

DEVELOPMENT AND ANALYSIS OF AN INDEX
FOR THE MEASUREMENT OF
ETHNIC ATTITUDES TOWARDS
HIGH SCHOOL COUNSELLING

By

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ABSTRACT

This study assessed the psychometric properties of the Perception of Counselling Services Index or PCSI (a 45-item 5-point Likert scale). This instrument was designed by Westwood & Massey (1982) to measure ethnic minority attitudes towards school counselling.

The Westwood & Massey (1982) study was examined in detail to trace the development and implementation of the PCSI on a sample ethnic minority group (East Indian Canadian adults and adolescents) and a sample majority group (Anglo-European Canadian adults and adolescents).

Based on the results of the above study, the PCSI proved to have sufficient face and content validity. Reliability of the PCSI was estimated at between 0.91 to 0.93 using Hoyt's analysis of variance procedure (internal-consistency). Item analysis indicated that approximately half of the PCSI items were psychometrically superior. Analysis of variance results related to this study also indicated that the PCSI could differentiate between cultural groups.

Results of the overall evaluation of this instrument were used to construct a revision of the PCSI known as the "Ethnic Perception of Counselling Index (EPCI)". The EPCI was presented as a superior instrument for the measurement of ethnic-minority attitudes towards school counselling. Several implications for cross-cultural counselling as well as directions for the future use of the EPCI were described.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Cross-Cultural Counselling

Providing psychological and counselling services for the general public has seldom been a difficult task. The average Canadian has been well within the reach of a variety of these services. However, psychological and counselling services appear to be less frequently used by unique sector of Canadian society, namely individuals belonging to certain ethnic minority groups (Vontress, 1976). Before this rapidly expanding sector of Canada's population can make full use of the various psychological and counselling services offered to them, extensive research must be carried out in each area where services are currently available for the public.

Counselling psychology is perhaps one of the most important areas where ethnic minority groups are given the opportunity to interface with society as a whole. It can be shown that some areas of counselling such as immigration, education, mental health, or social service are experienced at least in part by immigrants at some point during their residency in Canada. Therefore, areas of culture contact for ethnic minority groups, such as counselling, should be well organized and researched.

Counselling members of different ethnic minorities is fraught with problems which need to be recognized by the

counsellor if he/she is to meet the personal, vocational, and educational needs of the individual. It is becoming more and more evident that the theories and methods of the past are inadequate to meet the needs of the many special populations we face.

Counselling theories tend to come from white middle-class frames. As one becomes increasingly aware of the specifics of counselling and the person-environment transaction, one becomes immediately aware that men react differently from women and have different needs, that majority, minority, cultural and ethnic groups may respond differently to the same problem, and that the rich and the poor view the world differently.

There has not been any definitive research in counselling psychology conducted on the cross-cultural issues of male-female, ethnic, racial, religious, or social differences. It has been suggested by several scholars such as Ivey (1980) and Sue & Sue (1977), that a new aspect be given to the traditional definition of counselling psychology, that of cross-cultural relevance and awareness. In conclusion, Ivey reminds us that ". . . any positive mental health effort must be culturally appropriate . . ." (Ivey, 1980, p. 5).

To reduce the gap between the counsellor and the client, practitioners and theorists such as Ivey (1977) advocate training for "cultural expertise" as a means of acquiring sensitivity for cultural differences and constraints operating within the helping relationship. Similarly Vontress (1970),

unequivocally maintains that it is necessary for counsellors to learn more about cultural differences in the life-style, values, attitudes and expectations of minority groups.

In the counselling process, both counsellor and client bring in their background, attitudes, values, and expectations, all of which affect the counselling relationship. Therefore early identification of client attitudes and expectations prior to counselling is critical to the quality of the relationship which follows.

Effects of Counsellor/Client Cultural Dissimilarity

Most studies in the area of counselling expectancies are mostly concerned with topics such as the expectancy similarities between counsellor and client, the effect of the expectancies on the counsellor relationship and outcome, student image of a counsellor and expected problems that can be discussed with a counsellor.

More recent studies in counselling psychology have focused on the effects of cultural dissimilarity involving attitudes. Vontress (1971), for example, is concerned with the effects that white middle class North American counsellor models have had upon minority status clients. Sue & Sue (1972), and Pedersen (1976), examine the degree to which the similarity of cultural background of the counsellor and client determines or interferes with the general quality of counselling. Harrison (1975)

investigates the trend towards using culturally similar counsellors for clients. Numerous other studies also focus on expectancies and ethnic minority attitudes towards counsellors and illustrate the need for cross-cultural awareness, expertise and training (Tan, 1967; Johnson, 1977; Atkinson, Maruyama & Matsui, 1978; Fukuhara, 1973; Ivey, 1977; Vontress, 1970; and Bloombaum, Yamamoto, & James, 1968).

Some of these cross-cultural studies have provided convincing evidence to indicate that not all groups of the community share the same expectations about counselling (Bloombaum, Yamamoto & James, 1968; and Pedersen, 1976). Other studies point out that some ethnic groups do not make full use of counselling services for a variety of reasons. In these settings, counsellors appear to lack adequate information concerning the different ethnic groups that they may come in contact with (Vontress, 1970). In many cases, counsellors working with a lack of knowledge concerning cultural norms seem to have little choice but to reflect the majority cultural values in their particular counselling models. Sue & Sue (1977) illustrate how this situation would present some obvious disadvantages for the minority status client and perhaps lead to a certain distrust and avoidance of counselling services by various ethnic groups.

Assumptions Behind Cross-Cultural Studies

In all of the studies mentioned previously, the role of

attitudes and expectancies towards counsellors and counselling services by clients from the ethnic community seems paramount. These studies also illustrate that expectancies, like attitudes, are linked directly to individual needs which in turn are met by and imbedded in the cultural group of the individual. Therefore expectancies tend to vary as cultures vary (Fukuhara, 1973, p. 179). However most, if not all, of the research in cross-cultural counselling assumes that culturally dissimilar clients have favourable attitudes and expectations towards counselling. At best, the more recent studies conclude that more favourable attitudes by culturally dissimilar clients could be created if counsellors could develop a certain amount of cultural awareness and expertise. This fundamental assumption of 'favorableness' is central to the theme of most studies in cross-cultural counselling. However, little research has been conducted to assess the attitudes and expectancies that ethnic community members may have toward counselling in general.

The implications of these issues are important for counsellors working in a society such as ours, where we find the development of several distinct ethnic communities. It therefore becomes imperative to determine to what extent counsellors are meeting the needs of cross-cultural clients. Specifically, since previous studies have failed to develop adequate measures, researchers need to develop reliable and valid instrumentation to quantify and summarize the attitudes and expectancies of these unique groups within our community. Information gathered from such instruments would provide

valuable data towards the development of effective cross-cultural models of counselling theory and practice. A review of the research in this field indicates little, if any, of this type of instrumentation is currently available.

OBJECTIVES OF THE STUDY

Recently, an instrument has been developed, revised, and implemented by a research team at the University of British Columbia, Vancouver, B.C., Canada, (Westwood & Massey, 1982), to assess the attitudes and expectations of ethnic minority members towards counselling, referred to as the Perception of Counselling Services Index or PCSI. The purpose of this study is to:

- (1) Examine attitude research with respect to counselling culturally diverse clients;
- (2) Study the development, revision, and implementation of the PCSI on a sample ethnic minority population and a sample majority population;
- (3) Evaluate the strengths and weaknesses of the PCSI in terms of its psychometric properties;
- (4) Develop a more precise instrument to assess ethnic attitudes towards a specific psychological service, school counselling.

It is hoped that this analysis and revision will contribute to a better understanding of how various ethnic groups perceive the theory and practice of counselling psychology.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

Before proceeding further, definitions of certain terms used in this study need to be clarified.

Attitude

The concept of 'attitude' is highly complex and has been defined in a variety of ways over the years. Since the history of these different meanings has been traced thoroughly elsewhere (Fleming & Bailyn, 1967). An operational definition of attitude follows: Psychologists generally define an attitude as an ". . . enduring evaluative disposition toward some object or class of objects . . ." and often say that ". . . attitudes are comprised of cognitive, affective, and behavioral components [which are] consistent with each other . . ." (Krech & Crutchfield, 1948, p. 20). Broadly stated, 'attitude' may also be defined as ". . . the sum total of a man's inclinations and feelings, prejudices or bias, preconceived notions, ideas, fears, threats, and convictions about any specific topic . . ." (Thurstone & Chave, 1979, pp. 6-7). More specifically, 'attitude' refers to a tendency ". . . to favor or reject particular groups of individuals, sets of ideas or social institutions . . ." (Thorndike & Hagen, 1979, p. 382).

Expectancies

Expectancies are defined as a 'set' or 'readiness' of an individual towards learning new events or behaving in a particular way in a given situation. Thus expectancies have been recognized as an important factor in perception, learning, personality, emotion, social interaction, counselling and psychotherapy (Gibson, 1941; Fukuhara, 1973).

Ethnicity

To many people, the term ethnicity denotes minority status, lower class, or migrancy. This is why sooner or later we shall have to discard it or find a more neutral descriptor. For the purpose of discussion, 'ethnicity' is essentially ". . . a form of interaction between culture groups operating within common social contexts" (Cohen, 1974, p. 11). With respect to this study, however, the term 'ethnicity' is more correctly defined in terms of an ethnic group.

Ethnic Group

An ethnic group can be operationally defined as ". . . a collectivity of people who share some patterns of normative behavior, and form a part of a larger population, interacting with people from other collectivities within the framework of a social system" (Cohen, 1974, p. 9). By 'patterns of normative behavior', Cohen refers to ". . . symbolic formations and activities found in such contexts as kinship, marriage,

friendship, ritual, and other types of ceremonial" (Cohen, 1974, p. 10).

The above definition follows an objective approach focusing on shared culture or attributes. The following definition represents a more subjective orientation focusing on psychological identity which also embraces the second and third generations. Glazer & Moynihan state:

Concretely, persons think of themselves as members of that group, with that name; they are thought of by others as members of that group, with that name; and most significantly, they are linked to other members of the group by new attributes that the original immigrants would never have recognized as identifying their group, but which nevertheless serve to mark them off, by more than simply name and association in the third generation and even beyond. (Glazer & Moynihan, 1975, p. 6).

For the purposes of this study, an ethnic group may be defined as ". . . an involuntary group of people who share the same culture or to descendants of such people who identify themselves and/or are identified by others as belonging to the same involuntary group . . ." (Isajiw, 1974, p. 122). The advantage of this definition is that it makes possible explanation rather than mere description of the concrete group processes in Canada.

Cultural Dissimilarity

Cultural dissimilarity may be defined as existing when socio-cultural distinctiveness is based upon ancestral heritage, religion or language of the homeland. This is not to be confused with 'racial dissimilarity' being defined as actual or assumed physiological or genetic differences (Hughes & Kallen,

1974).

Minority Group

In this paper, a 'minority group' is defined as a segment in the population of persons who differ with respect to certain identifiable physical characteristics, or who have chosen to differ in certain essential modes of behaviour. This definition is therefore both specific, referring to certain 'visible' minorities, as well as general, referring to 'non-visible' minorities who remain psychologically distinct from the majority status population (Ujimoto et al., 1980; D'Oyley, 1982). In this study, East-Indian Canadians are identified as the 'minority group'.

Majority Group

'Majority group' refers to those individuals who represent the majority status population. In this study, Anglo-European Canadians are identified as the 'majority group'.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This chapter is devoted to a general description of attitude research and measurement as well as a review of the literature concerning ethnic attitudes towards counselling.

Attitude Measurement

An attitude cannot be observed directly. It denotes a variable 'within' the individual that affects his/her behavior in a given situation together with other motives operative at the time and the properties of the situation itself. Attitudes are inferred from an individual's behavior toward objects or classes of objects (Sherif, Sherif & Nebergall, 1965).

On the other hand, not all characteristic behavior indicates an attitude. For example, the fact that one customarily walks down a flight of stairs instead of tumbling down does not require explanation in terms of an attitude, nor does the characteristic response of eating when a hungry person is offered food. The behaviors from which attitudes are inferred are evaluative, in the sense of favoring or disapproving, agreeing or objecting, etc. Thus, a hungry individual eats in response to hunger and food, but as a result of his/her attitudes towards foods, selects one kind of food and avoids another. What is actually evaluated and how it is acted

upon varies greatly from one culture to another and between individuals in the same culture.

Keeping the earlier definition of 'attitude' in mind, adequate techniques for assessing attitudes would involve the following minimum requirements:

- (1) Indications of the range of positions toward the object of the attitude that is encompassed by the individual's evaluative categories (acceptable or objectionable, in some degree);
- (2) Indicators of the degree of the individual's personal commitment to his/her own stand toward the object; and
- (3) Ways and means to ensure that the individual responds in terms of his/her attitude toward the object rather than with what he/she thinks the investigator or other persons conceive as a socially desirable response (Sherif, Sherif & Nebergall, 1965, p. 20).

Historically, early techniques of attitude measurement lacked most if not all of the above indicators. Most attitude tests were developed with the aim of ranking the individual's stand on an issue relative to those of others or of comparing the attitudes typical in one group with those in another. Most of them therefore yield a single score, usually an average of summated ratings or scale values assigned to the items with which an individual agrees. Several of the existing techniques are useful for locating individuals who take a stand on one or the other side of a controversial issue. They tell us little about the person who adopts a neutral or moderate position.

Attitudes are traditionally measured through two basic techniques (although there exist several others), direct observation or subjects' self-reports. Theoretically, observational methods relate more closely to the operational definitions of attitude. However, they have many disadvantages. The difficulties of finding qualified observers along with sufficient relevant incidences for behavioral inference, make this technique unattractive to researchers. Since it is methodologically simple, a better way is to ask the individual himself to report what he believes. Measurements of attitudes are therefore usually based on the self-report method (Ebel, 1972).

Self-report measures of attitudes are limited to what the individual knows about his/her attitudes and is willing to relate. Self-report measures usually concern items that relate to direct feelings about objects or people. Frankness of response by subjects on self-report measures is frequently lessened by various social pressures. However, if anonymity of responses can be assured, then self-report measures of attitudes logically should not be influenced greatly by lack of frankness on the part of subjects. It is also important to note that the validity of any given self-report measure depends mainly upon the way results are interpreted.

Attitude Scaling

Attitude scaling is a special application of the general process of psychological scaling which is concerned with

developing scales of measurement for abstracted properties of human experience. Every scaling effort involves the following three sets of variables:

- (1) stimuli -- a set of objects chosen to be used;
- (2) subjects -- to whom the objects are presented; and,
- (3) responses -- which are required by the experimental situation (Garner & Creelman, 1967).

The usefulness of an attitude scale or instrument depends upon its properties. Minimum requirements are that a scale be reliable (yield consistent results) and valid (measure what it is purported to measure).

Summative Rating Scales

As discussed previously, summative rating scales are generally most useful in the scaling of people with respect to psychological traits. Summative rating scales assume only that individual items are monotonically related to underlying traits and that a summation of items scores is approximately linearly related to the trait. Summative scales have a number of attractive advantages over all other methods of scale construction in that:

- (1) they follow from an appealing model;
- (2) they are rather easy to construct;
- (3) they are usually highly reliable;
- (4) they can be adapted to the measurement of many different kinds of attitudes; and,
- (5) they have produced meaningful results in many studies to

date (Nunnally, 1970).

Although reliability is not a serious problem in the construction of summative attitude scales, a scale containing few items will tend to have low reliability. Generally speaking, summative attitude scales tend to be highly reliable due to high inter-correlations between items since they are obviously designed to measure similar traits. High inter-correlations between items produces high internal-consistency estimates of reliability, which in turn is usually considered to be a good estimate of the alternate-form reliability measured over short periods of time. Therefore, reliability estimates in the .80's are not unusual in studies using summative rating scales.

Properties of Attitude Rating Scales

One of the least important considerations regarding rating scales is their physical appearance. In terms of placing the scale horizontally or vertically on the page, vertical placement is more commonly used, as it is easier to read.

Whether the scaling steps are connected or separated is another consideration. The argument in favor of separate steps is that it lowers the probability of marking between numbers, as on a connected or continuous scale. 'Boxed' or 'open' steps ([] or ____), are based more on aesthetic principles and make little difference in the important psychometric properties of ratings.

In terms of psychometric theory, there is always an advantage in using more rather than fewer steps. Several studies indicate that the reliability of individual rating scales is a monotonically increasing function of the number of steps (Guilford, 1954). For example, as the number of scale steps increases from 2 up to 20, reliability increases very rapidly at first, then tends to level off at about step 7, and after about eleven steps, little gain in reliability can be seen from increasing the number of steps (Nunnally, 1970).

The argument in favor of using an odd rather than an even number of steps is that it permits the use of a middle step meaning 'neutral', 'neither agree nor disagree', or 'uncertain'. This is thought to make subjects more comfortable in making ratings, and it can also be argued that subjects frequently have neutral reactions which should be measured.

The definitions of scale steps are referred to as anchors. Various types include numerical anchors, percentages, adjectives, behavioral descriptions, product scales and agreement scales (Nunnally, 1970). The instrument being examined in this paper (PCSI), is based on an agreement scale and its main concern is with degrees of agreement or disagreement with statements relating to counsellors. The main advantages of using agreement scales in attitude research is that they are easy to work with, easily understood by subjects (including cross-cultural subjects), and that results obtained from them are also easily interpreted by researchers.

Attitude ratings are influenced by two important factors; knowledge the observer (or rater) has of the ratee, and the rater's tendency to be 'lenient' or 'severe' in rating other people in general.

Numerous other artifacts such as response sets, have been shown to influence ratings (Guilford, 1954).

In attitude scales using agreement/disagreement ratings, leniency would be present only to the extent that subjects appeared to have either favorable or unfavorable attitudes regardless of what social object was being considered. If leniency did occur, however, it would represent either genuine individual differences of agreement or disagreement, or it would represent social desirability.

Regarding the subject's information about attitudinal objects, the caliber of his/her information might help to explain why he/she has developed the particular attitude, but it would not influence the validity of measurements of his/her attitudes at one point in time. In other words, a person can hold genuinely positive or negative attitudes toward counsellors for example, while having either very little information or much misinformation.

CHARACTERISTICS OF LIKERT SCALES

Among the many elaborate techniques of scale construction including scalogram analysis (Guttman, 1950), unfolding (Coombs,

1964), latent structure analysis (Lazarfeld, 1959), and methods involving scaled statements (Thurstone, 1929), Likert's method of scaled statements is considered to be perhaps the most widely used (Likert, 1932).

Likert's primary concern was with unidimensionality, making sure that all the items would measure the same thing. He also wanted to eliminate the need for judges (as used in the Thurstone method), by getting the subjects being sampled to place themselves on an attitude continuum for each statement -- ranging from 'strongly agree' to 'agree', 'uncertain', 'disagree', and 'strongly disagree'. These five positions were given simple weights for each of the test items in the following manner:

	<u>Numerical Weights</u>	
	<u>Favorable</u>	<u>Unfavorable</u>
Strongly agree	5	1
Agree	4	2
Uncertain	3	3
Disagree	2	4
Strongly disagree	1	5

An individual's score on each item depended, as indicated above, on the extent to which he/she agreed with statements favoring the attitude and disagreed with statements opposing it.

Likert scales tend to be very reliable. The scale makes no pretence at equal-appearing intervals, but as will be discussed later, by using an internal-consistency method of item selection, it approaches unidimensionality in many cases.

The most serious criticism leveled against this type of

scale is its lack of reproducibility (in a technical sense). The same total score may be obtained in many different ways. This being so, it has been argued that such a score has little meaning or else that two or more identical 'scores' may have totally different meanings.

Another criticism has been that the scale offers no metric or interval measures, and it lacks a neutral point, so that one does not know where scores in the middle ranges change from mildly positive to mildly negative.

With regard to the neutral point on the scale, one must agree that this is not necessarily the midpoint between the two extreme scale scores; moreover, scores in the middle region could be due to a lukewarm response, lack of knowledge, or lack of attitude in the respondent (leading to many 'uncertain' responses), or to the presence of both strongly positive and strongly negative responses, which would more or less balance each other, suggesting that the scale is not unidimensional. Clearly, with different possibilities, the neutral point would be difficult to locate and even more difficult to interpret.

Obviously, few variables in the social sciences can be measured on an interval scale. Unfortunately, the more powerful a given tool is for making inferences (even in the pure sciences), the more difficult the assumptions are to meet. Much of social research has demonstrated that the results obtained from assuming interval data have been fruitful. Making this assumption allows one to estimate the degree of association

between variables rather than having to be content with merely estimating whether or not some association exists. By assuming interval measurement where only ordinal measurement exists, some measurement errors will occur. The result of errors generally is the attenuation of relations among variables. In other words, one's apparent results will be more attenuated than they are in reality. Thus, it is unlikely that the decision to assume interval measurement when it does not exist will lead to the spurious overestimation of results.

In practice, if we remember that equal score intervals do not permit us to make assertions about the equality of underlying attitude differences and that identical scores may have very different meanings, the Likert scales tend to perform very well when it comes to a reliable, rough ordering of people with respect to a particular attitude.

There are, conversely, many advantages to using Likert scales. They are quite easy to construct. They provide more precise information about the respondent's degree of agreement or disagreement. And finally, it is possible to include items whose manifest content is not obviously related to the attitude in question, so that the more subtle and deep ramifications of an attitude can be explored. These 'long shot' questions, for example, enable one to make use of the links that an attitude may have with neighboring areas and to uncover the strands and interconnections of its various components.

As will be discussed in Chapter III, this study assessed

the PCSI , an instrument based on Likert's 5-point scale.

RESEARCH ASSESSING ETHNIC
ATTITUDES TOWARDS COUNSELLING

Extensive literature exists describing the attitudes that people hold toward counsellors and the services they provide. An area that has received considerable attention has been that of identifying the expectations and preferences of clients regarding the characteristics and behavior of counsellors.

Rosen (1967), for example, notes that characteristics such as age, marital status, sex and behavior in clinical settings may influence the counselling process and outcome. Dreman (1977) found that both clients and nonclients preferred a more active counsellor who promoted cognitive and behavioral change and expelled symptoms. Strong, Hendel & Bratton (1971) found that students viewed the role of the counsellor as that of an advisor. Getsinger & Garfield (1976) found that students seeking help preferred counselling psychologists rather than counsellors. Contrary to the previously mentioned study, Snyder, Hill & Derksen (1972) reported that individuals from their sample tended to seek help concerning their personal problems from persons other than counsellors (e.g., friends or relatives). In terms of counselling services, Warman (1960) suggested that students would find it easier to visit a counsellor with their emotional problems when a counselling system was organized and well informed.

In relation to expectancies, Overall & Aronson (1963) discovered that clients whose expectations were inaccurate were less likely to return for treatment. Similarly, Colin, Yamamoto & Silverman (1965) found that a patient was helped more when he/she received therapy which was consistent with his/her expectations.

Rosen (1967) conducted a brief but comprehensive review of the literature on preferences of clients and potential clients regarding the characteristics and procedures of counsellors and psychotherapists. However, he found little research concerning counselling expectancies related to cultural differences and suggested that studies of this nature be undertaken.

Since expectancies are learned and modified through the individual's interaction with his/her environment, it is certain that social and cultural backgrounds will influence them. Thus a counselling relationship with a client from a different culture with which the counsellor is not familiar may affect the vital communication in the total process.

Smith (1974) points out that students in general prefer a counsellor's age, socioeconomic background, religious belief, and sex to be similar to their own and that minorities prefer counsellors of their own race. Arkoff, Thaver & Elkind (1966) found that Asians, more than Americans, thought of counselling or psychotherapy as a relatively authoritarian process. Simerville (1961) noted that some minority students viewed the counsellor as a symbol of affection. Bryson & Bardo (1975), and

Sattler (1970) concluded that racial similarity was a significant factor in counselling relationships which yielded more positive outcomes in their studies. Sue (1973), and Fukuhara (1973) also found that Asian Americans would respond more favorably to logical, rational structured approaches to counselling rather than towards affective, reflective or non-directive approaches.

In terms of usage of counselling services, Leavitt, Cary & Swartz (1971) noted that low-income families and foreign families viewed psychological services generally as shameful and threatening. Similarly, Sue & Sue (1972) indicated that most self-referral among Asians was inhibited by cultural influences. Furthermore, Sue & Kirk (1975), studying Asian American utilization of counselling services, found variations between groups according to sex and culture. In other words, Chinese American females utilized mental health facilities significantly more frequently than did Japanese American students as a whole.

It seems clear that the existing cross-cultural research which assesses the attitudes and expectations of minority groups towards counsellors, has primarily centered on studies sampling Blacks and on a few occasions, Chinese and Japanese groups within the United States. The generalizability of these results for other ethnic groups is therefore open to question. Furthermore, studies of a similar nature among Canada's various ethnic groups is extremely rare.

However, a recent study sampling from among Vancouver's

East Indian population, uncovered some interesting results (Westwood & Massey, 1982). This study was of a comparative nature and assessed the attitudes that a minority and a majority sample had towards counselling. Using a Likert-type instrument, the study surveyed the attitudes that a sample minority group of East Indian adults and adolescents, had towards counselling and compared their views to a sample majority group of Anglo-European adults and adolescents.

The results indicated that adults across the two 'cultural' groups did not differ significantly in their attitudes and expectations towards counselling. However, adolescents across the two cultural groups did differ significantly in their attitudes towards counselling. More significantly, East Indian adults and adolescents held similar attitudes and expectations towards counselling, whereas Anglo-European adults and adolescents seemed to differ in their views towards counselling. This study also provided other valuable comparisons as well as attempted to construct and validate a new instrument.

SUMMARY

This chapter views attitude research from many perspectives. A review of the theoretical concepts involved in attitude measurement and scaling, along with various scaling techniques have been examined. A literature review concerning attitudes towards counsellors and counselling services in general has been described. Various cross-cultural studies related to ethnic expectations and attitudes towards counsellors

has also been documented. It was concluded that very little research has been conducted to assess attitudes towards counsellors within the Canadian perspective.

The necessity for an actual assessment of where individuals from ethnic backgrounds go for help has recently become a very critical topic. The trend in the 1980's in terms of financial support of human resources, school districts and health service programs indicate increasing cutbacks. This, combined with increasing requests for accountability for both resources and manpower, make this aspect of cross-cultural investigation of the utmost importance if one is to gain a full understanding of the help-seeking behaviors of Canada's various ethnic groups.

Logically, it follows that before any research of this nature is undertaken, reliable and valid instrumentation needs to be developed and implemented.

Since there is a definite lack of instrumentation in this area of inquiry, the chapters that follow will discuss the instrument used in the Westwood & Massey (1982) study in greater detail. This instrument will be evaluated in terms of its reliability and validity and a revision will be presented based on detailed item analysis.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHOD

A major focus of this paper is to evaluate the PCSI , an instrument used in a study conducted by Westwood & Massey (1982). A description of the research method which follows is therefore an outline of the method followed by these researchers for their (1982) study.

Subjects

The total sample consisted of 323 randomly selected subjects divided into two groups.

Group I consisted of 168 East Indian Canadians divided into 79 adults (40 males, 39 females) and 89 adolescents (38 males, 51 females). All subjects in Group I were randomly selected from a voting list containing individuals belonging to the Punjabi-speaking (Sikh) community of Vancouver. Since it was felt that length of residency in Canada may affect attitudes, subjects in Group I were also selected as having emigrated to Canada between the period 1968-1978 (peak immigration period to Canada).

Group II contained 155 Anglo-European Canadians divided into 74 adults (21 males, 53 females) and 81 adolescents (33 males, 48 females). All subjects in Group II were randomly selected from the enrollment lists of various schools in the

same geographic locaiton as Group I. Subjects in Group II therefore lived in the same urban area as Group I. All subjects in Group II described themselves as being from an Anglo-European background and were either first or second generation Canadians.

Group I therefore constituted a representative minority sample of East-Indian Canadians in Vancouver since most of this city's East Indian population consists mainly of those individuals whose native language is Punjabi and who belong almost exclusively to the religion of Sikhism.

Group II constituted a representative majority sample of Anglo-European Canadians. These subjects were selected primarily as a comparative group who lived in the same geographic locations as subjects in Group I. Thus it can be assumed that most adolescents in both groups were probably attending the same high schools.

The geographic location of both samples was a very large area known as South Vancouver. North-south boundaries would extend from approximately 12th Avenue to South West Marine Drive, and east-west from Oak Street to approximately Victoria Drive.

Procedure

This research was based on a descriptive questionnaire design that followed two phases. Phase I sampled responses from Group I (East Indian Canadians) while Phase II surveyed Group II (Anglo-European Canadians) and summarized all data collected from both groups along with all relevant cross-cultural comparisons.

During Phase I, all subjects in Group I were interviewed in their homes by an interviewer belonging to that ethnic group. General demographic data were collected for each subject preceding their required completion of the Perception of Counselling Services Index or PCSI questionnaire. For those subjects who could neither read nor write English or Punjabi, a standardized tape presentation of the PCSI was available in English or Punjabi.

During Phase II, all subjects in Group II were interviewed in their homes by interviewers belonging to that 'ethnic' group. Subjects in Group II were surveyed in a similar manner as Group I, however only the English form of the PCSI was used for obvious reasons.

Following completion of all interviews for both groups, data gathered from the PCSI were scored and coded for computer analysis.

DESCRIPTION OF INSTRUMENT

Attitudes and expectations towards counselling were measured by administration of the Perception of Counselling Services Index or PCSI. This instrument has been modified considerably from an existing questionnaire known as the Counselling Index developed originally by Dr. R. Thompson. Permission to use this instrument was granted by Dr. B. Tolsma, Dept. of Counselling Psychology, U.B.C., on behalf of the author.

The instrument used in this study was by definition a new instrument. It was therefore necessary to follow traditional principles of test construction prior to its implementation in Phase I. This topic is dealt with in more detail in Chapter IV with respect to reliability and validity.

The PCSI questionnaire used in this study employs the 5-point Likert scale where the subject's response may range from 'strongly disagree' to 'strongly agree'. A copy of the PCSI used in Phases I and II is found in Appendix A.

Each of the 45 items contained in this instrument describe a role aspect of the counsellor and can be grouped according to five subtests as follows:

- (1) Career/Vocational: Item numbers 1, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 19, 20, 21, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 28, 35, 36, 37, 38, and 39. The items of this subject include those which describe the counsellor as being involved in vocational assessment, career planning, or job identification

activities.

- (2) Personal/Social: Item numbers 2, 16, 17, 18, 30, 34, and 41. The items in this subtest include those which describe the counsellor as being involved in assisting students to solve problems centering around self-concept, social concerns, interpersonal difficulties, and emotionally related problems.
- (3) Family and/or Parent Involvement: Item numbers 6, 29, and 40. This subtest includes those items which describe the counsellor as being involved in consultation with parents and/or brothers, sisters, cousins, etc., and generally including the family in the problem solving process.
- (4) Counsellor/Teacher Dual Role: Item numbers 15, 32, 33, and 45. This subtest includes those items which describe the counsellor as carrying out teacher functions along with the usual counsellor roles.
- (5) Cultural Awareness: Item numbers 13, 14, 27, 31, 42, 43, and 44. The items of this subtest include those activities of the counsellor which directly or indirectly attend to issues involving awareness of cultural differences, sensitivity to cultural needs, direct involvement in the ethnic community, and the desirability of counsellor-client similarity.

Instrument Procedure and Analysis

In order to build rapport and to increase the validity of this measure, all interviews were conducted in either Punjabi or

English in the homes of the participants, by qualified interviewers belonging to the same 'cultural group'. These interviewers were graduate students in the departments of counselling psychology and educational psychology and special education.

Reliability of the PCSI was assessed using a statistical package LERTAP (Laboratory of Educational Research Test Analysis Package). This program uses an internal-consistency method based on Hoyt's (1941) procedure. Internal-consistency is an estimate of the extent to which each test item taps whatever the test item is measuring. One might consider each test item as a sample test from the total domain; then the internal-consistency is roughly equivalent to the average correlation between all pairs of items.

There are several internal-consistency estimates, the Kuder-Richardson (or KR) formulas, Cronbach's coefficient alpha, and Hoyt's anova. It has been shown that KR-20, Cronbach's alpha, and the Hoyt anova procedures are algebraically equivalent. However, Hoyt's anova approach allows for the differential weighting of test items and hence has some advantage over the others (Hoyt, 1941).

The argument for not using a split-half procedure is that there can be a multitude of different ways that a test can be subdivided to yield different results. Methods based on item correlations, however, are superior since they estimate the average reliability coefficients that would be obtained from all

possible ways of subdividing the items on a test (Nunnally, 1970).

Validity of the PCSI was assessed without the use of formal statistical procedures. A rationale for the selection and use of content validity to assess instrument validity is presented in Chapter V: Instrument Validity.

Item analysis procedures incorporated data gathered from the LERTAP program. Individual item-to-total test correlations, standard deviations, and the percentage of response to scaled statements were used as the main criteria for item analysis. These procedures are discussed in more detail in Chapter IV: Item Analysis.

Using the results of these various procedures, a new instrument was constructed based on the superior items of the PCSI.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Reliability

There is no way to determine the exact reliability of an instrument. One can only obtain estimates and these are only adequate to the degree that adequate samples are used and to the degree that the underlying assumptions of a particular estimation technique are met. As discussed earlier, the statistical computer package used (LERTAP) was the most appropriate analytic technique for Likert-type scales. The resulting internal-consistency estimate based on Hoyt's procedure provides an adequate reliability estimate of Likert-type scales (Hoyt, 1941).

Reliability of the PCSI administered in Phase I (East Indian Canadian sample) of this study was estimated at $r=0.93$ using Hoyt's analysis of variance procedure.

Reliability of the PCSI administered during Phase II (Anglo-European Canadian sample) of this study was estimated at $r=0.91$ using Hoyt's analysis of variance procedure.

Validity

Content validity is often the main concern in attitude measurement. Content validity refers to the degree that the score or scale used represents the concept about which

generalizations are to be made. Although content validity with a single coefficient cannot be demonstrated, statistical and logical procedures can be applied to help ensure that items are content valid. A rationale for selecting content validity to assess instrument adequacy is presented in Chapter V: Instrument Validity.

One's measuring instruments show content validity to the degree that sampling from the domain of content is representative of all strata and to the degree that items constructed tap the subtleties of meaning within each of these strata. There is no single statistical criterion which can be used to determine whether or not one has properly sampled from the domain of content. However, the researcher can take several precautions to help insure the representation of the various shades of meaning from within the domain.

The PCSI was constructed with content validity procedure in mind as follows:

- (1) The domain of content was identified (e.g., role aspects of counsellors) and stratified into its major components. During this stage, the most important and obvious meanings or facets of counselling were identified according to strata and substrata;
- (2) Several items were written and re-written (including adaptations from existing scales) to capture the shades of meaning associated with each stratum and substratum;
- (3) The PCSI was then designed, critically analyzed, and modified with respect to format, content, and vocabulary,

by the research team, community members, and counselling agencies (keeping the guidelines for test construction in mind as outlined in Chapter II); and finally,

- (4) The Punjabi version of the PCSI was carefully translated and back-translated following Brislin's (1973) methodology of cross-cultural test construction.

Validity of the PCSI was further assessed using an internal-consistency approach involving item analysis. Internal-consistency is basically concerned with the variance of a particular scaling procedure, or with the variance of the assumption that a particular attribute can be scaled with the specified scale properties. If a scale has the assumed properties, and if the particular scaling technique is valid for determining these properties, then the experimental results should show certain internal relations which are consistent with the assumed properties. High internal-consistency between items on the PCSI appear to illustrate this aspect of validity.

Item Analysis

Much of what is said about reliability and validity on summated attitude scales like the PCSI, becomes item analysis. Item analysis is the selection of an item for inclusion in one's scale based on the reliability and validity of the item. Many different processes of item analysis and item quality have been developed (Davis, 1952); however, these are too numerous to mention for the purposes of this paper. Stated more simply, items are chosen which correlate most highly with other items on

the scale. Obviously, the items which correlate highest with each other will correlate highest with a total scale score based on the summation of these same items.

Perhaps the most straightforward item analysis procedure is the item-to-total correlation technique. One simply selects the items which have the highest correlations with the total score. If one has a large item pool, the items with the best item-to-total correlations for his/her scale should be selected. For the purposes of this study, the statistical program LERTAP , calculated individual item correlations (Pearson's) with the total test scores. Item correlation coefficients of 0.30 to 0.50 with total test scores are considered good, while coefficients greater than 0.50 indicate superior items.

Another criteria for item selection can be the size of the standard deviation calculated for each item. Therefore, a standard deviation of 0.80 to 1.00 would be considered good for a 5-point scale (such as the PCSI) while a standard deviation greater than 1.00 would indicate superior items. In other words, the degree of response to these items would be dispersed by at least one scale step on a 5-point scale.

Finally, another common technique is used for item analysis and selection, although it involves a greater degree of judgement on the part of the researcher. Similar to the earlier technique using standard deviation values, items are further selected according to subjects' choices for each of the scaled steps of the individual items. For example, if a greater

percentage of subjects tended to choose steps 4 or 5 ('agree' or 'strongly agree'), while very few subjects chose steps 1 or 2 ('strongly disagree' or 'disagree'), this item could prove to be inferior due to its positive response bias. On the other hand, if subjects were more broadly dispersed in their choices of steps 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5, or that each scale step had an approximately equal number of responses, this would indicate a superior item with significantly less bias in either direction.

With these procedures in mind, item analysis was conducted in the PCSI for each phase of this study. The summary of results for Phase I (East Indian Canadian sample) is presented in Table I. The summary of results for Phase II (Anglo-European Canadian sample) is presented in Table II.

Item analysis of the PCSI subtests were also conducted to assess the quality of subtest groupings with respect to the retention of superior items. PCSI subtest item analysis for Phase I and Phase II are found in Table III and Table IV respectively.

Based on the item analysis results for both Phase I and Phase II, the following 20 items of the PCSI appear to be the best overall in terms of any proposed revision of this instrument.

Item Numbers: 3,5,6,7,8,9,11,12,13,15,27,28,29,31,41,42,43,44,& 45.

RELATED RESULTS

The study conducted by Westwood & Massey, 1982, presented some interesting findings which may serve to further illustrate the usefulness of the PCSI .

Since this was primarily a cross-cultural study, comparisons were made between Groups I (East Indian Canadian) and II (Anglo-European Canadian) with respect to age (adults vs. adolescents) using a one-way analysis of variance approach. Analysis of variance within each group for age (adults vs. adolescents) was also calculated. And finally, multiple analysis of variance was calculated for the PCSI subtests both across and within Groups I and II for age (adults vs. adolescents).

The results of a one-way analysis of variance for the PCSI indicated no significant differences overall between the adults in Group I (East Indian Canadians) and the adults in Group II (Anglo-European Canadians), $F, (1,151)=3.48, P<.05$.

An overall significant difference in one-way analysis of variance for the PCSI was found between the adolescents in Group I and the adolescents in Group II, $F (1,168)=7.77, P<.01$.

No significant differences were found between the adults and adolescents within Group I, $F, (1,166)=1.11, P<.05$.

A significant difference was found between the adults and adolescents within Group II, $F (1,153)=4.06, P<.05$.

Multiple analysis of variance for the PCSI subtests for the adults and adolescents between Groups I and II appear in Table

V.

Multiple analysis of variance for the PCSI subtests within Group I for adults and adolescents appear in Table VI.

Multiple analysis of variance for the PCSI subtests within Group II for adults and adolescents appear in Table VII.

Table I

Item Analysis Results for the PCSI:
Phase I (East Indian Canadian sample)

PCSI Item Numbers	Percentage of Subject Response To Scaled Scores (Total Sample=168)						Standard Deviation	Total Test Correlation
	1	2	3	4	5	N.R.		
1	1.8	3.0	6.5	51.2	37.2	1.2	0.83	0.31
2	3.0	3.0	3.6	38.1	52.4	-	0.91	0.35
3*	0.0	9.5	11.3	52.4	25.6	1.2	0.87	0.43
4	0.6	1.2	2.4	45.2	48.2	2.4	0.69	0.36
5**	7.1	17.9	12.5	41.7	19.0	1.8	1.19	0.37
6*	3.0	7.1	10.7	44.0	34.5	0.6	1.01	0.36
7**	2.4	10.7	12.5	52.4	21.4	0.6	0.98	0.38
8*	1.8	11.3	11.3	38.7	36.9	-	1.05	0.52
9**	1.2	12.5	13.1	48.8	24.4	-	0.99	0.53
10*	0.6	6.0	10.7	46.4	34.5	1.8	0.87	0.42
11**	1.8	12.5	14.9	42.3	27.4	1.2	1.03	0.46
12**	4.8	17.9	16.7	43.5	16.7	0.6	1.11	0.45
13**	2.4	12.5	24.4	32.7	27.4	0.6	1.08	0.64
14**	5.4	19.6	26.2	26.8	20.8	1.2	1.17	0.47
15**	11.3	24.4	17.9	30.4	16.1	-	1.28	0.30
16	1.2	3.0	8.9	52.4	33.9	0.6	0.80	0.52
17	0.6	3.0	7.1	51.8	37.5	-	0.76	0.53
18	0.0	1.2	3.6	42.3	52.4	0.6	0.64	0.45
19	0.0	4.2	10.7	45.2	39.9	-	0.80	0.44
20*	0.6	8.9	16.1	49.4	23.8	1.2	0.90	0.43
21	0.0	2.4	8.9	43.5	44.6	0.6	0.74	0.54
22	0.0	4.8	10.1	45.8	39.3	-	0.81	0.46
23	0.0	6.0	2.4	52.4	38.1	1.2	0.78	0.56
24	0.0	4.2	12.5	47.0	35.1	1.2	0.80	0.60
25	0.0	3.6	3.6	38.7	54.2	-	0.73	0.40
26	0.6	3.0	12.5	56.5	26.8	0.6	0.76	0.45
27*	2.4	5.4	11.3	46.4	33.3	1.2	0.94	0.48
28*	0.6	11.3	16.1	49.4	22.6	-	0.93	0.62
29**	10.7	16.1	20.2	35.7	16.7	0.6	1.23	0.41
30*	1.2	6.5	13.1	42.9	36.3	-	0.93	0.48
31**	1.2	10.1	16.7	38.1	33.3	0.6	1.01	0.59
32	1.2	5.4	12.5	52.4	38.0	0.6	0.86	0.55
33	1.8	3.0	6.0	42.9	45.2	1.2	0.86	0.39
34	1.2	4.2	8.3	51.2	31.5	3.6	0.84	0.41
35	0.0	3.6	7.1	51.2	37.5	0.6	0.74	0.60
36	0.0	2.4	6.0	48.2	41.7	1.8	0.71	0.57
37	0.0	3.6	11.9	53.6	30.4	0.6	0.75	0.49
38	0.6	2.4	4.2	49.4	42.9	0.6	0.73	0.43
39	0.0	5.4	6.5	54.8	32.1	1.2	0.77	0.50
40*	1.2	4.2	10.1	44.6	39.3	0.6	0.87	0.49
41**	4.8	13.7	19.0	36.3	25.0	1.2	1.14	0.52
42**	1.2	8.9	16.7	42.9	29.8	0.6	0.97	0.54
43*	1.2	4.8	13.7	39.3	39.3	1.8	0.92	0.59
44**	6.5	19.6	20.8	23.8	28.6	0.6	1.27	0.57
45**	8.3	22.0	20.2	28.0	19.0	2.4	1.24	0.35

Table II

Item Analysis Results for the PCSI:
Phase II (Anglo-European Canadian sample)

PCSI Item Numbers	Percentage of Subject Response To Scaled Scores (Total Sample=155)						Standard Deviation	Total Test Correlation
	1	2	3	4	5	N.R.		
1	0.0	6.5	6.5	57.4	29.7	-	0.78	0.38
2	1.3	3.2	4.5	45.2	45.8	-	0.81	0.31
3*	0.6	7.7	30.3	49.0	12.3	-	0.82	0.48
4	0.0	2.6	9.0	44.5	43.9	-	0.74	0.46
5**	6.5	14.2	11.0	40.0	27.7	0.6	1.21	0.33
6**	5.8	9.7	16.1	33.5	34.8	-	1.18	0.38
7**	1.3	18.7	17.4	50.3	12.3	-	0.98	0.41
8*	1.9	9.0	14.8	51.0	23.2	-	0.95	0.37
9*	2.6	9.7	18.7	56.1	12.9	-	0.91	0.40
10	0.6	5.2	14.2	55.5	23.2	1.3	0.81	0.47
11**	1.9	12.3	12.1	47.1	15.5	-	0.96	0.50
12**	5.8	24.5	29.0	34.2	5.2	1.3	1.01	0.52
13**	4.5	13.5	38.7	39.4	3.9	-	0.90	0.43
14**	8.4	30.3	36.1	20.6	4.5	-	1.00	0.28
15**	14.8	42.6	17.4	20.0	4.5	0.6	1.11	0.03
16	0.0	5.2	11.6	50.3	32.9	-	0.80	0.46
17	0.6	3.9	4.5	40.6	50.3	-	0.80	0.40
18	0.6	1.3	3.2	41.9	52.9	-	0.69	0.41
19	0.6	1.9	6.5	56.1	34.8	-	0.71	0.46
20	2.6	5.8	18.7	56.1	16.8	-	0.88	0.27
21	0.6	3.2	7.7	53.5	34.8	-	0.76	0.37
22	1.3	5.2	9.7	56.1	27.1	0.6	0.84	0.49
23	0.0	2.6	3.9	58.7	34.8	-	0.65	0.53
24*	0.6	8.4	19.4	55.5	16.1	-	0.84	0.44
25	0.0	1.3	3.9	51.6	43.2	-	0.62	0.50
26*	0.6	9.0	20.0	53.5	16.8	-	0.86	0.54
27**	1.9	7.7	25.2	51.0	13.5	0.6	0.88	0.44
28**	3.2	13.5	23.2	51.6	8.4	-	0.94	0.45
29**	5.8	20.1	26.5	35.5	12.3	-	1.10	0.46
30	0.0	1.9	11.6	46.5	40.0	-	0.73	0.46
31**	2.6	12.9	31.6	42.6	10.3	-	0.93	0.51
32	0.0	6.5	16.8	49.7	25.8	1.3	0.84	0.37
33	0.6	3.9	11.0	36.1	48.4	-	0.86	0.55
34**	3.9	10.3	8.4	42.6	34.8	-	1.09	0.48
35	0.0	3.2	14.8	54.8	26.5	0.6	0.74	0.42
36	0.0	3.9	11.0	54.2	31.0	-	0.75	0.50
37	0.6	6.5	12.3	54.2	26.5	-	0.84	0.49
38	0.6	3.9	3.2	54.2	38.1	-	0.75	0.52
39	0.0	3.2	13.5	56.1	26.5	0.6	0.73	0.52
40	1.9	5.2	8.4	50.3	33.5	0.6	0.90	0.45
41**	6.5	23.9	20.6	29.7	19.4	-	1.22	0.38
42**	5.2	7.7	36.1	40.0	11.0	-	0.97	0.35
43*	1.9	3.2	36.8	47.1	10.3	0.6	0.79	0.47
44**	3.9	17.4	40.6	32.9	4.5	0.6	0.90	0.32
45**	9.7	32.3	23.9	22.6	11.6	-	1.19	0.18

TABLE II INDEX

Rating Scale Scores: 1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree;
3=Uncertain 4=Agree; 5=Strongly Agree; N.R.=No Response

Criteria:

* = Good Items (Total Test correlations of 0.30 to 0.50, Standard Deviations of 0.80 to 1.00, dispersal in percentage of response to each scale score).

** = Superior Items (Total Test correlations greater than 0.50, Standard Deviations > 1.00, greater dispersal in percentage of response to each scale score).

Table III

PCSI Subtest Results (Best Items):
Phase I (East Indian Canadian Sample)

<u>PCSI Subtests</u>	<u>Item Numbers</u>	Proportion of <u>Total Items</u>
Career/Vocational	3, <u>5</u> , 7, 8, <u>9</u> , 10, <u>11</u> , <u>12</u> , 20	9/23
Personal/Social	30, <u>41</u>	2/7
Family Involvement	6, <u>29</u> , 40	All
Role (Counsellor/Teacher)	<u>15</u> , <u>45</u>	2/4
Cultural Awareness	<u>13</u> , <u>14</u> , 27, <u>31</u> , <u>42</u> , 43, <u>44</u>	All

x = Superior Items

Table IV

PCSI Subtest Results (Best Items):
Phase II (Anglo-European Canadian Sample)

<u>PCSI Subtests</u>	<u>Item Numbers</u>	Proportion of <u>Total Items</u>
Career/Vocational	3, <u>5</u> , 7, 8, 9, <u>11</u> , <u>12</u> , 24, 26, <u>28</u>	10/23
Personal/Social	<u>34</u> , <u>41</u>	2/7
Family Involvement	<u>6</u> , <u>29</u>	2/3
Role (Counsellor/Teacher)	<u>15</u> , <u>45</u>	2/4
Cultural Awareness	<u>13</u> , <u>14</u> , <u>27</u> , <u>31</u> , <u>42</u> , 43, <u>44</u>	All

x = Superior Items

Table V

Multiple Analysis of Variance for PCSI
 Subtests Between the East Indian Canadian (Group I)
 and the Anglo-European Canadian (Group II)
 Adults and Adolescents

<u>PCSI Subtests</u>	<u>Adult Means</u>		<u>F</u>	<u>Adolescent Means</u>		<u>F</u>
	<u>Group I</u>	<u>Group II</u>		<u>Group I</u>	<u>Group II</u>	
Career/ Vocational	4.0	3.9	1.55	4.0	3.8	5.09*
Personal/Social Family	4.1	4.1	0.04	4.0	4.1	0.01
Involvement	3.9	4.0	1.00	3.7	3.5	4.66*
Role (Counsellor/ Teacher)	3.8	3.4	8.78**	3.6	3.4	3.76a
Cultural Awareness	3.9	3.5	13.96**	3.6	3.2	17.59*

* $\bar{P} < .05$

** $\bar{P} < .01$

a $\bar{P} = 0.054$

Table VI

Multiple Analysis of Variance for PCSI Subtests
 Between the East Indian Canadian (Group I)
 Adults and Adolescents

<u>PCSI Subtests</u>	<u>Adult Means</u>	<u>Adolescent Means</u>	<u>F</u>
Career/Vocational	3.8	3.8	0.20
Personal/Social	4.1	4.0	0.85
Family Involvement	3.9	3.7	2.22
Role (Counsellor/Teacher)	3.7	3.6	2.60
Cultural Awareness	3.9	3.6	4.91*

*P < .05

Table VII

Multiple Analysis of Variance for PCSI Subtests
 Between the Anglo-European Canadian (Group II)
 Adults and Adolescents

<u>PCSI Subtests</u>	<u>Adult Means</u>	<u>Adolescent Means</u>	<u>F</u>
Career/Vocational	3.5	3.5	1.14
Personal/Social	4.1	4.0	0.34
Family Involvement	4.0	3.5	20.30**
Role (Counsellor/Teacher)	3.4	3.4	0.04
Cultural Awareness	2.9	2.7	9.13**

*P < .01

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

Research Objectives and Methodology

This paper is written with several objectives in mind. Firstly, an examination of attitude research and measurement has been undertaken along with a review of the literature concerning ethnic attitudes towards counselling. Secondly, a major focus of this paper has been an analysis of the development and implementation of the Perception of Counselling Services Index or PCSI , an instrument used in a study conducted by Westwood & Massey (1982). Thirdly, the psychometric properties of the PCSI were assessed in relation to the earlier mentioned study. Finally, a re-evaluation and revision of the PCSI was conducted with an aim towards constructing a more precise instrument for the measurement of ethnic attitudes towards counselling in schools.

A detailed description of the Westwood & Massey (1982) study was undertaken in order to assess the psychometric properties of the PCSI as a potentially good instrument for the measurement of ethnic attitudes towards counselling.

DISCUSSION

Instrument Reliability

The analysis of the PCSI presented in this paper indicates that this is a good instrument with respect to overall reliability and validity.

The assumption underlying the use of this instrument is that there exists such a thing as a 'true' attitude towards specific aspects of counselling, just as in the case of factual questions where there are 'true' facts or events. Due to the complex nature of attitudes as discussed previously in Chapter II, it is unlikely that single questions would reflect these attitudes adequately. By using sets of questions, provided they all relate to the same attitude, one is able to maximize the more stable components of attitudes while reducing the instability due to particular items, emphasis, mood changes, and so on. Therefore, the PCSI subtests were used to uncover attitudes towards specific role aspects of counsellors. Most of these items incorporated in the subtests appear to be good and in some cases, as seen on the Cultural Awareness subtest, all items responded well and discriminated attitudes across both 'cultural' Groups I and II.

If a set of data are not internally consistent, one is not always sure why. It may be that the assumption of the existence of a scale with the specified properties is in error. Or it may simply be that the experimental technique used is inadequate for

determining the scale. This is not the case for the PCSI . Internal-consistency estimates of reliability have been quite high for both Groups I and II. This indicates that most items in the questionnaire correlate with each other very highly. In other words, this instrument is very reliable in terms of consistency over time and across two 'cultural' groups due to the fact that most items reliably received similar responses.

Due to the high internal-consistency of the PCSI , subtest analysis would almost always yield significant results. Therefore, it is concluded that stress should not be placed on the subtests of the PCSI but rather on the instrument as a whole in terms of a general index of attitudes towards counselling.

Since this instrument was found to be reliable across both cross-cultural groups, its use as an indicator of attitudes towards counselling need not limit itself to ethnic minority populations but researchers may find it very useful for the general public as well.

Instrument Validity

The chief difficulty in assessing the validity of attitude questions is the lack of criteria. What is needed ideally are groups of people with known attitude characteristics (criterion groups), so that one could see whether or not one's questions can discriminate between them.

Construct validity of attitude measures is also difficult to assess. Unlike many constructs in the physical sciences, few

in the social sciences are easily operationally defined. Thus generalizations about constructs such as 'attitude' are difficult to make since this is really not a single construct but rather a multitude of constructs. In terms of classic definitions of construct validity, it is rarely the case that one can correlate a measure such as attitude with some real criterion variable to assess its validity. Instead more indirect validation procedures are necessary.

Since the validity of the PCSI cannot be assessed by criterion-related validity or construct validity procedures, content validity is the main concern. Content validity has been criticized by some theorists such as Loevinger (1965), who agree with the concept of sampling from within a population of persons but argue that sampling from a domain of content is an illegitimate extension of the model.

Although these views are sound in some contexts, they appear to be very general. The very model of sampling from a universe requires some defense. A clear argument for Loevinger's comment is that persons are discrete elements and a population is in principle countable, whereas content is sometimes an undefinable mass (Cronbach, 1971). Moreover, while there may be a defineable domain of content there is not existing universe of items. The only items available are those that constitute the so-called sample.

Content validity is also limited by the adequacy of the universe specification, which is usually defined in imprecise

terms and thus can rarely mention every pertinent aspect of the task. The requirement, therefore, is that the universe boundaries be well defined. Judgement is then required in establishing the accuracy of items as well as their relevance to the universe specifications (Cronbach, 1971).

As discussed in Chapter IV, the PCSI was designed with face and content validity procedures in mind. Although content validity is carefully considered in constructing achievement and proficiency tests, it has usually been ignored in the construction of attitude scales. Many researchers in the area of attitude measurement have been satisfied to devise a number of items on an ad-hoc basis which they believe will measure what they want measured. The correct method, however, is for researchers to search the literature carefully to determine how various authors have used the concept 'attitude'. Moreover, they should rely on their own observations and experiences and ask whether they yield any new facets to the concept under consideration.

The PCSI appears to have both face and content validity. The instrument was constructed with test development procedures in mind. Items were written to capture the various definitions of meanings associated with school counselling. These items were then written and re-written to conform to the demand characteristics of the sample under investigation. And finally, these items presented some valid distinctions between the attitudes of a sample minority and majority group.

Summary: Reliability and Validity

Although verbal definitions of reliability and validity make quite clear the distinction between the two concepts, there are cases when this distinction is considerably blurred. This blurring occurs especially when internal-consistency is considered to be the estimated reliability. It is clear that if one has "n" parallel items administered simultaneously, they provide several instant test-retests. Another aspect, however, is that all the correlations among these manifest variables are due to the correlations between each of the manifest variables and some underlying construct, trait, or factor. These latter correlations would indicate the validity of each item since they indicate the degree to which each item correlates with that which one wants to measure -- the underlying construct. The relationship between these two perspectives, therefore, hints at the existence of a close relationship between reliability and validity.

Item Analysis

Results of the item analysis conducted on the PCSI indicated that 24 of the 45 items appeared to be the best items for Phase I, while 23 out of 45 responded well in Phase II of the Westwood & Massey (1982) study. As Table I and Table II point out, a composite of 20 items can be judged as superior across both Phases I and II. These are identified as item numbers 3,5,6,7,8,9,11,12,13,14,15,27,28,29,31,41,42,43,44 and 45. Therefore, one could conclude that not only should these

items be retained in future revisions of the PCSI , but that they can also be used to assess the attitudes of non-minority subjects as well.


The PCSI subtest analysis indicated that most items making up each subtest appear to be good for the most part. Tables III, IV, V, VI, and VII point out that all the items incorporated in the Cultural Awareness subtest responded well across 'cultural' groups, while other subtest items appeared to be generally adequate.

However, as mentioned earlier, due to the high internal-consistency of the PCSI in both Phases I and II, it is not recommended that this instrument be divided into subtests, but rather all the items should be used as a single measure of attitudes towards counsellors. Subtest division, on the other hand, may be helpful in the interpretation and analysis of the results.

LIMITATIONS OF THE PCSI

Generally speaking, the PCSI appears to be a good instrument. However, it has some limitations which need to be recognized if a revision of this instrument is forthcoming.

This instrument appears to contain a positive response bias. In other words, subjects tended to agree with most of the items and only on the better items did they have more diverse responses. On the one hand, these responses may be reflecting genuine attitudes of agreement. However, this may not be the



case since the instrument is void of negative statements (scored using reversed weights)". There were few items which evoked disagreement. Therefore, a revision of this instrument should include at least a few items which are moderately negative in their wording.

The PCSI also contains too many items. As indicated earlier, approximately half of these items appear to respond well under item analysis. Therefore, the revised PCSI should contain approximately 30 items including a few new items with negative statements chosen from the previously identified domain of content.

One area of psychometric analysis that has not been undertaken is the translated (Punjabi) form of the PCSI used in Phase I of the Westwood and Massey study. Although approximately only 15 translated forms were used, the reliability and validity in terms of alternate forms is open to question (this would apply only to 15 adult responses in Group I).

The PCSI used in Phase I did not contain absolutely identical items with the PCSI used in Phase II of this study. This slight change only affected a few items on the Cultural Awareness subtest. Specifically, the wording on items #31 and #44 had to be changed from their personal application to specific ethnic groups to more general statements required in Phase II of this study. This change did not significantly alter the instrument's psychometric properties, in fact the altered

items used in Phase II appeared to be more general and thus gave more credibility to the PCSI as an instrument to gather data on non-minority populations as well.

LIMITATIONS OF THE WESTWOOD & MASSEY (1982) STUDY

The overall results of this study suggested that between the two culturally dissimilar groups there was more agreement on the expectations that each group held toward counselling than the researchers had hypothesized. Differences did occur, however, between the two groups when comparisons were made on specific subtests of the instrument. Often, the similarities and differences between the two culturally different groups were also not in the directions anticipated by the researchers. In addition, there emerged some interesting differences between the adults and the adolescents within each of the East Indian and Anglo-European samples.

It was expected that the adults of the minority group would have different expectations about what a counsellor should do based upon their own cultural view of the helper in society. It was also assumed that the East Indian adults would have had considerably less contact with a counsellor or counselling services than would the adults of the comparison group.

This brings out perhaps one of the strongest limitations of this study. As mentioned in Chapter II, lack of knowledge or information about counsellors in general may affect ratings on attitude questionnaires such as the PCSI. These results

therefore point out that either a 'true' or 'real' similarity between the adults in Group I and II exists, for example, or that perhaps both groups of adults had a similar lack of knowledge concerning counselling in schools.

This latter view appears to be supported by the fact that, unlike the adults, the adolescents across both Groups I and II did differ significantly (and to a greater degree) in their attitude ratings. They in fact would have had considerably more knowledge about counselling based on their first-hand experience in school.

In terms of the psychometric properties of the PCSI, this lack of information might help to explain why these subjects developed particular attitudes at one point in time. In other words, regardless of the nature of one's attitudes or the degree of knowledge concerning the attitudinal object, individuals can hold genuinely positive or negative attitudes toward counsellors.

A major limitation of this study, which prevents extensive generalizations in terms of its cross-cultural emphasis, is the fact that the results reflect the ethnic attitudes of a particular subgroup within the East Indian community of Vancouver. Although as indicated in Chapter III, this was a representative sample of the East Indian community in Vancouver, one could assume that perhaps other subgroups of the same community may have differing expectations.

Furthermore, although both the Group I and II samples were

drawn from the same geographic area, and that the adults across both groups were from similar socio-economic backgrounds, the East Indian sample of adults had a higher level of education overall than did the adults in the Anglo-European sample. The degree to which this may have affected the results is open to question. It was also noted that the majority of the Anglo-European sample was composed of female subjects, and therefore this may have introduced an unknown amount of sex bias in the overall ratings for Group II.

Finally, this study was one of expectations and attitudes, not one of description of how the two groups made contact with counsellors. The study did not control for amount and type of contact members had with counsellors previous to the survey. It can only be assumed that at least among the adolescents of both groups, the amount of contact with counsellors was more similar than between the adults of the two groups.

REVISION OF THE PCSI

Based on the content and results discussed in this paper, I propose a revision of the existing PCSI. This revision will formally be known as the Ethnic Perception of Counselling Index or EPCI.

This revision includes the 20 items from the previous PCSI which were identified as superior overall (both groups) as well as 10 new items containing negative statements randomly distributed in the body of this revised 30-item questionnaire.

A copy of this new instrument appears in Appendix C.

The Ethnic Perception of Counselling Index is presented as a general index for the measurement of ethnic attitudes towards school counselling. However, its use need not be restricted to these special ethnic populations.

The EPCI will be most appropriate for subjects aged 18 years and above and certainly valid for surveying East Indian subjects.

It is also recognized that this instrument may be translated into the appropriate language of study provided that proper methods of cross-cultural research methodology are followed (Brislin, 1973).

IMPLICATIONS

Counselling Ethnic Minorities

In the process of counselling, both counsellor and client bring in their background, attitudes, values, and expectations, all of which affect the quality of counselling in general. As mentioned in Chapter II, early identification of client attitudes and expectations prior to counselling is critical to the quality of the relationship which follows.

In terms of the implications of attitudes that cross-cultural clients may have toward counselling, Overall & Aaronson (1963) and Sue & Sue (1972) have concluded that if minority

group expectations about counselling are not met by experience and cultural expertise of the counsellor, the result is that these clients are much less likely to return to counselling. Therefore, the counsellor must be made aware of these expectations in order to meet the needs of clients regardless of their cultural context.

Canada's rapidly expanding ethnic communities present a challenge to counselling psychologists. If this challenge is going to be met effectively, the various attitudes, expectations, and needs of minority-status clients will have to be recognized.

Although some recent studies such as Westwood & Massey (1982), discussed in depth in this paper, have focused on the collection of data concerning ethnic attitudes toward counselling, further research in this area needs to be conducted. The future development of cross-cultural counselling training models relies very heavily on this type of research. Finally, with respect to the purpose of this paper, studies evaluating the adequacy of instruments such as the PCSI, are therefore at the very grassroots of future trends in cross-cultural research.

Future Use of the EPCI

Although this instrument was carefully developed following extensive analysis from previous studies, it needs to be tested in actual experimental conditions to determine its psychometric

properties. As an important tool for cross-cultural research, this instrument could be used in the following manner. Several ethnic groups could be selected and surveyed in a similar manner to the Westwood & Massey (1982) study. Carefully translated forms in various languages could be constructed and evaluated. In fact, 'ethnic norms' could be constructed using this instrument as a helpful index for practicing counsellors working with ethnic populations.

It is the author's opinion that this instrument could also be used by practicing professionals on potential cross-cultural clients. Administration of the EPCI prior to counselling may provide the school counsellor with a greater knowledge base concerning cultural norms, expectations, and attitudes of his/her prospective clients and therefore contribute significantly to his/her cultural expertise.

Finally, it is hoped that this new instrument will contribute to a better understanding of ethnic expectations and attitudes towards an important psychological and educational service -- high school counselling.

CONCLUSION

A questionnaire is not just a list of questions or a form to be filled out. It is essentially a scientific instrument for measurement and for collection of particular kinds of data. Like all such instruments, it has been designed according to particular expectations and with specific aims in mind, and the

data it yields are subject to error.

Attempts at controlling variables in research have left a host of possible sources of error unaccounted for. These include sampling errors, errors due to non-response, faults in the design of the survey, translation errors, unreliability or lack of validity of instruments, interviewer bias, errors in coding responses processing, or statistical analysis, and finally, faulty interpretation of the results. All of these possible sources of error may have significant effects on the results of one's research.

The goal of science is to explain relationships among variables. The implementation of this goal is heavily dependent upon the ability of the researcher to measure his/her variables with as little error as possible. As was indicated, errors in measurement tend to distort relations among variables. Additionally, the researcher needs to be concerned that his/her measures are valid, measuring what they purport to measure. If hypothesized relations among variables are to be measured, researchers need to be certain that their measures of the variables are reliable and valid.

Finally, with respect to the general purpose of this paper, when constructing or evaluating instruments, the following objectives must be kept in mind. Only the insightful researcher can build items which are both reliable and valid, and usually none of us can be truly satisfied with our first attempts at scale construction. Apparently, however, many researchers are

satisfied with their original instruments because many attitude scales are developed and used on a single sample. The careful researcher, however, assesses the viability of the item by sampling and resampling within the population of respondents, replacing items in some cases and revising them in others until he/she is reasonably satisfied with the viability of the scale. These cross-validation procedures can mean that years are spent in developing adequate measures. But adequate measures are a prerequisite for the demonstration of the utility of attitude measurement.

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APPENDIX A

Instrument: Perception of Counselling
Services Index (Phase I)

PERCEPTION OF COUNSELLING SERVICES INDEX

This questionnaire contains several statements about the school counsellor and the counselling services in your area. Your answers will be helpful in finding out the types of guidance which will be offered in the future and your help in filling out this questionnaire will be appreciated. Feel free to give your honest opinion no matter what others might feel about the statements in this questionnaire. Your answers are confidential. Please do not place your name on the questionnaire. Please fill it out carefully and honestly. THANK YOU.

Please check the spaces below or fill in the blanks.

1. Are you: Male____. Female____.
2. Province of Origin in India_____.
3. Describe the highest level of education of the father_____
_____.
4. Describe the highest level of education of the mother_____
_____.
5. Father's occupation_____ Employed: Yes___No___.
6. Mother's occupation_____ Employed: Yes___No___.
7. Who has influenced you the most in finding out what you want to do in the future(ie. Job, School, College, etc):
Mother___ Father___ Brother___ Sister___ Cousin___
Best Friend___ Temple___ Counsellor___ Teacher___.
Other? (Please give title) _____.

DIRECTIONS

This questionnaire contains 45 statements about the counselling service in schools. Please indicate your feeling or opinions about each of these statements from the following choices. Please indicate your choice in the column beside each statement as shown in the example below.

CHOICES:

If you Strongly Disagree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you Disagree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you are Uncertain about the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you Agree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you Strongly Agree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

EXAMPLE:

"A counsellor should help students find jobs after they graduate from school".

If you Agree with the statement, you would check that space in the column beside the question as shown in the example.

Please give only ONE choice for each statement.

THANK YOU.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	
1.	A counsellor should find out what each student wants to do after they finish high school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
2.	The counsellor should find out which children are unhappy in school and try to help them.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(2)
3.	Counsellors should help students form interest groups according to what they would like to do after they finish high school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(3)
4.	Counsellors should give information and materials to students to help them choose what they would like to do after finishing high school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(4)
5.	The counsellor should tell the student if he or she has the ability to go on to study at college or university.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(5)
6.	When a student is having trouble in school, the counsellor should arrange a meeting with the parents to discuss what should be done.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(6)
7.	The counsellor should help the student decide what to do after finishing high school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(7)
8.	The counsellor should help the student find out if any money is available to help pay for studies at college, vocational school, or university.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(8)
9.	The counsellor should help the student decide which college or university he or she should go to.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(9)
10.	The counsellor should give the proper results of those tests which help the student to decide on the right type of job for them.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
11.	Counsellors should help students find jobs or further studies which would help them to work well in this Canadian society.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
12.	Counsellors should help students choose a job that would help and benefit Canadian society as a whole.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
13.	Counsellors should try hard to contact the ethnic communities whose children are in the schools.----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
14.	Counsellors should belong to the ethnic associations that are represented in the schools.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
15.	In order to do a good job, the counsellor should also be a part-time teacher in the school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)

		Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	
16.	The counsellor should help the student who is having any personal problems.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(16)
17.	When a student has any personal problems, he or she should feel free to talk about them with a counsellor.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(17)
18.	It should be easy to arrange a meeting with the counsellor when one is needed.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(18)
19.	There should be enough time in the high school schedule to allow for group guidance classes that would help students decide what to do after they finish high school.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(19)
20.	The teachers should take enough class time to talk about jobs that may be related to the subjects they teach.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(20)
21.	The high school should make arrangements for students to visit vocational and technical schools.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(21)
22.	The counsellor should help the student to find people outside the school who could give extra information about different types of jobs.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(22)
23.	The counsellor should help the student find out more about the correct level of education that is needed for the job that the student may want to do.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(23)
24.	The counsellor should know enough about jobs to be able to help the student find the right type of work.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(24)
25.	The counsellor should help the student to plan the right type of courses in high school in order to enter the college, vocational school or university that he or she may choose.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(25)
26.	The counsellor should help the student look for job opportunities that may be offered now and in the future.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(26)
27.	Counsellors should try to see things from an ethnic person's viewpoint when giving advice and help to students from ethnic backgrounds.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(27)
28.	The counsellor should help the student decide on the right type of job to take after finishing high school studies.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(28)
29.	Counsellors should give advice to students on personal and family matters.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(29)

		Dislike	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	
30.	Counsellors should be ready to talk to students at anytime in case of any personal crisis or emergency.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(30)
31.	Counsellors should become familiar with the cultural heritage and history of my ethnic group.-	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(31)
32.	Counsellors should make regular checks on students' progress in schools.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(32)
33.	Counsellors are as important to schools as are teachers and principals.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(33)
34.	The counsellor should treat the student differently or be more personal with the student than the teacher should.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(34)
35.	The high school should give enough opportunity to students to visit businesses and industries.---	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(35)
36.	The high school should give students the opportunity to visit colleges and universities.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(36)
37.	The student should talk about his or her vocational plans with a counsellor.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(37)
38.	The counsellor's office should have lots of information about many different types of jobs offered in Canada.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(38)
39.	The counsellor should give the student lots of help in learning about different jobs and the types of skills needed for each job.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(39)
40.	Parents should talk to counsellors when their children are having any trouble at school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(40)
41.	All personal problems of students such as problems with other students, problems in the family, problems with the law, etc, should be discussed with the school counsellor.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(41)
42.	Counsellors should teach the other teachers and school staff about the important issues involved in working with children and families from ethnic backgrounds.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(42)
43.	Counsellors should know more about the cultural values which are different from their own.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(43)
44.	Counsellors should be chosen from my ethnic group if possible.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(44)
45.	Any student problems should be the responsibility of the counsellor rather than the teacher or principal.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(45)

APPENDIX B

Instrument: Perception of Counselling

Services Index (Phase II)

PERCEPTION OF COUNSELLING SERVICES INDEX

This questionnaire contains several statements about the school counsellor and the counselling services in your area. Your answers will be helpful in finding out the types of guidance which will be offered in the future and your help in filling out this questionnaire will be appreciated. Feel free to give your honest opinion no matter what others might feel about the statements in this questionnaire. Your answers are confidential. Please do not place your name on the questionnaire. Please fill it out carefully and honestly. THANK YOU.

Please check the spaces below or fill in the blanks.

1. Are you: Male____. Female____. Age____.
2. Place of birth:_____.
3. Describe the highest level of education of the father_____
_____.
4. Describe the highest level of education of the mother_____
_____.
5. Father's occupation_____ Employed: Yes___No___.
6. Mother's occupation_____ Employed: Yes___No___.
7. Who has influenced you the most in finding out what you want to do in the future (ie. Job, School, College, etc):
Mother___ Father___ Brother___ Sister___ Cousin___
Best Friend___ Church___ Counsellor___ Teacher___.
Other? (Please give title) _____.

DIRECTIONS

This questionnaire contains 45 statements about the counselling service in schools. Please indicate your feeling or opinions about each of these statements from the following choices. Please indicate your choice in the column beside each statement as shown in the example below.

CHOICES:

If you Strongly Disagree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you Disagree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you are Uncertain about the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you Agree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you Strongly Agree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

EXAMPLE:

"A counsellor should help students find jobs after they graduate from school".

If you Agree with the statement, you would check that space in the column beside the question as shown in the example.

Please give only ONE choice for each statement.

THANK YOU.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	
1.	A counsellor should find out what each student wants to do after they finish high school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(1)
2.	The counsellor should find out which children are unhappy in school and try to help them.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(2)
3.	Counsellors should help students form interest groups according to what they would like to do after they finish high school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(3)
4.	Counsellors should give information and materials to students to help them choose what they would like to do after finishing high school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(4)
5.	The counsellor should tell the student if he or she has the ability to go on to study at college or university.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(5)
6.	When a student is having trouble in school, the counsellor should arrange a meeting with the parents to discuss what should be done.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(6)
7.	The counsellor should help the student decide what to do after finishing high school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(7)
8.	The counsellor should help the student find out if any money is available to help pay for studies at college, vocational school, or university.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(8)
9.	The counsellor should help the student decide which college or university he or she should go to.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(9)
10.	The counsellor should give the proper results of those tests which help the student to decide on the right type of job for them.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(10)
11.	Counsellors should help students find jobs or further studies which would help them to work well in this Canadian society.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(11)
12.	Counsellors should help students choose a job that would help and benefit Canadian society as a whole.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(12)
13.	Counsellors should try hard to contact the ethnic communities whose children are in the schools.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(13)
14.	Counsellors should belong to the ethnic associations that are represented in the schools.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(14)
15.	In order to do a good job, the counsellor should also be a part-time teacher in the school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(15)

		Strongl Disagree	Disagree	Uncerta	Agree	Strongl Agree	
16.	The counsellor should help the student who is having any personal problems.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(16)
17.	When a student has any personal problems, he or she should feel free to talk about them with a counsellor.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(17)
18.	It should be easy to arrange a meeting with the counsellor when one is needed.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(18)
19.	There should be enough time in the high school schedule to allow for group guidance classes that would help students decide what to do after they finish high school.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(19)
20.	The teachers should take enough class time to talk about jobs that may be related to the subjects they teach.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(20)
21.	The high school should make arrangements for students to visit vocational and technical schools.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(21)
22.	The counsellor should help the student to find people outside the school who could give extra information about different types of jobs.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(22)
23.	The counsellor should help the student find out more about the correct level of education that is needed for the job that the student may want to do.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(23)
24.	The counsellor should know enough about jobs to be able to help the student find the right type of work.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(24)
25.	The counsellor should help the student to plan the right type of courses in high school in order to enter the college, vocational school or university that he or she may choose.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(25)
26.	The counsellor should help the student look for job opportunities that may be offered now and in the future.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(26)
27.	Counsellors should try to see things from an ethnic person's viewpoint when giving advice and help to students from ethnic backgrounds.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(27)
28.	The counsellor should help the student decide on the right type of job to take after finishing high school studies.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(28)
29.	Counsellors should give advice to students on personal and family matters.-----	[]	[]	[]	[]	[]	(29)

		Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree	
30.	Counsellors should be ready to talk to students at anytime in case of any personal crisis or emergency.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(30)
31.	Counsellors should become familiar with the cultural heritage and history of my ethnic group.--	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(31)
32.	Counsellors should make regular checks on students' progress in schools.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(32)
33.	Counsellors are as important to schools as are teachers and principals.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(33)
34.	The counsellor should treat the student differently or be more personal with the student than the teacher should.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(34)
35.	The high school should give enough opportunity to students to visit businesses and industries.---	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(35)
36.	The high school should ^{Give} students the opportunity to visit colleges and universities.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(36)
37.	The student should talk about his or her vocational plans with a counsellor.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(37)
38.	The counsellor's office should have lots of information about many different types of jobs offered in Canada.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(38)
39.	The counsellor should give the student lots of help in learning about different jobs and the types of skills needed for each job.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(39)
40.	Parents should talk to counsellors when their children are having any trouble at school.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(40)
41.	All personal problems of students, such as problems with other students, problems in the family, problems with the law, etc, should be discussed with the school counsellor.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(41)
42.	Counsellors should teach the other teachers and school staff about the important issues involved in working with children and families from ethnic backgrounds.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(42)
43.	Counsellors should know more about the cultural values which are different from their own.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(43)
44.	Counsellors should be chosen from my ethnic group if possible.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(44)
45.	Any student problems should be the responsibility of the counsellor rather than the teacher or principal.-----	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	(45)

APPENDIX C

Instrument: Ethnic Perception of Counselling Index

ETHNIC PERCEPTION OF COUNSELLING INDEX

This questionnaire contains several statements about the school counsellor and the counselling services in your area. Your answers will be helpful in finding out the types of guidance which will be offered in the future and your help in filling out this questionnaire will be appreciated. Feel free to give your honest opinion no matter what others might feel about the statements in this questionnaire. Your answers are confidential. Please do not place your name on the questionnaire. Please fill it out carefully and honestly. THANK YOU.

Please check the spaces below or fill in the blanks.

1. Are you: Male____. Female____. Age_____.
2. Place of birth: _____.
3. Describe the highest level of education of the father_____
_____.
4. Describe the highest level of education of the mother_____
_____.
5. Father's occupation_____ Employed: Yes___No___.
6. Mother's occupation_____ Employed: Yes___No___.
7. Who has influenced you the most in finding out what you want to do in the future(ie. Job, School, College, etc):
Mother___ Father___ Brother___ Sister___ Cousin___
Best Friend___ Church ___ Counsellor___ Teacher___.
Other? (Please give title) _____.

DIRECTIONS

This questionnaire contains 30 statements about the counselling service in schools. Please indicate your feeling or opinions about each of these statements from the following choices. Please indicate your choice in the column beside each statement as shown in the example below.

CHOICES:

If you Strongly Disagree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you Disagree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you are Uncertain about the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you Agree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

If you Strongly Agree with the statement, check that space in the column to the right of the question.

EXAMPLE:

"A counsellor should help students find jobs after they graduate from school".

If you Agree with the statement, you would check that space in the column beside the question as shown in the example.

Please give only ONE choice for each statement.

THANK YOU.

Strongly Disagree	Disagree	Uncertain	Agree	Strongly Agree
<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

Strong
Disagre
Disagre
Uncert
Agree
Strong
Agree

1. The counsellor should help the student decide which college or university he or she should go to.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
2. All personal problems of students, such as problems with other students, problems in the family, problems with the law, etc, should be discussed with the school counsellor.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
3. Counsellors should try to see things from an ethnic person's viewpoint when giving advice and help to students from ethnic backgrounds.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
4. Counsellors are too busy trying to be your "friend" so when you need real help, they can't give it to you. ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
5. Counsellors should give advice to students on personal and family matters.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
- *6. I feel that I cannot trust a counsellor with every problem that I may have.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
7. Counsellors should help students choose a job that would help and benefit Canadian society as a whole.--- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
8. When a student is having trouble in school, the counsellor should arrange a meeting with the parents to discuss what should be done.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
9. Counsellors should be ready to talk to students at any time in case of any personal crisis or emergency.- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
10. Counsellors should become familiar with the cultural heritage and history of the ethnic groups which are represented in their schools.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
11. Families don't need to know everything that students do in school.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
12. In order to do a good job, the counsellor should also be a part-time teacher in the school.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
13. Counsellors should help students form interest groups according to what they would like to do after they finish high school.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
14. Counsellors should teach other teachers and school staff about the important issues involved in working with children and families from ethnic backgrounds.--- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
15. The advice that counsellors give is often not very helpful or practical.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
16. The counsellor should help the student find out if any money is available to help pay for studies at college, vocational school, or university.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

Strong
Disagr
Disagr
Uncert
Agree
Strong
Agree

17. Counsellors should try hard to contact the ethnic communities whose children are in the schools.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
18. Counsellors should not discuss students' personal matters with the family.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
19. Counsellors should be chosen from other ethnic groups represented in schools if possible.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
20. The counsellor should tell the student if he or she has the ability to go on to study at college or university.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
21. A counsellor who is also a teacher half-time, is not as good as a full-time counsellor.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
22. Counsellors should help students find jobs or further studies which would help them to work well in this Canadian society.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
23. Counsellors should know more about the cultural values which are different from their own.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
24. Counsellors should belong to the ethnic associations that are represented in the schools.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
25. I feel that counsellors are unable to solve most problems.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
26. The counsellor should help the student decide what to do after finishing high school.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
27. Counsellors should not be concerned with ethnic issues when giving advice or help to students from different ethnic backgrounds.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
28. Some counsellors are not confidential about personal matters.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
29. Any student problems should be the responsibility of the counsellor rather than the teacher or principal.-- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐
30. Counsellors should not come from other ethnic or minority groups.----- ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐ ☐

* These items are new to this scale and are negative in their wording, therefore, scaled scores on these items must be reversed for purposes of scoring.