The relationship between racial attitudes, ego developmental level and multicultural counseling knowledge and awareness in school psychologists

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RACIAL ATTITUDES, 
EGO DEVELOPMENTAL LEVEL AND MULTICULTURAL COUNSELING 
KNOWLEDGE AND AWARENESS 
IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS

A Dissertation
Presented to
The Faculty of the School of Education
The College of William and Mary in Virginia

In Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree of
Doctor of Philosophy

By
Valerie K. McDonald
March, 2006
THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RACIAL ATTITUDES,
EGO DEVELOPMENTAL LEVEL AND MULTICULTURAL COUNSELING
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Valerie K. McDonald

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Dr. Thomas J. Ward, Ph.D.
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Dedication

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RACIAL ATTITUDES, 
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Abstract 

The purpose of this study was to explore the relationships between racial attitudes, perceived multicultural counseling competence and attained levels of ego development in practicing school psychologists. Cognitive development, specifically Loevinger's theory of ego development was used as the theoretical foundation for this study. The respondents consisted of 86 practicing school psychologists who were drawn randomly for the 2005 membership of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP). Respondents completed the Social Scale (SS), Social Scenarios Scale (SSS), the Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT) and the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS) in addition to a Demographic survey. Data analysis consisted of descriptive statistics, Pearson's product moment correlations and multiple regression.

Statistically significant relationships were found to exist between school psychologist's racial attitudes and multicultural counseling competence. Multicultural awareness was significantly related to racial attitudes and a willingness to confront discrimination. In addition, those school psychologists who had more multicultural training perceived themselves as having greater multicultural counseling knowledge. The ego developmental level of practicing school psychologists was not found to be significantly correlated with racial attitudes or perceived multicultural counseling competence.

The results from this research provide a greater understanding of the role of racial
attitudes and multicultural counseling competence in practicing school psychologists. This study's findings also underscore the importance of experiential learning to develop multicultural counseling competence. Specifically, the results help to illuminate the need to apply new strategies in multicultural courses that promote cognitive development in school psychology trainees. This information can be used to improve school psychology training programs and professional development. Additional suggestions for research and practice are provided.

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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN RACIAL ATTITUDES,
EGO DEVELOPMENTAL LEVEL AND MULTICULTURAL COUNSELING
KNOWLEDGE AND AWARENESS
IN SCHOOL PSYCHOLOGISTS
Chapter One

Introduction

The problems of injustice, discrimination and the resulting social conflict continue to plague American society. These problems do not stop at the doorsteps of our schools. Despite those who would like education to focus solely on scholastic aptitude, schools have always been places where societal values are transmitted and prejudices of all kinds routinely addressed. Specialists within the schools can help to address issues of discrimination. School psychologists are ideally situated to facilitate these changes. As mental health professionals, school psychologists would understand the effects of racism, discrimination and prejudice thus play a critical role in making school culturally sensitive environments for all students. Specific job responsibilities and student issues must be handled differently based on the student’s cultural identity (Lee, 1995; Gerler, 1991). Multiculturalism poses formidable challenges to the school psychologist who must adapt traditional strategies to suit the needs of diverse students and who must collaborate with all involved in the school system to promote cultural understanding (Sanchez, 1995; Gerler, 1991). However, research has revealed the ineffectiveness of traditional skills-based models of instruction and supervision for various professional disciplines at promoting the ability to sort through complicated interactions and select the appropriate technique to use (Evans & Foster, 2000; Rest, 1986; Glassberg & Sprinthall, 1980; Sprinthall & Bernier, 1979; Oja & Sprinthall, 1978). What appears to be lacking is a focus on the individual characteristics of the school psychologists with regard to competency with multicultural concerns, such as one’s level of cognitive complexity, need for structured learning environments, preferred style of learning, degree of flexibility in situations, and tolerance of ambiguity. These characteristics vary from person to person, thus impacting the conceptualization of multicultural knowledge, awareness and skill in different ways. Previous research has focused on the cognitive
processes of counselors and other helping professionals such as nurses and physicians (Rest & Narvaez, 1994). Many studies have substantiated the connection between counselor behavior and cognitive development showing that counselors at higher levels of development perform more effectively (Duket & Ryden, 1994; Peace, 1994; Labouvie-Vief, Hakim-Larson, & Hobart, 1987; Holloway & Wampold, 1986; Loevinger, 1977; Hunt, 1975). Specifically related to multicultural competencies, cognitive development addresses perspective taking, critical thinking, and openness to conflicting perspectives, all of which are necessary for sensitivity to issues of diversity and culturally sensitive counseling (Adams, 2002; Vogt, 1997; Hoare, 1991). Vogt (1997) describes a link between cognitive development and tolerance for others stating that higher stages of cognitive development are needed to reject stereotypes that have been learned through socialization and to recognize the broad social consequences of oppression and discrimination. However, up to this point, no empirical research has been conducted on the link between school psychologist’s cognitive development and their perspectives and perceived competencies for addressing the needs of diverse students. The proposed study will investigate the relationship between school psychologist’s cognitive development, specifically ego development, on their multicultural awareness, and knowledge and perceived multicultural counseling competence.

This chapter will provide an overview of the pertinent issues related to this topic, including racial and cultural demographics in the United States, prevailing social issues impacting students and families from minority cultures, challenges facing school psychologists, and current school psychologist training approaches. Additionally, the cognitive developmental paradigm will be introduced. Ego development will be elaborated upon as a framework for understanding individual differences in adults’ conceptualization of multicultural counseling competence. Chapter one concludes with a summary of the study’s framework will be provided.
Chapter two offers a selected review of relevant literature and chapter three describes the research design.

**Statement of the Problem**

Hate crimes and other prejudicial acts continue to be present in American society (Human Rights Watch, 2001). Allport (1954, as cited in Gaines & Reed, 1995) in his seminal work on prejudice identified several mechanisms that appear to underlie prejudice. These personal characteristics include the extent to which an individual engages in dichotomous thinking, and conforms to social order or ideologies of authority figures. Cognitive developmental theorists such as Kohlberg (1975), Hunt (1977), Loevinger (1975), Perry (1971) and Kegan (1982) also see these issues as central to understanding the process by which individuals make moral or ethical decisions. Despite gains made in the fields of psychology, counseling and social justice, school psychology graduate training programs have had little success at developing tolerance and promoting systematic change (Kearns, Ford & Brown, 2002; Rogers, Hoffman & Wade, 1998). In order to better prepare school psychologists to meet these challenges, a developmental approach may be in order for use by graduate training programs.

**Racial and Cultural Demographics**

School psychologists are faced with the challenges of working with increasingly diverse student populations. The United States is considered to have the most diversity of any country in the world (Whitfield, 1994). The racial and cultural composition on the United States continues to change. In a study of cross-cultural competence, Rogers & Lopez (2002) included many marginalized groups in their definition of “diverse group members.” Diverse group members refers to African Americans/Blacks, Asian Americans, Hispanics/Latinos, Native American Indians, Pacific Islanders, bilinguals, biracials, and English Language Learners. In addition, individuals representing other diverse ‘cultural’ groups such as gender, socioeconomic status and
sexual minorities were also included in the definition (Rogers & Lopez, 2002). For the purposes of this discussion the Rogers and Lopez (2002) definition will be used as well.

Projections of the United States population into the 21st century indicate that minority groups will experience a substantial rate of growth due to higher birth rates and an increase in non-European immigration. The White population of European origin will decline significantly. Between 1980 and 1990, the rate of increase in the number of White Americans was 6%, while the rate of increase for racial and ethnic minorities was much higher: 53% for Hispanics, 13.2% for African Americans and 107.8% for Asians (NCES, 2003). The U.S. Department of Commerce (2002) projects that by 2050; racial and ethnic minorities will make up approximately 50% of the U.S. population. It is speculated that the African American population will increase from 12% to 16% while the White population is expected to decrease from 72% to 53%.

In terms of the current gay and lesbian population in America, the most reliable estimates range from 10 to 20 percent of the population (Bell & Weinberg, 1978; Darty & Potter, 1984). This translates into an estimate of 20 to 25 million gay, lesbian, bisexual and transgender (GLBT) individuals in the United States (House & Miller, 1997). For the first time, the 2000 U.S. Census is providing a look at gay demographics and same-sex households. In an analysis of this data, Gates and Ost (2004) revealed that same-sex couple households are present in 99% of counties nationwide, totaling 1.2 million individuals. One in four gay households has children, and more than one in ten gay homes have a senior over 65. It is essential that mental health practitioners be prepared to serve this diverse population.

Changes in the overall United States population are also reflected in the school-age population. Given the dynamic nature of the United States population, forecasts project that by the year 2020 the majority of school-age children in the United States will be from ethnic minority groups (Lee, 1996). Almost 10 million children speak a native language other than
English. The widely quoted estimate that 10% of the U.S. population is made up of gay and
lesbian individuals indicates that approximately 3,000,000 youth between 10 and 20 years of age
are either predominantly or exclusively homosexual (Deisher, 1989; Marinoble, 1998). When
bisexual and transgender students are included, this population represents a large minority within
the school psychologist’s purview warranting attention. In a more recent study by the Human
Rights Watch (2001), estimates place the number at more than two million lesbian, gay, bisexual,
and transgender youth of school age living in the United States.

Changes in the composition of student enrollment can alter the cultural climate in
schools. Although differences in student backgrounds offer opportunities to enhance the learning
environment, these differences can also raise challenges for schools. Knowledge of the shifting
cultural distribution in schools can be helpful when responding to these changing conditions
(NCES, 2002). More than ever before, students in today’s schools come from a variety of racial,
ethnic, experiential and linguistic backgrounds (Ysseldyke, et al., 1997) and many are
experiencing difficulties. These factors contribute to increasing concerns about the ability of
school psychologists to serve the school age population.

School Psychologists in American Schools

School psychologists are mental health professionals who help children and youth
overcome barriers to success in school, at home, and in life. School psychologists help children
and youth succeed academically, socially and emotionally. They team with educators, parents
and other mental health professionals to create safe, healthy, and supportive learning
environments (NASP, 2002). School psychologists have training in education and psychology
that affords them a broad range of skills and enables them to engage in prevention and
intervention activities to foster tolerance and understanding of diversity. Additionally, school
psychologists take part in consultation with school personnel and families about student learning
and behavior. The conduct psycho-educational assessments of cognitive ability, academic
skills, social-emotional development and use the results of these assessments to help determine
eligibility for special services. School psychologists may provide individual, group and family
counseling.

In the year 2000, estimates place the number of school psychologists between 25,000 and
30,000 (Fagan, 2002; Reschly, 2000). Today, the majority of school psychologists are White,
female and approaching retirement (Curtis, Grier, Abshier, & Sutton, 2001). Persons of color
have been underrepresented throughout the history of school psychology (Reschly, 2000.) In a
2000 National Association of School Psychologists (NASP) study of 2,052 school psychologists,
Curtis et al. (2001) found 92.8 % of them to be White, leaving only 7.2% from all ethnic
minority groups. This study also found that during the 1999-2000 school year, approximately
70% of all school psychologists were female. Minority representation among school
psychologists remains low. Less than 2% of school psychologists come from African American
descent. Just 3.1% of school psychologists are Hispanic, and only slightly more than one-half of
1% are Asian/Pacific Islander (Curtis et al., 2002). No data is available on the number of GLBT
school psychologists.

Considering that over 92% of all school psychologists are white (Curtis et al., 2001) and
that 39% of the school age population is a member of a racial minority group (NCES, 2003), it
stands to reason that majority culture school psychologists will interact with diverse students.
The percentage of gay/lesbian school psychologists is unknown, making a similar comparison
impossible at this time. Despite these challenges, school psychologists must meet the needs of
all students. It is important to recognize both the demands inherent in the school psychologist’s
job as well as the unique needs of diverse student populations in order to understand how
challenging this task can be.
Meeting the needs of racial and sexual minority students is challenging in light of the daunting obstacles facing school psychologists today. Specifically, school psychologists contend with high numbers of special education evaluations and increased participation in prevention/intervention activities (Curtis et al, 2001). School psychologists develop programs to train teachers and parents regarding effective techniques to manage behavior at home and in the classroom. School psychologists work with students with disabilities and provide training on a wide variety of topics such as substance abuse, eating disorders and anger management, and assist in preventing and managing crises (NASP, 2003).

Over the course of any given school year, a school psychologist may be asked to consult with school personnel and/or parents from racially or culturally different backgrounds. Pertinent issues may include the lack of academic progress of a limited-English proficient student, the adjustment issues of a gay or lesbian student or the behavioral difficulties of an African American student (Nuijens & Lopez, 2004). Nonetheless, school psychologists must meet the needs of all the students they serve. In light of the current issues facing students today, this is no easy task.

Racial and Sexual Minority Student Experiences

Given the growing diversity in the U.S. student population, and that the majority of school psychologists are not from diverse cultural groups, culturally competent practices are prerequisite to addressing the needs of all students (NASP, 2002). Students from diverse cultural backgrounds may be susceptible to a wide range of influences that may contribute to school difficulties, including discrimination, poverty, language barriers and sexual identity development.

Poverty is a problem that many students experience in their daily lives, but may not be readily apparent to school personnel. Compared to 34% of African Americans and 21% of
Hispanics, only 18% of White children currently live below the poverty level (Policy Studies Institute, 2003). This is disconcerting because while the number of Whites and African Americans living in poverty has decreased, the number of impoverished Hispanics has not changed since 1999 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2002). Forty percent of all 4th-graders were eligible for the free or reduced-price lunch program in 2003, including 70% of African American students, 71% of Hispanic students, and 23% of White students. This reflects a larger percentage of Black and Hispanic than White 4th-graders from low-income families in 2003 (U.S. Department of Commerce, 2002). The U.S. Census Bureau (2000) indicates that individuals with no high school diploma are two times more likely to require welfare.

One fourth of all adolescents are at risk for substance abuse, crime, unprotected sex, and/or academic failure (Rubenstein and Zager, 1995). Many students are suspended from school for a variety of reasons but minority students are suspended at higher rates than would be expected in the general population. According to the U.S. Department of Education, 15% of White students had ever been suspended or expelled in grades 7-12 compared to 35% of African American students and 20% of Hispanic students. Considering that current research shows suspension is positively correlated with later troubles such as delinquency, dropping-out, and substance abuse, alternative interventions should be sought (NASP, 2002).

Social forces impact the lives of racial and ethnic minority students. The result is both intentional and unintentional racism (Lee, 1982). Lee (1982) explains that the impact of social forces, negative self-identity and a non-supportive educational system often result in poor achievement and social emotional difficulties among minority students. Subsequent studies have shown that academic problems in racial and sexual minority students may be due to learning problems or a lack of study skills, and test-taking skills (Herek, 2000). Social emotional problems may result from intense feelings of vulnerability, anger, poor self-concept and
depression, and difficult interpersonal relations (Lee, 1982; Herek, 2000).

English Language Learners (ELL) constitute a significant percentage of the population of our schools. The National Center for Education Statistics (NCES) estimates that from 1979 to 1999, the population of 5 to 24 year olds increased by 6 percent (NCES, 2002). In contrast, the percentage who spoke a language other than English at home increased by 118% during this period, and the percentage who spoke a language other than English at home and who spoke English with difficulty increased by 110% (NCES, 2002). Of those who spoke a language other than English at home in 1999, one-third spoke English with difficulty. Spanish was most frequently spoken by 5- to 24-year-olds who spoke a language other than English at home (72 %) and by those who spoke English with difficulty (78 %) (NCES, 2002). Language minority students have a high dropout rate and are also among the lowest in academic achievement (Thompson, 2000). ELL students are over referred for special education evaluations. Figueroa (1989) found that ELL students were frequently were tested with English versions of standardized assessments and subsequently identified as learning disabled. These students were then misplaced in special education.

Sexual minority students experience social pressures as well. Herring and Furgerson (2000) identified several issues surrounding of sexual orientation difficulties at school. These include misunderstanding and misinformation, invisibility, identity development, lack of support systems, family problems, and violence. The Gay, Lesbian and Straight Education Network (GLSEN) conducted a survey of 887 self-reported sexual minority youth during the 2002-2003 school year. Students were asked about biased language in their schools, feelings of comfort and safety in school, and experiences of verbal, physical and sexual harassment based on sexual orientation, gender, gender expression, race/ethnicity, disability and religion. This study revealed a direct relationship between in-school victimization, grade-point averages and the college
aspirations of lesbian, gay, bisexual and transgender students. At the same time, more than 4 out of 5 sexual minority youth report being verbally, sexually or physically harassed at school because of their sexual orientation. The main limitation of this study is its sample which was drawn from two very different sources. The data were gathered from interviews with support group members and from internet responses. The data were combined and analyzed together. This greatly reduces the validity of this study. Despite its limitations, this study sheds light on the impact of sexual orientation issues for these students. Most school psychologists recognize the presence of students for whom issues of sexual orientation may be of utmost concern, yet those issues are not adequately addressed in many instances. Rather, school psychologists like most school personnel tend to avoid confronting sexual identity issues (Herring & Furgerson, 2000).

Justification for the Study

Prevailing Social Issues Impacting Diverse Cultural Groups

School psychologists are facing enormous professional challenges related to the critical social issues affecting students today. Thus school psychologists must understand the ways in which cultural differences influence how a child views and interacts with his or her environment, including how children learn and behave in school. In an attempt to understand this diversity and what it means in our lives, increasing discussion around issues regarding diversity and multiculturalism has emerged. Questions related to what people, especially people described as having minority status, have experienced in this society are being asked more frequently. The responses to these questions bring up the need to more fully address the kinds of oppression, racism, sexism, and heterosexism that students experience in schools (O'Connor, 1993). Oppression is defined in terms of prejudice and power, which is used by members of the dominant group to restrict non-dominant group member access to resources on individual, cultural and systemic levels (Chen-Hayes, 2000, Lewis & Arnold, 1998). Developing cultural
competence requires us to go beyond dominant values and explore the racism, sexism and heterosexism in our own behavior.

Heterosexism, as a cognitive construct, highlights important parallels between anti-LGBT sentiment and other forms of prejudice, such as racism, and sexism. These represent ideological systems that deny, denigrate, and stigmatize people based on their behavior, identity, relationships, or community (Collier, 1995, McGoldrick, 1988). Strategies to combat oppression are needed for school psychologists and indeed, all educators to be affirming of diverse youth and families in this context.

Sensitivity to a wide variety of attitudes and beliefs within themselves and externally can assist school psychologists to be aware of how bias could negatively effect interventions. Ideally, school psychologists will come to recognize their own biases, both intentional and unintentional, and come to appreciate diverse cultures in order to be an effective service provider (Carter & McGoldrick, 1999). Learning about distinct characteristics and varied experiences of culturally diverse groups may help to foster the provision of the more effective psychological services (Kiselica, 1998).

*Current Multicultural Training Approaches for School Psychologists*

In response to an urgent need to address the cultural diversity of students, counseling and psychology professional organizations have taken action. The National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2000), the American Psychological Association (APA, 2002), the American Counseling Association (ACA, 1995) and the American School Counselor Association (ASCA, 1999) are working to ensure that counselors and psychologists are provided with adequate training so that clients of culturally diverse backgrounds have access to appropriate services. Furthermore, school psychology (Rogers et al., 1999) and counseling (e.g., Sue, Arredondo & McDavis, 1992, Lewis & Hayes, 1991) professionals have encouraged the
integration of cultural knowledge, skills and attitudes into existing training programs. In order to prepare psychologists to work effectively with diverse populations in the schools, course work in cultural issues is needed. National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) calls for the inclusion of race, ethnicity and sexual orientation issues into training programs (NASP, 2000). However, NCATE does not clearly delineate how social and cultural issues are to be taught, and as a result, programs vary greatly. Some designate a specific course to multicultural training while others infuse it into course work throughout the program of study. Despite the recognition of this fact by professional organizations, school psychology training programs have not demonstrated success in preparing their graduate students to be multiculturally sound clinicians (Rogers, Ponterotto, Conoley & Wiese, 1992).

School psychology programs that are NCATE approved typically subscribe to multicultural training standards outlined by NASP Standards for Training and Field Placement Programs of School Psychology (NASP, 2000). The focus of these requirements tends to be primarily on attitudes, knowledge and skills. Attitudinal approaches typically address awareness of self and others, attitudes toward one’s own culture and the culture of others, and sensitivity to differences and similarities. Self-awareness also includes the exploration of one’s values, biases, and beliefs. Knowledge based approaches require school psychologists to have information on individual differences, abilities and disabilities and of the potential influence of biological, social, cultural, ethnic, experiential, socioeconomic, gender-related, and linguistic factors in development and learning (NASP, 2000). Skills based approaches focus on specific multicultural techniques and skills in prevention and intervention activities. School psychologists are required to demonstrate the skills needed to work with individuals of diverse characteristics and to implement strategies selected and/or adapted based on individual characteristics, strengths and needs (NASP, 2000). NASP endorses the use of self assessments to check for cultural
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competency. It is thought that through the cultural self-assessment process, school psychologists will be better able to see how their actions affect people from other cultures. This assumption is based on the premise that awareness leads to action, but this is not always the case.

One format in which the awareness, knowledge and skills are taught often consists of discussion, reading assignments, lecture, and expectation for self-disclosure. Didactic presentations, objective assessments, and submersion exercises are also used (Arredondo, 1999; Herring, 1997). In the past two decades, studies have documented an increase in programs that have incorporated an emphasis on cultural diversity into the curriculum in graduate school psychology programs as well as in internship settings (Constantine, et al., 1996; Lee et al., 1999; Ponteotto, 1997). This infusion is based both on the premise that multicultural and culture specific knowledge in education is effective in producing more competent researchers, therapists and practitioners (Fouda et al, 2002)

Specific models of training have emerged as well (Sue & Sue, 1990; Pederson, 1988). Consistent with the published professional standards and competencies, each of these training models stresses the importance of self-awareness, knowledge about diverse others, and culturally appropriate skills. Pederson and Ivey (1993) proposed three factors that may be related to cultural competence. These include: 1) an awareness of personal biases pertaining to diverse cultures, 2) knowledge of one’s own culture and the culture of others, 3) skills for working with diverse populations. The authors developed an eight-step model for increasing the ability of helping professionals to communicate with minority populations. The steps included in this model are the following: 1) acknowledging cultural differences, 2) knowing oneself, 3) knowing other cultures, 4) identifying and valuing differences, 5) identifying and avoiding stereotypes, 6) empathizing with persons from other cultures, 7) adapting rather than adopting, and 8) acquiring recovery skills. The Office of Special Education Programs (1998) funded many projects.
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(ACCEPT, CAICS, FAST, New Pathways, World of Difference) to promote cultural competence. These programs were designed to promote communication and foster respect for diverse groups of parents, children and educators.

Kiselica and Robinson (2001) contend that knowledge, awareness and skills must be applied in a multi-systems perspective when dealing with complicated social problems, such as racism, sexism, homophobia, and discrimination. According to the authors, to be an effective change agent, the counselor must consider these systems and their respective contributions to a client's problems. Despite the infusion of multicultural knowledge, skills and awareness into association standards and graduate training programs, school psychologists may not be adequately meeting the needs of diverse students.

The Need for New Cross-Cultural Training Approaches

The academic and social emotional needs of culturally diverse groups may not be adequately met within schools today (Gopaul-Nicol, 1997). It is apparent that current methods of preparing school psychologists to address the needs of diverse student populations can be improved. Ochoa, Rivera, and Ford (1997) found that nearly 70% of school psychologists they surveyed who conduct bilingual assessments described their training as less than adequate with respect to knowledge of cross-cultural issues. Daugherty (2002) called for increased training of school psychologists in the form of ongoing professional development opportunities. The author contended that training is essential so that school personnel are aware of their attitudes, values and perspectives toward diversity and the ways in which their biases and backgrounds influence decision making, behavior and ultimately long-term outcomes for students. This should be the emphasis of graduate school psychology programs as well. Hall (1997) suggested that curricula should be culturally inclusive and that recruitment and retention of minority students and faculty should be priorities. Cross et al. (1989) advocate for cultural competence to be defined in...
operational terms. The authors assert that organizations have not defined a set of values, principles, needed behaviors, attitudes, policies and structures that enable psychologists to work effectively cross-culturally. The authors advocate for the incorporation of these aspects into policy, administration, practice, service delivery.

The methods described above tend to focus on knowledge, skills, and awareness. However, what they lack is a focus on the individual characteristics of the school psychologist. Effective training practices with a focus on developing understanding, positive regard, and prosocial behavior (empathy), have produced counselors at higher levels of cognitive development. These counselors have been shown to possess attributes such as, being empathic, being flexible in the use of counseling methods, being more autonomous and interdependent and exhibiting less prejudice towards others (Evans & Foster, 2000; Foster & McAdams, 1998; Faubert et al., 1996; Sprinthall, 1994, Sprinthal & Mosher, 1978).

Gopaul-Nicol (1997) addressed the importance of producing culturally competent school psychologists but went further and suggested that “cross-cultural skill ought to be on a level of parity with other specialized assessment/counseling skills” (p. 18). This author suggested that a higher and more profound level of training is needed if cross-cultural competence is to be acquired.

**Theoretical Rationale**

*Consideration of School Psychologists’ Individual Characteristics*

A critical characteristic of school psych training programs is the inclusion of a cognitive development emphasis (LaCapitaine, 1999). For example, in the counselor education field, the use of Deliberate Psychological Education (DPE) has been used to promote cognitive development in counselors. The elements of a Deliberate Psychological Education model (Sprinthall, 1994) provide an intentional focus on individual characteristics. The DPE is designed
to allow trainees to experience an environment that, while challenging, allows for adequate support and reflection as they navigate new roles in order to produce psychological growth. A more in depth discussion of methods used to promote psychological growth can be found in chapter 2. The school psychology field has not included this training model nor has the relationship between cognitive development and multicultural competence in school psychologists been researched.

Cross et al. (1989) studied individual characteristics that may be necessary for cross-cultural competence. According to these authors, competent service providers should have the capacity to value diversity, conduct self-assessment, manage the dynamics of difference, acquire and institutionalize cultural knowledge and adapt to diversity and the cultural contexts of the communities they serve (Cross et al., 1989).

Boyd-Franklin (1989) advocates for the use of in-depth self-examination of one’s background in terms of culture, race, gender, sexual orientation and economic class to increase sensitivity. She refers to this approach to reflection as "soul-searching" (p. 98), and deems it an essential prerequisite to therapeutic work with minority clients. Boyd-Franklin (1989) contends that merely having a course may not be enough. Preparation should include experiential and reciprocal learning and allow for personal reflection to facilitate self-awareness. Other important individual characteristics also include the level of cognitive developmental level, need for structured learning environments, perspective taking ability, degree of flexibility in situations, and tolerance of ambiguity. These characteristics vary from person to person, thus impacting the individual’s conceptualization of multicultural knowledge, awareness and skill in different ways. Preparing psychologists to be multiculturally competent is complex. It requires psychologists to be independent of their racial and cultural backgrounds and to possess the requisite attitudes, skills, and knowledge to work effectively with diverse persons with respect to race, gender,
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culture, sexual orientation, and ability (Arredondo, 1999; Robinson, 1999). Examining the roles of race and culture in society and within school psychology will illuminate the extent of this challenge.

In order to achieve these goals, it is likely that educational programs will need to assign greater recognition to school psychologists' individual characteristics. Consequently, one standardized format for teaching may not be appropriate for all students (Harvey, Hunt, & Schroder, 1961). Focusing specifically on their levels of cognitive development, new programs would tailor course content and activities to student's cognitive developmental level to promote growth. Developmentally-focused programs may be able to directly address individual characteristics, promote cognitive growth, and thus better prepare school psychologists to meet the needs of culturally diverse students.

Cognitive developmental theory may provide framework to incorporate individual differences and promote psychological growth to foster multicultural competence. Many studies have validated the connection between behavioral choices and cognitive development showing that individuals at higher levels of development perform more effectively (Holloway & Wampold, 1986; Hunt, 1975; Loevinger, 1977; Peace, 1994). Given these findings, it is hypothesized that school psychologists with higher levels of ego development would be more culturally competent. Cross et al. (1989) describes cultural competence as a developmental process that evolves over an extended period. Although not yet empirically supported, a theoretical connection exists between the use of a developmental framework and the promotion of psychologists' ability to work effectively with culturally diverse students. However, no empirical data exists to document this relationship in school psychologists, this representing a gap in the knowledge base that warrants further research.

The following sections detail cognitive developmental theory, with specific attention to
ego development as a critical component of cognitive development. These sections also
describe research that investigates the relationship between ego development and cultural
competence.

**Cognitive Developmental Theory**

School psychologists are expected to provide effective psychological services to diverse
student populations. Graduate training programs continue to emphasize assessment and have
been slow to put cultural competencies into practice (Sinclair, 1997, Shullman, 1986). The result
is a large number of school psychologists that have had little or no training in cross-cultural
counseling. Because there is little consistency among graduate training programs, a theoretical
basis for the implementation of cross-cultural counseling competencies is necessary. Application
of a cognitive developmental approach to school psychologist training may help to move school
psychologists toward cultural competence. A review of the literature suggests that the
multicultural counseling competence of school psychologists have not been addressed from a
cognitive developmental approach.

Vogt (1997) addressed the link between cognitive development and prejudice. The author
hypothesized that individuals functioning at lower levels of development lack the intellectual
capacity to reject the stereotypes learned through socialization experiences. He felt that advanced
levels of development are necessary to imagine the broad social consequences of one’s actions.
Those functioning at higher levels are typically less dogmatic; they are able to take the
perspective of the minority despite the fact that it is not the norm. Furthermore, those with
greater cognitive complexity typically feel less threatened by diverse groups because, being more
tolerant of ambiguity, they have the ability to assess real or imagined danger (Vogt, 1997). Vogt
(1997) also felt that tolerance requires higher level processing in order to monitor one’s reaction
to feelings. For example, an individual may feel inconvenienced by affirmative action but be able
to interpose a second feeling (empathy) to override the initial feeling and thus respond in a tolerant manner.

Cognitive development is considered to be a relevant theoretical framework in this context. Moral judgment and cultural ideology have been shown to contribute significantly to moral thinking (Narvaez et al., 1999). School psychologists must function ethically and effectively to meet the needs of all children. According to Hunt (1975), individuals with higher levels of cognitive complexity have a greater capacity for behaving responsibly and adapting to a changing environment. The level of cognitive development is related to critical thinking and making meaning of experience and interpersonal relationships. Kohlberg (1975), Hunt (1977), Loevinger (1975), Perry (1971), and Kegan (1982), proposed models for describing cognitive development. While each theorist explored a fundamentally different domain, central themes transcend these domains. These themes are:

1. Human motivation toward mastery and competence is intrinsic.

2. Cognitive development occurs in stages that are structures of thinking. Each stage represents an individual's currently preferred style of comprehending the environment. Sprinthall (1978) noted that John Dewey originally formed the idea of stages of development.

3. Qualitative rather than quantitative changes occur as individuals move from one stage to another during the process of individual meaning-making.

4. Movement from one stage to another is hierarchical and sequential. Higher stages represent more complex ways of processing information. Higher is better. Individuals at higher levels of cognitive development "increase the availability of multiple alternatives in evaluation and behavior, responding more relativistically and less dichotomously (Holloway & Wompold, 1986). New ways of thinking grow out of old cognitions.

5. Stage movement is unidirectional and stepwise. Growth occurs in one direction, which is
irreversible. That is, once an individual has moved to a higher level of cognitive processing, he/she can't revert back to old ways of thinking.

6. Growth depends on the interaction of person and the environment. Unlike, physical maturation which occurs regardless of environmental experience; cognitive development occurs because of significant life experiences. Without significant experiences, psychological growth declines and stabilizes at a stage below his/her potential (Sprinthall, 1978).

7. There is a consistent relationship between stage and behavior. Each stage of cognitive is characterized by particular behaviors. A person's stage does not determine their behavior but it does influence a person's decision making about behavioral choices.

8. Cognitive development includes both physiological and psychological transformations.

9. Development occurs along domains (moral, ego, conceptual) rather than across the entire realm of domains. Development is domain specific and cannot be generalized across domains.

10. Individuals operate in their preferred style of functioning, which is referred to as the modal stage or most frequently used stage of functioning. Individuals are able to function as much as one stage higher or lower than their modal stage.

11. Cognitive development occurs universally across cultures. Stage development among individuals appears to be hierarchical and sequential without regard to cultural settings (Rest, 1999; Snarey, 1985).

Cognitive developmental theory encompasses the domains of moral, ego, conceptual, and intellectual development among others. Ego development is an area of cognitive development which may be useful in creating educational programs for school psychologists.

_Ego Development_

Ego development is one of the most comprehensive trait constructs in personality development (Newman, Tellegen & Bouchard, 1998). It has been described as a “master trait”
According to Adler, ego is equated with self and the unity of personality, individuality, the method of facing problems, opinion about oneself and the problems of life and the whole attitude towards life (Hy & Loevinger, 1996). Ego Development is described as being made up of interwoven, inseparable strands from other developmental domains such as cognitive development, moral development, interpersonal relationship development and conceptual development (Lee & Snarey, 1988). The detailed conception, as formulated by Loevinger (1976), represents both a developmental scale of psychological maturation beginning in childhood and a major source of individual differences in adult personality organization. Ego is a construct that refers to the part of the human personality that is involved in coordinating, choosing, selecting and directing a person’s activities (Loevinger, 1993; Loevinger, 1984; Sprinthall, 1978).

Ego development is better understood through an examination of the concepts of differentiation, integration and adaptation throughout the life span. This model conceptualized growth in a series of increasingly higher stages that occur gradually over time. Ego development (Loevinger, 1979) is thought to progress from early ego formation to the conceptualization of the self and its relationship to others and to its surroundings. The notion of differentiation is linked with the initial stages of ego development. The very young child focuses on his/her needs and begins to conceptualize itself. Children develop a concept of self and the relationship of self to others. As a child enters adolescence he/she begins to value others. Integration into society is highly sought after by individuals in this stage. The forming and maintaining of relationships is important and societal standards and rules are upheld. As an individual develops it becomes apparent that all of society's expectations cannot be met. Anxiety results and psychological growth may occur. A young adult begins to conceptualize the self initially in relation to others but then begins to differentiate self from others. As an individual's ego maturity increases the
individual will strive to define a place in society and the relationship to the environment. Through adaptation, individuals increase their ability to find their place in society and create structure in their environment.

The first stage (E1) is ego formation that occurs in infancy. Loevinger's work did not involve this stage. The Impulsive stage (E2) is dominated by physical needs and internal impulses. The young child is dependent on caretakers for meeting these needs. Deep personal attachment results but it is tempered by negative responses from others. A sense of self is emerging. Rules are not understood and punishment cannot be linked to behavior. Kohlberg's first stage, Obedience, has been matched with the Impulsive stage. As a child enters school he/she has usually progressed to the next stage, Self-Protective (E3). This child wants immediate gratification but is able to control impulses and delay immediate wants for greater rewards. Exploitation of others is used and the child becomes aware that he/she can be a victim of exploitation by others as well. The Self-Protective stage seems to be characterized by "I'll get you before you get me." Rules are understood and appreciated by children in this stage. If a Self-Protective child is caught breaking the rules he/she is likely to place blame on others or the situation. This stage is linked with Kohlberg's Instrumental stage where an individual's moral reasoning is practical and can be manipulated. The idea of right is relative to the individual's perspective and can be used for personal gain.

Adolescence and its group pressure usually brings on a transition to the next stage, Conformist (E4). This stage is less egocentric than previous stages and the child identifies with others. The self is seen in relation to parents, teachers, and peer group members. Rules are accepted and conceptualizations are dominated by simple dichotomy, right/wrong, good/bad. Societal conventions define what is right. Fitting in is paramount and social rejection or disapproval is taken to heart. Similarly with Kohlberg's Interpersonal stage the perspective is one
of a family member or student. Being good is measured in terms of following a stereotypical role model. Pressures from competing groups cause anxiety in the Conformist child and ego growth usually results. The Self-Aware stage (E5) is characterized by the recognition that one cannot be everything to everyone at one time. A person in this stage begins to distinguish his/her concept of self from how others define them. Individual differences are explored and acknowledged as part of the self. A major shift occurs as one enters the Conscientious stage (E6). Right and wrong are defined by the self and not just by society. Standards are evaluated on principle not just routinely accepted. A person in this stage behaviors appropriately because they feel that they ought to behavior this way and not necessarily because they should. Self-reflection and self-improvement are characteristics of this stage as is a sense of responsibility for others. As with Kohlberg's Social Contract stage, individuals have a broader view that defines right in terms of laws and norms established by a larger social system. Respect for authority and maintaining social order is reason for doing what is right. An individual in Kohlberg's Stage Four has a personal sense of duty toward doing what is right.

A sense of individuality is the hallmark of the next stage, Individualistic (E7). A person in this stage is able to differentiate himself/herself from others. Relationships are deep and intense and also recognized as antagonistic to individual striving. The last two stages of Loevinger's concept of ego development are rarely achieved. The Autonomous stage (E8) is characterized by the need for self-governing, ambiguity is tolerated and the search for meaning is pursued. Stage Five of Kohlberg's moral development theory similarly characterizes individuals as having an understanding of social contracts. Individuals in this stage have a place in society and are aware of the place of others in the society as well. Like Kohlberg's Principled stage, the Integrated stage (E9) is a theoretical end point and is not fully defined.
Table: 1.1

Some Characteristics of Stages of Ego Development

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Code</th>
<th>Characteristics</th>
<th>Impulse</th>
<th>Interpersonal</th>
<th>Mode</th>
<th>Conscious Preoccupation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Impulsive</td>
<td>E2 (1-2)</td>
<td>Impulsive</td>
<td>Eogocentric, dependent</td>
<td>Bodily feelings</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Protective</td>
<td>E3 (Delta)</td>
<td>Opportunistic</td>
<td>Manipulative, wary</td>
<td>&quot;Trouble,&quot; control</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conformist</td>
<td>E4 (1-3)</td>
<td>Respect for rules</td>
<td>Cooperative, loyal</td>
<td>Appearances, behavior</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Aware</td>
<td>E5 (1-3/4)</td>
<td>Exceptions allowable</td>
<td>Helpful, self-aware</td>
<td>Feelings, problems, adjustment</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conscientious</td>
<td>E6 (1-4)</td>
<td>Self-evaluated standards, self-critical</td>
<td>Intense, responsible</td>
<td>Motives, traits, achievements</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Individualistic</td>
<td>E7 (1-4/5)</td>
<td>Tolerant</td>
<td>Mutual</td>
<td>Individuality, development, roles</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Autonomous</td>
<td>E8 (1-5)</td>
<td>Coping with conflict</td>
<td>Interdependent</td>
<td>Self-fulfillment, psychological causation</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Integrated</td>
<td>E9 (1-6)</td>
<td>Cherishing individuality</td>
<td>Cherishing individuality</td>
<td>Identity</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: The code for the previous version used l-levels and Delta; the current code uses E-levels. Adapted from Loevinger (1976, 1987) [as cited by Loevinger, 1998, p. 5].

According to Paisley and Hubbard (1994) developmental school counseling programs provide an understanding of how human development occurs and uses strategies to promote positive development in trainees. Developmental training programs are not only applicable for school counselors, but can be used by school psychologists, and social workers, to promote optimal student development (Paisley & Hubbard, 1994). Bernier (1980) used a curriculum based on cognitive developmental principles to stimulate growth in the areas of psychological development, mastery of skills, and understanding concepts on in-service counselors. Significant gains were achieved in counseling skills and moral reasoning. Shifts in ego and conceptual level failed to reach statistical significance but growth was noted in these areas as well. The results
shed light on the need for developmentally focused programs to facilitate growth.

Professionals functioning at higher levels of cognitive development may possess attributes needed to be effective helpers, such as, greater empathy, autonomy, interdependence, flexibility in the use of counseling methods, and exhibiting less prejudice towards others (Sias, 2002). Considering these findings, examining school psychologist’s level of ego development as related to racial attitudes and perceived competencies for addressing the needs of diverse student populations appears warranted. The results of this research may help to substantiate the need for school psychology training programs that promote the psychological growth of trainee.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of the current study is to investigate the relationship between school psychologist’s level of ego development and his/her multicultural awareness, knowledge and perceived multicultural counseling competence. It is proposed that those at higher levels of ego development will have more positive racial attitudes and perceive themselves to have more appropriate counseling strategies for working with diverse students. School psychologists at higher levels of development may be better able to apply the multicultural skills, knowledge, and awareness needed when in cross-cultural working relationships with students. The results of this study may shed light on the need to apply educational strategies in multicultural courses that promote cognitive development for school psychologist trainees.

Specifically, the purpose of the current study is to answer the following questions:

1. What is the modal stage of ego development among school psychologists?
2. Is there a relationship between school psychologist level of ego development and racial attitudes?
3. Is there a relationship between school psychologist level of ego development and his/her perceived multicultural counseling competency?
4. Is there a relationship between school psychologist ego development, racial attitudes, and perceived multicultural counseling competency?

5. What set of demographic variables best predict low levels of racial prejudice?

6. What set of demographic variables best predict high levels of ego development?

7. What set of demographic variables best predict high levels of self perceived multicultural counseling competence?

**Definition of Terms**

**Cultural Competence:** The integration and transformation of knowledge about individuals and groups of people into specific standards, policies, practices, and attitudes used in appropriate cultural settings to increase the quality of services; thereby producing better outcomes (Davis, 1997).

**School Psychologist:** An individual with a Master’s degree, Educational Specialist or Doctoral degree school psychology who practices as a professional at the elementary, middle or secondary school level and is trained in the areas of assessment, consultation, prevention/intervention, individual and group counseling and skill training.

**Diverse Group Members:** As defined by Rogers & Lopez (2002) includes many marginalized groups such as African Americans/Blacks, Asian Americans, Hispanics/Latinos, Native American Indians, Pacific Islanders, bilinguals, biracials, and English Language Learners. In addition, individuals representing other diverse ‘cultural’ groups such as gender, socioeconomic status and sexual minorities were also included in the definition (Rogers and Lopez, 2002).

**Ego development:** A theory developed by Jane Loevinger that describes individuals as progressing through seven stages of development, from the simple, undifferentiated, and unintegrated, to the complex, highly differentiated and well integrated.

**Racial Attitude:** One’s feelings with regard to the favorableness of people of color that are
characteristically acquired through observational learning, are typically not influenced by verbal persuasion, and often correspond to one’s behavior (LaFleur, Rowe, & Leach, 2002).

**Method**

A correlational study examining the relationship between school psychologist's ego development levels, racial attitudes, and perceived multicultural counseling competence will be conducted. The sample will consist of approximately 225 currently practicing school psychologists. Data will be collected through a random national direct mail survey of the members of the National Association of School Psychologists. The Social Scenarios Scale, the Social Scale, the Washington University Sentence Completion Test and the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale will be incorporated into a single questionnaire that is mailed to school psychologists. The obtained data will be analyzed using descriptive and multivariate correlational analyses to determine the direction and magnitude of the relationship between the constructs (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996).

**Limitations of the Study**

The following limitations exist for this study:

1. The school psychologists who choose to participate in the study may be significantly different from those who opt not to participate. There are potential differences between the practices and attitudes of participants and non-participants in this study. Non-participants may have different racial beliefs than those who return the survey.

2. Since the population to be used in the study will come from a limited number of school psychologists who are NASP members the representation within the sample is a limitation. This may manifest itself in two ways. First, the surveyed population of NASP members may be different from the general population of school psychologists. The NASP membership represents 70% of school psychologists (Fagan, 1994); the 30% who
are not NASP members may have very different beliefs and attitudes about cultural diversity than do NASP members. While generalizable to the majority of American school psychologists, the results may not be generalizable to all school psychologists in the country.

3. The results may be impacted by the participants’ desire to respond to the instruments in a socially acceptable manner. Social-desirability bias is the extent to which questions are answered in a way that is believed to please the researcher (Loe & Miranda, 2005).

4. Due to the nature of the study, it will be impossible to control for all extraneous variables, therefore the results may be impacted by variables other than moral development and bias.

5. The results may be impacted by decalage in which respondents may appear to be functioning at a lower stage than where they are actually functioning due to the sensitivity of the topic under investigation.

**Ethical Considerations**

In accordance with Section IV of the *National Association of School Psychologists Professional Conduct Manual* (2000), the following precautions will be considered in protecting the welfare of the participants. Before beginning the study, the researcher will obtain the dissertation committee member’s and dissertation chairperson’s endorsement. Further, the researcher will secure approval by the Human Subjects Board of the College of William and Mary prior to collecting data. All participants will be informed of the purpose of the research prior to completing the questionnaire. Additionally, participants will be told that they may opt out of the study at any time without penalty.

**Summary**

This chapter provided a general description of the problems faced by students from
minority culture backgrounds. Justification for the current study was established by examining current training approaches and the prevailing social and educational issues that impact students despite these approaches. The chapter also described the unique role of the school psychologist in serving these students and the potential link between school psychologist ego development and their ability to effectively fulfill this important role. The researcher reviewed literature relating to cognitive development and specifically ego development with school psychologist’s perceptions of racially and culturally different students. The theoretical connection between cognitive development and multicultural competence was addressed. The purpose and hypotheses for the study were stated, definition of terms was provided, a description of the intended sample given, data gathering procedures described, and the limitations and ethical considerations were explored. Chapter 2 will review the pertinent literature related to the problem and the theoretical rationale for the study.
Chapter Two

Review of the Literature

This chapter will review relevant literature addressing the following points: 1) the issues pertaining to school psychologists meeting the needs of ethnically and culturally diverse students, 2) current multicultural training approaches employed by school psychology graduate programs, 3) the limitations of these approaches, and 4) a proposed alternative. Cognitive developmental theory and, specifically, Loevinger's theory of ego development will be presented. Literature exploring the connection between school psychologist racial attitudes and beliefs and levels of personal growth will be examined. Finally, the significance of assessing school psychologists' level of ego development in relation to their perspectives and perceived competence for addressing the needs of diverse students will be explored.

Modern Prejudice

Researchers within the field of school psychology have sought to identify and effectively address the contributing factors underlying issues of prejudice and discrimination (Barnett et al, 1995; Bluestone, Stokes, & Kuba, 1996; Constatine, Ladany, Inman, & Ponterotto, 1996; Pope-Davis, Reynolds, Dings & Nielson, 1995; Rogers, Ponterotto, Conoley & Wiese, 1992; Watts, 1994). Cross-cultural competence has been identified as one of the four domains of expertise needed by all school psychologists (Rogers & Lopez, 2002). The relationship between cross-cultural competence and intervention outcomes has been addressed in a growing body of literature (Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997). Recently, the field of school psychology has operationally defined cross-cultural competence (Rogers & Lopez, 2002) and developed a measure of multicultural counseling competency (Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997). What is lacking is a focus on the cultural awareness and the personal characteristics needed for a school psychologist to develop cross-cultural competence. The application of a cognitive developmental
approach to school psychologist training may help to move school psychologists toward cultural competence.

Consistent with the positions of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP, 2004) and the American Psychological Association (APA, 2002), schools have the responsibility to serve diverse group of educators, children, and families with a variety of backgrounds and needs. Effective education goes far beyond reading, writing and arithmetic; it is dependent upon a positive self image, feeling safe in school and being sensitive to differences and similarities (Collier, 1995). Serving the needs of diverse group members presents many challenges to schools. These challenges may manifest as achievement discrepancies, high drop out rates, disproportionate representation in special education, behavioral referrals and/or disciplinary action against these students.

Presently in the United States, an achievement gap exists between White and racial minority students (NCES, 2003; DOE, 2001). National Center for Education Statistics (2003) reported on education trends for students based on ethnicity. Children who are retained in grade may show lower academic achievement and motivation, and many may behave in ways that undermine their efforts in school and their social well-being (NCES, 2003). In 1999, 13 percent of Hispanic students in kindergarten through 12th grade had repeated a grade. This figure is 18% for African Americans, and American Indian/Alaska Native students compared to 9% for White students. Suspension/expulsion rates also vary by race and ethnicity. In 1999, 35% of African American students in grades 7 through 12 had been suspended or expelled compared to 20% of Hispanic students and 15% for White students (NCES, 2003).

Gay, Lesbian, Straight Education Network’s (GLSEN, 2003) National School Climate Survey is a national survey designed to document the experiences of gay, lesbian and bisexual students in America’s schools. The survey was completed by of 887 LGBT middle and high
school students from 48 states and the District of Columbia. Results indicate that unchecked harassment correlates with poor performance and diminished aspirations. LGBT youth who report significant verbal harassment are twice as likely to report they do not intend to go to college and their GPAs are significantly lower (2.9 vs. 3.3) (GLSEN, 2003).

American society has experienced tremendous change in its racial and cultural makeup. This increased diversity has been accompanied by increasing concerns about the disproportionate placement of ethnic minority students in special education. In the twenty-five years since the passage of P.L.94-142, disproportionate placement in special education has continued (Reschly et al., 1988; Harry, 1994). The U. S. Department of Education/Office of Special Education Programs (OSEP) and the U. S. Office for Civil Rights (OCR) view the issue of disproportionate placement as an ongoing national problem. The OSEP and OCR believe disproportionate placement to be problematic because students may be unserved or receive services that do not meet their needs and may additionally be misclassified or inappropriately labeled. This improper placement in special education classes may be tantamount to discrimination (Burnette, 1998).

Individualizing educational programs unnecessarily may be viewed as an attempt to deny belonging to the category of privilege (McGoldrick, 1988).

The OSEP addressed the issue of disproportionality and stated that special education eligibility will involve consideration of a wide range of variables including income, education, health, cultural, and other demographic characteristics in addition to race. Clear and compelling warning signs were outlined in the 20th Report to Congress by the OSEP (1998). The results indicate that more minority children continue to be served in special education than would be expected given the percentage of minority students in the general school population. Poor African American children are 2.3 times more likely to be identified by their teachers as having mental retardation than their White counterparts and although African Americans represent 16%...
of elementary and secondary enrollments, they constitute 21% of total enrollments in special education. The drop out rate is 68 percent higher for minorities than for Whites (OSEP, 1998).

Quinn and Jacob (1999) suggest that when taking cultural issues into account, educators and service providers need to be aware of the cultural influences on behavior. These authors address the need for professional preservice training to develop knowledge of cultural beliefs, values, behaviors and expectations, as well as explore attitudes, values and perspectives toward diversity and the ways in which biases and backgrounds influence decision-making, instruction, behavior and ultimately long-term outcomes for students.

The lack of cultural sensitivity on the part of school staff has been identified as a barrier to the implementation of practices to reduce disproportionality (Markowitz, 1996). Current multicultural counseling training approaches tend to be knowledge-based and are often presented in a didactic manner giving students little time to reflect on their personal views (Loe & Miranda, 2005; Kearns et al., 2002; Figueroa et al. 1984; Gopaul-McNicol, 1997; Rosenfield & Esquivel, 1985). Preservice professional preparation of school psychology focuses on self-awareness, cultural knowledge, and skill development (Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997). Many of the standardized multicultural training requirements focus on these areas of preparation as well (NASP, 2000).

*School Psychologist Training in Diversity*

Early recognition of the need to train culturally competent psychologists dates back to the 1970’s, when cultural competence was defined as a matter of ethical practice (APA as cited in Zhou et al, 2004). However, research revealing effective and ineffective multicultural training in school psychology programs has not been plentiful (Kearns, Ford & Brown, 2002; Rogers, Hoffman & Wade, 1998; Gopaul-McNicol, 1997; Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997; Rogers, Ponterotto, Conoley & Wiese, 1992). In response to the compelling need for school
psychologists who can intervene effectively with diverse student populations, NASP issued a position statement on minority recruitment (NASP, 2003). This statement outlined procedures that were designed to increase the numbers of racial and ethnic minorities in the field of school psychology. The APA recognized multicultural competence as a defining feature of psychological practice, education, training, and research (Sue, Bingham, Porche-Burke, & Vasquez, 1999). Despite these mandates from professional organizations, the representation of ethnic minorities in school psychology remains low (Bernal & Castro, 1994). As a result, dominant-culture psychologists will continue to provide most of the services to children from culturally and linguistically diverse populations (Zhou et al, 2004). Given this expectation, the training of culturally competent school psychologists of both minority and majority cultural backgrounds is essential and cannot be ignored (Bernal & Castro, 1994).

A variety of models have been proposed for effective multicultural training of school psychologists. Most of these endorse the knowledge, awareness and skills model but do not specify how these are to be taught. Within any given curricular area, training may be presented in discrete topics of study, single courses, or through infusion into existing courses (NASP, 2000).

The literature suggests that course work in minority counseling issues is limited (Bernal & Padilla, 1982) and that supportive program philosophy and relevant course work are insufficient for the provision of counseling services to minority students (Watts, 1994). Many anti-bias efforts focus on bringing diverse groups of individuals together to discuss concerns and improve relations between diverse groups. With respect to school-based efforts, research has found that diversity programs rarely improve cross-cultural relations if the treatment of diversity is too brief and/or superficial. Presenting facts and information about other cultures has little or no effect on attitudes or behaviors. Additionally, "one-shot" or limited exchanges rarely result in the reduction of bias or prejudice (Byrnes and Kiger 1986-87; Garcia Powell, and Sanchez 1990;

Despite a general focus on cultural competence in school psychologist training approaches, practicing school psychologists may be deficient in meeting the needs of culturally diverse students. The field of school psychology recognizes the need to develop cultural competence. Ysseldyke et al. (1997) identified cross-cultural competence as one of the four principal domains of expertise needed by all school psychologists. School psychology is just beginning to focus on identifying needed competencies and is looking to other fields such as counseling. Hall (1997) encouraged the field of school psychology to make substantive revisions in its curriculum, training, and practice.

In a national demographic study of the National Association of School Psychologists, Curtis et al. (2002) found that school psychologists with more training reported providing more individual counseling, group counseling and in-service training, while those with less training reported spending more time completing initial evaluations and more total time in special education activities. In a study of Georgia school psychologists Lang and White (2001) found that in programs that primarily focus on assessment there was a need for training in counseling skills.

Rogers, Conoley, Ponterotto, and Wiese (1992) surveyed 121 directors of school psychology programs and found that only 60% of programs offered at least one course specifically devoted to multicultural issues. Sixty-nine percent of the directors estimated that less than one quarter of the time during practicum and internship experiences was devoted to ethnically diverse clients. These findings suggest that a potentially large number of graduate school psychology students either do not receive coursework in cross cultural issues, are not exposed to culturally diverse populations during field experiences, or both.

In a more recent qualitative study, Kearns, Ford and Brown (2002) surveyed graduate
students in APA accredited school psychology programs. Respondents in this study identified areas of weakness in training pertaining to teaching about beliefs and values, teaching about diverse religious beliefs and training in work with linguistically diverse clients and interpreters.

In a random sample of 306 NASP members, Loe and Miranda (2005) examined cultural diversity issues in school psychology practice and training, specifically ethnic incongruence in assessment, consultation and counseling. The highest rates of ethnic incongruence (67.6%) occurred in counseling relationships. The prevalence of multicultural training among school psychologists was also examined in terms of diversity-related graduate coursework, internship experiences and continuing education. A significant relationship between diversity-related experience and years of employment was found. For school psychologists with 0 to 5 years of work, 25% had diversity related coursework in their program of study compared to only 9.4% of school psychologists with 16 to 20 years of service. With regard to training, 23.3% of respondents were dissatisfied with their training in the provision of services to ethnically different populations. These data show that there is a trend toward greater exposure to multicultural graduate coursework, but still only one quarter of the most recent graduates have participated in this type of training. Limitations of this study include instrumentation, sampling and response rate. As with all self-report measures there is a chance that subjects responded in a socially desirable manner. Social desirability bias in addition to the extent to which questions are answered in a way that is believed to please the researcher, is a limitation of this study. Although the use of a random sample may have minimized this limitation, is does not preclude social desirability bias for impacting the data. The representativeness within the sample represents another limitation of this study. This can manifest in two ways. The sample of school psychologists draw from the NASP membership list may not be representative of the total population of school psychologists in the U.S. Also, a potential difference exists between the
practices and attitudes of respondents and non-respondents. This is a common limitation of mail surveys (Sheaffer et al. 1996). Even with these limitations, a moderate percentage of school psychologists in this study expressed dissatisfaction with their diversity training. The express desire for more supervised clinical experiences with diverse populations implies the need to examine the content of cultural diversity training within school psychology graduate training programs (Loe & Miranda, 2005).

School Psychologist Counseling Practices

Traditionally, school psychology training programs have reflected the roles and functions of these professionals in practice. Over the years, training programs have adapted their curricula to reflect practice trends. A trend toward increased time in direct intervention services and a simultaneous movement away from more traditional assessment roles has emerged. Counseling is one form of direct intervention service that school psychologists have increasingly been called upon to provide, and hence arises the issue of preparing school psychologists to implement quality counseling services. School psychologists provide counseling services to a wide range of students individually and in group settings. Research suggests that nationally certified school psychologists spend approximately 17% of their time providing counseling services to students in schools (Prout et al., 1993). In a national study of NASP members, Whitmore (2004) found that 71% of school psychologists provide counseling as a service to students. Of these, 8.3% engage in family counseling. Psychological counseling is designed to help resolve interpersonal or family problems that interfere with school performance. Curtis, Hunley, Walker and Baker (1999) found that, of a national sample of school psychologists, approximately 83% engaged in some type of counseling in the schools. A review of several surveys of practitioners indicated that, in general, school psychologists spend about 25% of their time engaged in consultation and 20% of their time on direct intervention activities such as counseling (Curtis et al., 2002;
Lang and White (2002) conducted research to investigate the counseling practices of school psychologists. Specifically, this study addressed the training and use of play therapy techniques by 290 members of the Georgia Association of School Psychologists (GASP). This survey had a 56% response rate. Play therapy training was obtained in graduate school for 53% of the psychologists with 10 or fewer years of experience, yet only 13% indicated that they actually use play therapy techniques. Of respondents with 11 or more years experience, only 22% were trained to use play therapy in graduate school and just 6% of these respondents indicated that they use play therapy. This data suggests that many school psychologists are not using play therapy when providing counseling and many more are not trained to use this technique. This data is relevant to school psychologist training and curriculum decisions. In the past, some graduate training programs have relied on teaching play therapy techniques to the exclusion of other types of interventions. This has left a large number of school psychologists without useful intervention skills to address a range of student needs.

Slate (1986) conducted a study of school psychology training programs to obtain information about trainer’s perceptions of significant problems influencing the practice of school psychology. Directors of school psychology university training programs responded (N=139) to the survey for a response rate of 68%. Directors identified the most serious problem as an overemphasis on assessment, resulting in limited opportunity to engage in consultations and cognitive-behavioral interventions. Although this study was conducted nearly twenty years ago, the results, in concert with more recent studies, indicate that school psychologists should conduct fewer assessments. This raises questions about the effectiveness of graduate school psychology programs in preparing graduates to counsel diverse student populations.

Racial Attitudes
Constantine (2002) studied the impact of racism on multicultural counseling competence in 99 school counselor trainees from universities in the Midwest and Northeastern United States. The New Racism Scale (NRS) and the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS) were used to measure the constructs. The NRS measures Whites’ perception of African Americans and was found to have a Cronbach’s Alpha of .70. Self-perceived multicultural counseling competence was measured with the MCKAS that was found to have an overall Cronbach’s Alpha of .83. The results showed a significant relationship between scores on the NRS and MCKAS, indicating that those who had negative attitudes toward African Americans also reported less multicultural counseling competence. This study was limited by its sample that was chosen from a specific region of the U.S. The results may not be generalizable to counselors nationwide. Because the sample was drawn from counselor trainees and not school psychologists this further limits the generalizability of these results. Caution should be used with any self-report measure because participants responding based on their perceptions of their ability versus their actual multicultural counseling competence. In spite of these limitations, this research sheds light on the relationship between attitudes and behaviors. The study shows the importance of addressing personal bias and the development of multicultural counseling competence.

Mohr, Israel, and Sedlacek (2001) conducted a study to determine the relationship between psychology trainee attitudes toward a fictitious bisexual client and their clinical judgments. The researchers surveyed 97 clinical psychology, counseling psychology and counselor education graduate students from a mid Atlantic university. Each participant completed the Therapist Personal Reaction Questionnaire (TPRQ), the Awareness of Values subscale from the Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory (AV), Attitudes Regarding Bisexuality Scale (ARBS), Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men scale (ATLG-S), and a checklist of...
clinical issues. Respondents assessed the factious client using the Global Assessment of Functioning (GAF). The TPRQ is a measure of counseling trainee’s anticipated reactions to the fictional client. The scale has been found to have a reliability coefficient of .77. High scores reflect a high level of client attractiveness from the counselor’s perspective. The AV is a five item inventory that measures awareness of values related to self-rated multicultural counseling competence. Individuals rate each item on a five-point Likert scale ranging from 1 = strongly disagree to 5 = strongly agree. Internal consistency reliability has been found to be .55.

The ARBS consists of nine items to measure counselor attitudes toward bisexuality. The ARBS is divided into two subscales, one measuring tolerance and the other measuring views about bisexuality as a “stable sexual orientation.” Items are rated using a five-point Likert scale as described above. High ratings indicate belief in bisexuality as a legitimate sexual orientation and high levels of tolerance for bisexuality. Internal consistency reliability was .94 for scores on tolerance and .89 for scores on stability. The ATLG-S was used in this study to assess attitudes held by heterosexual women and men along a continuum of condemnation to tolerance for lesbians and gay men. This ten-item instrument uses the same rating scale as the other assessments in this study. The ATLG-S is described as having high content validity and an internal consistency reliability of .93. The GAF is part of the multi-axial clinical evaluation system described in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders, 4th edition. Ratings are made on a continuum from 1 = lowest level of psychological functioning to 100 = highest level of psychological functioning. No information was provided on this item’s reliability or validity.

A checklist of 19 clinical issues was used to measure specific areas of difficulty attributed to the fictional client by the counselor. Participants were asked to use their clinical judgment to estimate the degree to which these issues played a role in the fictional client’s difficulties. A 5-
point ratings scale was used with 1 = not at all to 5 = a great deal. No information was
provided on this instrument’s reliability or validity. Results indicate significant association of
attitudes with clinical judgment. Statistical analysis of the independent variables used in this
study showed: tolerance (M = 32.62, SD = 7.32, range = 8–40) and stability (M = 36.28, SD =
6.70, range = 22–50). These statistics indicate that counselor trainees in the sample varied in
their attitudes regarding bisexuality. The results indicate that while most counselors hold
moderately positive to very positive attitudes regarding bisexuality, 14% of the counselors
scored in the negative range on tolerance and 19% of the counselors scored in the negative range
on stability. With the exception of 1 lesbian-identified participant who scored below the
midpoint on stability, all of the counselors with negative attitudes identified as heterosexual.

Counselors with attitudes that were more embracing of diversity in sexual orientation
were less likely to anticipate having a no supportive reaction to the client or responding to the
client in a biased or judgmental manner. While these results point to the need to address issues of
bias and clinical judgment, there are several limitations to this study. The external validity of the
study is compromised by the use of an analogue design (use of a clinical vignette of presenting
problems.) This design limits generalizing the results to counseling practice. Another limitation
is the low return rate of 25%. The fact that the study used psychology and counseling graduates
students’ perceptions of a fictitious client presenting problems rather than actual clients is a
limitation for generalizing these results to the actual counseling forum. Additionally, the study
focused on clinical and counseling psychologists and counselor educators rather than school
psychologists, thus further limiting its transferability. Finally, since no validity and reliability
ratings were provided for either of the clinical assessment instruments (GAF and the checklist of
clinical issues), the results from these inventories should be interpreted with caution.

Nonetheless, the study sheds light on the relationship between personal bias, attitudes and
Herring (1998) conducted a qualitative study of school counselor trainees to determine the influence of self-awareness on multicultural counseling competency. Participants in the study were 85 master’s level school counseling students from Arkansas and South Carolina. The disparity in the results shows how the variation in the trainees’ multicultural education experiences. Twenty-five percent specified the importance of the role of the counselor as being critical to self awareness. Counselor awareness of values and unbiased counseling of diverse others was identified by only 25% of the respondents as the most important goal of multicultural competence. Just 31% of respondents described observing cultural awareness activities while on their practicum site. The results speak to the need for a unified training model of multicultural counseling. The results also emphasized the need to assess students’ multicultural development throughout their program of study. A limitation of this study is that it was conducted on school counselor trainees; however generalizability to school psychology trainees is plausible. Although this study is limited by sample size and geographic distribution, the information provided enables counselor educators to recognize specific topics and issues to address that would benefit trainees’ professional development.

Need for Training

As noted above, in a national demographic study of the National Association of School Psychologists, Curtis et al., (2002) found that school psychologists with more training reported providing more counseling. In a study of Georgia school psychologists Lang and White (2001) found that in programs that primarily focus on assessment there was a need for training in counseling skills. The field of school psychology recognizes the need for to develop cultural competence. Ysseldyke et al. (1997) identified cross-cultural competence as one of the four principal domains of expertise needed by all school psychologists. School psychology is just
beginning to focus on identifying needed competencies and is looking to other fields such as counseling.

Rogers and Ponterotto (1997) dedicated their research efforts to developing a measure of perceived multicultural school psychology counseling competency of graduate students. The researchers felt that current measures of multicultural counseling competence were inappropriate for use with school psychologists because most were developed for use with counseling psychologists who serve the adult population. School psychologists typically serve children and adolescents in a school setting. The developers of this measure, the *Multicultural School Psychology Counseling Competency Scale (MSPCCS)*, modified items from the Cross-Cultural Competency Inventory (CCCI). The stems were altered to make them relevant to school psychology graduate students. The MSPCCS consists of eleven items that are in a five-point Likert scale. Through the use of a national sample the researchers surveyed 121 directors of school psychology graduate programs. The scale has been found to have high internal consistency with a Cronbach's alpha of .88. The authors describe the MSPCCS has having good construct validity for one factor. An analysis of the data did not support a three-factor model. In other words, this data does not support the Awareness-Knowledge-Skills model, but instead points to a single global factor that defines multicultural competence. This is a novel finding considering that previous research in the fields of counseling and counseling psychology provides the basis for the three factor model (Awareness, Knowledge, Skills). Is awareness the one global factor that determines cultural competence? This finding raises questions about the validity of the Awareness, Knowledge and Skills model and may lend support for alternate models. Is cultural competence dependent on another underlying construct? Where does cognitive developmental level fit into this dynamic? Is multicultural awareness related to cognitive development? Further research is needed to address these questions.
Cognitive Development

Studies have substantiated the connection between counselor behavior and cognitive development showing that counselors at higher levels of development perform more effectively (Peace, 1994; Holloway & Wampold, 1986; Novinger, 1977; Hunt, 1975). Cognitive development as it is related to multicultural competencies addresses perspective taking, critical thinking, and openness to conflicting perspectives, all of which are necessary for sensitivity to issues of diversity and culturally sensitive counseling (Adams, 2002; Vogt, 1997; Hoare, 1991).

Research has shown that while adolescents and adults are capable of using formal operations in their thinking most use a lower level of moral reasoning (Sprinthall, 1978). This may be due to a lack of exposure to environmental or social role taking experiences. Educational and counseling efforts can be designed so as to provide structured activities (dilemmas, questions about social justice) that encourage the use of higher levels of moral reasoning. These activities should be designed to be one stage higher than the individual's current level of reasoning. Individuals are able to comprehend the reasonableness of the next higher stage of reasoning and this in turn, encourages growth in that direction.

Application of moral development to the professions has found encouraging results. Hayes (1994) conducted a study of moral development and counseling that generated a number of basic assumptions relevant to counseling. These assumptions are 1) individuals produce their own development, 2) development is contextual, 3) cognition is an active relating of events, 4) development is a qualitative reorganization of meaning, 5) reasoning is the key to understanding, 6) role taking underlies moral development and 7) development requires group participation. Ojai (1990) found that teachers operating at higher stages show greater flexibility, are more able to see multiple viewpoints and are more effective in supervisory interaction with pre-service interns and in problem solving with colleagues.
Barrett (1995) conducted a study to determine the relationship between modern prejudice and moral development in college students. Modern prejudice was defined in terms of racism, sexism and homophobia. The researcher surveyed 73 Caucasian undergraduate students from a university in the mid-south. Each participant completed the Social Scenarios Scale (SS), the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (ATW), the Index of Homophobia (IH), and the Defining Issues Test (DIT) and a demographic survey. The SS measures modern racism by presenting social situations of racial conflict between Blacks and Whites. This multiple choice assessment has been found to have internal consistency reliability of .75 and test-retest reliability of .93. High scores reflect a high level of client attractiveness from the counselor's perspective. The AWT is a 25-item inventory that measures beliefs about gender roles and behaviors in major areas of living. Individuals rate each item on a four-point Likert scale. The AWT has been found to have high reliability with a Cronbach's alpha of .89 and a Spearman-Brown split-half reliability of .86. Construct and content validity are described as adequate. The IH consists of 25 items on a five point Likert scale that measure counselor attitudes toward homosexuality. The IH has a Cronbach's alpha of .90 indicating a high level of reliability. Construct and content validity were described as adequate. Upon analysis, data revealed a statistically significant negative correlation between moral judgment and sexism. High scores on the AWT correlated with low scores on the DIT. Data from the SS did not reveal any significant relationships between racism and moral judgment.

Although this study is limited by its sample, the results shed light on the need to address prejudice and moral development. The results of this study were derived by surveying undergraduate students rather than school psychologists, thus further limiting its transferability to this field. Given the limited scope of this study and its results should be used tentatively. Nonetheless, the overall results indicate that when moral development increases sexism and
homophobia decrease.

A study integrating a cognitive developmental approach with professional ethics training on the moral and conceptual development of graduate counseling students was conducted by Chase (1998). This researcher used the Defining Issues Test (DIT), and the Paragraph Completion Method (PCM). Counseling students were also administered an adapted format of the Moral Judgment Interview that depicted ethical dilemmas in counseling. Chase designed an intervention method that included the components of Deliberate Psychological Education (DPE) and moral discussions. Using a quasi-experimental design, the results failed to support expectations that students in the intervention group would obtain significantly higher DIT and PCM post-test scores than the students in the other two groups. Despite this, a qualitative analysis of interview and journal responses indicated that the intervention did impact students’ personal and professional growth.

Limitations of this study were the modifications to the research design and methodology. The lack of standardized testing procedures was also a major limitation of this study. Chase argued for the use of a comparable professional ethics class of equivalent semester duration, since the comparison group was comprised of a summer class that was shorter in duration. Finally, in order to provide ongoing continuity, support and challenge, the author argued that an intervention of at least six months would be recommended to future researchers.

Morgan (1998) used a DPE intervention that incorporated dilemma discussions to promote moral reasoning in law enforcement trainees. Using a quasi-experimental design, this study supported the hypothesis that trainees in a DPE model would show significantly higher post-test levels of principled reasoning than trainees in a comparison group, as measured by the DIT. Despite the small sample size and limited generalizability due to research design issues similar to Chase (1998), this pilot study demonstrated the utility of the DPE for promoting moral...
development. Morgan called for further study in this area. In spite of the difficulties in implementing a DPE, this form of intervention has been shown to promote cognitive development across several domains.

Counselors who show growth in the moral domain may be better able to recognize how their judgments affect others, act in humanitarian ways, and make ethical moral decisions (Evans & Foster, 2000). Counselor education programs need to focus on developmental growth, including moral development, ego development, and racial identity development, given the premise that higher stages of functioning are better than lower stages. Counselor interns functioning at higher stages of cognitive complexity are proposed to be more likely to be aware of their own impact on others, to have more self-awareness, and to be less rigid and concrete in their thinking. In this way, interns functioning at higher levels may also be more flexible in emotionally charged cross-cultural situations, and will presumably be more open to learning about their own racial and cultural identities and their impact on racially and culturally different others.

Evans and Foster (2000) undertook an exploratory investigation of the relationship between multicultural training and the moral and racial identity development of European American-White counselors-in-training. Additionally, these researchers examined the relationship between multicultural training, and counseling experience as it relates to moral development and racial identity development status level. Evans and Foster surveyed Master's and Specialist level counseling students at the end of each class.

Moral reasoning was measured by the DIT (Rest, 1986). The "P" score obtained from the DIT represents the percentage of principled reasoning (Kohlberg's post conventional reasoning level) used by participants. The P score for the shorter version correlates at .93 with the P score for the longer version. The test-retest reliability ranges from .70 to .80, and internal consistency
reliability is between .70 and .80 (Rest, 1986). Racial identity development was measured by the *White Racial Identity Attitude* Scale (WRIAS; Helms & Carter, 1990). This instrument was designed to measure five of the six levels of racial identity—Contact, Disintegration, Reintegration, Pseudo-Independence, and Autonomy. 50 Liker-type items load onto five levels of identity. Respondents may choose from a range of strongly agree (scored as 5) to strongly disagree (scored as 1). A total score for each subscale is obtained. Internal consistency reliability for the WRIAS was reported as .55 (Contact), .77 (Disintegration), .80 (Reintegration), .71 Pseudo-Independence, and .67 (Autonomy; Helms, 1990). Construct validity has been found for the instrument in relation to racism (Carter, 1990; Pope-Davis & Octave, 1994) and symbolic racism (Helms, 1990). Respondents were also surveyed about their age, sex, ethnicity, years of counseling experience, and number of hours of specific multicultural training.

Using a Pearson's product-moment correlation, it was determined that there was no significant relationship between White racial identity and moral development scores of the respondents. Correlations ranged from .01 (p = .94) between the DIT and the Autonomy scale of the WRIAS to .22 (p = .24) between the DIT and the Disintegration scale of the WRIAS. There was a significant relationship for the number of multicultural training hours and the variables of Reintegration (F = 5.00, p = .02), accounting for 7% of the variance, and Autonomy (F = 4.90, p = .03), which also accounted for approximately 7% of the variance. These results indicated that the greater the number of hours of multicultural training that the respondent had, the lower the WRIAS Reintegration score and the higher the Autonomy score. Although the results from this study indicate that multicultural training seems to be helpful in changing attitudes toward racial groups, such training does not include the elements that are specific to the enhancement of moral reasoning. Previous research has indicated that a particular education format, the Deliberate
Psychological Education (DPE) model (Sprinthall & Mosher, 1978), is most effective in promoting greater psychological complexity and identity formation (Foster & McAdams, 1998).

**Ego Development**

A review of the literature suggests that the individual characteristics and actual professional practices of school psychologists have not been addressed from an ego developmental perspective. A review of the literature was conducted in the areas cognitive development (specifically, ego development) and supervision. Due to the limited amount of research in these areas using school psychologists, it was necessary to utilize research on other mental health professionals.

Ego development is one of the comprehensive trait constructs in personality psychology (Newman, Tellegen & Thomas, 1998). It serves as a schematic frame of reference providing a meaningful organization for numerous more specific personality traits (Loevinger, 1976). Ego developmental stages describe differences in a person's customary frame of reference with respect to dominant forms of impulse control, conscious preoccupations, and cognitive complexity, especially in the intrapersonal and interpersonal spheres (Loevinger, 1976).

The Washington University Sentence Completion Test (SCT) (Loevinger, 1976) is a semi-projective measure of ego development that has had widespread use for almost thirty years. Watt, Robinson & Lupton-Smith (2002) administered the Washington University Sentence Completion Test (SCT) and Black and White versions of the Racial Identity Attitude scale (RIAS-B and RIAS-W) to 38 graduate students at the beginning, middle and end of their counseling program. The authors undertook this study to the relationship between ego development and racial identity development as important underlying factor to self-awareness and multicultural effectiveness. A correlational analysis revealed a significant relationship between racial identity and ego development, with counseling students at the end of their
program showing higher levels of racial identity and ego development. An ANOVA showed that a significant relationship existed as a function of training level and ego development. Pearson product-moment correlations were conducted on the SCT and the RIAS-W, and significant correlations were found between ego development and certain levels of racial identity development. Specifically, a significant correlation was reported between the Pseudo-Independence status and ego development ($r=.44$, $p=.014$) while a negative relationship was reported between the Reintegration stage and ego development ($r=-.41$, $p=.03$).

Watt, et al. (2002) argued that one domain of development (e.g. ego) may be positively related to, but not necessarily caused by, another component of development (racial). This study, although limited by its small sample size ($n=38$), and by the fact that the vast majority were female, does point to a relationship between ego development and racial attitudes. An initial purpose of this study was to analyze the data by race, but the small numbers of people of color, only six participants were African American, necessitates extreme caution when interpreting the statistical analysis.

Two studies illustrate the influence of counseling student’s cognitive-developmental levels on their counseling-related cognitions. Holloway and Wolleat (1980) reported that counseling students at higher conceptual levels produced more effective clinical hypotheses, regardless of their previous counseling experience. Borders, Fong, and Niemeyer (1986) studied practicum and intern students’ perceptions of their clients. They found that counseling students at lower ego levels tended to use more simplistic, concrete descriptors, whereas those at higher ego levels used more sophisticated, interactive descriptors. Again, the experience level of the counseling student did not impact the formation of clinical perceptions. Other studies of counseling students at the same experience level also illustrated the influence of conceptual or ego development on skill acquisition and performance (Holloway & Wampold, 1986).
In a study of first practicum counseling students, Borders (1989) hypothesized that differences in in-session cognitions of beginning counseling students at various ego developmental levels would vary by time, place, client focus, counselor orientation and degree of planning. Study participants were drawn from 36 counseling students enrolled in the counseling practicum course in a master's counseling program at a university in the Midwest. All students had completed their academic coursework and were enrolled in their first practicum. The final sample of 27 students (23 women and 4 men) ranged in age from 22 to 46 (M = 32.61, SD = 6.92).

The level of ego development was assessed by the Sentence Completion Test of Ego Development-Form 81 (SCT; Loevinger & Wessler, 1970). Studies of interrater, test-retest, and split-half reliabilities and internal consistency reported coefficients in the middle .70s and above (Loevinger & Wessler, 1970). Validity studies provided evidence for theoretical constructs, including stage sequences and the behaviors and attitudes characteristic at each stage (Loevinger, 1979; Loevinger & Wessler, 1970).

A standardized recall procedure for assessing in-session cognitions was adapted from Kagan's (1975) Interpersonal Process Recall and a thinking-aloud approach. To reduce threats to validity Borders followed strict guidelines for assessing actual thoughts rather than reflections about those thoughts. An inductive strategy was used to develop six dimensions that characterized beginning counselors' internal dialogue during a session. Factor analysis revealed counselors' retrospections were independent of counselor behaviors and client satisfaction, which conveyed the appropriateness of studying counselor retrospections separately from other in-session events. Cognitions were classified into one of the following categories; time, place, client focus, counselor orientation and degree of planning. Counseling students in this study scored at three levels of ego development: self-aware, conscientious, and individualistic. Data analyses
revealed the in-session cognitions of students at various ego developmental levels differed in mode or the affect expressed but did not differ according to time, place, client focus, or counselor orientation or planning. There was, however, a significant effect of ego level of cognitions classified as negative, $X^2 (2, N = 27) = 8.14, p = .02$. This indicated that students at higher ego levels reported fewer negative thoughts about themselves or their clients. There was a non-significant result for neutral cognitions, $X^2 (2, N = 27) = 5.02, p = .08$, with students at higher ego levels reporting more objective self-reflections. Several factors limit the generalizability of this study including the small sample size, and homogeneity of the students in ego level (three levels of ego development were represented). Although, several factors limit the generalizability of the results of this study, the results of this study provided limited support for the relationship between beginning counselor ego levels and their in-session cognitions. Thus, the results of this study suggest some support for the theoretical assumptions of developmental models of counselor training (Borders, 1989).

Summary

This chapter provided a review of the literature describing the challenges faced by graduate training programs as they train school psychologists to work with an increasingly diverse population. Literature was explored pertaining to the calls made by NASP and APA to address multicultural issues in multicultural training, and specifically to infuse multiculturalism into the entire curriculum, rather than being a single class. The importance of addressing awareness, knowledge and skills was highlighted, as were some training programs' efforts at addressing the importance of multiculturalism. Cognitive development was presented as a general framework for understanding how school psychology trainees may conceptualize their experience. The domain of ego development was covered in greater depth. It was proposed that a
relationship exists between racial attitudes and ego development as reflected by increased
justice reasoning, an increase in willingness to confront discrimination and heightened level of
perceived multicultural counseling competence.

The following chapter will present the study’s research design and methodology. The
population will be described, proposed data gathering procedures will be explained, and
instrumentation will be discussed. Finally, the research hypotheses will be described and the data
analyses will be specified.
Chapter Three

Research Methodology

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the design and methodology used in this research study. Included are the following: population, sample, data gathering procedures, instrumentation, research design, hypotheses, and data analyses. Additionally, specific ethical considerations will be discussed.

Population and Sample

The study’s target population was practicing school psychologists. The sample was derived from a random sample from the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP). Charvat (2004) conducted a national survey to determine the number of school psychologists in the United States. The results of that survey indicated that in 2004 there were 37,893 credentialed school psychologists in the 50 states and the District of Columbia. This represented an increase of 6,615 or 21% from 31,278 obtained 1999 (Thomas, 2000). In 2005 NASP had approximately 21,500 members. This researcher intended to obtain a response rate of 50%.

Obtaining a high response rate in survey research can bolster statistical power, reduce sampling error, and enhance the generalizability of the results to the population surveyed (Gore-Felton, Koopman, Bridges, Thoreson, & Spiegel, 2002). Therefore 225 surveys were sent to obtain a minimum sample of 112 participants using a direct mail survey methodology. This researcher hoped to obtain a 50 percent response rate by using this methodology. The sample consisted of both male and female school psychologists practicing at the elementary, middle and secondary school levels. Also included in the sample were private practice school psychologists and those working in non-school settings such as hospitals and treatment centers.
Survey research was used for this study. In general, the purpose of survey research was to collect data from a representative sample of the population through the use of a questionnaire in order to answer research questions (Borg, Gall, Borg, 1996). In this study, research was comprised of a written and mailed questionnaire. This format was chosen because of ease and efficiency of reaching a cross-sectional sample of school psychologists. Data was collected using a self-designed demographic form, standardized Likert-type assessment instruments and a semi-projective measure. Permission to complete the study was obtained from the Human Subjects' Board at the College of William and Mary. A random sample of 225 school psychologists and their addresses was obtained from the National Association of School Psychologists. Demographic forms, the Social Scale, the Social Scenarios Scale, the Washington University Sentence Completion Test, the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale-Revised were copied and coded. A cover letter addressing the purpose of the study and informed consent, a demographic form, the survey instruments and self-addressed stamped return envelope, and a William and Mary pencil were assembled into packets.

Once assembled the survey packets were mailed to 225 members of NASP. To maximize the return rate, a four step mailing was used as outlined by Borg, Gall and Borg (1996). The first mailing consisted of the complete survey packet that included the cover letter, the demographic form, survey instruments and a stamped, self-addressed return envelope. A return address label was included for the participant to request a copy of the final research. A pencil with the colors and logo of The College of William and Mary was also included in the packet as an enticement to participate and as a token of appreciation. Two weeks after the first mailing, a reminder postcard was sent to those who did not previously respond. Approximately two weeks later, a
complete survey packet was sent to non-respondents. A new cover letter accompanied the
second packet and included a message to capture the non-respondent’s attention and stress the
importance of participation. A fourth and final mailing took place approximately two weeks
later. This consisted of a reminder postcard. To ensure confidentiality and decrease the chances
of duplicate mailings, a master list of participants was maintained. A numeric code was assigned
to each individual, which was recorded on the survey instruments and the return envelope.

Using this four step method, the initial full mailing was sent on September 2, 2005. The
final postcard reminder was sent on October 7, 2005. Most of the respondents returned their
questionnaires before November 1, 2005.

Data Handling Procedure

The mailing list and returned questionnaires were carefully stored in a secure file cabinet.
Access to the data was limited to only the researcher. Access to the computer used to enter the
data was also limited to only the researcher. Backup disks were stored in the secure file cabinet
along with the hard data.

Instrumentation

Four instruments were used to collect necessary information for completing this study.
Specifically, they are as follows: 1) demographic information form, 2) Social Scale and the
Social Scenarios Scale, 3) Washington University Sentence Completion Test, 4) and
Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale-Revised. Informed consent was
addressed in the cover letter.

Informed Consent Form

The cover letter summarized the study’s procedures, explained what activities were
requested of the participants, and described how the results of the study would be used. A
paragraph at the end of the cover letter addressed informed consent. Participants were informed
that by completing and returning the survey, they were acknowledging consent. This statement also informed the participants of their right to withdraw from the study at any time.

**Demographic Information Form**

A demographic information form was used to obtain information about the participants including the following: 1) age, 2) gender, 3) race, 4) highest degree held, 5) years of experience as a school psychologist, 6) work setting, 7) counseling coursework in their program, 8) counseling coursework beyond their program, and 9) multicultural coursework. Through the use of a numeric coding system, a participant's demographic form was matched with his/her scores on the SS, SSS, WUSCT, and MCKAS. The information derived from the demographic survey was used to determine the impact of these specific demographic variables on ego development, racial attitudes, and perceived multicultural counseling competence.

**Social Scale and Social Scenarios Scale**

Measurement of contemporary attitudes reflecting prejudice presents unique problems (Byrnes & Kiger, 1988; McConahay, Hardee, & Batts, 1985; McConahay & Hough, 1976). According to the authors, (Byrnes & Kiger, 1987) new scales were needed to measure racial attitudes because the items in older tests have become outdated, and in modern society negative attitudes are often masked by rationalizations that are purportedly unrelated to racial prejudice. The Social Scale and the Social Scenarios Scales were developed to measure racial attitudes in contemporary society and are adaptations of E. S. Bogardus's (1933) Social Distance Scale and the Social Situation Scale by N. Kogan and J. F. Downey (1956). The Social Scale measures attitudes about comfort with social relations with racially different individuals. The scale constructions were derived from responses to 190 teacher education students in the northwest United States.

The resulting Social Scale contains factors involving partner and non-intimate social
relationships. This scale consists of eight Likert type items, score range from 1=very uncomfortable to 7=very comfortable. A subject with higher scores on the Social Scale is thought to be more comfortable in relations with diverse others. The scale has a $M=43.75$ and $SD=9.6$. The reliability coefficient of this scale is .88. A principal component factor analysis yielded a two factor solution. Six items loaded on the Non-intimate subscale ($M=35.14$, $SD=7.2$, alpha coefficient=.89) that contained items pertaining to relationships such as roommate, counselor or doctor. Two items loaded on the Partner subscale ($M=8.61$, $SD=3.5$, alpha coefficient=.71) and contained items pertaining to dance partner and date. The correlation between the Non-intimate and Partner subscales was .557 ($p < .001$).

The Social Scenarios Scale was developed to measure an individual's willingness to act when presented with social situations in which racial conflict occurs (Byrnes & Kiger, 1987). Subjects are required to indicate how they would respond to situations involving racial conflicts using a multiple-choice format, revealing his/her willingness to confront or condone prejudice and discrimination. Although scales have been developed to measure sexism, and heterosexism as well as racism, most do not follow the situational format found in the Social Scenarios Scale. The Social Scenarios Scale includes twelve items depicting situations of racial conflict. A three-factor model emerged to include: pejorative remarks, intimacy and job/housing dilemmas. According to Byrnes and Kiger, (1997) this format makes the test ideal to use when comparing prejudice and cognitive development. The format of the Social Scenarios Scale is similar to other measures of moral development such as the Defining Issues Test (Rest, 1979). When confronted with a situation in which racial conflict occurs, subjects were asked to choose one of four possible responses to each situation. The responses are coded 0= least anti-discriminatory and 4= most anti-discriminatory. Several studies have provided evidence for validity and reliability of the Social Scenarios Scale (Clauss, 1999; Byrnes & Kiger, 1987; Barrett, 1995).
Analysis of the full scale produced a mean score of 10.26, a total alpha = .75 and test-retest correlation coefficient = .93. A principal component factor analysis of The Social Scenarios Scale produced a three factor solution; pejorative remarks, intimacy and job/housing subscales, with four items on each scale. Mean scores are derived for each subscale, pejorative remarks \( (M=10.03, \text{SD}=3.7, \alpha=.66) \), intimacy \( (M=10.22, \text{SD}=3.9, \alpha=.75) \) and job/housing \( (M=10.54, \text{SD}=3.3, \alpha=.54) \). According to Byrnes and Kiger (1987) the intercorrelation between the Social Scale and the Social Scenarios Scale is high \( (r=.583, p < .001, N=190) \). This may indicate that while the two scales measure different aspects of racial attitudes, they tap a common concept, racial prejudice.

*The Washington University Sentence Completion Test*

The Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT) (Loevinger & Wessler, 1970) was used to assess stage of ego development. A semi-projective test, the WUSCT (short form) consists of 18 sentence stems and provides different forms for men and women. Responses reveal an individual’s characteristic way of reasoning about his/her actions, motivations and personal relationships (Hy & Loevinger, 1996). Respondents were asked to complete each stem, generally with no further instructions. Responses were then transcribed and sorted by item according to the procedures recommended procedures (Hy & Loevinger, 1989; Loevinger & Wessler, 1970).

Each protocol was scored in groups of 25-30 by a trained rater. Item response level scores were obtained by matching the item-level response with the appropriate ego developmental level and category as delineated in the training manual (Hy & Loevinger, 1989). Ego level scores were then converted into an integer scale for ease of data analysis. The scale numbers and their stage level equivalents are presented in Table 4.
Protocols were scored for a Total Protocol Rating or Ego Development Level. This rating is based on a cumulative frequency or “ogive” of the item level scores, and is computer with an algorithm of “automatic” decision rules (Hy & Loevinger, 1989).

Several studies have provided evidence for validity and reliability (Gilmore & Durkin, 2001; D’Andrea & Daniels, 1992; Loevinger, 1998; Loevinger, 1979; Loevinger & Wessler, 1970). Loevinger and Wessler (1970) reported an interrater agreement for self-trained raters to be between .86 and .90. For individual items of the WUSCT, the reliabilities ranged from .47 to .93. When self-trained raters were compared to professionally trained raters, the interrater agreement ranged from .89 to .92. Loevinger and Wessler (1970) tested the internal consistency of the SCT and reported an alpha coefficient of .91 for all 36 items.

Researchers found evidence of external validity (Gilmore & Durkin, 2001; Loevinger, 1998). In a recent review of the validity of the WUSCT, Gilmore and Durkin (2001) conclude that there is substantial empirical support for the conceptual soundness of ego development theory and the WUSCT. Two possible obstacles to validity are in the areas of: (1) verbal fluency – there is often a high correlation between the length of the completed sentences and scored ego level of response, and (2) socioeconomic status – higher scores have been found for higher socioeconomic strata. The relationship between intelligence and ego development has been questioned. A recent study found a correlation of approximately .35 (John, Pals, & Westenberg, 1998). Despite the question about the overlapping of ego development with certain other constructs, the WUSCT appears to be a valid measure of ego development as constructed by Loevinger (1979).

*Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale - Revised*

The Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS) is based on the Multicultural Counseling Competencies as described by Ponterotto, et al. (2002). Developed
by Ponterotto and Alexander (1997), this instrument is a 32 item self-report multicultural counseling competency measure with a seven point Likert scale (responses range from “Not at all true” to “Totally true”). The MCKAS consists of two factors: Knowledge (20 items, possible range of mean subscale scores = 1 to 7) and Awareness (12 items, possible range of mean subscale scores = 1 to 7). The Knowledge subscale of the MCKAS assesses general knowledge related to multicultural counseling, and the Awareness subscale measures subtle Eurocentric worldview bias.

Initial studies examining the psychometric properties of the MCKAS indicated coefficient alphas of .85 for each of the subscales. Subsequent studies have revealed coefficient alphas for the Knowledge scale in the .92 range; and for the Awareness scale in the .78 range (Ponterotto, 1991). The MCKAS is also reported to have good content, construct, and criterion-related validity (Ponterotto et al., 2000). As a self-report multicultural counseling competency measure that did not positively correlate with the Crowne-Marlowe Social Desirability Scale (1960), the MCKAS is thought to be a pragmatic tool for use in studies of prejudice (Stanhope et al., 2005). Sodowsky (1996) called the MCKAS a relatively reliable and valid instrument with strong promise for multicultural research. A major critique of self-report measures has been subject’s tendency to respond to items in a socially acceptable manner. The reliance on self-report measures is a weakness of the current study.

Scoring of Instruments

Social Scale (SS) and Social Scenarios Scale (SSS)

Byrnes & Kiger (1987) developed two new scales to measure racial attitudes. The Social Scale and the Social Scenarios Scales were developed to measure racial attitudes in contemporary society. The resulting Social Scale consisted of eight Likert type items. Respondents rated each item with a score range from 1=very uncomfortable to 7=very
comfortable. The Social Scale contained factors involving partner and non-intimate social relationships. Six items loaded on the non-intimate subscale and two items loaded on the partner subscale. A subject with higher scores on the Social Scale is thought to be more comfortable in relations with diverse others.

The Social Scenarios Scale was developed to measure an individual's willingness to act in a non-discriminatory manner (Byrnes & Kiger, 1987). The Social Scenarios Scale included twelve items depicting situations of racial conflict. Subjects were asked to indicate how they would respond to these situations using a multiple-choice format. The responses were coded 0 = least anti-discriminatory and 4 = most anti-discriminatory. Three subscales were calculated from the Social Scenarios Scale; pejorative remarks, intimacy and job/housing dilemmas. Three items loaded on the intimacy subscale, four items loaded on the pejorative remarks subscale and five items loaded on the job/housing subscale.

Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT)

The Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT) (Loevinger & Wessler, 1970) was used to assess ego development. Responses reveal an individual's characteristic way of reasoning about his/her actions, motivations and personal relationships (Hy & Loevinger, 1996). The WUSCT (short form) consists of 18 sentence stems. Respondents were asked to complete each stem with no further instructions. In the current study, the rater used a detailed scoring manual to assign an ego level to each of the respondent's responses. The researcher was self trained through the use of the scoring manual. To check reliability, 25 participant scores were checked against an experienced rater. Inter-rater reliability was calculated at .90. Loevinger and Wessler (1970) reported inter-rater agreement to be between .86 and .90 for self trained raters. There appears to be sufficient agreement between raters in this study. As recommended in the scoring manual, individual items were scored in clusters of twenty five.
protocols instead of scoring each protocol separately in its entirety. After each item cluster was scored, the scores were then reassembled for each participant. Protocols were then scored for a Total Protocol Rating. This rating was based on a cumulative frequency or "ogive" of the item level scores, and was computed with an algorithm of "automatic" decision rules (Hy & Loevinger, 1989).

Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS)

The Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS) was developed by Ponterotto in 1997. The MCKAS is broken down into two factors: Knowledge (20 items, possible range of mean subscale scores = 1 to 7) and Awareness (12 items, possible range of mean subscale scores = 1 to 7). All 20 items of Knowledge subscale of the MCKAS were given scores based on the number circled by the respondent (1=1 point, 2=2 points, etc.). Two items on the Awareness subscale were also scored in this manner. The remaining ten items on the Awareness subscale were reverse scored (1=7 points, 2=6 points, etc.) The mean score for each subscale was then computed.

Research Design

The purpose of this study was to determine the relationship between school psychologist's ego development as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test, racial attitudes as measured by the Social Scale and the Social Scenarios Scale, and perceived multicultural counseling competence as measured by the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale. The design consisted of descriptive and multivariate correlational analyses on the SS, SSS, WUSCT and MCKAS. Descriptive statistical analysis was conducted to determine means, and standard deviations for the obtained data. Correlational analyses were employed to determine relationships between the variables. According to Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996), "multiple regression is used to determine the correlation between a
Racial Attitudes 65
criterion variable and a combination of two or more predictor variables” (p. 434), therefore it was used in the current study to determine the relationship between the criterion variable of ego development, and the predictor variables of participants’ racial attitudes and perceived multicultural counseling competence. Additionally, age, gender, race, level of education, years of experience, counseling coursework and multicultural counseling coursework may impact the analysis, therefore these influence variables was analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA) to, “determine whether the differences between mean scores are statistically significant” (p. 510; Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996). While multiple regression is unable to establish causality, it does provide information about the statistical significance and strength of relationships between variables (Gall, Borg, & Gall, 1996).

Research Hypotheses

Hypothesis One: There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ level of ego development as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT) and racial attitudes as measured by the Social Scale (SS) and the Social Scenarios Scale (SSS).

Hypothesis Two: There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ level of ego development as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT) and their perceived multicultural counseling competence as measured by the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS).

Hypothesis Three: There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ prejudicial attitudes as measured by the Social Scale (SS) and the Social Scenarios Scale (SSS) and perceived multicultural counseling competence as measured by the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS).

Hypothesis Four: There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’
ego development as measured by the WUSCT and the following specific demographic characteristics: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) highest degree attained, 4) work setting, 5) years of experience, 6) counseling coursework in their program, 7) counseling coursework beyond their program and 8) multicultural coursework.

**Hypothesis Five:** There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ perceived multicultural counseling competence as measured by the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS) and the following specific demographic characteristics: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) highest degree attained, 4) work setting, 5) years of experience, 6) counseling coursework in their program, 7) counseling coursework beyond their program and 8) multicultural coursework.

**Hypothesis Six:** There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ racial attitudes as measured by the Social Scale (SS) and the Social Scenarios Scale (SSS) and the following specific demographic characteristics: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) highest degree attained, 4) work setting, 5) years of experience, 6) counseling coursework in their program, 7) counseling coursework beyond their program and 8) multicultural coursework.

**Data Analysis**

The hypotheses were tested using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficients (Pearson r) and analysis of variance (ANOVA). Analysis of variance and Pearson r provided information about the magnitude of the relationships between levels of ego development, racial attitudes, multicultural counseling competencies and specific demographic information. The alpha was set at .05 for establishing statistical significance. When significance was determined from the ANOVA, follow-up post hoc tests were conducted to specify which variables are significantly impacting each other. According to Gall, Borg, and Gall (1996), analysis of variance and Pearson r are two of the most frequently used statistical analyses.
**Ethical Considerations**

This survey research proposal was submitted for review to the Institutional Review Board of The College of William and Mary and approved. It fell under the exemption category due to it being a survey that ensured disclosure of information in a confidential manner through the use of group results. Written consent was not needed due to the voluntary nature of responses; however, the cover letter contained informed consent information and the rights afforded to all research participants. These rights included assurance of confidentiality, voluntary participation, withdrawal as a research participant at any time without penalty, and availability of the final results of this survey research, if so desired. Several methods of contact were provided to ensure that follow up contacts could be made, including the mailing addresses, telephone numbers, and email addresses of the researcher and the research supervisor.

**Summary**

Chapter one introduced the topic to be explored in this study, while chapter two reviewed pertinent literature establishing a need for the research. Finally, the preceding chapter described the research design and methodology used in conducting the study.

The present research tested the relationship between ego development, and racial attitudes of school psychologists, and how these constructs relate to perceived multicultural counseling competence. This study contributed to the body of research literature by providing a cognitive developmental framework within which to examine the effects of racial attitudes on multicultural counseling competence.
Chapter Four

Analysis of Results

Introduction

This chapter describes the results of the survey research. It includes response rates and demographic information of the sample as well as the results of statistical analyses of the specific research hypotheses.

Sampling Procedures

During the months of September and October 2005, a national survey was conducted using a randomized sample of school psychologists. All persons surveyed were members of the National Association of School Psychologists (NASP), the professional organization for school psychologists at the national level. A randomized sample of 225 members was drawn from the NASP roster of practicing school psychologists. Participants were asked to complete a Demographic Form, the Social Scale, the Social Scenarios Scale, the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale and the Washington University Sentence Completion Test.

Demographic Information of Total Sample

A sample of 225 members was drawn randomly from the 2005 NASP membership registration. Through multiple mailings, questionnaires were returned for a response rate of 41.8% (N=94) from the total sample of 225. This response rate is consistent with acceptable response rates (Gore-Felton, Koopman, Bridges, Thoreson, & Spiegel, 2002). Three packets were not deliverable by the post office and returned. Six questionnaires were returned blank by the addressee. Of the returned questionnaires, 91.5% were useable (N = 86) for an overall useable response rate of 38.2%. Only professionals currently in practice as a school psychologist were included in the useable response rate. One school psychologist chose not to complete the MCKAS (N =85). The WUSCT was completed by the fewest number of school psychologists.
therefore complete data was available on 78 respondents.

Demographic Information by Category

Gender

Table 4.1 displays the gender of respondents in this research. Nearly three fourths of school psychologists in this sample were female. 72.1% of the respondents reported as female (N=62). 27.9% of respondents reported their gender to be male (N=24). Given that the majority of school psychologists across the country are female, this gender distribution was regarded as a normal distribution of what is found in the field of school psychology (Curtis et al, 2001).

Table 4.1

Gender of Total Sample (N=86)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>72.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Age

The age range of the participants was from twenty to over sixty-five year of age. Table 4.2 displays the ages of participants in this research. The majority of respondents report their age to be between 40 to 49 years old (30.3%, N=26). The second most represented group in this sample included those who reported their age to be between 50-59 years old (22.1%, N=19). 33.7% of the sample was between 20 and 39 years old. As the age range increases, the frequency of responses also increases. This is to be expected given the aging population of school
Racial Attitudes

psychologists in practice today (Curtis et al, 2001).

Table 4.2

Age of Total Sample (N=86)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Race/Ethnicity

Table 4.3 displays the racial/ethnic makeup of this sample. The overwhelming majority of the sample identified as White/Caucasian. 93% of the respondents reported that they are White (N=80). African Americans made up 2.3% (N=2) of this sample, and those who are Latino/Latina also represented 2.3% (N=2) of the sample. Two respondents identified themselves as biracial (2.3%). No individuals identified themselves as Asian or American Indian. It was the intention of the researcher to survey a more diverse sample; unfortunately the population of school psychologists remains largely homogenous with the majority being white females (Curtis, Grier, Abshier, & Sutton, 2001).
Table 4.3

Race/Ethnicity of Total Sample (N=86)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Race/Ethnicity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latino</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Native American</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (Biracial)</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>86</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Education*

Educational attainment in this sample ranged from masters degree to doctorate degree. Table 4.4 displays the educational attainment of this sample. The most represented segment of this sample reported that they held a specialist degree at 44% (N=37). 36% (N=31) held doctorate degrees while 20.9% (N=18) held master's degrees. This change toward the specialist degree is expected because most school psychology programs are now organized at the specialist level (Curtis, 2001.)
Table 4.4

Education of Total Sample (N=86)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Highest Degree Obtained</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctorate</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Employment Setting

Respondents were asked to indicate the setting in which they currently practice school psychology. Table 4.5 displays the employment setting of this sample. 82.6% of respondents (N=71) reported working in a public school setting. A non-school setting such as hospital or treatment center was the next highest group (5.8%, N=5) represented in the sample. Non-public schools were represented at 4.7% (N=4) as were private practice school psychologists. College professors were the smallest group represented in the sample (2.3%, N=2).
Table 4.5

Employment Setting of Total Sample (N=86)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Employment Setting</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public School</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>82.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-public School</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-school</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private Practice</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College or University</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Years of Experience*

Respondents reported their years of work experience as ranging from zero to 30 years. This is a bimodal sample which is characterized by the greatest numbers of respondents in the highest and lowest groups. The largest represented group in this sample is those with 0 to 5 years of experience (30.2%, N=26). An equal number of school psychologists in the sample reported 21 to 30 years of experience (30.2%, N=26).
Table 4.6

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years of Experience</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20+</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Demographics of NASP membership

The demographic characteristics of the 1999-2000 NASP (Curtis, 2001) membership and of this research sample are summarized in Table 4.7. The age distribution of the research sample was bimodal with highest numbers in the youngest and oldest groups. This is comparable with the 2000 NASP study (Curtis, 2001) which found 31.9% of members to be between the ages of 20-39 years of age. 66.3% of the sample was between 40 and 69 years old. In the NASP study, the comparable group represented 64.2% of the sample. Racial demographics of this sample are comparable to the NASP study (Curtis, 2001) with vast majority of school psychologists being white. The distribution of respondent’s years of experience in this study is comparable to the NASP study (Curtis, 2001). In this sample 62.8% of the respondents reported 15 years or less of experience. The NASP study reported 66.9% of their sample with the same numbers of years of experience. Similarly, 33% of this sample reported 16 to 30 years of experience; the NASP sample reported 32.1%.
Table 4.7
Demographic Characteristics for NASP Membership and Sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>NASP (%)</th>
<th>Sample (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>27.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>72.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Race</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>American Indian</td>
<td>0.7</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Asian</td>
<td>0.9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Black</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Latino</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>White</td>
<td>94.5</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (biracial)</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Age</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-29</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>15.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-39</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>18.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50-59</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>22.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60-69</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Years of Experience</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>0-5</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>16.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
<td>18.4</td>
<td>7.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-30</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Highest Degree</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>20.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>36.0</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral</td>
<td>20.6</td>
<td>36.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*a NASP data as reported by Curtis et al for the 1999-2000 school year.

Chi-square statistics were computed to determine where significant differences existed.
between the NASP membership as measured by Curtis (2001) and the research sample. The sample matched the NASP membership on gender, race, years of experience and work setting. Significant differences existed on age, and highest degree attained. Differences in age were due to the research sample being overall older than the NASP membership.

Differences were also noted in educational attainment. In the NASP study, 40.6% held master’s degrees while 36% held specialist degrees. As contrasted with the research sample, only 20.9% held master’s degrees and 43.0% held specialist degrees. Curtis (2001) predicted a shift from master’s degree to specialist degrees in the future. Specialist degrees are now more prevalent for school psychologists because more training programs are currently organized at the specialist level.

The sample is older and more highly educated than the NASP sample. Differences in age and educational attainment were also noted when comparing the study sample with the norming samples of several of the instruments used in this study.

_Counseling and Multicultural Coursework_

Respondents were asked about their participation in counseling and multicultural coursework. Respondents included full courses dedicated to counseling or multicultural issues and any courses that infused these concepts into their curriculum. Answers to the inquiry concerning the number of counseling courses during their school psychology program ranged from zero to eighteen courses. The mean number of courses was 3.28. Seventy-two respondents (83.7%) indicated that they had taken at least one counseling course during their school psychology program. Five respondents (5.8%) reported that they had taken ten or more counseling courses while fourteen respondents (16.3%) indicated that they had not taken any counseling courses during their school psychology program.

Thirty-eight respondents (44.2%) reported that they had taken counseling courses beyond
the requirements of their school psychology training program. The number of courses taken beyond those required for their training program ranged from zero to thirty one. The mean number of courses was 1.50. One respondent (1.1%) indicated that he/she had taken ten or more courses. Forty-eight or 55.8% of respondents reported that they had not taken any counseling courses after finishing their training.

When asked about their participation in multicultural courses, forty-three respondents (73.3%) reported taking multicultural courses. The number of multicultural courses taken ranged from zero to ten with 1.40 courses as the mean. Twenty-three respondents (26.7%) indicated that they had not participated in any multicultural courses to date.

**Instrumentation**

Respondents were asked to complete the Social Scale (SS), Social Scenarios Scale (SSS), the Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT) and the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS) in addition to the Demographic Form. Pertinent scores from each instrument are given below.

**Social Scale**

The Social Scale and the Social Scenarios Scales were developed to measure racial attitudes in contemporary society (Byrnes & Kiger, 1987). The SS measures attitudes about comfort with social relations with racially different individuals. Scores for the SS and the SSS are displayed in Table 4.8. Scores on the SS ranged from 7 to 56 with higher scores corresponding to more tolerant racial attitudes. A norming sample of 286 university students found a mean score for the instrument to be 43.62 and a standard deviation of 10.6 (Byrnes & Kiger, 1988). The alpha coefficient was .88. Full scale scores for respondents in the current study ranged from 9 to 56 with a mean of 50.87 and a standard deviation of 7.3. A mean of 50.87 in the present study is significantly higher than in the norming sample (z=9.21, p<.01), indicating that
the study sample is more racially tolerant. Two subscales can be derived from the SS, the non-intimate subscale and the partner subscale. Standardization of the non-intimate scale by Byrnes and Kiger (1988) produced a mean score of 34.66 and a standard deviation of 7.9. The research sample mean on this subtest was 39.07 and the standard deviation was 5.1. For the non-intimate subscale of the SS, the majority of participants in this study (60.5%) frequently selected items reflecting the most tolerant views (z=8.02, p< .01).

The standardization sample for the partner subscale produced a mean of 8.96 and a standard deviation of 3.7 (Byrnes & Kiger, 1988). The research sample mean for the partner subscale was 11.74 and the standard deviation was 3.0. For the partner subscale of the SS, which addresses intimate, interpersonal relationships between individuals from different races, the respondents (73.3%) selected more tolerant views than the norming sample (z=8.61, p< .01).

**Social Scenarios Scale**

Several studies have provided evidence for validity and reliability of the SSS (Clauss, 1999; Byrnes & Kiger, 1987; Byrnes & Kiger, 1988; Barrett, 1995). Analysis of the full scale produced a mean score of 29.97 and a standard deviation of 8.3. The alpha coefficient was .75 and test-retest correlation coefficient = .93. Full scale scores for respondents in the current study ranged from 22 to 48 with a mean of 37.91 and a standard deviation of 5.8. This indicates that participants in this study are significantly (z=12.62, p< .01) more willing to act in a non-discriminatory manner.

A principal component factor analysis of the SSS produced a three factor solution; pejorative remarks, intimacy and job/housing subscales. Mean scores are derived for each subscale. For the norming sample of 286 university students, the pejorative remarks subscale had a mean of 9.66 (SD=3.6, alpha=.65) while this subscale produced a mean of 11.93 (SD=2.7) in the research sample. This is a statistically significant difference (z=7.91, p< .01). In the norming
sample, the intimacy subscale had a mean of 7.12 (SD=3.7, alpha=.83) while research sample mean was 10.74 (SD=2.0). Again, this difference is statistically significant (z=16.30, p< .01). In the standardization sample, the job/housing subscale had a mean of 13.37 (SD=3.6, alpha=.60) while the research sample had a mean of 14.98 (SD=2.9). As before, this is a significant finding (z=5.08, p< .01). Higher scores on the SSS reflect a willingness to act in a less discriminatory manner. Responses from participants in the research sample were higher for all subscales indicating that school psychologists in this sample report having more tolerant racial attitudes.
Table 4.8

Social Scale and Social Scenarios Scale (N=86)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Minimum Score</th>
<th>Maximum Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Social Scale</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>50.87</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>56</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>43.62</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-intimate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>39.07</td>
<td>5.1</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>34.66</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>11.74</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>8.96</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Scenarios</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>37.91</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>48</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>29.97</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pejorative</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>11.93</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>9.66</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Intimacy</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>10.74</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>7.12</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job/Housing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>14.98</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>286</td>
<td>13.37</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The construct of ego development was measured using the WUSCT. Scores for the WUSCT are displayed in Table 4.9. Of the 86 responses received from practicing school psychologists, 78 valid responses were obtained with the WUSCT. Eight respondents chose not to complete the WUSCT. The 9.3% rate of invalid responses was within the range of 5 to 15 percent of responses to be invalid in studies relying on volunteers (Rest, 1990). For the 78 valid responses, Ego Development Level scores ranged from 3 to 8, on the WUSCT the maximum score is 9. The mean score for the 78 respondents was 5.67, the median score was 6.00, and the standard deviation was .963. The results of the WUSCT indicated that there were six levels of ego development present in the sample of practicing school psychologists shown in Table 4.8. The Self-Protective level (E3) represented the smallest group in the sample with just one respondent (1.28%). The next lowest representation was found in the Autonomous Level (E8) with two respondents (2.6%). The Conformist level (E4) was represented at 7.69% (N=6). The research sample contained 15.38% (N=12) at the Individualistic level (E7). The Self-Aware level (E5) was represented in the sample at 34.61% (N=27). The highest numbers were found in the Conscientious level (E6) (N=30). There were no respondents at either the lowest level, Impulsive (E2) or at the highest level, Integrated (E9). The WUSCT was developed by Loevinger (1976) and normed on a population of women. It was later revised for use with men and women (Loevinger, 1985). In this revision the mean ego score was found to be 5.75 for women and 5.58 for men.
Table 4.9

Ego Development Frequency Distribution (N=78)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Loevinger’s Stage</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>E3</td>
<td>Self-Protection</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E4</td>
<td>Conformist</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7.69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E5</td>
<td>Self-Aware</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>34.61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E6</td>
<td>Conscientious</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>38.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E7</td>
<td>Individualistic</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>15.38</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E8</td>
<td>Autonomous</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2.56</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.10

Washington University Sentence Completion Test (N=78)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WUSCT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>5.53</td>
<td>.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>6.05</td>
<td>.887</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loevinger (1985)</td>
<td>804</td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td>350</td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>1.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td>454</td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>1.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale**

Perceived multicultural counseling competence was measured using the MCKAS. Scores for the MCKAS are displayed in Table 4.10. As with the SSS, higher scores indicate more tolerant views. Mean scores on the MCKAS Knowledge and Awareness subscales may range from 1 to 7. Of the 86 responses received from practicing school psychologists, 85 responses (98.8%) were returned with the MCKAS completed and were used in the analysis of data.

In the norming sample of 525 counseling professionals and students used by Ponterotto (2002) in the development of the MCKAS (N=525). The mean age of these participants was 35 years old with 42% holding Bachelor’s degrees, 39% having Master’s degrees and 19% with Doctorate degrees. While this sample is somewhat younger than the study sample, it is comparable in educational attainment.

In development, Ponterotto (2002) found the mean score for the Knowledge scale was 4.96 and the standard deviation was .80. In the present study, for the MCKAS Knowledge scale, individual mean scores ranged from 2.20 to 6.70 with a mean of 4.98 and a standard deviation of .86. This is not significantly different from the norming sample (z=.215, p>.05). For the MCKAS Awareness scale, individual scores ranged from 2.67 to 7.00 with a mean score of 5.50 and a standard deviation of .83 in the current sample. In Ponterotto’s norming sample, the mean for the Awareness scale was 5.06 and the standard deviation was 1.14 (Ponterotto, 2002). This difference shows significantly (z=4.88, p<.01) higher levels of multicultural awareness.
Table 4.11

Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (N=85)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>SD</th>
<th>Minimum Score</th>
<th>Maximum Score</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>4.98</td>
<td>.86</td>
<td>2.20</td>
<td>6.70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>4.96</td>
<td>.80</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sample</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>5.50</td>
<td>.83</td>
<td>2.67</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norm</td>
<td>525</td>
<td>5.06</td>
<td>1.14</td>
<td>2.00</td>
<td>7.00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Data Analyses Specific to Research Hypotheses**

Each directional hypothesis was reviewed, followed by a description of the statistical analysis that was used for each. A brief interpretation of results of the analysis concludes the examination of each hypothesis. In the analysis of demographic characteristics in relation to each instrument, the participant's race/ethnicity was not used as a variable. Contrary to what was planned, the small number (N=6) of non-white respondents prohibited the use of race in statistical analyses. Additionally, the overwhelming number of school psychologists (N=71, 82.6%) responding reported working in a public school setting. Fifteen respondents (17.4%) reported working in a setting other than public schools. To facilitate the use of statistical analyses, work setting was collapsed into public school and non-public school settings.
Hypothesis One

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ level of ego development as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT) and racial attitudes as measured by the Social Scale (SS) and the Social Scenarios Scale (SSS).

Statistical analyses using a Pearson product moment correlation were conducted to examine relationship between WUSCT scores and the scores for the SS and SSS. The results are displayed in Table 4.11. A significant positive correlation at the .05 alpha level was not found between scores on the WUSCT and the SS and SSS scores (r=.165, p=.356). Further analysis studied the relationship between scores on the WUSCT and the subscales of the SS and SSS. A significant positive correlation at the .05 alpha level was not found between scores on the WUSCT and subscale scores (r=.283, p=.648). A relationship between these variables was not found. The first hypothesis was not confirmed by the findings.

Table 4.12
WUSCT Score as Predictor of SS and SSS Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variable</th>
<th>Criterion Variable</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>r^2</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WUSCT</td>
<td>SS &amp; SSS</td>
<td>.165</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>.356</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WUSCT</td>
<td>SS subscales and SSS subscales</td>
<td>.283</td>
<td>.080</td>
<td>.648</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis Two

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ level of ego development as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT)
and perceived multicultural counseling competence as measured by the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS).

A Pearson product moment correlation was used to examine the relationship between WUSCT scores and the scores for each of the MCKAS scales and the results are displayed in Table 4.12. A significant positive correlation at the .05 alpha level was not found between WUSCT score and the MCKAS Knowledge scale (r=.168, p=.141). Likewise, a significant positive correlation was not found between the WUSCT score and the MCKAS Awareness scale (r=.040, p=.727). A relationship between these variables was not established. The second hypothesis was not confirmed by the research data.

Table 4.13
WUSCT Scores as a Predictor of MCKAS Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variable</th>
<th>Criterion Variable</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>r²</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>WUSCT</td>
<td>Knowledge &amp; Awareness</td>
<td>.176</td>
<td>.031</td>
<td>.305</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WUSCT</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>.168</td>
<td>.028</td>
<td>.141</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WUSCT</td>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>.040</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.727</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Hypothesis Three**

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ racial attitudes as measured by the Social Scale (SS) and the Social Scenarios Scale (SSS) and perceived multicultural counseling competence as measured by the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS).

Using a Pearson product moment correlation the relationship between scores on the SS
and MCKAS was tested. The results of the statistical analysis are presented in Table 4.13.

MCKAS Knowledge and MCKAS Awareness were entered as criterion variables. The full scale score for the SS was used as the predictor variable. These variables did not reach the significance level of $p<.05$ in the analysis ($r=0.251; p=0.070$). When the MCKAS Awareness scale was analyzed separately in relation to the SS subscales of Partner and Non-intimate; a moderately significant positive correlation was found ($r=0.264; p=0.050$). The Partner subscale of the SS predicts multicultural awareness as measured by the MCKAS Awareness scale. The coefficient of determination ($r^2 = 0.264^2$) equaled 0.07 indicating that the MCKAS Awareness score and the SS partner score have 7.0 percent of their variance in common. When examining the MCKAS Knowledge scale independently, a similar relationship was not found. A significant positive correlation at the .05 alpha level was not established between either of the SS subscales and the MCKAS Knowledge scale ($r=0.167, p=0.312$).

Table 4.14

Social Scale Score as Predictors of MCKAS Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variable</th>
<th>Criterion Variable</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>$r^2$</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SS Full Scale</td>
<td>Knowledge &amp; Awareness</td>
<td>0.251</td>
<td>0.063</td>
<td>0.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS Subscales</td>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>0.264</td>
<td>0.070</td>
<td>0.050</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SS Subscales</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>0.167</td>
<td>0.028</td>
<td>0.312</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The relationship between scores on the SSS and MCKAS was tested using a Pearson product moment correlation. The results of this statistical analysis are presented in Table 4.14. First, full scale SSS scores were analyzed in relation to MCKAS Knowledge and Awareness.
scores. These variables produced a result that met the .05 significance level (r=.310; p=.016).

When the MCKAS Awareness scale was analyzed separately in relation to the SSS subscales of Authority, Peer and Stranger; a significant positive correlation was found (r=.397; p=.033). The coefficient of determination (r² = .387²) equaled .157 indicating that the MCKAS Knowledge score and the SSS Authority score have 15.7 percent of the shared variance. The Authority subscale of the SSS predicts multicultural awareness. Independent analysis of the MCKAS Knowledge scale did not find a similar relationship. A significant positive correlation at the .05 alpha level was not established between either of the SSS subscales and the MCKAS Knowledge scale (r=.303, p=.259).

Table 4.15
Social Scenarios Scale Score as Predictors of MCKAS Scores

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Predictor Variable</th>
<th>Criterion Variable</th>
<th>r</th>
<th>r²</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SSS Full Scale</td>
<td>Knowledge &amp; Awareness</td>
<td>.310</td>
<td>.096</td>
<td>.016</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSS Subscales</td>
<td>Awareness</td>
<td>.397</td>
<td>.157</td>
<td>.033</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>SSS Subscales</td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
<td>.303</td>
<td>.092</td>
<td>.259</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This hypothesis was partially supported by the data. The results indicate that multicultural awareness can be predicted from scores on the SS partner subscale and the SSS authority subscale. Multicultural knowledge can not be predicted from scores on the SS or SSS.

Hypothesis Four

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ ego development as measured by the WUSCT and the following specific demographic
characteristics: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) highest degree attained, 4) work setting, 5) years of experience, 6) counseling coursework in their program, 7) counseling coursework beyond their program and 8) multicultural coursework.

A stepwise linear multiple regression was used to determine the size and direction of relationships between ego developmental level and the demographic variables listed above. These results and corresponding significance levels are presented in Table 4.15. WUSCT scores were used at the dependent variable and demographic characteristics were used as the independent variables. A Pearson product moment correlation was used to confirm non-significant findings. The statistical analyses indicated that gender is related to ego developmental level as measured by the WUSCT at the .05 level of statistical significance (r=-2.35; p=.038). This negative statistic indicates that men were found to be functioning at higher levels of ego development than females in this sample. Although a statistically significant the relationship between gender and ego development was established, it is in the opposite direction from what was predicted in the hypothesis. Therefore, this finding did not support the hypothesis. The remaining variables: age, highest degree attained, work setting, years of experience, counseling coursework in their program, counseling coursework beyond their program and multicultural coursework were analyzed with relation to ego developmental level. No other significant findings were established.
Table 4.16

Multiple Regression Data for WUSCT and Demographic Variables

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>WUSCT</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>p</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.254</td>
<td>-2.093</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.009</td>
<td>-.057</td>
<td>.95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest degree attained</td>
<td>-.109</td>
<td>-.874</td>
<td>.385</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work setting</td>
<td>-.128</td>
<td>-.993</td>
<td>.324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td>.163</td>
<td>1.077</td>
<td>.285</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling coursework in program</td>
<td>.019</td>
<td>.153</td>
<td>.878</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling coursework beyond program</td>
<td>.086</td>
<td>.672</td>
<td>.504</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multicultural coursework</td>
<td>-.031</td>
<td>-.257</td>
<td>.798</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Hypothesis Five

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists' perceived multicultural counseling competence as measured by the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS) and the following specific demographic characteristics: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) highest degree attained, 4) work setting, 5) years of experience, 6) counseling coursework in their program, 7) counseling coursework beyond their program and 8) multicultural coursework.

The relationship between perceived multicultural counseling competence and the demographic variables listed above was tested with the use of a stepwise linear multiple regression. MCKAS scores were used as the dependent variable and demographic variable were
used as the independent variables. As before, a Pearson product moment correlation was used
to confirm the non-significant findings. The relationships between MCKAS Knowledge and
demographic characteristics are displayed in Table 4.16. The statistical analysis indicated that the
number of multicultural courses completed is related to multicultural knowledge as measured by
the MCKAS Knowledge scale. The relationship met the .05 level of statistical significance ($r=-$
.235; $p=.038$). The remaining variables: gender, age, highest degree attained, work setting, years
of experience, counseling coursework in their program, and counseling coursework beyond their
program were analyzed with relation to multicultural knowledge. No other significant findings
were established.

Table 4.17

Multiple Regression Data for MCKAS Knowledge and Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>MCKAS Knowledge</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.005</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>.056</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest degree attained</td>
<td>.070</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work setting</td>
<td>-.032</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td>.124</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling coursework in program</td>
<td>-.148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling coursework beyond program</td>
<td>.006</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multicultural coursework</td>
<td>.414</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The relationship between MCKAS Awareness and demographic characteristics is displayed in Table 4.17. The statistical analyses revealed three findings at the .05 level of significance. Age and multicultural awareness was a significant negative correlation ($r=-.511$; $p=.001$). A significant positive correlation was found between years of experience and the MCKAS Awareness ($r=.327$, $p=.016$). A significant positive correlation at the .05 alpha level was revealed between gender and the MCKAS Awareness ($r=.264$, $p=.014$). Females in the study had a mean MCKAS Awareness score of 5.59 while males had a score of 5.27. The remaining variables: highest degree attained, work setting, counseling coursework in their program, counseling coursework beyond their program and multicultural coursework were analyzed with relation to multicultural awareness. No other significant findings were established.

Table 4.18
Multiple Regression Data for Multicultural Awareness and Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>MCKAS Awareness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Beta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.264</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.499</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest degree attained</td>
<td>-.034</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work setting</td>
<td>.085</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td>.327</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling coursework in program</td>
<td>.023</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling coursework beyond program</td>
<td>-.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multicultural coursework</td>
<td>.105</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Hypothesis Six

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ racial attitudes as measured by the Social Scale (SS) and the Social Scenarios Scale (SSS) and the following specific demographic characteristics: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) highest degree attained, 4) work setting, 5) years of experience, 6) counseling coursework in their program, 7) counseling coursework beyond their program and 8) multicultural coursework.

The results of the analysis of SS and the demographic variables are presented in Table 4.18. The statistical analyses found that the relationship between SS scores and multicultural coursework to be significant at the .01 level. School psychologists with higher the number of multicultural courses reported lower levels of racial tolerance. The remaining variables: gender, age, highest degree attained, years of experience, work setting, counseling coursework in their program, and counseling coursework beyond their program were analyzed with relation to racial attitudes on the SS. No other significant findings were established.
Table 4.19

Multiple Regression Data for Social Scale and Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>.004</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.975</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.083</td>
<td>-.576</td>
<td>.566</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest degree attained</td>
<td>-.168</td>
<td>-1.511</td>
<td>.135</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work setting</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>1.010</td>
<td>.316</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td>-.083</td>
<td>-.590</td>
<td>.557</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling coursework in program</td>
<td>.115</td>
<td>1.040</td>
<td>.302</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling coursework beyond program</td>
<td>.025</td>
<td>.217</td>
<td>.829</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multicultural coursework</td>
<td>-.373</td>
<td>-3.402</td>
<td>.001</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The relationship between SSS scores and demographic characteristics is displayed in Table 4.19. The statistical analyses indicated that the type of work setting is related to racial attitudes as measured by the SSS. The negative relationship met the .05 level of statistical significance ($r=-.218; p=.043$) indicating that school psychologists employed in settings other than a public school are more willing to act in a non-discriminatory manner as measured by the SSS. Discussion of this finding will follow in chapter five. The remaining variables: gender, age, highest degree attained, years of experience, counseling coursework in their program, counseling coursework beyond their program and multicultural coursework were analyzed with relation to racial attitudes on the SSS. No other significant findings were established.
Table 4.20

Multiple Regression Data for Social Scenarios Scale and Demographics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Demographic Variable</th>
<th>Beta</th>
<th>t</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gender</td>
<td>-.057</td>
<td>-.485</td>
<td>.629</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>-.073</td>
<td>-.479</td>
<td>.634</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Highest degree attained</td>
<td>-.128</td>
<td>-1.086</td>
<td>.281</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Work setting</td>
<td>-.252</td>
<td>-2.090</td>
<td>.040</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years of experience</td>
<td>.052</td>
<td>.355</td>
<td>.724</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling coursework in program</td>
<td>.006</td>
<td>.049</td>
<td>.961</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counseling coursework beyond program</td>
<td>.029</td>
<td>.239</td>
<td>.812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multicultural coursework</td>
<td>.027</td>
<td>.228</td>
<td>.820</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Summary

This chapter described the results of the survey research, including response rates and demographic information of the sample. This chapter also reported the results of the data analysis procedures including Chi-square, Pearson product moment correlation and regression analysis. The following chapter will discuss the results relative to the current research on racial attitudes, ego development and multicultural counseling competence. It will also address possible implications, limitations of the current study and give suggestions for future research.
Chapter Five

Discussion and Conclusion

Introduction

The results of this study contribute to the body of literature on racial attitudes, ego development, and multicultural counseling competence. The findings of this research were not always consistent with current literature but they do offer new ways of approaching these constructs. This chapter includes an overview of the study's rationale and a review of the results presented in Chapter 4. The study's major research findings are presented and described in the context of relevant research. A discussion of possible reasons for the findings follows. Limitations of the study are explored and implications for the field of school psychology are posed. Finally, suggestions for future research in the areas of ego development as related to racial attitudes and perceived counseling competencies for addressing the needs of diverse student populations are offered.

Rationale

This study was conducted to assess the relationship between racial attitudes, ego development, and perceived multicultural counseling competency in school psychologists. Currently, the majority of school psychologists are White, female and approaching retirement (Curtis, Grier, Abshier, & Sutton, 2001). Persons of color have been underrepresented throughout the history of school psychology (Reschly, 2000.) Considering that the majority of school psychologists are white (Curtis et al., 2001) and that nearly half of the school age population is a member of a racial minority group (NCES, 2003), it stands to reason that majority culture school psychologists will interact with diverse students. Despite the recognition of this fact by professional organizations, school psychology training programs have not demonstrated...
success in preparing their graduate students to be multiculturally sound clinicians (Rogers, Ponterotto, Conoley & Wiese, 1992). Diverse student populations face challenges that manifest themselves as achievement discrepancies, high drop out rates, disproportionate representation in special education, behavioral referrals and/or disciplinary action against these students (NCES, 2003; DOE, 2001).

Early recognition of the need to train culturally competent psychologists dates back to the 1970’s, when cultural competence was defined as a matter of ethical practice (APA as cited in Zhou et al, 2004). However, research revealing effective and ineffective multicultural training in school psychology programs has not been plentiful (Kearns, Ford & Brown, 2002; Rogers, Hoffman & Wade, 1998; Gopaul-McNicol, 1997; Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997; Rogers, Ponterotto, Conoley & Wiese, 1992). In response to the compelling necessity for school psychologists who can intervene effectively with diverse student populations, the researcher proposed a relationship between racial attitudes, multicultural counseling competence and cognitive development. Although the literature review in Chapter 2 substantiated a connection between ego development and various areas of multicultural counseling competence and racial tolerance, no empirical research had been conducted with school psychologists. The current study was designed to test this relationship in order to substantiate the need for educational strategies that promote cognitive development in school psychologists.

This exploratory study consisted of a national random sample of 86 school psychologists drawn from the NASP membership. Data was collected during the months of September and October, 2005 using a Demographic Form, the Social Scale, the Social Scenarios Scale, the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale and the Washington University Sentence Completion Test. The results were presented in Chapter 4. The following is a discussion of the research findings pertaining to the hypotheses:
Discussion of Major Findings

Vogt (1997) describes a link between cognitive development and tolerance for others stating that higher stages of cognitive development are needed to reject stereotypes that have been learned through socialization and to recognize the broad social consequences of oppression and discrimination. Cognitive development theory encompasses several domains, including moral and ego development (Kohlberg, 1975; Loevinger, 1976) and provides a framework for considering the development of counseling skills. Consistent with previous research (Borders, Fong and Niemeyer, 1986; Holloway & Wolleat, 1980; Watt, Robinson, Lupton-Smith, 2002), findings for ego development met expectations for the population studied. The modal level of ego development for practicing school psychologists in this study was the Conscientious Level, E6, with 30 respondents scoring at this level. Loevinger (1985) identified the Self Aware stage, E5, as the modal level for most adults aged 18 to 25 and noted, with other scholars, that advancing beyond this stage might be particularly difficult (Bernier, 1980; Hauser, 1976; Loevinger, 1976). In random national samples of practicing counselors Lambie (2002) and Diambra (1997) found the modal ego development to be at the Self-Aware level. In contrast is recent data from (Cannon, 2005; Milliken, 2004; Panici, 2005) which suggests that the Conscientious stage, E6, is the level most frequently reflecting the ego development of counseling students and those in mental health practice. Individuals in the Conscientious stage of development are more likely to recognize emotions in the self as well as in others. They have the capacity to be aware of emotions as they relate to one’s own cultural heritage, identity, worldviews and biases.

As might be expected, the next largest group was the Self-Aware stage, E5, with 27 respondents. At this stage of ego development, the individual begins to leave Conformist conventions by questioning externalized conventions, norms and standards. Individuals at the
Self-Aware level start to understand the role that context plays in the behavior of others, and this heightened awareness theoretically provides a foundation for tolerance of self and others.

Somewhat surprising was the finding that the next highest group with 12 respondents was the Individualistic stage, E7, of development, which would be higher than might be predicted. Individuals in the Individualistic stage are better able to tolerate contradiction and differences in others, while learning to tolerate the discontinuities within the self. School psychologists in this study have shown that adult development beyond the Self Aware level is possible.

Practicing school psychologists in the present study appear to be predominantly older females who are functioning at higher levels of ego development. This seems to suggest a relationship between age and work experience and ego development. In a longitudinal study of 90 women, Helson and Roberts (1994) found that the mean WUSCT score for women at age 43 was 5.3. These authors also investigated the relationship between ego development and verbal aptitude, mindedness in college and life path. They found that for women in this study, years of experience in a career field were not significantly related to ego development but rather exposure to accommodatively challenging situations were. Helson and Roberts (1994) found that women who remained in traditional family roles or without a strong career involvement were at the lowest accommodatively challenging level were also at ego development levels below Self-Aware. Conversely, women with successful careers showed ego development at or above the Individualistic level. Cohn (1991) in a meta-analysis of 60 studies that involved more than 9000 participants found a correlation between age and ego development. Significant differences existed between males and females in adolescence, declined in college and were nearly nonexistent in adulthood (Cohn, 1991). Differences in ego scores could not be attributes to education because measurement took place at the beginning of the freshman year. Similar findings were established for gender differences. Cohn (1991) proposes that the absence of
gender differences among college upperclassmen and older adults most likely reflect maturational processes rather than biased procedures.

**Hypotheses**

**Hypothesis One**

Hypothesis one proposed that a significant positive correlation between school psychologists' level of ego development and racial attitudes would exist. Analysis did not support such a relationship between WUSCT scores and scores on the SS or SSS. There may be several reasons for these particular findings. One must first consider if there is a relationship between higher stages of ego development and racial attitudes as measured by these instruments. This is likely in light of research demonstrating that such a relationship does exist between ego maturity and racial attitudes (Borders, Fong & Neimeyer, 1986; Carlozzi et al.; 1983, Likier, 2005; Milliken, 2004; Sprinthall, 1994; Watt, Robinson & Lupton-Smith, 2002). If self evaluation and introspection promotes ego development, as Sprinthall (1994) suggests, then racial tolerance should be associated with enhanced levels of ego development. Carlozzi et al. (1983) explored ego development in counselors-in-training. This research revealed that students at lower levels of ego development were less empathetic than those at higher levels of ego development. Higher stages of cognitive development have been linked to reductions in prejudice and stereotypical thinking (Borders et al., 1986). These studies used graduate counseling students who are younger and displayed a wider range of ego developmental levels than participants in the current study. Respondents in the present study had a mean age between 40 and 49 years old. Ego developmental level for the sample was quite high with the modal of ego score of E6 or the Conscientious level. Fifty-six percent (N=44) of respondents were at the Conscientious level or higher. One possible explanation for the lack of a statistically significant
finding for this hypothesis may be the high number of respondents at the Conscientious and Individualistic stages of ego development. Analysis of capacities associated with these ego development levels raises questions of whether or not reaching a modal stage of ego development, such as the Conscientious stage, could provide a threshold effect for the development of racially tolerant attitudes (Panici, 2001). That is, that after achieving a particular ego development level, capacities enhanced though further development would not necessarily be reflected in higher scores on the SS or SSS. This explanation may be bolstered by research that suggests that the ego level necessary to score highly on racial attitude scales might be in place once a person reaches the Self Aware stage and might not be measurably improved through greater levels of development (Watt, Robinson, Lupton-Smith, 2002).

The research suggests that there may be a relationship between ego development and more tolerant racial attitudes, but these relationships may be difficult to measure. In a study of modern prejudice, racial attitudes and cognitive development, Barret (1995) failed to establish a significant relationship between these constructs. In this study of college undergraduates, scores on the SSS showed no relationship to the level of principled reasoning. One explanation for this discrepancy is that the nature of the tests differ, one measures beliefs while the other measures actions. The SSS asks respondents about how they would act when confronted with situations involving racial conflict. The literature on higher levels of development and behavior consistently indicates that these do not correspond (Barrett, 1995, Cannon, 2005, Milliken, 2004). A variety of confounding variables such as assertiveness, relationship to others in the scenario and amount of risk could be involved in a subject’s decision on how he/she would respond in a particular situation (Bymes & Kiger, 1988).

In a recent study by Milliken (2004) the relationship between cognitive development and racial attitudes was tested using the New Racism Scale (NRS). A statistically significant
relationship was established showing a correlation between these constructs. In the development phase, the authors of the SS and SSS (Byrnes & Kiger, 1988) tested their instrument’s validity by correlating it with an older version of the NRS. The correlation was moderate, indicating that these two instruments measure similar constructs (McConahay, 1986). Despite this correlation, the SS and SSS and the NRS may not assess racial attitudes in the same way. McConahay (1986) contends that the NRS was intended to measure the cognitive component of racial attitudes. Byrnes and Kiger (1988) acknowledge that cognitive belief systems are also influenced by affective components as well as by other beliefs, values and by the historical context specific to the form of racism. Helms and Carter (1990) developers of the Racial Identity Attitude Scale (RAIS) stated that “it is schemata rather than statuses per se that paper-pencil racial identity attitude inventories presumably assess.” (p. 184). Pope-Davis et al. (1999) proposed that the RAIS is measuring constructs such as degree of racial comfort and attitudes of racial curiosity rather than developmental constructs related to racial identity. Given these fundamental differences in self report measures of racial attitudes/identities, and variations in interpretation, the value of making comparison across instruments is limited. The relationship between ego development and more tolerant racial attitudes remains unclear. Continued study of these constructs will help to illuminate the nature of this relationship. To address the issue of a threshold effect, a sample that contains individuals at lower levels of ego development may prove to be useful. Racial attitudes are difficult to assess and may require different types of instrumentation other than self-report measures. Research using implicit association tests reveals that even among participants who self-report more tolerant attitudes implicit racism still exists (Dasgupta, McGhee, Greenwald, & Banaji, 2004).

**Hypothesis Two**

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ level of ego
Racial Attitudes

development as measured by the Washington University Sentence Completion Test (WUSCT) and perceived multicultural counseling competence as measured by the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS).

Researchers have explored the possibility of a correlation between ego development and multicultural counseling competence and a relationship appears to exist (Borders et al., 1986; Diambra, 1997; Holloway & Wolleat, 1980; Pancini 2001; Watt et al., 2002). Borders et al. (1986) investigated ego development of counselors emphasizing the growth of self-awareness and acquisition of counseling skills. The results showed students at higher levels of ego development had greater awareness of client’s needs than those at lower levels of ego development. Holloway and Wolleat (1980) reported that counseling students at higher conceptual levels produced more effective clinical hypotheses, regardless of their previous counseling experience.

In general, there are several possible reasons why the hypothesis was not supported by the research findings. The first may lie in the debate about the difference between multicultural counseling competence and overall counseling ability and overall cultural competence. Some theorists argue that the process of change in individuals is universal, even though its content is derived from diverse cultural, social, and individual sources (Steenbarger & Pels, 1997). Should this be the case, the level of ego development may be secondary to the ability to motivate change in the client, as opposed to responding to particular aspects of diversity. As such, the ability to counsel students would theoretically supersede the counselor’s ability to respond in a multicultural relevant manner (Steenbarger and Pels, 1997). For this particular study, the overall counseling ability in school psychologists may not be as highly developed as that of other mental health professionals. School psychologists engage in less counseling coursework (Pancini, 2001; Rogers, 2001) and participate in fewer counseling activities as part of their day to day work.
There may be a developmental link between ego functioning and multicultural counseling competence that these instruments are not assessing. This may be based in the fact that theorists have not come to one conceptualization of multicultural counseling competence. Sue et al. (1982) originally conceptualized multicultural counseling competence to be made up of three factors, awareness, knowledge and skills. However, continued analysis by others (Constantine et al., 2002; D'Andrea et al., 1991; Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997; Ponterotto et al., 1994; Sodowsky et al., 1994) has not supported this model. D’Andrea et al. (1991) used a Sue’s three factor model of knowledge, awareness and skills. Sodowsky et al. (1994) offered a four factor model of awareness, knowledge, skills and relationship. Sodowsky (1994) has also proposed a general model of multicultural counseling competence which has only one global factor. Ponterotto et al. (2000) proposed a model with just two factors, knowledge and awareness. It is this last conceptualization that was used in the development of the MCKAS. Constantine et al. (2002) undertook a study of three instruments designed to measure multicultural counseling competence, the Multicultural Awareness/Knowledge/Skills Survey (MAKSS) (D’Andrea et al., 1991) the Multicultural Counseling Inventory (MCI) (Sodowsky et al. 1994) and the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS) (Ponterotto et al., 2000). Using factor analysis on the subscales of these three instruments, Constantine et al. (2002) found divergent conceptualizations of multicultural counseling competence. That is, all of the Awareness subscales did not load on the Awareness factor, the Knowledge subscales did not all load on the Knowledge factor, and so on. The Awareness subscales in general, tend to measure general awareness of cultural values as opposed to the counselor’s own attitudes and beliefs in relation to working with culturally diverse individuals (Constantine et al., 2002).

Another reason why the hypothesis was not supported by the data may be due to the use
of self-report measures of multicultural competence. Researchers (Constantine et al., 2002; Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997) warn that the use of self-report instruments have an inherent risk of social desirability of participant responses to the scale. As Pope-Davis and Dings (1995) further highlight, a limitation of self-report measures is the tendency for respondents to try to present themselves in the most favorable light. A recommendation for future study would be to incorporate an index of impression management into the surveys as suggested by Rogers and Ponterotto (1997). Another option would be to use a social desirability measure such as the Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. Nonetheless, a correlation between ego development and multicultural counseling competence appears to exist, further investigation will be necessary to validate this supposition.

_Hypothesis Three_

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ racial attitudes as measured by the Social Scale (SS) and the Social Scenarios Scale (SSS) and perceived multicultural counseling competence as measured by the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS).

When considering the third research question which explores the relationship between these constructs, the data analysis revealed a statistically significant positive relationship between racial attitudes and overall multicultural counseling competence. When the knowledge and awareness subscales were analyzed together a significant correlation was found with the SSS which measures a willingness to act in a nondiscriminatory manner when confronted with racial prejudice and multicultural awareness. The research literature shows support for this relationship as measured by the MCKAS. Constantine (2002) studied the impact of racism on multicultural counseling competence in school counselor trainees. The results showed a significant relationship between scores on the NRS and MCKAS, indicating that those
counseling students who had negative attitudes toward racially diverse others also reported less multicultural counseling competence. This finding is consistent with the results of Constantine et al.'s (2001) study, and it suggests that white school counselor trainees who harbor racist attitudes may be less aware of cultural issues in the context of counseling.

Subsequent independent analysis of the Knowledge and Awareness subscales and racial attitudes also met the criteria for significance. The correlation between the Awareness subscale and racial attitudes as measured by the SS was significant. Awareness has been identified as a significant underlying construct in multicultural counseling competence (D’Andrea et al., 1991; Pederson, 1987; Ponterotto et al., 1991; Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997; Sodowsky, 1994). Awareness is conceptualized as cultural self-awareness and other-awareness (Sodowsky, 1994). Interpersonal awareness is the first step toward cultural awareness and is gained through introspection of one’s own race, ethnicity, culture, language and power status and how these variables operate in the lives of clients (Helms, 1990). Herring (1998) conducted a qualitative study of school counselor trainees to determine the influence of self-awareness on multicultural counseling competency. In this study the importance of counselor awareness of values and unbiased counseling of diverse others was identified as being critical to self awareness. Constantine (2002) found that higher levels of racism were correlated with lower levels of self reported multicultural counseling competence in school counselor trainees.

More specifically, the partner subscale of the SS predicts multicultural awareness as measured by the MCKAS Awareness subscale, indicating that social distance may also be a determinant of racial attitudes. Factor analysis of the SS demonstrated that racial attitudes are predicted by the dimension of intimacy involved in the relationship (Byrnes & Kiger, 1987). In the development of the SS these authors found that white students are much more likely to feel comfortable having racially diverse individuals occupy non-intimate statuses such as in work,
educational or community relationships. When the social distance is decreased as in dating or housing relationships, the possibility for increased tension and anxiety exists for individuals at low levels of tolerance (Byrnes & Kiger, 1987). The counseling relationship has characteristics of both intimate and non-intimate relationships. One possible reason for this finding may be that the ambivalence or turmoil that is experienced by individuals with lower levels of racial tolerance contributes to feelings of lower efficacy in counseling culturally diverse populations (Constantine 2002).

A significant positive correlation was also found between the Awareness subscale of the MCKAS and the Authority subscale of the SSS. This would indicate that in settings where authority figures are influential such as work that school psychologists are able to act in ways to challenge prejudice and confront discrimination. This finding has direct implications for school psychologists who engage in counseling and intervention activities with racially diverse students.

Rogers and Ponterotto (1997) dedicated their research efforts to developing a measure of perceived multicultural school psychology counseling competency of graduate students. The researchers felt that current measures of multicultural counseling competence were inappropriate for use with school psychologists because most were developed for use with counseling psychologists who serve the adult population. School psychologists typically serve children and adolescents in a school setting. In the development of this instrument, Rogers and Ponterotto (1997) identified cross-cultural awareness and interpersonal sensitivity skills as components of multicultural counseling competence in school psychologists. The results of previous research and the current study have implications for the practice of school psychology. School psychologists who harbor less racially tolerant attitudes may not perceive themselves to be as multicultural counseling competent as those psychologists with a more tolerant worldview. As a result, potential counseling relationships with racially diverse students may be compromised.
these school psychologists may avoid counseling all together. This may limit the scope of services provided by some school psychologists with racially diverse children and families.

**Hypothesis Four**

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists' ego development as measured by the WUSCT and the following specific demographic characteristics: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) highest degree attained, 4) work setting, 5) years of experience, 6) counseling coursework in their program, 7) counseling coursework beyond their program and 8) multicultural coursework.

A statistically significant negative relationship between ego development and gender was found in the research data. This is contrary to the research hypothesis which hypothesized a positive correlation between these variables; that is, that females would have higher levels of ego development compared to males. A relationship between gender and ego maturity has been theorized but has not been substantiated by research. Cohn (1991) conducted a meta analysis of 65 studies that investigated ego development. The majority of these studies indicated that no gender differences existed in the populations studied. Small differences in ego development between the genders were found at higher educational levels (Bebeau & Thoma, 2003; Cohn, 1991). Cohn (1991) found ego development to be significantly higher in female high school students. Gender differences appear to decline with age. These differences began to decline in college students and were virtually nonexistent in adults.

One explanation for this research finding may be due to the individual characteristics of male school psychologists. Higher levels of ego development in male school psychologists may indicate that they show higher levels of empathy or expressiveness. Miller (1993) and Sullivan (1995) found relationships between ego developmental levels and empathy in men. In a study of ego development and sex role orientation, Miller found that empathy in males was a function of
age, education, ego development and sex role orientation with older males showing higher levels of ego development and empathy. This may be the case in the present study where the mean age for males was 46 years of age. Sullivan (1995) also found that men at higher levels of ego development were better able to show empathy. This does not mean that women were not able to show empathy. Sullivan found that women were able to show empathy at high and low levels of ego development. Bursik (1995) found that higher levels of ego development were associated with greater expressiveness and non-traditional gender roles and ideals. Male school psychologists in the present sample may be reflective of these characteristics as well.

Hypothesis Five

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ perceived multicultural counseling competence as measured by the Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS) and the following specific demographic characteristics: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) highest degree attained, 4) work setting, 5) years of experience, 6) counseling coursework in their program, 7) counseling coursework beyond their program and 8) multicultural coursework. This hypothesis was partially supported by the data.

Results suggested several associations among multicultural counseling competence and the demographic variables of gender, age and years of experience.

A significant correlation was found between gender and multicultural counseling awareness. The results indicate that female school psychologists are more culturally aware than male school psychologists. This relationship has some basis in the research literature. The application of this gender difference to practice has also been substantiated. Likier (2005) found that female counselors were more likely to incorporate race in case conceptualizations than men. Byrnes and Kiger (1987) found that female education students are more aware of and willing to confront acts of prejudice.
A significant negative relationship between age and multicultural awareness was found in the present research study. Research findings indicate that younger school psychologists are more likely to be aware of how race, cultural and ethnicity influence their lives and the lives of students. Younger school psychologists are more likely to have had more culturally relevant coursework. Likier (2005) found that younger counselors were more likely to incorporate race into case conceptualizations when treating clients. In this study, the youngest career counselors were four times as likely to utilize race and cultural information when working with clients.

Younger school psychologists have grown up with a greater focus on improving race relations and eliminating oppression. Younger school psychologists are more likely to have stronger feelings about increasing multicultural competence (Kearns et al., 2002). Therefore, younger school psychologists may hold higher expectations for gaining multicultural awareness and experience with regard to diversity issues than older school psychologists who grew up in a different racial climate.

The present study also found a statistically significant relationship between multicultural awareness and years of experience. At first glance this may seem like a contradiction to the previous finding with age. Upon future inspection, it should be noted that the age of the respondents is not always directly proportional to years of experience. For instance, several respondents identified themselves as belong to the two oldest age groups but had only zero to five years of working experience as a school psychologist.

Statistical analysis indicated that the number of multicultural courses completed is related to multicultural knowledge. The MCKAS Knowledge scale measures general knowledge related to racial identity, ethnicity, acculturation, worldviews and value differences. School psychologists in this study showed increased levels of multicultural knowledge while they did not show gains in multicultural awareness with higher levels of multicultural coursework. This
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finding has been substantiated by previous research. The amount of multicultural training received has been shown to positively correlate with multicultural counseling competence scores for counselors (Constantine, 2002; Kearns et al., 2002; Loe & Miranda, 2005; Ponterotto et al., 2000; Ponterotto et al., 1996; Sue and Sue, 2003). Loe and Miranda (2005) examined cultural diversity issues in school psychology practice and training. The prevalence of multicultural training among school psychologists is growing. These researchers also examined diversity-related graduate coursework, internship experiences and continuing education. For school psychologists with 0 to 5 years of work, 25% had diversity related coursework in their program of study compared to only 9.4% of school psychologists with 16 to 20 years of service. Additionally, Kearns et al. (2002) in a study of school psychology training programs found that increased curricular offerings devoted to ethnic minority issues increased multicultural competence as defined by APA guidelines. Sue and Sue (2003) offer a word of caution in that multicultural counseling training tends to focus on a cognitive domain. While this focus leads to multicultural knowledge, it does not necessarily translate to concrete counseling skill.

Taken together and in the context of previous research, these findings suggest that younger school psychologists may have a greater awareness of the need to integrate racial and cultural factors into counseling. Multicultural training appears to influence this awareness. This change is reflected in school psychology training programs that now place a greater emphasis on multicultural issues and experiential opportunities with culturally diverse others (Rogers et al., 1992; Rogers, Hoffman & Wade, 1998). These findings offer encouragement for the future of school psychology in the increasingly more diverse world in which we live.

**Hypothesis Six**

There will be a significant positive correlation between school psychologists’ racial attitudes as measured by the Social Scale (SS) and the Social Scenarios Scale (SSS) and the
following specific demographic characteristics: 1) gender, 2) age, 3) highest degree attained, 4) work setting, 5) years of experience, 6) counseling coursework in their program, 7) counseling coursework beyond their program and 8) multicultural coursework.

A statistically negative significant relationship was found between work setting and racial attitudes. This negative relationship indicates that school psychologists working in a setting other than a public school are more willing to confront racial prejudice and act in a nondiscriminatory manner. Little has been written on the influences of work environment on racial attitudes. One study of nationally certified counselors found that school counselors who worked at mental health facilities and community settings had higher levels of ego development than school counselors (Diambra, 1997). Counselors and school psychologists who work outside of a school setting may feel less inhibited by social influences and may be more willing to speak out and confront racial bias. Of course this is only speculation. This finding is very intriguing and validates the need for more research in this area.

In the present study, racial attitudes were correlated with multicultural coursework. Watt, Robinson, Lupton-Smith (2002) found a significant relationship between multicultural training level and racial identity development with higher levels of identity development associated with increased exposure to multicultural courses. This is contrary to the findings in this study where an increased number of multicultural courses were correlated with a decrease in racial attitudes as measured by the SS. A significant negative correlation was found between multicultural coursework and racial attitudes. Taking multicultural classes may have caused a heightened level of consciousness about racial differences. Exposure to new worldviews such as racism, white privilege and cultural competence may have caused increased anxiety in some individuals. Individuals who are unaware of the influences of race and culture may perceive themselves to have high levels of racial acceptance. Once exposed to multicultural perspectives these
individuals may then rate themselves lower on racial attitude measures. This transformation may have its roots in cognitive developmental theory and the Deliberate Psychological Education. Developmental transformation allows individuals to be more flexible and adapt to complex life circumstances but a period of disequilibrium is also part of this process. The modal ego stage for respondents in this study was between E5, Self Aware and E6 Conscientious. The Self-Aware stage (E5) is characterized by the recognition that one cannot be everything to everyone at one time (Sprinthall & Thies-Sprinthall, 1983). A person in this stage begins to distinguish his/her concept of self from how others define them. Individual differences are explored and acknowledged as part of the self. A major shift occurs as one enters the Conscientious stage (E6). Right and wrong are defined by the self and not just by society. Standards are evaluated on principle not just routinely accepted. Self-reflection and self-improvement are characteristics of this stage as is a sense of responsibility for others. Disequilibrium occurs most often as individuals progress from one developmental stage to the next. Manners and Durkin (2000) identify the properties of life experiences that are most likely to precipitate developmental change as those experiences that are disequilibrating, cognitively and emotionally engaging, of an interpersonal nature and personally salient. Clearly, multicultural courses quality, especially when they have an intentional focus on issues of race, privilege and oppression. This has great implications for the training of school psychologists and school psychology program development.

Critique and Limitations

The results of the present investigation, in addition to their presumed implications, must be tempered in light of several potential limitations. First, caution should be used in generalizing the findings due to the small sample size (N=86) for this research project. Another limitation to generalizability and to the strength of the results is the lack of gender and racial variability in the
sample. While the participants were randomly selected the resulting sample was predominately white and female. Even though this is representative of the larger population of school psychologists, it may limit the ability to generalize findings to minority and male school psychologists. Another consideration about generalizing these findings is that participants who returned completed questionnaire packets may have had a particular interest in the study's topic and may differ from the individuals who did not return completed packets.

A major consideration is the type of instruments that were used. Because the scales used in the study were self-report in nature, respondents may have reported anticipated rather than actual attitudes or behaviors and interpreted items differently than what was intended by the instruments' authors (Constantine and Ladany, 2002). The use of self-report multicultural instruments in research may limit the accuracy of information they provide (Constantine & Ladany, 2002). Relying solely on self-report instruments for data may fail to yield accurate information about true skills and abilities (Gall, Borg & Gall, 1996). Hence, it is important that these measures are not used as tools in assessing clinicians' demonstrated competence in working with culturally diverse clients but are used as part of a larger assessment battery. Additionally, the use of behaviorally-based methods of evaluating multicultural counseling competence may be necessary to more precisely determine counselor's and students' ability to work effectively with culturally diverse clients (Constantine and Ladany, 2002).

In a related issue, another potential limitation of the study is that some respondents may have been cued to the research intent. For example, if respondents were aware that they were completing self-report multicultural counseling competence scales, they may have responded differently based on their perception of what was being assessed.

**Implications for Future Studies**

Several research implications are indicated by the results of this research. First, a
primary implication is that because the racial attitude and multicultural counseling competence scales used in this investigation primarily appear to measure respondent’s self-perceived multicultural competence in working with racial minorities. Future investigations may want to explore the use of other types of rating scales that aren’t so susceptible to social desirability. One such instrument is the Multicultural School Psychology Counseling Competency Scale (Rogers & Ponterotto, 1997) which has directors of school psychology graduate programs rate their students on multicultural competence criteria.

The present study focused on racial attitudes rather than assessing competence with a broader range of cultural groups such as women, sexual minorities, religious minorities and impoverished people. Future researchers may wish to investigate competence in working with non-racial minority groups. Ancis and Ladany (2001) have suggested that competence may be generalizable from one race to another. There is a need for research on the extension of multicultural counseling to other non-racial minority groups.

Given this study’s lack of results with respect to the theoretical foundations underpinning racial attitudes and multicultural counseling competence further study in this area is warranted. There is a need for empirical testing of existing theoretical models of racial attitudes, and multicultural counseling competence of school psychologists, particularly in the context of cognitive developmental theories.

**Conclusion**

A scarcity of information exists in the school psychology literature exploring multicultural competence and racial attitudinal variables in the context of ego development. Moreover, no published study to date has examined racial attitudes exclusively in school psychologists or school psychology trainees. Today racism is not exhibited in the same manner as it once was (Byrnes & Kiger, 1988). With changes in the legal and educational systems,
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Racism has become much more covert. Newer forms of racism hide behind more traditional, socially acceptable expressions. The first step in reducing racism is awareness. These findings raise questions about the validity of the knowledge, awareness and skills model and led support for alternate models. Future researchers may wish to continue exploring ego development, prejudice and multicultural counseling competence with the use of different theoretical conceptualizations and with the use of new measurement instruments. Additionally, there is a need for more investigations that consider the roles of other variables such as age, gender, sexual orientation, religion and previous relevant coursework in predicting multicultural counseling competence among school psychology trainees. Moreover, researchers and educators in school psychology training programs may wish to identify and evaluate the impact of specific training activities that are designed to aid their students in developing multicultural competence. Once the effectiveness of these activities in promoting multicultural competence has been established, these activities could be extended to include continuing educational opportunities for practicing school psychologists. Specifically, educational and experiential exercises surrounding issues of discrimination, oppression and privilege may help school psychologists and counselors to better understand and relate to such issues in the lives of their diverse students (Constantine, 2001). Effective interventions such as these may be critical to ensuring that school psychologists are equipped to work with students who reflect an increasingly different worldview.
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Dear NASP member:

As a school psychologist, you have been selected to participate in a nationwide survey regarding your views and practices related to multicultural counseling. This information is vital in keeping your profession strong and effective in providing relevant services to diverse student populations.

As you well know, our nation’s schools are in the midst of restructuring to meet the academic and behavioral needs of America’s students. As a practicing school psychologist and doctoral candidate in Counselor Education at The College of William and Mary, I am gathering data on multicultural counseling practices of school psychologists.

Your input is greatly desired and will reflect the current state of counseling that is being rendered by school psychologists. Included you will find an informed consent form, a demographic form and three surveys. Please feel free to provide additional comments throughout the questionnaires. Once completed, please use the return envelope that has been stamped and addressed for your convenience. Please return the surveys by September 16, 2005. This will help me complete other portions of the study in a timely manner.

Be assured that your responses will be held in the strictest confidence. Only group results will be reported. If you would like a copy of the final results, please print your name and address on the small yellow sheet that is enclosed. You may return it with your questionnaire. Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from this study at any time without penalty by using the addresses provided below.

Thank you for your assistance and cooperation. Completing the enclosed questionnaire takes approximately 45 minutes. As a token of my appreciation for your time and effort, please accept the small gift that is enclosed.

Sincerely,

Valerie McDonald, Ed. S. NCSP
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Phone: (757) 221-2321

Enclosures: Questionnaires, stamped return envelope, yellow address label, and gift.

Informed Consent:
I understand that by completing this questionnaire, I am giving my informed consent as a participating volunteer in this study. I understand the basic nature of the study and agree that any potential risks are minimal. I also understand the potential benefits that might be realized from the successful completion of this study. I am aware that the information is sought in a specific manner so that only minimal identifiers are necessary. I realize that I have the right to refuse participation at any time during the study.

Questions or concerns about any aspect of this study should be addressed to the Dr. Foster at vafost@wm.edu.

THIS STUDY WAS FOUND TO COMPLY WITH APPROPRIATE ETHICAL STANDARDS AND WAS EXEMPTED FROM THE NEED FOR FORMAL REVIEW BY THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE (PHONE 757 221-3901) ON 2005-08-01 AND EXPIRES ON 2005-12-15.
APPENDIX B
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

**Gender:**  (1) male  (2) female

**Age:**  (1) 20-29  (2) 30-39  (3) 40-49  (4) 50-59  (5) 60-70

**Race/Ethnicity (please check only one group):**  (1) Asian, Asian American  
(2) Black, African American  
(3) Latino, Hispanic, Mexican American  
(4) Native American, American Indian, Alaskan Native  
(5) White, Caucasian, European American  
(6) Other (please specify ____________________________)

**Highest academic degree attained:**  (1) Master's  (2) Specialist  (3) Doctorate

**Years of experience as a school psychologist:**  0 to 5  6 to 10  11 to 15  16 to 20  > 20

**Employer:**  (1) Public school  (2) Non public school  (3) Non-school setting  (4) Private practice  (5) College/University

How many counseling courses were required in your graduate program? 

How many counseling course did you take beyond this requirement? 

Have you taken a multicultural class?  If so, how many? 
APPENDIX C

Multicultural Counseling Knowledge and Awareness Scale (MCKAS)
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Using the following scale, rate the truth of each item as it applies to you.

Not at all true  Somewhat true  Totally true
1  2  3  4  5  6  7

1. I believe all clients should maintain direct eye contact during counseling.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

2. I check up on my minority/cultural counseling skills by monitoring my functioning – via consultation, supervision, and continuing education.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

3. I am aware some research indicates that minority clients receive “less preferred” forms of counseling treatment than majority clients.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

4. I think that clients who do not discuss intimate aspects of their lives are being resistant and defensive.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

5. I am aware of certain counseling skills, techniques, or approaches that are more likely to transcend culture and be effective with any clients.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

6. I am familiar with the “culturally deficient” and “culturally deprived” depictions of minority mental health and understand how these labels serve to foster and perpetuate discrimination.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

7. I feel all the recent attention directed toward multicultural issues in counseling is overdone and not really warranted.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

8. I am aware of individual differences that exist among members within a particular ethnic group based on values, beliefs, and level of acculturation.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

9. I am aware some research indicates that minority clients are more likely to be diagnosed with mental illnesses than are majority clients.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

10. I think that clients should perceive the nuclear family as the ideal social unit.
    1  2  3  4  5  6  7

11. I think that being highly competitive and achievement oriented are traits that all clients should work towards.
    1  2  3  4  5  6  7

12. I am aware of the differential interpretations of nonverbal communication (e.g., personal space, eye contact, handshakes) within various racial/ethnic groups.
    1  2  3  4  5  6  7
13. I understand the impact and operations of oppression and the racist concepts that have permeated the mental health professions.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

14. I realize that counselor-client incongruities in problem conceptualization and counseling goals may reduce counselor credibility.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

15. I am aware that some racial/ethnic minorities see the profession of psychology functioning to maintain and promote the status and power of the White Establishment.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

16. I am knowledgeable of acculturation models for various ethnic minority groups.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

17. I have an understanding of the role culture and racism play in the development of identity and worldviews among minority groups.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

18. I believe that it is important to emphasize objective and rational thinking in minority clients.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

19. I am aware of culture-specific, that is culturally indigenous, models of counseling for various racial/ethnic groups.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

20. I believe that my clients should view a patriarchal structure as the ideal.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

21. I am aware of both the initial barriers and benefits related to the cross-cultural counseling relationship.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

22. I am comfortable with differences that exist between me and my clients in terms of race and beliefs.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

23. I am aware of institutional barriers which may inhibit minorities from using mental health services.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

24. I think that my clients should exhibit some degree of psychological mindedness and sophistication.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

25. I believe that minority clients will benefit most from counseling with a majority who endorses White middle-class values and norms.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

26. I am aware that being born a White person in this society carries with it certain advantages.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7

27. I am aware of the value assumptions inherent in major schools of counseling and understand how these assumptions may conflict with values of culturally diverse clients.

1  2  3  4  5  6  7
28. I am aware that some minorities see the counseling process as contrary to their own life experiences and inappropriate or insufficient to their needs.

29. I am aware that being born a minority in this society brings with it certain challenges that White people do not have to face.

30. I believe that all clients must view themselves as their number one responsibility.

31. I am sensitive to circumstances (personal biases, language dominance, stage of ethnic identity development) which may dictate referral of the minority client to a member of his/her own racial/ethnic group.

32. I am aware that some minorities believe counselors lead minority students into non-academic programs regardless of student potential, preferences, or ambitions.
APPENDIX D

SOCIAL SCALE AND SOCIAL SCENARIOS SCALE
Byrnes and Kiger, 1988

Instructions: Rate each of the following on a scale of 1=very uncomfortable to 7=very comfortable.

I believe I would be happy to have a person of a different ethnicity or race:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Very Uncomfortable</th>
<th>Moderately Uncomfortable</th>
<th>Slightly Uncomfortable</th>
<th>Slightly Comfortable</th>
<th>Moderately Comfortable</th>
<th>Very Comfortable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. as my roommate</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. rent my home from me</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. as my spiritual counselor</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. as my personal physician</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. as governor of my state</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. as president of the U.S.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. as a dance partner</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. as someone I would date</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Instructions: For each scenario, mark the item that best describes how you would respond.

1. Imagine that as you are sitting in your parent's home one day, a neighbor comes in to ask your parents to sign a letter to a neighbor discouraging her from renting or selling her house to blacks. He explains that it would not hurt blacks because there are plenty of other good places in town to live. He says keeping blacks out would keep up the value of all the houses in the neighborhood. Your folks are about to sign the letter. Under these conditions,

   _____ I would insist that they were wrong and try to persuade them not to sign the petition.
   _____ I would probably tell my parents that I didn't think that they were doing the right thing.
   _____ I would probably keep quiet because it wouldn't make much difference to me.
   _____ I would understand their reasons for signing the letter, so I wouldn't say anything.

2. Imagine you have just arrived in a large city and have a heavy suitcase to carry from the bus terminal to your hotel a few blocks away. You decide to take a cab. Waiting on the corner for a cab, you glance across the street and see a black person also waiting for a cab. After a few minutes, a cab comes by and both of you signal for it. The cab goes right by the black person, turns around, and comes back to pick you up. When the driver opens the door, he remarks, "I really saw that black fellow first, but I always go by the rule that you should take care of your own first."

   Under these conditions,
   _____ I would assume that the cabbie has good reasons for his behavior.
   _____ I would probably get into the cab without saying or doing anything.
   _____ I would let the driver know nonverbally that I didn't like what he said.
   _____ I would definitely tell the cabbie that he had done the wrong thing.
3. Imagine that in one of your classes your instructor has broken the class into small groups to discuss race relations. One of the students in your group says it would be great if blacks and whites got along better but they shouldn’t go so far as to intermarry and have children. Under these conditions.

- I would voice my disagreement with the student.
- I would disagree with the student but not say anything.
- I would agree with the student but not say anything.
- I would voice my agreement with the student.

4. Imagine you and your friend are in a small store waiting to make a purchase. Across the aisle, a white person is asking the manager about a sales position that is open. He is given an application to complete and return. Several minutes later a black person approaches the manager about the same job opening and he is told that the position has already been filled. Under these conditions,

- I would confront the manager about his discriminatory actions and tell him I was taking my business elsewhere.
- I would make my purchase and would probably write a letter of complaint to the manager.
- I would stay out of it because it wouldn’t make much difference to me one way or another.
- I would feel it is the right of the management to decide who they want to hire.

5. Imagine that you have a 19 year old brother who has been going pretty steadily with a young black woman for the past month or so. Although your parents admit that she is very nice, they have been trying to force your brother to stop taking her out because they are afraid that they might get serious about each other. Your parents don’t mind him having her as a friend, but they don’t want him to date her or call her “his girlfriend.” One night, during an argument, when your brother is present, your parents ask you what you think. Under these conditions,

- I would disagree with my parents and say that, as long as she was a nice person, it was OK.
- I would probably disagree with my parents, but I’d try to keep out of it.
- I would probably tend to side with my parents.
- I would definitely side with my parents.

6. Imagine that you are visiting with several good friends, chatting and sharing humorous stories. One of your friends tells a joke about blacks using the word, “nigger.” Under these conditions,

- I wouldn’t say anything, and would think it was a harmless joke.
- I probably wouldn’t say anything, but I would feel uncomfortable.
- I would probably say it wasn’t a very good joke.
- I would criticize him for telling such a joke.
7. Imagine you are standing in line at the movies waiting for the theatre to empty. The person in front of you, pointing at a black man and a white woman holding hands, turns to you and says, “Isn’t that disgusting?” Under these conditions,
   _____ I would speak up and say, “No, it doesn’t bother me.”
   _____ I would feel uncomfortable with his comment and I would probably give the person a disapproving look.
   _____ I would probably agree with him, but I wouldn’t say anything back to him.
   _____ I would I would agree with the person.

8. Imagine you and a friend are talking about living arrangements for his son who is in college. Your friend says with great disgust that his son is assigned a dorm room with some black guy. Under these conditions,
   _____ I would tell him that I found his attitude offensive.
   _____ I would disapprove of his attitude, but I wouldn’t say anything.
   _____ I would figure that’s just his opinion and he has a right to it.
   _____ I would understand why he didn’t like the idea.

9. Imagine that several co-workers at your job are black. You notice that they tend to get the worst job assignments and they don’t get promoted as often as the other worker. Under these conditions,
   _____ I would feel that the supervisor knows what’s right.
   _____ I wouldn’t want to create problems, so I would probably stay out of the situation.
   _____ I would express my concerns to my black co-workers.
   _____ I would go to the next higher supervisor and tell her or him what was going on.

10. Imagine you are a member of a casting committee for a drama club that is in the process of casting parts for a tragic play about two young lovers. The casting committee is in complete agreement that the male lead should go to Sam Olsen. Clearly, the best actress for the part of the heroine is a beautiful young black woman. However, a number of the members of the casting committee refuse to have a black actress play opposite a white actor in a romantic play. Under these conditions,
    _____ I would say that if they refuse to give the part to the best qualified actress I would resign from the committee.
    _____ I would say that the actress should be judged on her talent not her skin color; but I would go along with any decision the majority made.
    _____ I wouldn’t know what to do so I’d go along with whatever the majority wanted.
    _____ I would side with those who felt that it would not be a good idea to cast a biracial couple, regardless of the talent issue.

11. Imagine you are looking for an apartment to rent that you saw advertised in the paper. You stop a stranger who is watering his lawn to ask for directions. The person you have stopped gives you directions but says, “You don’t want to live there, that place is full of coloreds.” Under these conditions,
Racial Attitudes

I would tell him that the color of skin of the people who live there didn't make any difference to me.
I would be offended by his comment, but I wouldn't say anything.
I wouldn't respond to his comment, but if he was right I probably wouldn't rent it.
I would thank him for his advice and I would no longer consider living in that apartment building.

12. Imagine you are having dinner with your parents and a well respected friend of your parents. During dinner, everyone is chatting about different sports players. At this point, your parent's friend states, “It's a good thing colored are good at sports because they sure aren't good at much of anything else.” Under these conditions,

I would nod in agreement.
I would ignore the comment not wanting to make an issue of it.
I would probably noticeably scowl, but I wouldn't say anything.
I would tell my parent's friend that I was offended by his comment.
APPENDIX E

WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY SENTENCE COMPLETION TEST
Loevinger, 1985

Instructions: Complete the following sentences.

1. When a child will not join in a group
2. Raising a family
3. When I am criticized
4. A man’s job
5. Being with other people
6. The thing I like about myself is
7. My mother and I
8. What gets me into trouble is
9. Education
10. When people are helpless
11. Women are lucky because
12. A good father
13. A girl has a right to
14. When they talked about sex, I
15. A wife should
16. I feel sorry when
17. A man feels good when
18. Rules are

Thank you for completing this instrument. Please feel free to express in writing below any thoughts, concerns, or comments you have regarding this instrument:
College of William and Mary

September 15, 2005
Dear NASP member:
Two weeks ago a survey was mailed to you seeking your views on multicultural counseling. Your input is greatly desired and will reflect the current state of counseling offered by school psychologists. You were drawn in a random national sample. To ensure that this study represents the views of school psychologists nationwide, it is important that each psychologist that was selected completes and returns the survey. If you have already completed and returned the survey, please accept my sincere thanks. If not, please do so at your earliest convenience. It is extremely important that your views be included in the study. If by some chance you did not receive the survey or if it has been misplaced, please contact me at vkmcd0@wm.edu so that I can send you another one. Thank you for your assistance.
Sincerely,
Valerie McDonald,
Doctoral Candidate
October 5, 2005

Dear NASP member:

Several weeks ago a survey was mailed to you seeking your views on multicultural counseling. Your input is greatly desired and will reflect the current state of counseling offered by school psychologists.

As you well know, our nation's schools are in the midst of restructuring to meet the academic and behavioral needs of America's students. As a practicing school psychologist and doctoral candidate in Counselor Education at The College of William and Mary, I am gathering data on multicultural counseling practices of school psychologists.

Won't you take a few minutes to help with this valuable research? Your input is greatly desired and will reflect the current state of counseling that is being rendered by school psychologists. Included you will find an informed consent form, a demographic form and three surveys. Please feel free to provide additional comments throughout the questionnaires. Once completed, please use the return envelope that has been stamped and addressed for your convenience. Please return the surveys by October 30, 2005.

Be assured that your responses will be held in the strictest confidence. Only group results will be reported. Your participation in this survey is completely voluntary. You may withdraw from this study at any time without penalty by using the addresses provided below.

Thank you for you assistance and cooperation. Completing the enclosed questionnaire takes approximately 45 minutes. As a token of my appreciation for your time and effort, please accept the small gift that is enclosed.

Sincerely,

Valerie McDonald, Ed. S. NCSP
William & Mary Doctoral Candidate
108 Candlestick Place
Williamsburg, VA 23185
E-mail Address: vkmcdn@wm.edu

Victoria Foster, Ed. D.
William & Mary Professor
Dissertation Committee Chairperson
E-mail Address: vafost@wm.edu
Phone: (757) 221-2321

Enclosures: Questionnaires, stamped return envelope, and gift.

Informed Consent:
I understand that by completing this questionnaire, I am giving my informed consent as a participating volunteer in this study. I understand the basic nature of the study and agree that any potential risks are minimal. I also understand the potential benefits that might be realized from the successful completion of this study. I am aware that the information is sought in a specific manner so that only minimal identifiers are necessary. I realize that I have the right to refuse participation at any time during the study.

Questions or concerns about any aspect of this study should be addressed to the Dr. Foster at vafost@wm.edu.

THIS STUDY WAS FOUND TO COMPLY WITH APPROPRIATE ETHICAL STANDARDS AND WAS EXEMPTED FROM THE NEED FOR FORMAL REVIEW BY THE COLLEGE OF WILLIAM AND MARY PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS COMMITTEE (PHONE 757 221-3901) ON 2005-08-01 AND EXPIRES ON 2005-12-15.
College of William and Mary

September 15, 2005

Dear NASP member:

Two weeks ago a survey was mailed to you seeking your views on multicultural counseling. Your input is greatly desired and will reflect the current state of counseling offered by school psychologists.

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Sincerely,

Valerie McDonald,
Doctoral Candidate
## APPENDIX I

Studies Using the WUSCT

Instrumentation samples compared to study sample

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Study</th>
<th>Population</th>
<th>Mean Age</th>
<th>Mean Educ. Level</th>
<th>Mean SCT</th>
<th>Gender Difference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Helson &amp; Roberts (1994)</td>
<td>Longitudinal 43</td>
<td>Bachelor</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>NA</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90 Post-college</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Loevinger (1985)</td>
<td>804 Students --</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.68</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>and adults</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male= 454</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.58</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female= 350</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.75</td>
<td>Signif.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Newman, Tellegan &amp; Bouchard (1998)</td>
<td>284 Twins</td>
<td>44.64</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Reared Apart</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>&amp; Family</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male= 103</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>No</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Female= 145</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>5.88</td>
<td>Signif.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Picano (1987)</td>
<td>86 graduate</td>
<td>42-45</td>
<td>Bachelor +</td>
<td>5.90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Battey (1995)</td>
<td>59 midlife</td>
<td>49.8</td>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cannon (2005)</td>
<td>33 students</td>
<td>31.7</td>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>No Sig. Diff.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diambra (1997)</td>
<td>134 NCC counselors</td>
<td>47.58</td>
<td>Master’s</td>
<td>5.33</td>
<td>NA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Study</td>
<td>86 School Psychologists</td>
<td>40-49</td>
<td>Specialist</td>
<td>5.67</td>
<td>Signif Differ.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Male= 24</td>
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<td></td>
<td>6.05</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Female=62</td>
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</table>

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