an Asian identity at home and an American identity at school. According to researchers, negotiating through these two opposing world-views is common among Asian Americans (Chae, in press; Min & Park, 1999). Park (1997) contended that Asian Americans may feel caught between two different cultures they don't completely understand. Feelings of frustration may emerge as they attempt to balance an Asian identity at home with an American identity at school (Liu, Chang, & Fernandez, 1990).

### **Conceptualization**

It is evident that cultural factors played an important role in the client's psychological issues. In reference to working with clients from diverse groups, the DSM-IV points out the importance of recognizing, "the meaning and perceived severity of the individual's symptoms in relation to norms of the cultural reference group" (APA, 1994, p. 844). In light of Sally's conflict with negotiating between American culture (e.g., in school or with friends) and Chinese culture (e.g., with family), it is understandable that a sense of distress and psychological discomfort would arise. It is plausible to conclude that her feelings of depression and hopelessness are related to the fact that she feels "trapped" between two worlds. Accordingly, the client may be experiencing an acculturation problem (V62.4). The DSM-IV indicates, "This category can be used when the focus of clinical attention is a problem involving adjustment to a different culture" (p. 685). In addition, it is evident that the client has experienced feelings of uncertainty and confusion related to her identity. Hence, Sally may also be experiencing an identity problem (V62.2). "This category can be used when the focus of clinical attention is uncertainty about multiple issues related to identity, such as long-term goals, career choice, friendship patterns, sexual orientation and behavior, moral values, and groups loyalties" (APA, 1994, p. 685). While the client has expressed feelings of depression and hopelessness, she does not satisfy the criterion for major depression or dysthymic disorder.

### **Treatment**

In treating Sally, three target goals were addressed: (1) developing rapport and establishing a holding environment, (2) ameliorating feelings of depression and hopelessness related to conflicts with her family, and (3) resolving issues related to acculturation and identity.

Establishing a stable "holding environment" may facilitate positive psychotherapeutic outcome. Winnicott (1960/1986) introduced the term "holding environment" as a metaphor for the maternal function of holding the infant. He wrote, "...the [therapist] is holding the patient, and this often takes the form of conveying in words at the appropriate moment something that shows that the [therapist] knows and understands the deepest anxiety that is being experienced, or that is waiting to be experienced"

(Winnicott, 1960/1986, p. 240). The holding environment suggests not only the protection from without, but also protection from the dangers within. Development of the holding environment may be an important factor in creating an effective working alliance (Pipes & Davenport, 1990).

A second goal may be to ameliorate feelings of depression and hopelessness. The therapist may use the Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) to assess her level of depression. Based on the initial interview, the client did not appear to satisfy the criterion for major depression or dysthymia. However, a BDI may provide further clinical information. It is apparent that she does experience some feelings of hopelessness (as stated by the client). Beck (1987) found that feelings of hopelessness among psychiatric patients were the best predictor for suicide attempts. While this therapist does not believe that Sally is at risk for suicidal ideation, it is important to monitor her affective states as she works through issues related to identity and acculturation.

As Asian American clients like Sally negotiate between their identification with Asian and American culture, they may be left with feelings of confusion and frustration. As such, the client may be encouraged to explore through the conflicts between these two differing worldviews together with the therapist, seeking ways in which she can integrate these perspectives. In addition, the counselor may help the client to become aware of different contexts in which she feels more ethnically identified than in others. Exploration and identification of these issues may lead to a deeper awareness and understanding of her ethnic group membership and the meaning it holds for her.

## **Conclusion**

The goal of this article was to demonstrate how an ecological systems approach to counseling might be useful for working with clients from diverse populations, particularly those of Asian descent. Through the presentation of a case study, problem areas were identified based on an analysis of each system. A careful analysis of Sally's case history from an ecological systems perspective illuminated important confounding ecological variables, particularly differing childrearing styles of Asian cultures. Moreover, it was noted that the differing world-views of the parents as compared to their daughter, Sally, played an important role in her identity issues. Because most Asian American parents are immigrants and their children often bi-cultural, there is often inter-generational conflict between them. Individuals are often forced to negotiate these differing world-views striking a comfortable balance between their Asian and American identity. In sum, ecological systems theory is an applicable model that serves to simplify and organize the way people think and experience daily life events. This paradigm may be especially effective in observing the different effects that cultural context has on an individual.

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## Positive Psychology: What might it mean for counseling?

*Robert W. McAlister  
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John McCarthy*

*Positive psychology, the scientific study of people performing at their best (Sheldon, Frederickson, Rathunde, Csikszentmihalyi, & Haidt, 2000), has gained much recent attention in the psychological literature. The study of positivity goes against what has traditionally gained attention in psychology and other areas. Positive psychology can be traced to work in humanism and optimism. While the core principles of counseling are consistent with the tenets of positive psychology, the recent trend may offer ways for the counseling profession to revisit this foundation. Possible implications for counselor education are offered.*

This article examines positive psychology, a concept given considerable attention in recent months in psychology, and what this may mean for the counseling profession and counselor education. The term was first coined by Maslow, who concluded his book *Motivation and Personality* with a chapter entitled "Toward a positive psychology" (Warmoth, Resnick, & Serlin, 2000).

It must be said at the outset that the positive psychology orientation may well be an emergent label applied to a relatively established concept about positiveness. After all, in discussing the core principles of the counseling profession, Hershenson, Power, and Waldo (1996) included ideas highly consistent with positive psychology. In addition to the view that humans tend toward healthy growth, they added prevention and wellness and offered the promotion of healthy development in their definition of counseling. Similarly, the Lewis, Lewis, D'Andrea, and Daniels (1998) model of community counseling integrates foundations of counseling, psychology, and social work, among others, and emphasizes new roles and approaches for counseling professionals.

The idea of studying the positive is not new among psychologists. Twelve years ago Pearsall (1988) proposed the study of "joyology," a model of wellness. Both psychology and psychiatry were sciences revolving around sickness, which was a detriment. According to Pearsall, "In attempting to help people cope, survive, and function, the field of psychology has failed to provide guidelines for celebration, thriving, and rejoicing, the real reasons for making the effort to cope at all" (p. 6). Joyology, Pearsall maintained, was about learning from the "healthy, hearty, and the super survivors" as well as from the process of illness (p. 11).

With these points in mind, one could argue that psychology's movement

toward positivity is simply something that brings it closer to the foundations on which the counseling profession rests. Regardless, a primary point of this article is to inform readers of the positive psychology movement and how it may affect the counseling profession.

## **Background**

In their "Positive Psychology Manifesto," Sheldon, Frederickson, Rathunde, Csikszentmihalyi, and Haidt (2000) defined positive psychology as "the scientific study of optimal human functioning." It endeavors to support the dynamics that allow individuals and communities to succeed. Based on the belief that optimism can be learned, positive psychology embraces the principle that optimistic people tend to believe bad things happen by chance and that they themselves create the good things that happen.

One primary purpose of positive psychology is to shift the focus from a preoccupation with fixing the worst things to integrating positive qualities in one's life. As Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000) pointed out, "Our field of psychology is not just the study of pathology, weakness and damage; it is also the study of strength and virtue. Treatment is not just fixing what is broken; it is nurturing what is best" (p. 7). Thus, no longer do the main theories view the person as a passive entity replying to stimuli; rather, people are now viewed as decision-makers with choices and options. Psychologists have come to understand how individuals survive and accept conditions of misfortune. However, they have failed to understand how normal individuals flourished under more benign conditions (Seligman & Csikszentmihalyi, 2000).

In regard to clients' outlooks on their lives, research has focused on how people react to, assess, value, make sense of, and cope with their life experiences (Kobasa, Maddi, & Kahn, 1982). Positive psychology acknowledges that human experience involves multiple confrontations with challenges. In each confrontation, whether of short or of long duration, a person starts with a perception that the experience is either a threat and of potential harm or something that is or can be an enhancing experience (Antonovsky, 1987).

While much research has been done on work and family life experiences and how they relate to issues of loss and hardship, bereavement, and unemployment, Thoits (1994) reported that little research has involved proactive decision-making made in work and family life (e.g., career change, marriage, childbirth, remarriage), which are made with the goal of improving one's life. She contended that much of the research on stress has analyzed the lack of coping resources in individuals. What is missing in these investigations is a more balanced view of people as those who are dynamically recreating their personal resources to protect their self-esteem.

Similarly, in healthcare, a disease and treatment approach has been predominant. In their work on differences in morbidity and mortality between racial groups, Singer and Ryff (1997) maintained that prevention is more significant than a disease and treatment approach. They called for an agenda that defines health not just from an illness perspective, but also from various "states of wellness" (p. 91). Attention must be devoted to "pathways of salubrity" that include areas of support in social relationships, positive interpretations and reactions to adversity, and chances to advance in societal hierarchies (p. 116).

## Roots of positive psychology

The focus of a profession evolves as the profession itself evolves, and positive psychology may be the result of a shift in the psychology profession. Seligman outlined changes in this area in pointing out, "Before World War II, psychology had three missions: curing mental illness, making the lives of all people more fulfilling and identifying and nurturing high talent" (Seligman, 1998, p. 2). In the subsequent decades, newer areas of psychology emerged in humanistic, Gestalt, and cognitive therapies. Each supported a "kinder," more humanitarian form of psychotherapy and counseling and emphasized a natural positive growth in people, a notion that is central to positive psychology.

Warmoth et al. (2000) offered Maslow specific credit for the emergence of positive psychology. They wrote, "The first phase of humanistic psychology...was largely driven by Maslow's agenda for a positive psychology. It articulated a view of the human being as irreducible to parts, needing connection, meaning, and creativity. As the intellectual core of the human potential movement, humanistic psychology had a broad impact both on the field of psychology as well as the culture at large" (p. 1).

Along with Maslow's input into the field of positive psychology, Roger's ideas of unconditional positive regard have left a lasting impression in the field of psychology. His theory argues that people are free to choose their behavior, rather than reacting to environmental stimuli and reinforcers, and the issues of helping clients with issues of self-fulfillment and growth are paramount. Rogers was less interested in delving into individuals' past history and their unconscious and more interested in creating a therapeutic environment that would promote strengths and growth.

Another primary root of positive psychology is derived from the work in optimism. Seligman's (1991) book entitled *Learned Optimism* helped to transform the area of learned helplessness into optimism, a concept that has been associated with positive mood, popularity, good health, and success in athletic, military, and political domains (Peterson, 2000). Segments of optimism are also seen in the related topic of hope, which, as viewed by Snyder (1994), can be conceptualized by "agency" (the determination that goals can be accomplished) and "pathways" (the belief that plans can be created to reach such goals).

As mentioned, this is not the first time that an emphasis on strengths has been proposed in the mental health community. Weick, Rapp, Sullivan and Kishardt (1989) used the term "strengths perspective" in social work's historical emphasis on helping people. This perspective has rested on the following assumptions: First, in spite of life's ordeals, all persons and environments hold strengths that can be used to improve the quality of clients' lives. Second, client motivation can be nurtured by a consistent accentuation on strengths as the client defines these. Third, discovering strengths requires a process of collaborative exploration between clients and practitioners. Last, focusing on strengths turns the practitioner attention away from the enticement to 'blame the victim' and toward finding how clients have managed to survive despite threatening conditions.

Saleeby (1992) contended that the application of a strengths perspective is common and represents "good, basic social work practice" (p. 43). The strength-based perspective has allowed for the focus to be on client empowerment (Cowger, 1992), which is another main focus of Lewis et al.'s (1998) community counseling model. Clinical practice based on the strength-based model has allowed clients to achieve more control over their presenting issues and in turn, control over their own lives.

## **Possible new directions for training**

Traditional, deficit-based approaches are still being utilized in many counselor education programs. Ironically, the new wave of fostering clients' strengths is essentially ignored in preparing future mental health professionals. Though counselors-in-training are encouraged to empower their clients, some counselor education programs may not provide the tools to advocate empowerment.

The process of moving forward takes many forms. In order to stay current and proactive, counseling education programs may benefit by inclusion of the paradigm of positive psychology in their curricula. New roles of helping, an emphasis on empowerment, and new approaches to promoting change may inspire such a change, and each of these is integral in the Lewis et al. (1998) model of community counseling. Kuhn (1962) commented that paradigm shifts are the natural results of integrating developments in scientific knowledge into current constructs. Counseling programs are encouraged to incorporate developments in positive psychology into counseling education models.

Counselor education programs may be at an appropriate time to integrate curricular reforms as well. Hershenson et al. (1996) pointed out, "The history of mental health has been closely linked with changing client needs, cyclic government interest and funding, and the social concerns in a given historical period" (p. 7), and it is in the last area where positive psychology may fit into programs. The recent licensure legislation includes the expectation that the practice "evaluates and facilitates human growth and adjustment throughout the life span" in its definition of professional counseling (PCA, 2000, p. 6). Positive psychology reflects the similar priority of encouraging growth.

Traditional counseling may not always be the best fit for clients, a notion that may signal change in the counseling profession. In their community counseling model, Lewis et al. (1998) encouraged practitioners "to move beyond the traditional individual-intrapsychic-remedial model" that has dominated the profession for the past half century (p. xvi). They contended that a paradigm shift in the counseling profession requires changes in most counselors' thinking and behavior and cited four powerful forces that have shaped the counseling profession with respect to diverse cultures. First, there is increasing awareness and acceptance of contextual, ecological and systems theories. Second, advances in feminist psychology are in the forefront. Third, increases in multiculturalism are present. Last, there is an emergence of postmodern thinking. If indeed a paradigm shift is taking place, including the ideas of positive psychology would be a natural progression for counselor education training. This suggestion ties in with Lewis et al.'s (1998) vision of a 21<sup>st</sup> century counseling paradigm that is not only more extensive, but also more effective.

The area of research in studying favorable human behaviors could be another critical area for programs. Continuing research in positive psychology is being encouraged through programs such as the American Psychological Association's "Templeton Positive Psychology Prize," awarded to four top researchers to promote a science of human strengths (Azar, 2000). Perhaps the American Counseling Association could move in the similar vein by offering funding for counselor educators to examine more strength-based perspectives, particularly in the area of techniques and interventions.

According to Seligman and Csikszentmihalyi (2000), several characteristics have been found to ward off illness: courage, future mindedness, optimism, interpersonal skill, faith, work ethic, hope, honesty, perseverance, and insight. With this in mind, identify-

ing further ways to promote these items can become techniques that utilize positive psychology and build positive traits will become regular fare.

Similarly, there is movement afoot to measure positive mental health, with the Defensive Function Scale, which looks at mature defenses, such as altruism, suppression, humor, anticipation and sublimation (Vaillant, 2000). Demmitt, Rueth, and Berger (2000) created a holistic assessment set of axes that stressed client strengths. The first axis assesses clients' current coping strengths and abilities that would be used to address their current need. The second one examines clients' coping strengths as they pertained to one's defense mechanisms. This in turn would help to identify positive personality traits instead of dysfunctional traits and to assess clients' lifestyle strengths (e.g., values, spirituality, cultural assets, etc.). The third axis includes positive aspects of overall physical health and health care habits, instead of assessing medical illness and family disorders. The fourth axis investigates a people's support system and focusing on the positives of their environment, rather than assessing for negative stressors. Finally, the last axis looks at clients' current goals and tools along with guiding questions to guide them in making positive choices, instead of assessing a stigmatized scale member for diagnosing current dysfunction.

Finally, the incorporation of positive psychology into counseling programs fits well with an integration of humanistic constructs such as self-determination and self-actualization. Ryan and Deci (2000) contended that the former highlights the importance of the evolution of humans' inner resources for personality development and behavioral self-regulation. Training future counselors in the paradigm of positive psychology may well promote the perception of clients as being more resilient than some traditional counseling models propose.

As pioneers of positive psychology, Seligman and Czikszentmihalyi (2000) have touted its mission as beginning to "catalyze a change in the focus of psychology..." (p. 5). Such a shift may prompt similar effects in other mental health professions, and it is with this in mind that counselor education programs are encouraged to listen to positive psychology in the training of future counselors to study, focus, and promote clients' most favorable behaviors. Whether or not positive psychology amounts to a significant mental health trend may be irrelevant, for it may simply serve as a reminder for professional counselors to keep such ideas in mind.

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# **Exploring the Complexities of Measuring Multicultural Competencies of Counselors in Training**

*Jan Arminio  
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*This article presents several assessment tools for measuring multicultural learning outcomes. It also gives an example of the incongruent information these tools provide. This incongruent information is validated in the literature. The authors explore possible reasons for the incongruent results of this complex phenomenon and suggest means by which counselor educators can continue to improve multicultural learning.*

## **Introduction**

**T**here has been much written in the counseling literature insisting that counselors be multiculturally competent (Arredondo, 1999; Atkinson & Hackett, 1995; Helms, 1993, 1996; Pedersen, 1996; Robinson & Howard-Hamilton, 2000; Sue, Ivey, & Pedersen, 1996; and Sue & Sue, 1990; Vontross, 1996). To this end many authors have urged counselor education programs to ensure that their students have sufficient coursework and training experiences necessary to serve the diverse populations of the U. S. (Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999; DeLucia-Waack, 1996; Locke & Kiselica, 1999; and Pack-Brown, 1999). Yet, it is not clear how much coursework and training experiences is sufficient to ensure students are multiculturally competent. Moreover, it is not clear what the best method is to measure the multicultural learning outcomes of counseling students.

This article provides an example of and measures used to assess multicultural learning outcomes of a frequent training and educational model. This research adds to the available literature by exposing the complexities and nuances in measuring multicultural learning outcomes of counselors in training.

## **Literature Review**

In response to the calls for multiculturally competent counselors, many counselor education programs have attempted to ensure their graduates are multiculturally competent by creating multicultural courses. Additionally, there have been efforts to encourage counselor educators to increase discussions of the influences of culture and other identity factors (gender, race, disability, sexual orientation) as well as oppression in all counseling classes, training, and internship experiences.

According to Banks (1991) there are several approaches educators take in including multicultural content into the curriculum. The most commonly used is the "contributions approach" (p. 23). This approach adds "ethnic heroes" or "an appendage"

(p. 23) to courses already in the curriculum. There is no attempt to transform the curriculum to allow students to gain a comprehensive view of non-dominant group experiences in the U. S. The second approach is the “additive approach.” Like the previous approach, this approach does not transform the curriculum, but adds some “content, concepts, and issues” to the curriculum. This is usually accomplished by dealing with a multicultural topic on one particular day or adding a particular book or unit to the curriculum. Multicultural content is added in greater amount than the previous method, but not through restructuring the curriculum.

A third approach is the “transformation approach” (p. 24). This approach differs from the previous two in that the curriculum is restructured or “transformed” to enable “students to view concepts, issues, themes, and problems from several ethnic perspectives and points of view.... [T]he infusion of various perspectives...will extend students’ understandings of the nature, development, and complexity of the United States and the world” (p. 24).

The fourth and Banks’ final approach is the “social action approach,” which includes all of the other approaches as well as “requires students to take action and make decisions” regarding material they have learned in the curriculum.

Adding a multicultural course to the counseling curriculum would be an example of Banks’ second approach or “additive approach” to a counselor education curriculum. Discussing how culture influences counseling in every class would be an example of the transformative approach. Requiring students to take action toward eliminating oppression (i.e., participating in a race dialogue group; facilitating a study group on hate, privilege, or power; joining a social justice service-learning project) is an example of the social action approach. The focus of the current study is a model where there is a required “stand-alone” multicultural course offered plus faculty are encouraged to transform all courses so that a variety of perspectives are infused into course material. Plus, students are encouraged to apply multicultural competencies in their internships.

The literature recommends that the following course content be addressed in a stand-alone multicultural course and/or transformed into other courses: racial identity development (Helms, 1990, 1995; Sue & Sue, 1990, Tatum, 1996), the influence of culture (Ortiz & Rhoads, 2000), descriptions and life experiences of various cultural groups including racial groups, gender, sexual orientation, and disability (Atkinson & Hackett, 1995; Robinson & Howard-Hamilton, 2000; Sue, Ivey, & Pederson, 1996; Sue & Sue 1990), White racism and other biases (Arminio, 2000; Pack-Brown, 1999, Sleeter, 1996), power and privilege (McIntosh, 1997), and multicultural counseling theory (Sue, Ivey, & Pedersen, 1996; DeLucia-Waak, 1996). Moreover, being adequately skilled in applying this course content with diverse populations is deemed necessary to become multiculturally competent. This course content and its application is often divided into awareness and knowledge of one’s own culture and of other cultures, plus the ability to apply appropriate cultural intervention skills (Pedersen, 1994).

## **Methodology**

The purpose of this study was to measure the multicultural learning outcomes of a CACREP accredited graduate counseling program that requires a stand-alone course and encourages faculty to transform course content to enable “students to view concepts, issues, themes, and problems from several ethnic perspectives and points of view” (Banks, 1991, p. 23). Specifically, the questions this study sought to answer were:

- Is there a statistically significant increase in knowledge of multicultural content (racial identity development, influence of culture on making meaning, descriptions and life experiences of various cultural groups including racial groups, White racism and other biases, power and privilege, and multicultural counseling theory) learned from a stand-alone multicultural course?
- What salient learning remains one year after the stand-alone course?
- Did students find that multicultural issues were transformed into other courses across the curriculum? If so, did that increase multicultural learning?
- Did students' discrimination attitudes decrease through the stand-alone course and other course work over a two-year period?

This study took place in a CACREP accredited graduate program in the mid-Atlantic region over a two-year period, 1999-2001. Approximately 40 graduate students participated in some aspect of the study. Participants were predominately White and the majority were women. Participants were not asked to identify their race or gender due to small numbers of People of Color and men. It was hoped that by not asking for this information the fear of being identified would be alleviated. Consequently, more students would participate and participate honestly.

In regards to the first question, the acquisition of multicultural course content of the stand-alone course was measured through a pretest/posttest model using an adapted instrument created by Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999. Their instrument was a self-assessment (i.e., I am aware of general nonverbal communication attributes of each of the five major racial groups in the U. S.) that was altered to a scored instrument (i.e., List general nonverbal communication attributes of each of the five major racial groups in the U. S.). Only those items in the Holcomb-McCoy study that could be easily verified in the multicultural counseling literature were used in this current study (see Appendix A). The pretest was administered the first day of class during for two 2000 summer classes (one web based and the other a traditional face-to-face class) and again in the 2000 Fall traditional class. The posttest was given the last day of those classes. Forty-six students participated in this portion of the study.

To address the second research question, salient learning one year after the stand-alone course was assessed through a short answer survey based on one created by multicultural professors at the University of Maryland (McEwen, 1999). This survey was mailed to students one calendar year after they had taken the traditional face-to-face multicultural course (see appendix B). These were mailed at the end of the Fall 1999 and the Spring 2000 semesters to 46 students. Note that students were encouraged to take the course in the beginning of the counseling program.

To measure research questions three and four graduate students were asked to take the Quick Discrimination Survey (QDI) (also known as the Social Attitudes Scale) by Ponterotto (1995) at an orientation session during the Fall semester 1999 when these students were just beginning their graduate courses. The QDI is a 30 item five point Likert-type self-report measure of cognitive and affective attitudes toward race and gender equity. The instrument itself is titled "Social Attitude Survey" to control for some forms of response bias. The QDI underwent three coordinated studies to examine reliability and validity. All three studies found the QDI to be both valid and internally consistent. The first study found that the Cronbach's alpha for 25 items was .89. With the exception of two items the corrected item-total correlation was .45. The

coefficient of variation for the QDI was 13.4%, falling within the 5% to 15% range recommended by Davis (as cited by Ponderotto, Burkhard, Reiger, Grieger, D'onofrio, Dubuisson, Heenehan, Millstein, Parisi, Rath, & Sax, 1995). In the second study, Cronbach's alpha for the 30-item QDI was .88. Twenty-seven of the 30 items had corrected item-total correlations in the .23 to .62 range; the mean correlated item-total correlation was .42. The coefficient of variation was 12.8%, within the recommended range of Davis (as cited in Ponterotto et al., 1995). The third study found the Cronbach's alpha for the QDI total score .88. This matches closely with the results in the second study (Ponterotto et al., 1995). More current studies place the Cronbach alpha as low as .65 (Liu, 2001). Yet, this remains acceptable.

The QDI was given again to graduate students in February, 2001 in their capstone courses. In addition to the QDI, students were asked to check which statement best described their experiences in most of their classes:

- Issues of culture or diversity were added to the traditional material like an appendix.
- Issues of culture and diversity were added to class content and concepts.
- Issues of culture or diversity were fused into the class so that material was presented from several cultural perspectives or points of view.
- I was required to take action and make decisions based on differing perspectives covered.

Plus students were asked whether they had substantial multicultural or diversity training recently (defined as four or more sessions in the past year) outside of their graduate program.

## Results

Results from the three pretest/posttest measures assessing the multicultural course content indicated that there was a statistically significant gain. Posttest scores improved 25 points for the web course, 31 points for the summer 2000 course, and 27 points for the fall 2000 course.

**Table 1**

Comparison of Pre test Post test Means				
Group	Pretest mean	Posttest mean	Sig.(2 tailed)	t
Sum web 2000	55	80.2	.001*	-4.958
Sum 2000	44.69	75.88	.000*	-7.649
Fall 2000	49.55	76.5	.000*	-8.479

p<.01

\* statistically significant

Interestingly, the pretest and posttest mean scores between the web-based course and the traditional face to face courses were higher, but not statistically significant.

Though 46 students were sent the short answer survey to assess salient learning one year after they had taken the required multicultural course in Fall of 1999 and Spring

2000, only 18 surveys were returned for a 39% return rate. Only one survey was negative in nature. Its author felt strongly that the instructor had a "clear agenda" for the course and would not tolerate differentiating student opinions. Eight students stated that salient learning gained from the course was about themselves in general and their own biases in particular. Six students noted the perceptions of other cultures as salient, and five noted Helms' theory of racial identity as being salient. Six commented that a negative aspect of the course was the unwillingness of some students to participate in class. Respondents felt that the lack of honest dialogue took away from the potential learning of the course. One student mentioned the lack of integration of multicultural concepts into other courses as a barrier to potential multicultural learning.

A chi square analysis comparing the total scores of the pre and posttest QDI indicated that students did not significantly improve their cognitive and affective attitudes toward race and gender. In fact, scores decreased over the two-year period in which students were enrolled in the graduate program.

**Table 2**

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**Comparison of the Pre and Posttest QDI Total Mean Scores**

Pretest mean	119.47
Posttest mean	113.22
Pearson Chi Square	.583

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p<.01

Of the 32 participants who took the QDI posttest, 4 believed that in most of their classes issues of culture or diversity were added to traditional material as an appendix (total QDI mean score 110); 21 believed issues of culture and diversity were added to class content and concepts (total QDI mean score 113); 4 believed that issues of culture and diversity were fused into the class so that material was presented from several cultural perspectives or points of view (total QDI mean score 119); and 3 believed that they were required to take action and make decisions based on differing perspectives covered (total QDI mean score 113). None of these mean scores were statistically significantly different.

Seven students stated that they did receive substantial training outside of their academic graduate program. Their total mean score for the QDI was 114. Twenty-four students stated that did not receive substantial training. Their mean QDI score was 112. These mean scores were not significantly different.

**Discussion**

How is one to make sense of this seemingly inconsistent data? What is happening here when students are learning significantly new coursework (as evidenced by the multicultural course pre and posttest scores) but this course content is not being translated into cognitive and affective attitudes toward race and gender equity (as evidenced by the lack of improvement on the QDI pre and posttest scores)? One explanation could be that when students first took the pretest they felt more pressured to give "socially acceptable answers." Then, when they took the posttest toward the end of their graduate program they were more aware of their biases (as evidenced by the surveys that asked students to

describe their salient learning from the multicultural course).

Also plausible, is that as students became more aware of their biases and internalized misinformation, they may have become defensive. Perhaps those students who did not return the survey sent to them one year after taking the multicultural course were still frustrated and defensive. This phenomenon may be described by Helms' (1990, 1995) theory of White racial identity development. This may be an example of White students' attitudes and behaviors moving from contact (naiveté about race) into disintegration (feeling guilty and defensive about the reality of racism). Researchers of rape prevention efforts have noted a similar phenomenon. Long term effects of rape prevention programs have been negligible due to defensiveness of participants (Berkowitz, 1994; Lenihan, Rawlings, Eberly, Buckley, & Masters, 1992).

Helms' (1990) notion of progressive racial identity relationships may be at play here as well. Helms suggested that when people of various racial identity development schemas interact a regressive, parallel, or progressive relationship results. In this current scenario it is possible that students (with less power and less complex racial identity) are interacting with faculty (with more power and perhaps in a more complex schema of racial identity). Therefore, after the multicultural course, students may come to experience "self-concept issues, and feelings of confusion and helplessness" (Helms, 1990, p. 143). Helms stated that if the person with less power (in this case a student) is at a less complex racial identity developmental schema then the student may at first appear to "resist instructional efforts" but over time if allowed "to express genuine thoughts and feelings," the resistance is not likely to be long term (p. 181).

It is also possible that multicultural issues are not integrated sufficiently into other courses for students to be able to internalize and apply multicultural attitudes and competencies. Only four students believed that multicultural or diversity issues were transformed into other courses and only three believed that most of their classes required them to take action based on the differing perspectives.

It is also interesting to compare the QDI total mean scores of this sample to a sample of undergraduate sorority women during the same time period at the same institution. The total QDI mean score for this sample was 107 immediately after a significant multicultural experience (Raukar, 1999). This is lower than the graduate counseling students' total QDI scores, but not significantly.

## **Implications**

Clearly, the counseling profession has deemed multicultural competencies as critical to ethical and sound practice. Thus, counselor education programs must be diligent in measuring multicultural learning outcomes. It is recommended, however, that when seeking to measure longer term effects students should be assessed three to five years after a multicultural training experience rather than after only one. This may better determine whether defensiveness or dissonance after the multicultural course is temporary. It may also shed light as to whether salient multicultural learning can be internalized after dissonance has dissipated. Measures should be both quantitative and qualitative (Counseling for the Advancement of Standards, 1999) and include measures that assess knowledge, awareness, and skills before training, immediately after training, and several years after training.

To ensure sound information, random samples with respectable return rates to eliminate sample error must be achieved. Counselor educators must be diligent to ensure

that information is not from only samples of convenience.

Faculty in graduate preparation programs must be intentional about transforming multicultural perspectives into the curriculum. This current study demonstrates that though faculty may intend a curriculum to be transformed students do not experience it as such. Criteria for assessing whether course content is transformed throughout the curriculum should be created and courses assessed appropriately. Without a confirmed transformed curriculum a multicultural stand-alone course may be the best way (and perhaps the only way) for students to gain multicultural competencies.

Additionally, efforts to diversify counseling faculty are critical. Certainly transforming a curriculum is difficult if not impossible without a diverse faculty. It is through diverse faculty that counselor educators can become aware on a personal level of how they and their courses remain ethnocentric.

Counselors must be willing to facilitate and advocate for increased training outside of academic preparation. Clearly, it is unrealistic to expect that long-held biases can be transformed in one semester or even over a two-year period. On-going training and development after graduation is also required. With consistent intentional efforts including a required multicultural course, diverse faculty, a curriculum of multiculturally transformed courses, and regular additional training there will be a greater chance for multiculturally competent counselors to serve the increasing diverse client population.

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**Appendix A**  
**Multicultural Competency Assessment**  
**Post-test**

1. Describe your ethnic/cultural background?
2. Name at least two ways that your cultural background has influenced your attitudes about health.
3. Describe how your culture has influenced the way you think.
4. Describe how you can recognize when your attitudes, beliefs, or values are interfering with your practice.
5. Give an example of how you would verbally communicate your acceptance of someone from another culture than yours.
6. Give an example of how you would nonverbally communicate your acceptance of someone from a culture other than yours.
7. Define racism.
8. Define prejudice.
9. Define race.
10. Define stereotype.
11. Identify a bias in your communication style.
12. Identify a controlling image (negative mythical image perpetuated by mass media).
13. Give an example of a stereotype that influences your practice.
14. Give an example of a nonverbal communication cue and how it might be interpreted differently by more than one cultural group.
15. Give an example of a verbal communication cue and how it might be interpreted differently by more than one cultural group.
16. Discuss the racial identity development schema of a counselor/teacher and client/student multi-racial dyad that would be likely to evolve into a productive interaction.
17. Give an example of the influences of intersecting oppressions.
18. Give an example of how culture influences vocational choices.

19. List three barriers that prevent underrepresented groups to use helping services.
20. Name several interventions you are skilled in that you could use to assist clients/students in addressing a problem? With what cultural group(s) would they most likely be effective?
21. Discuss bias concerns in multicultural counseling research.
22. Discuss general verbal communication attributes of each of the five major racial groups in the US.
23. Discuss general nonverbal communication attributes of each of the five major racial groups in the US.
24. In what way/s would you assess as to whether a helping intervention was working?
25. How would you determine if a concern truly involved injustice?

**Appendix B**  
**Multicultural Counseling One-Year Learning Assessment**

1. What did you learn from the Multicultural Counseling course that has been most helpful or salient for you?
2. How different or similar are the things you learned as you reflect on them now versus while taking the course and immediately after taking the course?
3. What was difficult for you in class?
4. Did the course “plant some seeds?” If so what were they?
5. In reflecting upon the course, what would you suggest to improve it?

Other comments:

# **The Team: Explorations in Group Process**

*by Charles Kormanski*

*Book Review by Rhonda Myers*

**G**roup work has enormous potential to effect change in a wide variety of settings, including counseling services, education, and business. As key figures in facilitating the dynamics of change, group leaders need to understand and utilize group process functions for maximum results. Attention to both task and relationship components is critical to successful group work.

*The Team* provides a thorough introduction to group work and successfully integrates group and organizational development models with theories about motivation, power, and personality in the group process. Kormanski skillfully weaves together the components of groups and group leadership in an interesting and readable manner.

The book begins by introducing four fictional characters that offer different perspectives to group process and function. Grace, Alex, Irma, and Ron bring a personal perspective to the subject and provide continuity throughout the chapters. As they join together to study groups and group processes, they become “the Team.” Additionally, through discussion of case examples, each character introduces groups at different stages of development. The reader is led through the concepts of group work as their story unfolds.

Chapter one makes the distinction that all teams are groups, but the reverse is not necessarily true. Teams are distinguished from groups by their focus on goals, commitment, interdependence, and accountability. Challenges that face teams include blending different personalities and capitalizing on the strengths each brings to the group, and developing the ability to think both operationally and strategically—to give attention to the here-and-now as well as the future.

Chapter two describes group development models and provides examples of each in action. Kormanski details Tuckman’s developmental sequences (forming, storming, norming, performing, and adjourning); Bion’s Assumption groups (dependent, fight-flight, pairing) and their themes of dependency, conflict, cohesiveness, and performance; Schutz’s revised Fundamental Interpersonal Relations Orientation (FIRO) model (gaining inclusion, gaining control, gaining openness, giving up control, giving up conclusion); and Lacoursiere’s group life cycle (orientation, dissatisfaction, resolution, production, and termination). Attention is also given to the sequential, developmental, and thematic patterns to group development.

The team encounters change and conflict in chapter three. They recognize the value of conflict in creating energy for growth, and explore the nature and causes of conflict. Leadership skills in transactional and transformational leadership, vision casting, and empowerment are emphasized. As well, strategies for managing conflict, such as authority, compromise, consensus, suppression, and withdrawal, are offered.

A discussion of leadership components, skills, and styles ensues in chapters four and five. Using Tuckman’s group stages, the author provides functional, managerial, and leadership skills necessary for each stage. Likewise, motivation is explored through a pair-

ing of Maslow's hierarchy with group stages. The author uses the same framework to examine the use of power from both the leader and group member positions. A strength of this text is the application of various theories to the stages of group development in a easily comprehensible fashion.

Chapters six and seven focus on team building and diversity considerations. Kormanski and Mozenter's team building model features measurable task and relationship outcomes for each group stage. A Team Development Rating Scale, developed by Kormanski and Mozenter to assess performance outcomes, is provided as well. The author provides research results that describe patterns of team development and suggests interventions to facilitate the group process. Interventions may be necessary to help establish group structure, manage conflict, provide support, encourage sufficient risk-taking, and navigate closure issues.

Social, gender, racial, and sexual identity theories are explored for their impact on group dynamics. Kormanski describes the developmental sequence of each theory and the potential challenges teams encounter with individuals at different identity stages. In addition, temperament and type theories add yet another layer to the complex dynamics of group work.

The final chapters examine team performance in four case studies involving different contexts and challenges. The cases highlight the critical tasks at each of Tuckman's group stages. The author emphasizes the importance of team collaboration in constructing a process model, identifying strengths, weaknesses, and environmental trends, and doing goal setting and vision casting.

*The Team* will appeal to counselors engaged with task groups in a number of settings, including private practice and school counseling. Anyone involved in committee work, and those interested in becoming more effective group leaders will benefit as well. Graduate students will find this book offers a comprehensive introduction to the concepts and processes of groups and dynamic group leadership.

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Generally, authors may expect a decision regarding a manuscript within 2 months of acknowledgement of receipt. Following are guidelines for developing and submitting a manuscript.

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