

PAREDES, MARIA ADELE BRUNELLI, Ph.D. Addressing the Professional Development Awareness Needs of School Counselors regarding English Language Learners (ELLs): Using the School Cultural Capital Game to Enhance Level of Self-Efficacy with ELLs and Attitudes toward Immigrants. (2010). Directed by Dr. L. DiAnne Borders and Dr. José A. Villalba. 239 pp.

Close to 4.6 million public school students receive English Language Learner (ELL) services (Kindler, 2002). In addition to educational gaps that exist between ELLs and their non-ELL peers, ELLs often experience significant barriers to academic success (Williams & Butler, 2003). The importance of school counselors in the success of ELLs has been described as *essential* and *pivotal* (McCall-Perez, 2000), but they do not feel prepared to meet the needs of the ELL population (Schwallie-Giddis et al., 2004).

The purpose of this study was to create and test the School Cultural Capital Game (SCCG) © as a means of addressing the professional development awareness needs of school counselors regarding the ELL population and as a means of enhancing school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs and attitudes toward immigrants. A secondary purpose that arose, due to the lack of appropriate instrumentation, was to develop and validate an instrument that could assess school counselor self-efficacy with ELLs: the School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs (SC-SELL) ©.

Grounded in the theories of cultural capital, self-efficacy, and experiential learning, the SCCG is a simulation exercise aimed at stimulating participants' awareness of the cultural capital system that exists in schools, with the goal of increasing sensitivity and insight into the experience of ELLs. Participants experience what it might be like being a school-aged ELL.

In order to test the effectiveness of the SCCG, a pre/post quasi-experimental study design was employed, with a control and treatment group composed of school counselors. Both groups took the following instruments as part of the pre- and posttest surveys: School Counselor Self-Efficacy (SCSE; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), SC-SELL (Paredes, 2009a); Working with Immigrants (WIM; Paredes, 2009b; adapted from Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002), and a demographic questionnaire. The treatment group rated the effectiveness of the SCCG during the posttest and the control group described any professional development activities engaged in during the collection period. The treatment group participated in an administration of the SCCG.

Preliminary findings regarding the effectiveness of the SCCG are discussed. Development of the SC-SELL and initial validation results are described.

ADDRESSING THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT AWARENESS NEEDS OF
SCHOOL COUNSELORS REGARDING ENGLISH LANGUAGE LEARNERS
(ELLS): USING THE SCHOOL CULTURAL CAPITAL GAME TO
ENHANCE LEVEL OF SELF-EFFICACY WITH ELLS AND
ATTITUDES TOWARD IMMIGRANTS

by

Maria Adele Brunelli Paredes

A Dissertation Submitted to
the Faculty of the Graduate School at
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro
in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Doctor of Philosophy

Greensboro
2010

Approved by

Dr. L. DiAnne Borders, Committee Co-Chair

Dr. José A. Villalba, Committee Co-Chair

To all the *tired, poor, huddled masses yearning to breathe free*;
to all the brave souls like Agostino and Adele Brunelli and Daniel and Silvia Paredes
who left their beloved homelands so their children could have a better life.

APPROVAL PAGE

This dissertation has been approved by the following committee of the Faculty of
The Graduate School at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Committee Co-Chair _____
Dr. L. DiAnne Borders

Committee Co-Chair _____
Dr. José A. Villalba

Committee Members _____
Dr. Terry A. Ackerman

Dr. Celia R. Hooper

Date of Acceptance by Committee

Date of Final Oral Examination

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am thankful for the support of many that allowed me to complete a dissertation that involved intervention research. The Graduate School and the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision provided funding that allowed me to train facilitators for my intervention and provide substantial incentives for participants. The doctoral and master's students and colleagues who served as facilitators were essential to the success of my intervention. The support of Susan Eubanks, Karen Meadows, and Samara Johnson, as well as Guilford County Schools as a whole, was instrumental in allowing me to carry out a successful study. The 30 school counselors who volunteered their time, particularly the 11 who were present late on a Thursday evening, provided valuable insights that will shape my future research. Kelly Heritage and Drs. Daniel Paredes, José Villalba, and He Ye volunteered their time to help me create a solid pool of items for the SC-SELL. Several individuals representing various states' school counseling organizations helped me recruit a substantial number of school counselors to validate the SC-SELL. Dr. Celia Hooper helped me create a cognate that had not been done before and provided much guidance, enthusiasm, and inspiration as a female educator. Dr. Terry Ackerman gave generously of his time to discuss the design and analysis of my study and continually supported and encouraged my ideas. I am particularly grateful for the support of my entire committee to fully explore my ideas and pursue a research design not often done. You never told me I couldn't; you always showed me I *could*.

There are many individuals who have shaped my development over the last 7 years at UNCG. I'm grateful to be part of the CED 'family,' to have been shaped by a community committed to excellence in research, teaching, supervision, and practice, and most of all to the service of others. To the many professors, supervisors, and students along the way, I thank you.

Seven years ago, I huddled over a small cell phone in the Tuscan hills of Italy listening to a stranger tell me how wonderful a Counseling program there was at UNCG and what a vibrant and growing city Greensboro was. DiAnne, that conversation and so many subsequent ones have shaped the course of my personal and professional lives in such positive ways, and I will always be grateful to you for that. Your confidence in my abilities, your support, your presence, and your purple exclamation points will always stay with me. Thank you.

José, how lucky I am to have had a professor and mentor who shares my research passion for ELLs. I'm so grateful for your enthusiasm, your honesty, your kindness, and most of all for your *confianza* over the years. Thank you.

Patti, I couldn't have done any of this without your support. You taught me how to be a true healer; how to sit with someone in pain and show them the way out. I'm indebted to you in so many ways. I'm a stronger, more confident, more whole woman because of you. Thank you.

Mom and Dad, of the many gifts you gave the 5 of us, I'm most grateful for instilling in me a commitment to social service, for showing me the joy and fulfillment that can come from helping others. Mom, thank you for teaching me to always listen, to

never judge, and to always be kind. I'm far from perfect in these attributes but will always strive to follow your example. Thank you for showing me that a woman doesn't have to choose between having a career and being a good mother. Dad, I'm honored to follow in your footsteps as a counselor. Thank you for giving us an education beyond the classroom that included visiting battlefields and museums, climbing mountains, and connecting to our heritage. I'm so proud to know *where* and *who* I come from. The sacrifices you made so all of us could succeed are known. To my brothers, Justin, Christian, Jeremy, and Joseph, how lucky I am to have such fine men behind me. You'll always be my heroes. Your love for me is felt deeply. Thank you.

Christian, my honorary fifth committee member, your advice, your wisdom, your support, and your courage have shaped me in more ways than you know. As I celebrate myself, I celebrate you. Thank you.

Finally, to my husband Daniel. You have been so integral to this journey. Thank you for allowing and helping me be a strong woman. I feel blessed to walk through this life alongside a man I respect, love, and admire, and who I get to call my best friend. Your faith in me and love for me throughout this process has been unwavering. I'm grateful to have shared this journey with you and look forward to our future with excitement for the good times and faith that we will get through the hard times. Thank you.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
LIST OF TABLES	xi
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem	3
Purpose of the Study	5
Research Questions	6
Need for the Study	6
Definitions of Terms	7
Brief Overview	9
II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	11
Introduction.....	11
Cultural Capital.....	12
Need for and Practicality of Bilingual Counselors	15
Self-Efficacy	18
Sources of Influence	19
Contextual Variables.....	21
Assessment of Self-Efficacy.....	23
Assessment of Counselor Self-Efficacy.....	24
Assessment of School Counselor Self-Efficacy	27
Assessment of Multicultural School Counselor Self-Efficacy	31
School Counselor Roles with ELLs.....	33
School Counselor as Culturally Encapsulated Assimilator	33
School Counselor as Self-Facilitator and Specialist	35
School Counselor as Cultural Translator	35
School Counselor as Cross-Cultural Bridge Builder	36
School Counselor as Culturally Responsive Facilitator.....	37
School Counselor as Cultural Advocate	38
School Counselor as Culturally Competent.....	39
School Counselor as Cultural Broker	40
School Counselor Attitudes toward Immigrants.....	42
Attitudes toward Immigrants Instrument	44
School Counselors and ELLs.....	46
ELL Professional Development for School Counselors	51

Schwallie-Giddis, Anstrom, Sanchez, Sardi, and Granato, 2004.....	51
McCall-Perez, 2000	55
Experiential Learning and Simulations.....	59
Simulation.....	60
English Language Learners.....	63
ELLs Defined.....	63
Demographics of ELLs	65
Educational Performance of ELLs.....	68
Barriers & Risk Factors	71
Strengths & Resiliency Factors.....	73
Culture Brokering	75
Conclusion	78

III. METHODOLOGY79

Research Questions and Hypotheses	80
Participants.....	81
Procedures.....	83
Treatment Group.....	84
Control Group.....	85
Intervention/Treatment	85
School Cultural Capital Game	85
Simulation Background	85
Simulation Identities	87
Simulation Stations and Setup	88
Pilot of School Cultural Capital Game	90
Instrumentation	96
Demographic Questionnaire	97
Working with Immigrants (WIM)	97
School Counselor Self-Efficacy (SCSE)	99
School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs (SC-SELL)	101
Pilot of SC-SELL.....	104
Pilot Study of SC-SELL Analyses.....	114
Item Analysis of SC-SELL.....	114
Factor Analysis of SC-SELL	114
Multiple Regression Analysis of SC-SELL.....	115
Analyses of WIM.....	117
Analyses of SCSE.....	119
Changes to Full Study.....	120
Data Analysis	121
Pilot Study Limitations	124

IV. RESULTS	127
Sample.....	127
Intervention.....	137
Instrument Reliability	139
Testing of Hypotheses.....	141
Research Question 1	142
Research Question 2	144
Research Question 3	149
Observations and Debriefing of Intervention	151
V. DISCUSSION	156
Summary of Results.....	156
Limitations of the Study.....	161
Integration with Literature	166
Experiential Learning and Simulations.....	166
ELL Professional Development for School Counselors	170
Implications for Training	171
Suggestions for Future Research	173
REFERENCES	177
APPENDIX A: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE	198
APPENDIX B: WORKING WITH IMMIGRANTS	201
APPENDIX C: SCHOOL COUNSELOR SELF-EFFICACY	202
APPENDIX D: SCHOOL COUNSELOR SELF-EFFICACY WITH ELLS.....	205
APPENDIX E: INITIAL ITEM LIST FOR SC-SELL.....	209
APPENDIX F: SUMMARY OF CHANGED ITEMS FOR SC-SELL	212
APPENDIX G. RECRUITMENT EMAIL TO STATE SCHOOL COUNSELOR ORGANIZATION REPRESENTATIVES	215
APPENDIX H: PERMISSION TO RECRUIT THROUGH LISTSERV	216
APPENDIX I: RECRUIT EMAIL TO LISTSERVS	219
APPENDIX J: INFORMED CONSENT FOR PILOT OF SC-SELL.....	220

APPENDIX K: SC-SELL TOTAL SCORES BY DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES	221
APPENDIX L: SCREE PLOT FOR SC-SELL	223
APPENDIX M: FACTOR LOADINGS FOR SC-SELL	224
APPENDIX N: FACTOR ANALYSIS OF WIM PLURALISTIC ITEMS	227
APPENDIX O: FACTOR ANALYSIS OF WIM ASSIMILATIONIST ITEMS.....	228
APPENDIX P: RECRUITMENT EMAIL TO GCS SCHOOL COUNSELORS	229
APPENDIX Q: INFORMED CONSENT FORM—ONLINE VERSION.....	231
APPENDIX R: INFORMED CONSENT FORM—HARD COPY VERSION & SCRIPT OF ORAL PRESENTATION.....	233
APPENDIX S: RESULTS FOR REPEATED MEASURES ANOVA FOR DEGREE ELL PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS ARE MET	237
APPENDIX T: CROSS-TABULATION OF ELL PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS MET * EFFECTIVENESS.....	238
FOOTNOTES	239

LIST OF TABLES

	Page
Table 3.1. Demographic Information for Participants in Pilot Study	112
Table 3.2. Research Questions.....	123
Table 4.1. Demographic Information for Participants in Full Study	135
Table 4.2. Reliability Information for Instruments	140
Table 4.3. Correlations between Scores on Instruments.....	141
Table 4.4. Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for SC-SELL	143
Table 4.5. Results of one-way ANCOVA for SC-SELL Posttest.....	144
Table 4.6. Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for Assimilationist Scale	145
Table 4.7. Results of one-way ANCOVA for Assimilationist Scale Posttest	146
Table 4.8. Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for Pluralistic Scale	148
Table 4.9. Results of one-way ANCOVA for Pluralistic Scale Posttest	149
Table 4.10. Effectiveness of the School Cultural Capital Game	151

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

As the debate over immigration takes center stage in the political arena, close to 4.6 million public school students receive English Language Learner (ELL) services, representing 9.6% of the total public school population (Kindler, 2002). Growth projections for immigrant populations signal that this number will continue to grow (Passel, 2007), particularly for Latino ELLs who represent 79% of all ELLs (Kindler). In fact, the number of ELLs enrolled in school between the 1990-1991 and 2000-2001 school years grew by 105% (Kindler). As school counselors, administrators, and policy makers scramble to determine the unique needs of this growing population, the scarcity of relevant research, limited funding, and high performance standards hinders this process and allows ELL students to fall through the proverbial cracks of the public school system. In fact, a review of the academic characteristics and risk factors of ELLs highlights the vulnerability of this population.

Nationwide, 9.1% of ELLs are retained in grades 7-12, with some states having as high as 21% retainment rates (Kindler, 2002). Furthermore, gaps as high as 50% exist between ELLs and their peers when it comes to 4th and 8th grade math and reading proficiency (Fry, 2007). In fact, according to the National Assessment of Education Progress, 71% of 8th grade ELLs were “below basic” in both math and reading in 2005 (NCES, 2005). This is alarming considering the No Child Left Behind Act’s (2001)

mandate that all students be proficient in math and reading by the year 2014, with ELLs being a specific population under consideration.

Considering the low performance of ELLs, it may come as no surprise that dropout rates for this population are high. In 2005, 36.5% of foreign-born Latino individuals aged 16-24 were not enrolled in school and had not received a high school diploma or equivalency credential (Laird, DeBell, Kienzl, & Chapman, 2007). Comparatively, only 6% of White individuals and 10.4% of Black individuals met these same conditions. These high dropout rates have significance for federal and state governments as well as local communities. In addition to potential difficulties that may arise at time of dropout, such as increased involvement in gangs or other delinquent behavior (Arfániarromo, 2001), individuals who drop out are more likely to be unemployed, earn less when they are employed, experience poorer mental and physical health (Kaufman, Alt, & Chapman, 2001; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992), are more likely to receive public assistance, and are less likely to participate in civic activities (NCES, 1998).

In addition to the educational gaps that exist, ELLs often experience significant barriers to success, including racial labeling and categorization, poverty, single-parent families, lack of acceptance by peers and teachers, new and different cultural scripts, new learning styles, pressure to belong or to stay out of certain groups, lack of social support networks, and feeling isolated and segregated from the rest of the school population (Baruth & Manning, 1992; Kopala, Esquivel, & Baptiste, 1994; Williams & Butler, 2003). Furthermore, many ELLs may experience significant post-traumatic stress or grief

related to the circumstances that surrounded their immigration to the U.S. (e.g., exposure to war, torture, terrorism, natural disasters, famine, crime) (Pumariega, Rothe, & Pumariega, 2005).

Statement of the Problem

Clearly, ELLs represent a population at risk and a population whose needs must be addressed. This has been echoed by several disciplines, including communication sciences and disorders, teacher education, special education, and counseling, with the literature full of calls for more empirical research, earlier intervention, increased active involvement and collaboration by school staff, and particularly the increased role of school counselors as advocates for ELLs (e.g., Barnes, Friehe, & Radd, 2003; Carey & Reinat, 1990; Clemente & Collison, 2000; Cranston-Gingras & Anderson, 1998; Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, & Christian, 2005; Goh, Wahl, McDonald, Brissett, & Yoon, 2007; McCall-Perez, 2000; Ochoa, Riccio, Jimenez, Garcia de Alba, & Sines, 2004; Roseberry-McKibbin & O'Hanlon, 2005; Schwallie-Giddis, Anstrom, Sanchez, Sardi, & Granato, 2004; Smith-Adcock, Daniels, Lee, Villalba, & Indelicato, 2006; Wagner, Francis, & Morris, 2005; Williams & Butler, 2003).

Increasingly, cross-cultural and ESL certifications are being offered for teachers, but no such certification exists for school counselors (McCall-Perez, 2000). When school counselors have received training and preparation regarding ELLs, have been able to collaborate with other school staff and be more active with ELLs, ELLs do better academically: they learn more English, accrue more credits toward graduation and college, and enroll in more classes (McCall-Perez). The importance of school counselors

in the success of ELLs has been described as *essential* and *pivotal* (McCall-Perez), particularly in the prevention of dropout. This is in line with the ASCA model (2005), which charges school counselors with the task of meeting the academic, personal-social, and career needs of *all* students. Thus, school counselors *should* be in position to be bridge-building agents for ELLs (Goh et al., 2007), helping ELLs to succeed academically.

Unfortunately, however, school counselors often do not feel prepared to meet the needs of the ELL population specifically, and of culturally diverse students generally. According to Schwallie-Giddis et al. (2004), school counselors do not feel adequately prepared to meet the needs of culturally and linguistically diverse students, and often lack preparation and accurate information. In a qualitative study of school administrative staff, 59% of individuals surveyed felt that Latino students and families were at risk of not getting needed services (Smith-Adcock et al., 2006). The authors emphasized the need for school counselors to receive culturally sensitive and informed training and preparation.

Recent efforts have targeted bilingual individuals, with school counseling programs increasingly offering specializations or certifications in bilingual school counseling. However, the vast majority of school counselors are monolingual. There is clearly a need for bilingual counselors and recruitment of bilingual individuals into the helping professions, and encouragement of second language learning should continue. In the meantime, as school counselors struggle to meet the needs of ELLs, other avenues of

strengthening school counselors' effectiveness with ELLs must be explored. Increasing school counselors' self-efficacy may be one potential avenue for doing so.

According to self-efficacy theory, one's confidence regarding a task is *the* major determinant for individuals' behavior choices, including level of effort individuals are willing to put forth, length of time individuals are willing to persevere when faced with difficult tasks, and level of resiliency or coping efforts individuals will employ (Bandura, 1977a, 1986). According to Bandura, one of the influences on self-efficacy is emotional arousal. This is in line with experiential learning theory that posits learning is a result of synergetic transactions between a person and the environment. Applying these principles to school counselors' self efficacy with ELLs, one avenue of increasing efficacy may be through an awareness-raising, experiential intervention.

The School Cultural Capital Game (Paredes, 2008) was created by the researcher with the aim of increasing sensitivity and insight into the experience of linguistically diverse school-aged students, namely ELLs. Specifically, the simulation is an experiential exercise that is aimed at stimulating participants' awareness of the cultural capital system that exists in schools. The researcher's hope is that through the simulative experience of being treated as a school-aged ELL, school counselors' self-efficacy regarding their work with ELLs and school counselors' attitudes toward immigrants in general will be enhanced.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this dissertation study is to create and test the School Cultural Capital Game as a means of addressing the professional development awareness needs of

practicing school counselors regarding the ELL population and as a means of enhancing school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs and attitudes toward immigrants. A secondary purpose that arose, due to the lack of appropriate instrumentation, was to develop and validate an instrument that could assess school counselor self-efficacy with ELLs.

Research Questions

The validity and viability of the School Cultural Capital Game as an effective means of enhancing school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs and attitudes toward immigrants was addressed through the following specific research questions:

Research Question 1: Does participation in the School Cultural Capital Game result in significant mean differences in practicing school counselors' school counseling self-efficacy with ELLs, as measured by scores on the School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs scale?

Research Question 2: Does participation in the School Cultural Capital Game result in significant mean differences in practicing school counselors' attitudes toward immigrant students, as measured by scores on the Working with Immigrants scale?

Research Question 3: To what degree do practicing school counselors perceive the School Cultural Capital Game as an effective means of meeting their professional development awareness needs?

Need for the Study

Intentionality has been cited as an essential characteristic of effective counselors (Goncalves, Ivey, & Langdell, 1988). Unfortunately, without adequate or accurate knowledge, training, or awareness regarding the best way to support the needs of the ELL

student populations, school counselors' ability to develop intentional and effective services is stunted.

The impact of multicultural professional development for school counselors has been positive. After participating in a professional development program focused on improving school counselors' multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills, participants indicated increased levels of confidence in counseling diverse students, increased intention to be more proactive, and increased levels of knowledge (Schwallie-Giddis et al., 2004). These findings highlight the need for and value of professional development.

Definition of Terms

Assimilationist Attitudes refer to views toward immigrants that expect immigrants should abandon completely their previously held cultural identity. Assimilationist attitudes view the maintenance of immigrants' culture as diminishing to the culture and strength of the host country and do not see host individuals as part of the immigration process other than to "turn" immigrants into host individuals. This definition is based on Horenczyk and Tatar's (2002) assimilationist scale items on the Attitudes toward Immigrants scale, which will be used in this study to measure assimilationist attitudes.

Pluralistic Attitudes toward Immigrants refer to views toward immigrants that expect immigrants should exercise their individuality by maintaining their cultural differences *and* participate fully in the host society, helping to strengthen the ever-evolving culture of the host country. In addition, pluralistic attitudes recognize the strength inherent in diversity and view host individuals as integral in the immigration processes. Specifically,

pluralistic attitudes expect host individuals will seek to learn about the cultures of immigrants and, at times, adapt practices (e.g.; teaching) to meet needs of immigrants. This definition is based on Horenczyk and Tatar's (2002) pluralistic scale items on the Attitudes toward Immigrants scale, which will be used in this study to measure pluralistic attitudes.

Cultural capital refers to any form of knowledge, skill, education, cultural background, disposition, or other advantage which give an individual a higher status in one's society (Bourdieu, 1977; 1986). Cultural capital can be represented in one's way of communicating, acting, and socializing; through one's style of dress, likes and dislikes, and values; or through one's competencies, behavior and forms of knowledge. For the purposes of this study, cultural capital will specifically refer to the capital needed by students to succeed in a public school setting.

English Language Learners (ELLs) refers to students in the U.S. "whose first language is not English, and encompasses both students who are just beginning to learn English (often referred to as "limited English Proficient" or "LEP" and those who have already developed considerable proficiency" (La Celle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994, p. 23).

Practicing School Counselor refers to a practitioner with graduate training in school counseling or a closely related field who is currently fully (or provisionally) State Department licensed and working as a counselor in a school setting. This does not include school counselors-in-training functioning in internship positions.

Professional development refers to a training received *after* one's formalized education needed for licensure and credentialing, that develops or enhances one's professional skills

School Counseling Self-Efficacy refers to school counselors' belief in their ability to successfully choose and carry out their professional duties. This construct is based on Bandura's (1986) definition of *self-efficacy*: "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p. 391). As Bandura (1977, 1986) delineated, self-efficacy is domain-specific, as well as task- and situation-specific. For the purpose of this study, the domain to be examined is school counselor self-efficacy with ELLs.

Brief Overview

The study will be presented in five chapters. Chapter 1 is designed to briefly introduce the topic of schools counselor's professional development needs regarding ELLs and the topic's temporal importance. The chapter outlines the need and purpose of the study, as well as specific research questions to be addressed and definitions of relevant terms. The final section of Chapter 1 explains the organization of the study.

Chapter 2 is designed to introduce the reader to the relevant literature on the topics related to the present study. Sections include review and discussion of the following concepts: cultural capital theory, self-efficacy theory, assessment of self-efficacy, school counselor roles with ELLs, ELL professional development for school counselors, school counselor attitudes toward immigrants, experiential learning and simulation exercises, and ELLs.

Chapter 3 outlines the data collection and analysis procedures to be used in the present study. Participants are described as well as the recruitment strategy. The intervention—the School Cultural Capital Game—is described in detail and the results of

the pilot administration of the intervention are presented and discussed. Instrumentation to be used is introduced along with considerations in the utility of these instruments. The creation and validation process of the School Counselors Self-Efficacy with ELLs measure is summarized and discussed. Data analyses to be used are briefly discussed, followed by limitations of the study. Hypotheses related to the research questions are presented.

Chapter 4 explains the results of the data analysis and Chapter 5 includes discussion of these results. This discussion includes limitations of the study, implications of this research on training, and future avenues for research regarding school counselors' work with ELLs.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Introduction

The Austrian philosopher, Ludwig Wittgenstein (1922), once said, “The limits of your language are the limits of your world.” The philosophy encapsulated in this quotation frames much of the presenting problem under focus in this study: the idea that individuals are limited by their ability to understand and their ability to communicate understanding to others. This relates to both English Language Learners (ELLs) as well as school counselors, and both groups’ challenge to convert their held knowledge, skills, and dispositions into usable units within the school setting. This concept can be better understood through the theory of cultural capital, the basis for the School Cultural Capital Game. Thus, in order to provide a framework of understanding for this study, the theory of cultural capital will be reviewed first. Secondly, the concept of self-efficacy will be introduced and related to the cultural capital concept of habitus. Assessment of self-efficacy will be reviewed, particularly in the field of counseling. Next, school counselors roles with ELLs will be reviewed, followed by school counselor attitudes toward ELLs, and a review of the literature on school counselors with ELLs. Next, two studies regarding ELL professional development for school counselors will be reviewed in depth, followed by a discussion of the use of experiential learning as a means of raising awareness and self-efficacy. Finally, a review of ELLs is provided, including their

demographic and educational characteristics, barrier and risk factors, and strengths and resiliency factors. In particular, the benefits and disadvantages of culture brokering will be discussed.

Cultural Capital

“Cultural capital” was first coined by French sociologists Pierre Bourdieu and Jean-Claude Passeron (1977), and elaborated upon over the years by Bourdieu. In an attempt to explain educational disparity, Bourdieu theorized that cultural capital was one of several forms of capital that conferred power and status to individuals who possessed it. Specifically, Bourdieu (1986) argued that cultural capital is what makes the difference in scholastic achievement over and above what can be attributed to natural aptitudes.

According to Bourdieu (1986), schools represent an academic market of sorts, in which the distribution of cultural capital disproportionately benefits the dominant culture of society. Students who exhibit the cultural capital of the dominant culture are rewarded by a school system that recognizes their cultural capital as more valuable or more profitable. Students from non-dominant cultures have cultural capital as well—recognized and valued in certain settings (e.g., family pride, loyalty, collectivism, frequent mobility; Romanowski, 2003)—but it is not recognized or valued within the academic setting.

A concrete way of understanding the cultural capital concept may be to imagine traveling to another country where the recognized currency is not dollars. Whereas dollars can be directly exchanged for goods and services in the United States, they are not directly exchangeable in other countries. Before the dollars can be used as a form of

capital, they must first be converted into the host country's currency. Depending on the particular country's exchange rate, this exchange may result in a profit or loss. Similarly, within the school system, the cultural capital of students from non-dominant cultures may or may not result in positive returns.

Three forms of cultural capital were delineated by Bourdieu (1986): institutionalized, objectified, and embodied. Cultural capital exists in the *institutionalized* form by way of academic credentials and qualifications that are issued by formalized academic institutions, namely schools. This institutional recognition of one's competencies and skills thus *objectifies* those competencies and skills. *Objectified* cultural capital is likely the most perceptible form in that it represents material objects such as works of art or writing or, in the case of school-aged students, the "right" clothes, music, or food. Bourdieu clarified that although anyone can own objectified cultural capital, one must have the correct *embodied* cultural capital in order to appropriately "consume" it.

In the *embodied state*, cultural capital represents the long-lasting dispositions formed over time that allow one to appreciate and understand cultural wealth. Embodied cultural capital includes one's sense of time, tradition, ways of knowing and reasoning, cultural preferences, etc. It is usually transmitted through one's family socialization. Related to embodied cultural capital is Bourdieu's (1977) concept of *habitus*, which influences the actions one takes. Habitus can be defined as one's dispositions and beliefs in response to one's social structure or external conditions. In response to one's social structure, one "comes to determine what is possible and what is not possible for one's life

and develops aspirations and practices accordingly” (Dumais, 2002, p. 46). In this way, habitus is similar to one’s self-efficacy and outcome expectations, concepts which will be discussed later.

In reviewing the types of cultural capital, the reader may have noticed an important distinction between cultural capital and economic capital, a distinction that highlights the importance of cultural capital to the success of those who possess it. Unlike economic capital, because of the nature of cultural capital, its exchange does not often occur consciously. In fact, Bourdieu (1986) described cultural capital as the “best hidden and socially most determinant educational investment” (p. 244). This is because cultural capital is often misattributed to inborn talents or gifts rather than the result of given capital. Achievement on standardized tests is seen as the result of natural aptitude or individual effort and not as the result of parents’ transmission of cultural capital to their children. The hidden nature of cultural capital is what allows the dominant culture to legitimize and perpetuate the educational and social hierarchies and what prevents non-dominant populations, such as ELLs, to succeed.

Though much of cultural capital may be “hidden,” one form that is overtly recognized is language ability, and in U.S. schools the language that is considered most valuable is English. The ability to understand and use English results in direct transfers of “goods” or resources within the school system, putting ELLs at a particular disadvantage. In the case of language, ELLs may have cultural capital—their first language—that is exchangeable in their homes, communities, or home countries. But in U.S. schools, they first must be able to convert their first language ability and skills (capital) into English in

order to be successful. Research examining the acculturation of ELLs, which included English acquisition, supports this concept, with higher levels of American acculturation predicting higher levels of school adaptation (Trickett & Birman, 2005; Valencia & Johnson, 2006).

Beyond the advantages of gaining the “right” cultural capital to invest in school, ELLs who acquire English ability also can gain the ability to act as cultural brokers, interpreting for their immigrant parents. In fact, the ability to act as a cultural broker and the development of a bicultural identity, as opposed to abandonment of one’s former culture, has been related to better academic performance, higher academic self-efficacy (Buriel, Perez, DeMent, Chavez, & Moran, 1998), and lower dropout rates (Feliciano, 2001). These outcomes will be discussed in more detail in a later section.

Need for and Practicality of Bilingual Counselors

In the same way that language plays a disadvantageous role for ELLs’ cultural capital, language also serves as a barrier for monolingual school counselors working with ELLs. Without proficiency in an ELL’s first language, the school counselor is limited in the counseling he or she can provide. Even if an ELL has enough proficiency in English to communicate with the school counselor, expression of emotions and thoughts is more accurate and meaningful in one’s first language (Acevedo, Reyes, Annett, & Lopez, 2003; Altarriba, 2003; Biever et al., 2002). For this reason, many have emphasized the importance of bilingual mental health providers, including the U.S. Surgeon General (Office of Minority Health, 2001).

Specific to school counseling, recent efforts have targeted bilingual individuals, with school counseling programs increasingly offering specializations or certifications in bilingual school counseling (e.g., Brooklyn College, St. John's University, Mercy College, NYU Steinhardt School of Culture). In fact, the New York Board of Education offers scholarships for Spanish-speaking bilingual individuals entering the school counseling field. The need for bilingual school counselors has been echoed in research as well.

In a mixed-method study of interviews with administrators regarding their perceived concerns about Latino children and families, more than 80% of administrators surveyed perceived a high level of need for bilingual school counselors—in this case, specifically Spanish-speaking—and 59% responded that they believed Latino children and families were at risk for not getting needed services (Smith-Adcock, Daniels, Lee, Villalba, & Indelicato, 2006). Similar responses were obtained from school counselors in a qualitative study examining the relationships among school counselors, ESL teachers, and students (Clemente & Collison, 2000). The majority of school counselor respondents agreed on the difficulties related to counseling ELLs and emphasized the need for bilingual counselors—again, specifically Spanish-speaking counselors. Interestingly, school counselors who had less than 5 years experience in the field voiced a desire and need to strengthen their Spanish skills, whereas those with more than 5 years experience displayed a lack of personal commitment to learning or refining their second language skills.

In light of the findings reviewed above, one can understand the rationale for efforts to increase the numbers of bilingual school counselors. Though no such study has been conducted, one may even presume that bilingual school counselors would have increased levels of confidence and effectiveness working with ELLs, simply from being proficient in two languages. However, questions remain regarding practicality. Learning a second language is an enormous task and it can take as many as 5 to 7 years to develop enough proficiency to function in an academic classroom (Cummins, 1979, 1984). Without the adequate motivation or “personal commitment” (as mentioned above), it can be very difficult, if even possible (see Bernaus & Gardner, 2008; Comanaru & Noels, 2009; Dornyei & Otto, 1998; Masgoret & Gardner, 2003). This is not to say that this is a lost cause; encouragement of second language learning is vital in our increasingly globalized society and world. However, even if we were able to make all school counselors in the United States fluent in Spanish instantly, what about all the other languages that ELLs represent?

There is clearly a need for bilingual counselors, and recruitment of bilingual individuals into the helping professions, and encouragement of second language learning should continue. In the meantime, as school counselors struggle to meet the needs of ELLs, we must consider other avenues of strengthening school counselors’ effectiveness with ELLs. Applying the cultural capital framework, we must consider how to convert school counselors’ already-held skills (capital) into usable skills (capital) with ELLs. Increasing school counselors’ level of self-efficacy regarding ELLs is one potential

avenue for doing so. Thus, a review of self-efficacy is provided below, followed by a review of literature related to school counselors' efforts with ELLs.

Self-Efficacy

The concept of self-efficacy was developed by Albert Bandura (1977a) in an effort to explain human behavior. Bandura described self-efficacy as *the* major determinant for individuals' behavior choices, including level of effort individuals are willing to put forth, length of time individuals are willing to persevere when faced with difficult tasks, and level of resiliency or coping efforts individuals will employ (Bandura, 1977a, 1986). Self-efficacy was defined by Bandura (1986) as "people's judgments of their capabilities to organize and execute courses of action required to attain designated types of performances" (p. 391). Essentially, self-efficacy is an individual's belief about her or his ability to achieve what is required for a particular task.

Bandura was deliberate in clarifying the difference between self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Whereas self-efficacy refers to an individual's belief in her or his own capacity to achieve a particular goal, outcome expectations refer to the imagined consequences of executing that goal. Thus, outcome expectations refer to the beliefs an individual holds regarding the probability of a particular outcome (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). Performance on past tasks and learning experiences influence outcome expectations. For example, success on a past performance might lead an individual to have more positive outcome expectations on future tasks. These outcome expectations can take the form of physical, social, or self-evaluative outcomes. One's outcome

expectations are influenced by one's self-efficacy, with higher self-efficacy predictive of higher outcome expectations (e.g., Ali, McWhirter, & Chronister, 2005).

Though describing self-efficacy as central to human behavior, Bandura (1986) did not dismiss the role of held skills and knowledge. Rather, he described self-efficacy—and self-referent thought in general—as mediating the relationship between knowledge and action. In fact, he described competent functioning as requiring *both* possession of requisite skills *and* the self-beliefs of efficacy to use those skills effectively, in a constantly generative process of organizing and reorganizing cognitive, social, and behavioral subskills into integrated courses of action. Thus, though an individual may possess the requisite skills necessary for a particular task, lack of self-efficacy may prevent the individual from completing the task. In fact, Bandura described self-doubters as “quick to abort this generative process if their initial efforts prove deficient” (p. 391).

Sources of Influence

Four sources of influence on self-efficacy were explicated by Bandura (1977a, 1986) including performance accomplishments, vicarious experiences, verbal persuasion, and emotional arousal. Performance accomplishments, often also referred to as mastery experiences (Pajares, 2003), were described by Bandura as the most influential source of efficacy information, perhaps because mastery experiences can easily be attributed to an internal locus of control as opposed to external forces. Thus, when individuals succeed in a task, self-efficacy related to that task is raised. When individuals fail to complete a task, self-efficacy is lowered. Two important points must be noted. First, Pajares (2003) deliberately uses the term “interpreted outcomes” versus outcomes, pointing to the

important role of an individual's perception of success. Second, an individual experience of success or failure is interpreted in context of the total pattern of experiences in which outcomes occur. Thus, if a strong sense of self-efficacy has already been developed through repeated successes, an occasional failure will not have much effect on one's preexisting self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977a).

Vicarious learning experiences, or modeling influences, are those in which an individual's self-efficacy related to a task is influenced by seeing or visualizing others' performance on the task. In order for vicarious experience to have an impact on one's self-efficacy, the observer must see the model as being similar to her or himself (Bandura, 1994). If the observer views the model as having very different characteristics from her or himself, the outcome will be attributed to those differences and the observer's self-efficacy will remain unchanged. Bandura placed a high importance on the value of vicarious learning experience, which formed the basis for his Social Learning Theory (Bandura, 1977b). In his seminal work on Social Learning Theory, he stated, "Learning would be exceedingly laborious, not to mention hazardous, if people had to rely solely on the effects of their own actions to inform them what to do. Fortunately, most human behavior is learned observationally through modeling: from observing others one forms an idea of how new behaviors are performed, and on later occasions this coded information serves as a guide for action" (Bandura, 1977b, p. 22).

Another source of self-efficacy that involves others is referred to as verbal persuasion. Though less likely by itself to influence enduring self-efficacy, Bandura (1977a, 1986) argued verbal persuasion by others can contribute to successes achieved

through mastery experiences by bolstering one's interpretation of the success. Individuals may feel encouraged and empowered by the positive feedback received from others and defeated and weakened by negative feedback (Pajares, 2003).

The final source of self-efficacy is emotional arousal, or physiological states. According to Bandura (1977a, 1986; Pajares, 2002), individuals partly rely on the somatic and emotional states experienced while contemplating a particular behavior to provide information about their efficacy beliefs. For example, if an individual experiences anxiety when contemplating a particular task, her or his level of self-efficacy may be lowered.

Contextual variables

In addition to the four sources of influence described by Bandura, self-efficacy also can be affected by contextual variables. Building upon Bandura's (1977b) theory of social learning, Social Cognitive Career Theory (SCCT; Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994) emphasizes an interaction of personal and contextual variables that enhance or inhibit the ability of individuals to affect their career development. Personal variables explained by SCCT include self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and goals, whereas contextual variables include gender, ethnicity, social supports, and barriers.

Contextual variables are broken down by SCCT into two categories: distal and proximal factors (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2000). Distal factors include the background contextual factors that influence vicarious learning experiences. These learning experiences are hypothesized to then affect self-efficacy and outcome expectations. Thus, the development of one's self-efficacy and outcome expectations can be influenced by

the types of career models one is exposed to, the type of encouragement one receives, and the types of career-related opportunities one experiences. Proximal factors include the contextual factors that are influential during the action phases of the career development process. These factors include the potential external barriers one might come into contact with, such as discriminatory experiences or one's success in building career network contacts.

Both distal and proximal contextual factors are hypothesized as interacting with the unique characteristics of individuals to influence career learning experiences, self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and thus the career development process. These personal characteristics include, but are not limited to, one's gender, race and ethnicity, possible disabilities, health status, and predispositions (Lent et al., 2000). These characteristics can serve as potential positive assets or as barriers to successful career development. For example, acculturation and language use have been found to significantly predict career self-efficacy of Latina/o individuals (Miranda & Umhoefer, 1998). Specifically, higher levels of acculturation and greater use of the English language predict higher levels of career self-efficacy, even after accounting for length of residence in the U.S., age, and educational level. According to SCCT, these results demonstrate how the personal characteristic of *Latina/o* might interact with the contextual factors, or barriers, of *lack of acculturation and language use* to influence the lower *career self-efficacy* of the individuals surveyed.

Career barriers, such as those discussed above, play an important role in the development of one's career interests, selection of career goals, and career behaviors

(Albert & Luzzo, 1999). Career barriers refer to “events or conditions, either within the person or his environment, that make career progress difficult” (Swanson & Woitke, 1997, p. 446). One’s unique perception of, as well as response to, potential barriers shapes the way in which the barriers inhibit the individual’s career interests, goals, and behaviors (Albert & Luzzo). It is important to note that one’s perceptions of barriers may not be congruent with the actuality of the barriers. For example, school counselors may perceive barriers to working with ELLs as insurmountable and consequently devote less time in the delivery of services to ELLs, when in actuality those barriers may be more permeable when adequate training and support is given.

Assessment of Self-Efficacy

Since Bandura’s (1977) initial conception of self-efficacy theory, a tremendous amount of research has been conducted in the area and a vast number of self-efficacy scales have been created (Pajares, 1997). However, created instruments have not always followed Bandura’s theoretical dictum. Due to this, Bandura (2006) wrote a book chapter with specific guidelines for creating self-efficacy scales, based on his theory. In the chapter, Bandura emphasized that “there is no all-purpose measure of perceived self-efficacy. The ‘one-measure-fits-all’ approach usually has limited explanatory and predictive value because most of the items in an all-purpose measure may have little or no relevance to the selected domain of functioning” (p. 307). In addition to domain specificity, Bandura asserted that self-efficacy scales should be both task-specific and content-specific. Thus, each item should reflect the larger construct under consideration and be phrased as “can do” as opposed to “will do,” capturing the believed capability

versus the intended action. Finally, efficacy beliefs vary in level, strength, and generality, and should likewise be represented in scale items (Bandura, 1977a). Thus, scale items should reflect varying levels of difficulty in tasks, response formats should allow respondents to indicate varying levels of agreement, and efficacy assessments should be carefully matched with corresponding outcome measures to assure generalizability (Bandura, 1977a; Pajares, 2003).

Assessment of Counselor Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy research has long been prominent in academic settings on both sides of the teaching and learning spectrum, particularly in the areas of self-regulation and motivation (Pajares, 1996). Specifically, self-efficacy theory has been explored in relation to general measures of learning (Schunk, 1996), specific learning tasks such as performance of division problems (Schunk, 1981) and reading tasks (Shell, Colvin, & Bruning, 1995), collective teaching efficacy (Bandura, 1993), general teaching efficacy (Bandura, 1993; Tschannen-Moran, Woolfolk, Hoy, & Hoy, 1998), and culturally responsive teaching efficacy (Siwatu, 2007). Only fairly recently has self-efficacy been examined in the realm of counseling and counselor education. As Larson et al. (1992) discussed, this area of inquiry is an important one for professional counselors and counselor educators and has implications for client outcomes, training, and future research.

In 1992, Larson et al. proposed a measure of counseling self-efficacy called the Counselor Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE), one of the most widely used measures of counseling self-efficacy today. The COSE has been used to examine a wide variety of

counseling related issues, including the impact of supervision on counseling self-efficacy (Cashwell & Dooley, 2001; Crutchfield & Borders, 1997), the effect of client bisexuality on clinical judgment (Mohr, Weiner, Chopp, & Wong, 2009), the relationship between emotional intelligence and counselor self-efficacy (Easton, Martin, & Wilson, 2008), experiences of racial/ethnic minority supervisees (Nilsson, & Duan, 2007), and predictors of countertransference behavior (Fauth, & Hayes, 2006). In addition to American samples, the COSE has been tested in other countries, including China (Yuen, Chan, Lau, Lam, & Shek, 2004) and Israel (Israelashvili & Socher, 2007). It also has been used as a validating measure during the instrument development process of similar self-efficacy instruments. One in particular is the School Counselor Self Efficacy Scale (SCSE; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), which will be discussed below.

Out of the research conducted on the COSE, significant information has emerged regarding the construct of counseling self-efficacy generally, and the COSE specifically. Perhaps most relevant is that counseling self-efficacy, defined as “one’s beliefs or judgments about her or his capabilities to effectively counsel a client in the near future” (Larson & Daniels, 1998, p. 180), was found to significantly predict counselor performance (Larson et al., 1992). Specifically, counseling trainees participating in mock interviews, whose self-efficacy was high but trait anxiety was low, were given higher performance scores by independent raters. This finding corroborates self-efficacy theory that states self-efficacy is closely tied to actual performance and that self-efficacy and anxiety are inversely related (Bandura, 1986, 1994), as well as underscores the importance of self-efficacy cultivation. Several other findings regarding the COSE were

summarized by Larson and Daniels, including the following: a) trainee's COSE scores increased about one standard deviation over the course of practicum, b) higher COSE scores were reported by counselors and psychologists than by prepracticum trainees, c) higher COSE scores were reported by individuals with at least one semester of supervision than by individuals with no supervision, d) the COSE was positively related to self-esteem and outcome expectations, e) the COSE was negatively related to anxiety, and f) the COSE minimally correlated with defensiveness, aptitude, achievement, age, personality type, and time spent as a client.

The above findings highlight the importance of self-efficacy to the training of counselors as well as support self-efficacy theory as *applied* to counseling. In their review of the counseling self-efficacy literature, Larson and Daniels (1998) stated that counselors are expected to be efficacious in sessions with their clients and that in order to be efficacious "counselors must orchestrate and continuously improvise multiple subskills to manage ever-changing circumstances in the session" (p. 179). This statement was made in reference to counseling in general, but can easily be applied to school counseling with one caveat. Only 25 – 40% of school counselors' time is recommended to be spent in the delivery of responsive services (e.g., individual and group counseling, diagnostic and remediation activities, consultation, referral) and as little as 5 – 35% in the delivery of individual student planning (e.g., scheduling, course of study and college-planning) (Gysbers & Henderson, 2000). The other time is spent in the delivery of the guidance curriculum and system support.

Thus, the “subskills” referred to by Larson and Daniels (1998) does not encompass the large number of skills school counselors must employ in their day to day activities. Furthermore, whereas general counseling may almost always consist of counselor and client (whether individual, couple, or group) in a counseling office setting, school counseling activities regularly occur in a variety of settings (e.g., office, classroom, lunchroom, auditorium, student’s home) with a variety of individuals (e.g., students, family members, teachers, support staff, administrators). Remembering that self-efficacy measures must be task-, domain-, and content-specific, a general counseling self-efficacy instrument would not be appropriate in measuring school counseling self-efficacy.

Assessment of School Counselor Self Efficacy

Currently, two instruments exist that measure the construct of school counselor self-efficacy: the Counselor Self Efficacy scale (CSS; Sutton & Fall, 1995) and the School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSE; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005). The CSS was created by Sutton and Fall to measure aspects of school counselor self-efficacy, specifically efficacy expectancy and outcome expectancy. The authors modified the frequently used Teaching Self Efficacy scale (Gibson & Dembo, 1984) to be applicable for school counselors and found support for a three-factor solution of their final instrument. Two of the three subscales were found to reflect types of efficacy expectancy and one subscale was found to reflect outcome expectancy. The first factor was efficacy expectancy for being a school counselor whereas the second factor was efficacy expectancy for the role of individual counseling in the school setting. Nineteen of the

original 30 items written loaded significantly onto the three factors. Internal consistency reliability Cronbach's alpha coefficients ranged from .65 to .75 for the three factors.

In their study, Sutton and Fall (1995) examined the relationship between professional school counselor self-efficacy and school climate, counselor roles, and demographic variables. Support from colleagues and support from administration were found to be strong predictors of efficacy and outcome expectancy. In fact, colleague support was the strongest predictor of efficacy and outcome expectancy. This finding is in line with Bandura's (1977a, 1986) discussion of the importance of verbal persuasion, by which individuals may feel encouraged and empowered by the positive feedback received from others. The finding also is in line with SCCT's focus on distal contextual factors that influence vicarious learning experiences. As discussed previously, the development of one's self-efficacy and outcome expectations can be influenced by the type of encouragement one receives, the types of career models one is exposed to, and the types of career-related opportunities one experiences (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 2000).

Questions have been raised regarding the construct validity of the CSS. In their extensive review of existing counselor self-efficacy instruments, Larson and Daniels (1998) pointed out that items on the CSS Outcome Expectancy subscale appear to be asking for rationales for particular outcomes (e.g. "The school staff has too many expectations of me, thereby reducing my effectiveness"). Larson and Daniels also highlighted the weak psychometric properties of the CSS and questioned the lack of relationship found between outcome expectancy and the other two CSS factors.

A more recent instrument examining school counselor self-efficacy is the School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSE; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), an instrument that was created as part of the first author's dissertation research in an effort to create a psychometrically sound instrument that would incorporate the numerous responsibilities of school counselors. To this aim, Bodenhorn and Skaggs conducted an extended development process that included several stages of instrument development. Initial scale items were written based on the National Standards for School Counseling (Campbell & Dahir, 1997), the program standards within school counseling used by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP; 2001) and already established counseling self-efficacy scales for other counseling specialties. Scale items were then reviewed by a panel of experts and a revised version of the scale, along with a demographic questionnaire and consent form, was mailed to attendees of the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) 2000 national conference. An item analysis was then performed on the 226 surveys returned and results were analyzed for reliability and group differences. Based on the item analysis, a revised scale along with corresponding validity instruments was sent to students in master's level counseling programs across the United States. Results were analyzed for reliability and group differences as well as correlations with the established instruments. Finally, a factor analysis was conducted.

The final scale included 43 items with an overall coefficient alpha of .96. A correlation of .41 was found between the SCSE and the COSE, with participants who reported higher counseling self-efficacy scores on the COSE also reporting higher self-

efficacy scores on the CSCE. In line with self-efficacy theory, SCSE scores were inversely related to State and Trait Anxiety scores, with higher self-efficacy scores corresponding to lower anxiety levels. Also in line with theory, a significant difference in SCSE scores was found between the sample of master's level school counseling students and already practicing school counselors, indicating an increase in level of self-efficacy as experience is gained. A lack of correlation was found with social desirability scores, as well.

From the results of the principal component analysis five factors emerged, together accounting for 55% of the variance. These factors with corresponding coefficient alphas were named Personal and Social Development (.91), Leadership and Assessment (.90), Career and Academic Development (.85), Collaboration (.87), and Cultural Acceptance (.72). These factor components are reminiscent of key components in the ASCA National Model (2005). Correlations between subscales ranged from .27 to .43 except for the Career and Academic Development subscale, which correlated negatively with the other four subscales (-.28 to -.41). Though initial analyses revealed a fairly robust factor structure, subsequent analyses have failed to confirm the same findings (Bodenhorn, personal communication, July 15, 2009). As a unidimensional measure, a reliability coefficient of .97 has been found (Bodenhorn, Wolfe, & Airen, 2010), mirroring the .96 coefficient found earlier.

The SCSE provides more promising psychometric information than the CSS and will likely serve as the standard instrument in future school counselor self-efficacy research. Unfortunately, neither instrument fully addresses the important area of diversity

within the work of school counselors. In fact, only four items loaded onto the SCSE component of Cultural Acceptance, all of which were fairly general in their focus (e.g., “Understand the viewpoints and experiences of students and parents who are from a different cultural background than myself.”). A myriad of school counseling tasks specific to linguistically or culturally diverse students are not addressed. Although the SCSE may serve as a valid instrument when examining general school counseling efficacy, information about school counselors’ efficacy with diverse students may not be accurately assessed with the instrument. Bandura’s instruction that self-efficacy instruments be task-, domain-, and content-specific indicates a need for multicultural-specific instruments to be created.

Assessment of Multicultural School Counselor Self-Efficacy

Cheryl Holcomb-McCoy has done a great deal of research in the area of multicultural competence and self-efficacy. In particular, she has created and tested an instrument described as assessing counselor perceived multicultural counseling competence: the Multicultural Competence and Training Survey (MCCTS; Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999), which she has also adapted for assessing school counselors (MCCTS-R; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001). Both have proven to be psychometrically sound instruments and important additions to the field. Because both measures collect *perceived competence*, theoretically they tap into the construct of self-efficacy. More recently, Holcomb-McCoy developed an instrument specifically targeted at assessing multicultural school counselor self-efficacy: the School Counselor Multicultural Self-Efficacy Scale (SCMES; Holcomb-McCoy, Harris, Hines, & Johnston, 2008). This newer instrument

has some of the same item stems as the MCCTS and MCCTS-R but includes more task-specific items (e.g., “I can use culturally appropriate counseling interventions.” “I can explain test information to culturally different parents.”) than either the MCCTS or MCCTS-R; both of which included items more directed at knowledge of and ability to discuss multicultural issues than application of multicultural principles.

Analyses performed on the SCMES revealed a six-factor structure with an overall coefficient alpha of .93. Accounting for 59.49% of the total variance, the six factors, with corresponding coefficient alphas, were named Knowledge of Multicultural Concepts (.95), Using Data and Understanding Systemic Change (.91), Developing Cross-Cultural Relationships (.89), Multicultural Counseling Awareness (.93), Multicultural Assessment (.89), and Application of Racial and Cultural Knowledge to Practice (.85). For all but one factor—Developing Cross-Cultural Relationships—ethnic minority school counselors reported higher levels of multicultural counseling self-efficacy than their White counterparts. Likewise, individuals with more multicultural counseling training reported higher levels of multicultural counseling self-efficacy.

The SCMES is an important addition to the field, particularly in allowing for the assessment of multicultural school counselor self-efficacy, an area that is increasingly important to understand as the cultural makeup of students becomes more diverse. Though the SCMES includes critical tasks essential to the effective delivery of services to diverse students, its items do not address the specific tasks unique to linguistically diverse students, namely English Language Learners (ELLs). In fact, only 3 of the 52 items address aspects generally related to language differences (e.g., “I can assess how

my speech and tone influence my relationship with culturally different students.” “I can nonverbally communicate my acceptance of culturally different students.”). Tasks such as use of translated documents, collaboration with English as a Second Language teachers, and connection of parents with local refugee and immigrant services are examples of tasks that represent potentially common activities that school counselors working with ELLs need to perform yet may not feel efficacious about. Currently, no instrument exists that specifically assesses school counselor self-efficacy with ELLs. For this reason, one aim of this research will be to create such an instrument. In order to provide a context for the creation of and need for this instrument, a review of school counselors’ work with ELLs is needed.

School Counselor Roles with ELLs

In the literature to date, the school counselor’s role with ELLs and immigrants has been described in several ways: culturally encapsulated assimilator, self-facilitator, specialist, cultural translator, cross-cultural bridge builder, culturally responsive facilitator, cultural advocate, and culturally competent counselor. Below, the merits and shortcomings of these various designations will be described and discussed. Following this discussion, the author will offer an additional description of school counselors in relation to ELLs based on cultural capital theory previously described, that of *cultural broker*.

School Counselor as Culturally Encapsulated Assimilator

In one of the first articles written about multiculturalism, Wrenn (1962) warned the guidance profession of the “culturally encapsulated counselor,” who he described as

surrounding himself with a “cocoon of pretended reality” (p. 445). Wrenn discussed how this “cocoon” encouraged self-righteousness on the part of the counselor, to the point of being unable to have a clear view of how to work with students. Wrenn encouraged counselors to “unlearn something each day” (p. 448), to “accept as an obligation the encouragement of students who think differently from us” (p. 448), and to fight the tendency to be self-righteous. In addition, Wrenn stated the need for counselors to “have humility in the face of ignorance, have compassion for those who want to be loved, have courage as he struggles for the assurance that he may always seek but never find” (p. 449). These are recommendations important for school counselors working with ELLs to keep in mind, particularly “humility in the face of ignorance.”

More recently, Tatar (1998) wrote about the “culturally-encapsulated assimilator,” describing this type of school counselors as individuals trapped in one way of thinking, that of the dominant culture. Through in-depth interviews conducted with Israeli high school counselors, Tatar classified school counselors’ strategies of working with immigrant students into four approaches: culturally-encapsulated assimilator, self-facilitator, specialist, and cultural translator. School counselors functioning from a culturally-encapsulated assimilator approach communicated beliefs that immigrants should integrate themselves as soon as possible, that the host culture was superior to the culture of the immigrants, and that the school counselors’ efforts were in the best interest of the immigrant students. Tatar noted that the word “integration” was used often by these school counselors, despite a hidden meaning seemingly of “assimilation.” Finally, these counselors referred to the immigrant students as a “group” rather than as

individuals, and expressed frustration with the amount of time needed to work with immigrant students.

School Counselor as Self-Facilitator and Specialist

Two approaches described by Tatar (1998), based on the interviews described above, position the school counselor in somewhat a role of “leader,” promoting a less directly negative view about immigrant students, but still one that fails to recognize immigrant strengths and cultural heritage, viewing them solely as individuals in need of help. In the case of *self-facilitator*, school counselors were active in the traditional role of provider of individual counseling services, speaking of their efforts to educate other staff and make sure immigrants were not stigmatized but treated like other non-immigrant students. In the case of *specialist*, school counselors were seen by other staff as experts on immigrant issues. Work with immigrants in the school revolved around the school counselor’s direction and the development of protocols for meeting immigrant student needs. Tatar noted that this approach seemed to be associated with the development of stereotypes toward immigrant students, with school counselor “experts” overgeneralizing their knowledge of immigrants. Tatar stated, “It may be that the presence of an expert on immigrants from a specific origin is interpreted as a legitimization of stereotypes” (pp. 337-352).

School Counselor as Cultural Translator

Tatar’s (1998) final category of school counselor was termed “cultural translator.” Not surprisingly, this approach was held by the fewest number of counselors interviewed. School counselors operating from this approach viewed immigrants as individuals with

strengths—not just individuals with needs to be fulfilled. Likewise, immigrants’ cultural heritage was recognized as important and as something host staff and students could learn from. A mutual process of adjustment was supported, by which both immigrant students and host staff and students were seen as needing to adjust to each other. Efforts termed “intercultural bridgemaking” were made to involve host parents in the process of mutual adjustment, based on the belief that all stakeholders were needed in order for effective change to be made.

School Counselor as Cross-Cultural Bridge Builder

Somewhat similar to Tatar’s (1998) description of school counselors as cultural translators, Goh, Wahl, McDonald, Brissett, and Yoon (2007) described school counselors as positioned to be cross-cultural bridge builders. In their support of this approach, Goh et al. reviewed several ways in which school counselors can facilitate positive cross-cultural understanding and appreciation among immigrant students, their families, their peers, teachers, school administrators, and staff. Emphasis is placed on a flexible, proactive, creative, collaborative, and comprehensive approach in which school counselors build partnerships with members within the school and general community in order to best meet ELL needs. Specific recommendations included development of staff training workshops; committees focused on developing school wide awareness that include cultural liaisons and community leaders; creation of formal and informal spaces for immigrant parents to become involved; home visits; use of trained interpreters instead of immigrant students; lessons on cultural differences and culture shock that link to a comprehensive program instead of stand-alone, isolated lessons; and creative measures to

transcend language barriers when involving immigrant families in the student's learning process and school life. Particular attention was placed on the use of cross-cultural simulations and activities, described by the authors as an effective means for encouraging intercultural relationships and facilitating interaction and dialogue about difficult cultural issues. The use of cross-cultural simulations as a method of developing awareness and increased efficacy with ELLs will be discussed in more detail later.

School Counselor as Culturally Responsive Facilitator

The designation "culturally responsive" has been used in both the counseling and teaching fields, with similar descriptions of important characteristics. In the teaching profession, culturally responsive teaching has been described as the implementation of equitable and culturally sensitive practices in education (Siwatu, 2007). In practice, this has been described as including the use of students' cultural knowledge, experiences, prior knowledge, and individual learning experiences as a conduit to facilitate the teaching-learning process, the incorporation of students' cultural orientations to design culturally compatible classroom environments, the provision of multiple opportunities to demonstrate what students have learned through a variety of assessment techniques, and the provision of knowledge and skills needed to function in mainstream culture while still maintaining students' own cultural identity (Siwatu). This approach outlined in culturally responsive teaching can easily be applied to counseling, and has been.

Lee (2001) outlined five functions required by culturally responsive school counselors, falling under two umbrella premises: All young people can learn and want to learn, and cultural differences are real and cannot be ignored. Like Siwatu (2007), Lee

also stressed the importance of access, equity, and educational justice. The five functions outlined are as follows: 1) promotion of the development of positive self-identities among students, 2) facilitation of the development of positive interpersonal relations among students from diverse cultural backgrounds, 3) promotion of the development of positive attitudes toward academic achievement, 4) facilitation of the development of academic skills and competencies, and 5) facilitation of the career exploration and choice process among students. Based on his work as a consultant to schools, Lee outlined several characteristics of culturally responsive schools, characteristics that mirror Siwatu's description of culturally responsive teaching practices. Some of the characteristics described include a "salad bowl" as opposed to "melting pot" philosophy of education in which differences are celebrated and maintained; a sense of community forged out of cultural diversity; capitalization of cultural diversity *and* maintenance of academic standards; working alliances with parents and families; consideration of language and cultural customs; and committed educators who engage in ongoing staff development and are not afraid to take risks or improvise when necessary. In his description of a culturally responsive school counselor, Lee also used the term *advocate*, which has been used to describe school counselors' role with ELLs.

School Counselor as Cultural Advocate

Much has been written about the obstacles to academic success diverse individuals face, both in terms of institutional barriers and cultural insensitivity. Unfortunately, these obstacles often are perceived as student inadequacies rather than resulting from institutional insensitivity (Lee, 1995). For this reason, Lee (2001) argued,

it is imperative for culturally responsive school counselors to serve as advocates for students. Lee described two functions as important to this role: facilitation of educator awareness of systemic factors that may impinge upon student progress and facilitation of professional development among teachers and school administrators of culturally responsive approaches to education. In addition to these functions, school counselors serving as advocates should be aware, proactive, collaborative, and engaged (McCall-Perez, 2000). Specifically, McCall-Perez expressed the importance of advocacy by school counselors in the areas of scheduling, course placement, and student advising, areas that can have tremendous long-term effects on academic achievement and success.

The role of advocacy is one of three qualities described in the ASCA National Model as important for both systemic change and the academic success of every student (2005). According to the National Model, school counselors' advocacy helps to 1) eliminate barriers impeding students' development, 2) create opportunities to learn for all students, 3) ensure access to quality school curriculum, 4) collaborate with others within and outside the school to help students meet their needs, and 5) promote positive, systemic change in schools.

School Counselor as Culturally Competent

The importance of multicultural competence has emerged as an important topic in the counseling literature, particularly since the emergence of the tripartite model (e.g. multicultural awareness, knowledge, skills) in the early 1980s, the subsequent establishment of the Multicultural Counseling Competencies in 1992, and Pedersen's (1990) designation of multiculturalism as the "fourth force" in counseling and

psychology. More recently, Holcomb-McCoy (2004) has established multicultural competencies specific to school counseling. Fifty-one competencies were defined and organized within nine categories. These nine categories were described as competence in the following areas: multicultural counseling, multicultural consultation, understanding racism and student resistance, understanding racial identity development, multicultural assessment, multicultural family counseling, social advocacy, developing school-family-community partnerships, and understanding interpersonal interactions. These competencies mirror and expand upon the items included in the MCCTS (Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999) and MCCTS-R (Holcomb-McCoy, 2001). Specifically, Pedersen (2002) described culturally competent counselors as individuals who are “accurately aware of culturally learned assumptions by themselves and their clients, comprehend the culturally relevant facts and information about a client’s culture and are able to intervene skillfully to bring about positive change through counseling” (¶ 1).

School Counselor as Cultural Broker

As mentioned earlier in the discussion of cultural capital, application of the cultural capital framework to school counseling invites consideration of how to convert school counselors’ already-held skills (capital) into usable skills (capital) with ELLs. In the same way, the goal of school counselors serving as *cultural brokers* would be to help ELLs convert their already-held skills (capital) into usable skills (capital) in the school environment. Conventionally, the term “broker” is defined as a party who mediates between a buyer and a seller. Thus, a school counselor serving as a cultural broker would help mediate the exchange of capital between and among ELLs and non-ELL students, as

well as between and among ELLs and the school community as a whole. This description has similar qualities to several of the roles described above, particularly the ones that seem to be more effective: cultural translator, cross-cultural bridge builder, culturally responsive facilitator. Inherent in each of these is the bridge-building, mediating, and intervening role that the school counselor holds, helping two or more different parties find common ground, common understanding, and exchangeable resources within and among them.

In the literature on culture brokering, the focus generally has been on language brokering, with the majority of articles aimed at immigrant students who interpret for their parents (e.g., Buriel, Perez, DeMent, Chavez, & Moran, 1998; Jones & Trickett, 2005; Weisskirch, 2005; Wu & Kim, 2009) or mental health providers belonging to two different cultures who help to interpret between cultures (e.g., Owen & English, 2005; Singh, McKay, & Singh, 1999). This process and its benefits and disadvantages for ELLs will be discussed further in the section on ELLs. Applied to school counselors, the term culture broker does not necessarily apply to individuals who speak two languages. Instead, school counselors serving as cultural brokers fulfill a mediating role between the various capital that ELLs, non-ELLs, their families, and the general school community possess, helping each recognize, understand, and exchange their cultural capital. Specific to parents, Van Velsor and Orozco (2007) described the importance of this process as involving both helping to increase parents' cultural capital-skills and information consistent with existing school culture *and* valuing parents' already-held cultural capital as contributing to the educational process.

School Counselor Attitudes toward Immigrants

According to Leong (2008), traditional research in the areas of acculturation and adjustment has been focused on the perspective of immigrants, with much less from the perspective of host country individuals. This is true for the literature that exists on school counselors' perspective of immigrants, with scarce empirical studies yet conducted. School counselor attitudes toward immigrants deserve more attention and represent an important variable to consider, as attitudes can have a tremendous impact on behavior. For example, both White and Latino individuals who held more negative views toward immigrants were more likely to report having voted for an anti-immigrant ballot initiative in California (Weisman, Rosales, & Navarro, 2007). Conversely, individuals who have had more social contact with immigrants, as well as those who have had positive experiences with immigrants, display higher levels of mutual respect and acceptance, and lower levels of prejudicial attitudes and beliefs (Sutter & McCaul, 1993). This finding may be consistent with the influence of exposure and emotional arousal explained by social learning theory (Bandura, 1977b) and SCCT (Lent, Brown, & Hackett, 1994). That is, the more exposure to immigrants that individuals experience, the more efficacious individuals might feel regarding their interactions with immigrants, which in turn may reduce levels of anxiety and fear associated with the experience.

The relationship between attitudes and ability has been examined in relation to school counselors' multicultural case conceptualization ability (Constantine & Gushue, 2003). In a study examining ethnic tolerance and racism attitudes, school counselors were given a short vignette about an immigrant student and asked to write a short

conceptualization. Specifically, participants were asked to write at least three sentences describing what they thought the etiology of the student's difficulties were and at least three sentences describing what they believed would be an effective treatment strategy. Two independent raters examined the conceptualizations for differentiation (ability to offer alternative interpretations) and integration (ability to develop associations between and among the differentiated interpretations). Scores given ranged from 0 to 5 (0 = no differentiation, no integration; 3 = moderate differentiation, low integration; and 5 = high differentiation, high integration). In addition to the vignette conceptualization, participants completed the Tolerance Measure (TM; Sutter & McCaul, 1993), the New Racism Scale (NRS; Jacobson, 1985) and a demographic questionnaire. The TM measures individuals' tolerance of immigrants, with higher scores indicating higher levels of respect and acceptance and lower levels of prejudicial attitudes and beliefs. The NRS measures individuals' endorsement of racist attitudes, with higher scores indicating higher levels of racism toward Blacks. After accounting for prior multicultural counseling training, higher ethnic tolerance attitudes were associated with greater multicultural case conceptualization ability, whereas higher racism attitudes were related to lower multicultural case conceptualization ability. Thus, school counselors who were more respectful and accepting of immigrants and less racist displayed a better ability to conceptualize the case of an immigrant student.

Several measures exist measuring individuals' attitudes toward immigrants and immigration, including the Attitudes Toward Illegal Aliens Scale (Ommundsen & Larsen, 1996), Attitudes Toward Immigrants (Rosales, Navarro, Cardosa, 2001), Attitudes

Toward Multiculturalism (ATM; Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002), Ethnic Tolerance Scale (Berry & Kalin, 1995), Multicultural Ideology Scale (Berry & Kalin, 1995), Racial Prejudice Scale (Nakrami, Ekehammar, & Araya, 2000), Realistic Threat Scale (Stephan, Ybarra, Martinez, Schwarzwald & Tur-Kaspa, 1998), Scale for the Measurement of Attitudes Toward Chicanos (Carranza, 1992), Stereotypes of Illegal Immigrants Scale (Cowan, Martinez & Mendiola, 1997), Symbolic Threat Scale (Stephan, Ybarra, Martinez, Schwarzwald, & Tur-Kaspa, 1998), and the Tolerance Measure (Sutton & McCaul, 1993). Of these scales, only one specifically examines attitudes toward immigrant school-aged students and their families, the ATM.

Attitudes Toward Immigrants Instrument

The ATM (Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002) is an instrument based on Berry and Kalin's (1995) Multicultural Ideology and Tolerance scales. The Multicultural Ideology scale was designed to assess support for a culturally diverse society and the Tolerance scale was designed to assess one's willingness to accept individuals or groups culturally or racially different from oneself. The ATM was created to assess Israeli teachers' attitudes toward the integration of immigrants and to measure the extent to which their attitudes related to perceptions of the school organizational culture. Specifically, the ATM examines individuals' pluralistic and assimilationist attitudes toward immigrants. Thus, pluralistic and assimilationist attitudes are not necessarily viewed as opposing. In fact, the ATM produces a score for each.

In their article proposing the ATM, Horenczyk and Tatar (2002) did not offer definitions for "pluralistic" and "assimilationist" attitudes, perhaps assuming these terms

have become part of the vernacular such that they do not require a formal definition. In fact, in the literature regarding immigration, several key terms (e.g., assimilation, acculturation, incorporation, integration, separation, marginalization, and pluralism) have emerged with varying definitions (e.g., Berry, 2006; Gozdziaik, 2005; Miller, 2007). For example, Gozdziaik defined integration as “sustained interaction between and among newcomers and host communities” (p. 5), whereas Berry defined integration as “some degree of cultural integrity maintained, while at the same time seeking, as a member of an ethnocultural group, to participate as an integral part of the larger society” (p. 721). Though these definitions do not necessarily oppose one another, Berry’s definition goes beyond mere interaction between immigrant and host individuals, emphasizing the maintenance of immigrants’ cultural integrity. The varying definitions of terms has created a degree of confusion in the literature, particularly in terms of comparing research findings based on differing definitions (Miller).

Because Horenczyk and Tatar (2002) did not specifically offer a definition for the terms “assimilationist” and “pluralistic,” the researcher will provide ones based on the ATM scale items the authors included in the assimilationist and pluralistic scales. Thus, for this study, pluralistic attitudes refer to views toward immigrants that expect immigrants should exercise their individuality by maintaining their cultural differences *and* participate fully in the host society, helping to strengthen the ever-evolving culture of the host country. In addition, pluralistic attitudes recognize the strength inherent in diversity and view host individuals as integral in the immigration processes. Specifically, pluralistic attitudes expect host individuals will seek to learn about the cultures of

immigrants and, at times, adapt practices (e.g., teaching) to meet needs of immigrants. Assimilationist attitudes refer to views toward immigrants that expect immigrants should abandon completely their previously held cultural identity. Assimilationist attitudes view the maintenance of immigrants' culture as diminishing to the culture and strength of the host country. Assimilationist attitudes do not see host individuals as part of the immigration process other than to "turn" immigrants into host individuals.

Principal component factor analyses were conducted on both the pluralistic and assimilationist scales of the ATM. These analyses revealed two-factor structures for both scales, separating items related to an educational context from items more focused on a general societal context. The four resulting factors, with sample items, respectively, are as follows: Pluralistic-General (e.g., "Israeli hosts need to learn about the cultures of the immigrants"), Pluralistic-School (e.g., "Teaching styles should be adapted to the specific needs of immigrant students"), Assimilationist-General (e.g., "It is best that immigrants abandon their cultural heritage as soon as possible"), and Assimilationist-School (e.g., "The school is a central agent for turning new immigrants into Israelis").

In order to better understand school counselors' attitudes toward immigrants and their interactions with ELLs, an examination of the context in which school counselors function is needed. Thus, below, a brief overview describing the contextual environment of school counselors, specific to ELLs, is provided.

School Counselors and ELLs

According to the American School Counselor Association (ASCA), school counselors are charged with the task of meeting the academic, career, and personal-social

needs of *all* students (ASCA, 2005). In fact, a position statement on cross/multicultural counseling was established by ASCA (1988; 1993; 1999, 2004; 2009) 21 years ago, calling for school counselors to “take action to ensure students of culturally diverse backgrounds have access to appropriate services and opportunities promoting the individual’s maximum development” (ASCA, 1999, p.1). Specifically, the role of school counselors in relation to ELLs has been described as *essential* and *pivotal* to the success of this population, particularly in the prevention of student dropout rates (McCall-Perez, 2000). Intentionality has been cited as an essential characteristic of effective counselors (Goncalves, Ivey, & Langdell, 1988). Unfortunately, without adequate or accurate knowledge or training about the best way to support the needs of the ELL student population, school counselors’ ability to develop intentional and effective services is stunted.

Cross-cultural certifications for teachers have been created in certain states specifically to address the needs of ELLs (McCall-Perez, 2000); however, there is no such certification for school counselors working with these students. Thus, school counselors often are forced to attempt to meet the needs of ELLs without any standardized preparation or training, which potentially could lead to inappropriate practices based on inaccurate information. This possibility is heightened due to the current debate over immigration taking center stage in the political arena, with conflicting and often negatively biased information put forth regarding immigrant populations.

In light of the population trends of ELLs, it is imperative that school counselors have an accurate understanding of these populations so as to design and implement

interventions that match their needs. Unfortunately, little has been published regarding the role of school counselors with ELLs. What does exist includes appeals for school counselors to take a stronger and more proactive advocate role (Cranston-Gingras & Anderson, 1990; McCall-Perez, 2000; Schwallie-Giddis, Anstrom, Sanchez, Sardi, & Granato, 2004; Williams & Butler, 2003). Specifically, researchers have proposed an action, research approach, by which school counselors would engage in recurring cycles of inquiry, data, reflection, and action/intervention so as to best meet the population's needs (McCall-Perez). Collaboration with other school staff also has been urged, particularly with ESL teachers who spend the most time with ELL students (Clemente & Collison, 2000). Finally, culturally and developmentally sensitive interventions, which take into account bicultural identity development issues, have been cited as necessary in order for interventions to be successful (Clemente & Collison).

Based on the above information, it is perhaps not surprising that school counselors do not feel confident in delivery of services to ELLs. Through a qualitative study designed to investigate the challenges and professional development needs of school counselors working with linguistically and culturally diverse students, school counselors indicated that they did not feel adequately prepared to address the needs of these students, and voiced their insecurities over appropriately interacting with these students and their families (Schwallie-Giddis, Anstrom, Sanchez, Sardi, & Granato, 2004). This finding mirrors a similar article published 14 years before, in which school counselors indicated a high level of need for further education in multicultural counseling, particularly in the areas of students' academic achievement, cross-cultural

communication, and racism awareness (Carey & Reinat, 1990). When school counselors *have* received more preparation and information, as well as opportunities to collaborate with other staff, and have been able to be more active regarding ELL students, ELLs have achieved greater school success (McCall-Perez, 2000). Specifically, ELLs dropped out of school less frequently, studied more English, enrolled in more classes, and accrued more required units toward graduation and college.

School administrators also have voiced the importance of school counselors taking a more active role regarding ELL students. In a mixed-method approach, student services administrators in Florida were assessed regarding the adequacy of culturally responsive school counseling services provided to Latina/o students (Smith-Adcock, Daniels, Lee, Villalba, & Indelicato, 2006). An overwhelming 59% of participants indicated their belief that Latina/o students and their families are at risk for not getting needed services. Among responses to the open-ended question, “What additional services provided by your school district would be beneficial to increase the personal and academic success of Hispanic/Latino students?” was the suggestion for cultural awareness and sensitivity training related to Latino cultures provided for school staff. Smith-Adcock et al. concluded by highlighting the importance of creating and/or improving the training and preparation of school counselors so as to improve the educational success of Latina/o students. Though this study was specifically about Latino ELLs, the suggestion can be extended to the need for training and preparation for school counselors regarding *all* ELLs.

One of the obstacles faced by school counselors in addressing the needs of ELLs is the lack of empirically-based, theory-driven research regarding ELLs as a group as well as regarding the effective delivery of services *to* ELLs. In fact, out of the few articles that exist in counseling literature regarding ELLs, the majority are conceptual or descriptive in nature. These articles still provide valuable information and recommendations, but do not offer empirically validated or theory based suggestions. In a recent extensive review of research findings regarding ELLs in schools, Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, and Christian (2005) argued that ELLs are more successful when they participate in programs specially designed to meet their needs. The authors concluded from their findings that there is a great need for sustained, theory-driven research. This research is vital for the creation of effective training and preparation modules for school counselors in training as well as for professional development for already practicing school counselors. In fact, in a recent conceptual article in the *Professional School Counseling* journal, two school counselors who experienced an influx of Latin/o immigrants to their school described the usefulness of developing several interventions specifically focused and tailored to the unique needs of the newly arrived immigrant students (Thorn & Contreras, 2005).

The need for customized approaches in working with ELL students has been echoed in other professional fields besides counseling and school administration. Particularly, the nonbiased and accurate assessment of ELL students has been a highly debated and researched issue in the field of special education (Abedi, 2006; Abedi, Hofstetter, & Lord, 2004; Roseberry-McKibbin, Brice, & O'Hanlon, 2005). Researchers

have cautioned against a “one-size-fits-all approach” (Abedi et al., p. 1) and have emphasized the need for more individualized approaches to assessment so that *all* students are able to have a fair school experience. Furthermore, appeals have been made for offering more coursework regarding service delivery to ELL students, so that professionals working with ELLs are adequately equipped and accurately informed as to the needs of ELLs (Roseberry-McKibbin, Brice, & O’Hanlon; Roseberry-McKibbin & O’Hanlon, 2005; Wagner, Francis, & Morris, 2005). Below, two examples of professional development regarding ELLs are reviewed.

ELL Professional Development for School Counselors

In the literature to date, only two studies exist examining the impact of multicultural professional development on school counselors working with ELLs. Both are discussed in depth below.

Schwallie-Giddis, Anstrom, Sanchez, Sardi, and Granato, 2004

Schwallie-Giddis et al. (2004) developed a 9 month professional development program focused on improving school counselors’ multicultural awareness, knowledge, and skills with ELLs. In their study, the researchers used the term linguistically and culturally diverse students (LCD) to indicate ELLs. Thus, for this section, the term LCD will be used instead of ELL. Thirty-five school counselors participated in 7 professional development sessions over the course of 9 months; 13 were interviewed at the conclusion of the program. Each session included specific methods, group dialogue, and instructional materials to address specific multicultural counseling competencies. In fact, many of the 31 multicultural counseling competencies (Sue, Arredondo, & McDavis, 1992) were

integrated into each session. Activities included the use of videos, case studies, panel presentations, lively dialogue and debate, and story-telling.

The first session addressed school counselors' awareness of their own assumptions, values, and biases. The second session was focused on understanding the worldview of culturally different clients. The third and fourth sessions included workshops conducted by counselor educators who specialize in multicultural counseling, including one of the original authors of the multicultural counseling competencies, Dr. Patricia Arrendondo. Both the third and fourth sessions focused on understanding and applying the multicultural counseling competencies focused on the development of appropriate intervention strategies and techniques to work with LCD students. The importance of understanding the worldview of culturally different clients was the focus of the fifth session, which included a panel of three women from different cultures. During the sixth session, participants dialogued about their frustrations regarding multicultural issues. In the final session, participants were able to share their own individual experiences in their schools, including things they had learned about working with LCD students. Participants also were given time to reflect upon new insights gained from the professional development sessions.

A standardized open-ended interview protocol was used during the interview process. Questions were designed to collect demographic information, participants' perceptions of challenges faced working with LCD students and families, participants' perceptions of their professional development needs regarding LCD students and families, and participants' perceptions of the impact of the professional development program

itself. Cross-case analysis was used to determine recurring themes among the school counselors interviewed. These themes are discussed below. In addition, participants completed the Multicultural Awareness/Knowledge/ Skills Survey (MAKSS; D'Andrea, Daniels, & Heck, 1991) before and after the professional development program.

School counselors indicated two areas as most challenging in their work with LCD students and families: counseling linguistically and culturally diverse parents and families, and understanding cultural differences in students across a variety of cultures. Specific issues discussed included difficulties in helping families “interpret” the U.S. school system, insecurities regarding the cultural appropriateness of their interactions with parents and families, lack of sufficient knowledge of the cultural views and beliefs of many families, difficulty in helping parents understand the school’s role and expectations of students, frustration over language barriers, dissonance between parents and children as children acculturate, overdependence on children to translate for parents, economic challenges, difficulty distinguishing between cultural differences and individual differences, lack of time to educate themselves further regarding LCD students and families, and difficulties “stepping out” of their own cultures.

Participants’ perceptions of their professional development needs reflected the challenges discussed above, with participants indicating a need for professional development focused on working with LCD parents and families and on understanding specific cultures. Specifically, participants voiced a need for learning how to communicate appropriately the importance of LCD parents’ involvement in their child’s education; for learning particular culture-based counseling strategies; for professional

development opportunities that allowed them to converse with other school counselors; and for guidance in understanding and relating to specific cultures.

Participants rated the professional development program highly, with all participants rating the program at a level four or above on a five-point scale. Participants indicated inclusion of the diverse panel speakers as the most useful component of the program, and appreciated the use of case studies. Out of the knowledge, skills, and awareness targeted, participants felt their knowledge and skills were impacted more so than their awareness. This was confirmed by results of the MAKSS, which revealed statistically significant gains in knowledge and skills, but not for awareness. Some participants reported feeling increased confidence in counseling LCD students.

The results of this study have several important implications. First, the viability of professional development as a means of enhancing school counselors' knowledge and skills with ELLs has been established. Future research on how to use professional development as a means of enhancing awareness in this area will be important. Second, participants clearly indicated a high need for professional development regarding ELLs, as evidenced by the many areas of professional development identified by participants. This need for professional development appeared to be multifaceted, perhaps indicating a need for a variety of different methods and approaches in response. Finally, results highlighted school counselors' desire to gain cultural capital for working with ELLs. Specifically, participants "requested guidance in 'translating' the culture of the U.S. school system to LCD parents in a culturally appropriate way. They also requested guidance in understanding and relating to specific cultures" (Schwallie-Giddis et al.,

2004, p. 21). Thus, school counselors have both the desire and need to gain cultural capital for working with ELLs.

McCall-Perez, 2000

As part of a larger project aimed to improve secondary immigrant education, a three and one-half year project was conducted in two school districts within California with the following student outcome objectives: increase English literacy, improve mastery of academic content and skills, advance steadily through high school to graduation, thus increasing access to postsecondary opportunities (McCall-Perez, 2000). As the project progressed, it “became evident that for truly systemic, secondary school change to take place, school counselors were both essential and pivotal to the process” (p. 14). Thus, as part of the larger project, school counselors at one high school were targeted with a focus on professional development as a strategy for improving the schooling of secondary immigrant students. An action research model of professional development was used, in which recurring cycles of inquiry, data collection, reflection, and action occur. The procedures and results of this study are described below.

School counselor participants met regularly to engage in dialogue and collaboration. The composition of these meetings ranged, including an on-site monthly meeting of ESL and other teachers, a quarterly cross-site subject area meeting of math and science teachers, a quarterly community dinner forum aimed at linking school personnel with community organizations, and a quarterly meeting that included immigrant parents and students. In addition, representatives from local agencies, secondary schools, local community colleges, and universities often participated. Each

forum included presentations of local student data, review of literature and research, student panel presentations, and structured opportunities for reflective dialogue and discussion. Examples of data presented included percentage of Ds and Fs earned by ELLs compared to non-ELLs, units accrued by ELLs at each grade level compared to non-ELLs, transcripts of ELL student interviews, and results of student questionnaires. Participants also were exposed to a panel of local graduates (former ELLs) who offered personal accounts of challenges faced in high school and shared what helped or hindered their ability to get into college. School counselor participants also attended a required orientation to the district's secondary newcomer center, where they were able to observe ELL students receiving different levels of ESL instruction.

Because of the nature of action research used in this study, there is difficulty in “isolating a one-to-one correspondence between interventions and outcomes” (McCall-Perez, 2000, p. 19). Ultimate “success” was defined by students progressing steadily through high school and accessing college preparatory curriculum. However, important actions taken by school counselors are worthy of note. Actions taken by school counselors during the three and a half year period included a general approach of being more proactive in the delivery of services to ELLs. For example, school counselors made use of a block schedule delivery of classes, advising ELLs to enroll in English classes each term. Many students opted to enroll in more than the minimum required and benefited from the continuity in their formal study of English. Another action taken by school counselors involved making changes in the way students were assigned mathematics and sciences courses, which had historically been done via a computer

software program that did not take into account level of English acquisition. By systematizing the retrieval and transmission of individual ELL data, school counselors were better able to assign students to math and science courses appropriate to ELLs' level of English. This change in the course placement and advisement process resulted in a 50% increase of ELL students enrolled in science courses and a 44% increase in math courses. Overall, school counselors were directly involved in the following changes for ELLs: increased intensity of English classes and accelerated credit accrual, more appropriate course placement in relation to each student's stage of English acquisition and prior academic experiences, and increased access to science and mathematics courses.

At the end of the 3.5 year period, data collected indicated ELLs had made significant improvements academically. Specifically, more ELLs remained in school, studied more English, enrolled in more classes, and accrued more units toward graduation and college. McCall-Perez (2000) attributed these outcomes to counselor awareness, stating "As counselors gain a better understanding of ELLs and recognize that ELL students have just as good a chance at college entrance as native English speakers, counselors can become effective advocates for ELLs, individually and systematically. A consequence of counselor participation in this project was to make specific needs of ELLs more central to overall school planning. ELL students were less systemically marginalized as a result of this project" (p. 18).

Several implications can be taken from this study. First, the role of school counselors in ELL school achievement was emphasized as "essential and pivotal." Second, the importance of professional development as part of this process was

highlighted. Specifically, the action research approach used demonstrated the benefits of recurring cycles of inquiry, data, reflection, and action. Through this process, school counselors were enabled to continually reflect upon changes already made, gather further information, and alter their approach as needed. Finally, this study highlighted the way in which school counselors' already held skills (capital) can be converted into more usable skills (capital) with ELLs. School counselor participants in this study did not receive any new training or knowledge regarding ELLs. Instead, they were given an opportunity, support, and guidance on how to use their already held skills in ways that would benefit ELLs.

In both the studies described above, the value of professional development regarding ELLs for school counselors was made clear. This was evidenced by the academic gains made by ELLs, by the knowledge and skills gains made by school counselors, by comments shared by participants regarding the utility of the programs, and by the desire voiced by school counselors for further professional development aimed at ELL-related topics. Clearly, the need exists for professional development regarding ELLs and the two programs described above are examples of effective ones. However, both programs involved an extended amount of time on the part of participants. One program took place over the course of nine months and the other over the course of three and a half years. School counselors, who often have large caseloads, multiple responsibilities, and not enough time to devote to it all, may not be willing to make a commitment to professional development that extends over such a long period of time. Although comprehensive programs like the ones described above are needed and valuable, the use

of shorter, focused activities is worth exploring. Likewise, activities that target participants' emotional arousal and awareness may be helpful (cf. Bandura, 1977a, b). Thus, below the use of experiential learning activities is described.

Experiential Learning and Simulations

The use of experiential activities is a popular and recommended practice for building awareness, particularly multicultural awareness (e.g. Jost, Whitfield, & Jost, 2005; Merta, Stringham, & Ponterotto, 1988; Roysircar, Gard, Hubbell, & Ortega, 2005; Villalba & Redmond, 2008). The reason for this may be the transformative impact that experience can have on learning (Kolb, 1984). In fact, according to Experiential Learning theory (ELT), learning is "the process whereby knowledge is created through the transformation of experience. Knowledge results from the combination of grasping and transforming experience" (Kolb, p. 41). Six underlying propositions of ELT highlight the importance of experience in the learning process: 1) Learning is best conceived as a process, not in terms of outcomes; 2) All learning is *relearning*; 3) Learning requires the resolution of conflicts between dialectically opposed modes of adaptation to the world; 4) Learning is a holistic process of adaptation to the world; 5) Learning results from synergetic transactions between the person and the environment; and 6) Learning is the process of creating knowledge (Kolb & Kolb, 2005).

As discussed earlier, Bandura's (1977b) Social Learning theory emphasized the importance of experience, as well. In particular, performance accomplishments and emotional arousal were described as having an important influence on the way in which an individual stores and remembers new tasks or knowledge and, consequently, on the

efficacy an individual feels related to those tasks or knowledge. Thus, the use of experiential learning activities can serve as a powerful means of transforming information into knowledge and into action, of tapping into an individual's emotional arousal, and of increasing one's self-efficacy related to the targeted knowledge or task.

Simulation

One type of experiential exercise is simulation. According to the Institute for Simulation and Training, simulations are imitations or abstractions of reality that, at times, deliberately emphasize one part of reality at the expense of other parts (Institute for Simulation & Training, nd). Thus, simulations are not recreations of reality; they are abstractions of reality. Simulations are intended to create the *essence* of an experience, not the details of an experience (Shirts, nd). Through the recreation of the essence of an experience, participants can engage concepts and experiences in an emotionally safe way that may not have felt possible otherwise.

Paul Pederson, an expert in the field of multicultural counseling and communication who has created several simulation activities himself, encourages the use of simulations as a means of "turning raw experiences into learning" (Pederson, 2000, p. 106). In his article (2000) entitled "One in the eye is worth two in the ear!" he argued that experiences that allow an individual to be a participant-observer are twice as valuable as merely hearing about others' experiences. Pederson highlighted three particular strengths of simulations: they establish remembered learning experiences for future references; they provide a safe context in which to take risks and learn the consequences of

interventions ahead of time; and they provide increased self-awareness of culturally learned patterns that control thinking.

Other benefits of simulation have to do with the experience of an “Aha!” moment during which an individual experiences a sudden insight not previously understood (Shirts, nd). This type of experience can provide participants with a deep, personal understanding of the target concept or experience, one that will not easily be forgotten. Finally, simulations afford participants the opportunity to step outside themselves and walk in someone else’s proverbial shoes. This can be very powerful and awareness-raising.

Several tips for creating successful simulations were described by Shirts (nd). First, as discussed above, Shirts warned against confusing replication with simulation. Second, Shirts recommended encouraging participants to take responsibility for their actions. More clearly, Shirts emphasized the importance of conscious learning during debriefing sessions following simulation. Specifically, during the debriefing session, the facilitator’s role is to try to prevent the following responsibility avoiders: pretending, giving inappropriate importance to chance, using competition for its own sake, emphasizing fun at the sacrifice of learning, dumbing down the experience, underestimating the time and energy to build commitment. According to Shirts, if participants believe their actions during the simulation were only because the simulation suggested or encouraged certain actions, their ability to apply learning to real-world situations will be limited.

The use of symbols and metaphors to deal with emotionally charged ideas was encouraged by Shirts (nd). For example, in a simulation targeting racism, Shirts used circles, squares, and triangles to represent various groups, and gave power to the squares group in the simulation. The use of symbols and metaphor allowed the experience of racism to be represented but also allowed participants to have enough emotional distance so as to participate and discuss genuinely. Similarly, Shirts warned against playing games with trainees. In explaining this, Shirts emphasized the difference between setting up a system of rules that stacks the odds for or against a particular group versus using deception in the operation of the simulation. If participants discover they have been deceived as to the rules of the game, they will focus more on their being deceived by the simulation facilitators than on the experience intended.

Shirts (nd) also encouraged consideration of appropriate subjects to simulate, explaining that certain subjects lend themselves better to simulation than others. According to Shirts, characteristics of subjects that lend themselves well to simulations include seeing the world through other people's eyes, performing tasks simultaneously, performing under pressure, developing systems thinking, and recognizing cognitive dissonance.

Finally, Shirts (nd) offered recommendations related to testing and evaluating effectiveness of newly developed simulations. First, he encouraged alpha-testing a new simulation in a low-risk circumstance, with the goal of evaluating the basic assumptions of the simulation, its overall structure, and the logic of its progression. He also encouraged the development of an appropriate performance assessment model, one that

would be able to consider “success” qualitatively. Likewise, he encouraged the creator to set her or his own standards for success and to remember the original purpose and goal of the simulation.

English Language Learners

Though the population of interest in this study is school counselors, it is necessary to have a basic understanding of ELLs in order to provide a context for the importance of this research. Thus, a review of ELLs is provided below including definitions, demographics, and risk and resiliency factors. In addition, a brief review of the 2nd language acquisition process is provided.

ELLs Defined

Within the research literature and educational arena, multiple acronyms, terminology, and definitions are used to refer to ELLs. Acronyms used include LEP (Limited English Proficient), LES (Limited English Speaker), LEF (Limited English Fluent), PEP (Potentially English Proficient), ESL (English as a Second Language), ESOL (English for Speakers of Other Languages), LM (Language Minority student), PHLOTE (Persons whose Home Language is Other than English), NELB (Non-English language background), LCD (Linguistically and Culturally Diverse), NEP (Non English Proficient), and RFEP (Redesignated Fluent English Proficient). In addition, the terms migrant, immigrant, and bilingual also are used to frame the ELL population. This can create difficulty as the above acronyms and terms are not always synonymous with one another. For example, a migrant student is not necessarily a second-language learner, a second-language learner is not necessarily an immigrant, and an immigrant is not

necessarily a second-language learner. Furthermore, ELLs represent a large and diverse group, differing in language, cultural background, family history, socioeconomic status, method of arriving to the United States (e.g., via refugee or asylee status, born in U.S., etc.), among other differences. The term *ELL* includes students “from Native American communities that have been in what is now the United States from time immemorial; students from other long established language minority communities, such as Franco-Americans in the Northeast, Latino/as and Chicano/as in the Southwest, and the Amish in the Midwest; and students from migrant and immigrant groups who represent the most recent arrivals in a virtually unbroken series of migrations that have brought linguistic diversity to North America” (La Celle-Peterson & Rivera, 1994, p. 4). Based on their diverse background variables, individual ELL students will have different needs from one another. The one common variable ELLs share is the need to increase their English proficiency in order to succeed in American schools.

Though it is important to recognize the differences that do exist between and among ELLs, it is equally important to have an understanding of what distinguishes them as a common group. For this study, La Celle-Peterson and Rivera’s (1994) definition of ELLs will be used:

“English Language Learners” (ELLs) refers to students whose first language is not English, and encompasses both students who are just beginning to learn English (often referred to as “limited English proficient” or “LEP”) and those who have already developed considerable proficiency. The term underscores the fact that, in addition to meeting all the academic challenges that face their monolingual peers, these students are mastering another language -- something too few monolingual English speakers are currently asked to do in U.S. schools. The term follows conventional educational usage in that it focuses on what

students are accomplishing, rather than on any temporary “limitation” they face prior to having done so, just as we refer to advanced teacher candidates as “student teachers” rather than “limited teaching proficient individuals,” and to college students who concentrate their studies in physics as “physics majors” rather than as “students with limited physics proficiency. (p. 23).

This definition highlights the more strengths-based tone of the term *ELL* than the term *LEP*, lending itself well to an approach based on cultural capital theory that recognizes individual strengths. Though the choice of term may seem insignificant as both terms refer to the same population, the term *ELL* welcomes a conversation about the strengths these students bring with them to school, rather than a singular focus on the risk factors associated with ELLs. In fact, ELLs often have many strengths that can be beneficial not only to them, but to the entire school community. This will be discussed in more depth later. First, basic demographic and educational data is reviewed below. Because the term *LEP* is still the term used by the federal government to indicate students who are determined to be eligible for English as a Second Language/Bilingual services—regardless of whether they actually receive those services—it is still frequently used in the literature. Below, whatever term an author used to describe the population discussed, the researcher used the same term.

Demographics of ELLs

The U.S. Department of Education’s Office of English Language Acquisition, Language Enhancement, and Academic Achievement for Limited English Proficient Students (OELA) conducted a comprehensive survey of state educational agencies for the 2000-2001 school year, collecting data on the enrollment of immigrant students in all 50

states, the District of Colombia, the Commonwealth of the Northern Mariana Islands, Guam, and Puerto Rico. The data collected from this survey are summarized below.

Because the report used the term LEP to refer to ELL students, the term LEP will be used below.

According to the OELA survey (Kindler, 2002), nearly 4.6 million LEP students were enrolled in the 2000-2001 school year, accounting for nearly 10% of the total school enrollment in public schools. This number grew by 3.8% from the previous school year and 105% from the 1990-1991 school year, whereas the general school population grew only 12% since 1990-1991. The seven states with the highest LEP enrollment were, in respective order, California, Puerto Rico, Texas, Florida, New York, Illinois, and Arizona. California accounted for one-third of the entire national LEP enrollment. Several states reported significant increases in their LEP enrollment from the previous year. In one year, Georgia experienced a 113% increase in LEP enrollment, Montana experienced an 88% increase, and Mississippi experienced 79% increase. Twenty-five states reported increases between 5 and 20%, and the following states reported an increase of 20% or more: Guam, Indiana, Kentucky, North Carolina, South Carolina, and Wisconsin. These increases in nontraditional immigrant receiving states are consistent with immigrant increases occurring over the past decade, particularly in rural communities. In fact, the Latino population grew by at least 250% in many Southeastern states, as Latino immigrants have begun to settle more permanently, as compared with historically more transient, migrant patterns of settlement (Bump, Lowell, & Patterson, 2005; Hamann, Wortham, & Murrillo, 2002; U.S. Census Bureau, 2003). Whereas immigrants

historically migrated to urban centers, the more recent pattern of immigration has been to suburbs, smaller metropolitan areas, and rural towns (Bump, Lowell, & Patterson). This new pattern of immigration creates new obstacles for school systems who previously had not served ELL populations.

In the 2000-2001 school year, more than 460 languages spoken by ELLs were reported. The most common language spoken by ELL students was Spanish (79%), followed by Vietnamese (2%), Hmong (1.6%), Chinese/Cantonese (1%), and Korean (1%) (Kindler, 2002). All other language groups represented less than 1% of the population. Substantial regional variation in linguistic diversity was reported. For example, though Spanish was the most represented language nationally, nine states reported other languages as the most dominant language (e.g., Montana = Blackfoot; Maine = French, Minnesota = Hmong; Hawaii = Ilocano; South Dakota = Lakota; North Dakota = “Native American”; Vermont = Serbo-Croatian; Alaska = Yup’ik). This diversity in languages represented highlights the richness in culture that ELLs as a group represent, but also highlights the difficulty in providing bilingual services. As discussed earlier, the need for bilingual counselors cannot be underscored; however, with such diversity in languages represented, consideration of other avenues for strengthening school counselors’ effectiveness with ELLs is needed. Specifically, it is important to explore ways in which school counselors can be effective even without proficiency in the languages their ELL students represent.

Educational Performance of ELLs

Of the almost 4.5 million ELLs enrolled nationally, 44% are enrolled in PreK through Grade 3 (Kindler, 2002). The number of ELLs enrolled decreased over the succeeding grades, with only 19% enrolled at the high school level. During grades 7-12, 9.1% of students were not promoted to the next grade. Kindler did not provide data on dropout rates, but a U.S. Department of Education Report on dropout rates in the year 2005 reveal significant gaps in dropout rates between immigrant and nonimmigrant groups (Laird, DeBell, Kienzl, & Chapman, 2007). In the Laird et al. report, ELLs were not separated out as a separate group. However, data were provided for Hispanic and non-Hispanic students born outside of the United States. This data must be interpreted with caution because not all of the students were necessarily ELLs.

In 2005, 36.5% of foreign-born Hispanic and 4.7% of foreign-born non-Hispanic individuals, aged 16 – 24, were status dropouts (individuals who are not in school and have not earned a high school diploma or equivalency credential), together representing 29.9% of all status dropouts (Laird, DeBell, Kienzl, & Chapman, 2007). In comparison, only 6% of White individuals and 10.4% of Black individuals were status dropouts. High school completion rates (including equivalency credentials) displayed similar gaps. In 2005, only 56.8% of foreign-born Hispanic and 93.6% of foreign born non-Hispanic individuals, aged 18-24, who were not currently enrolled in high school had completed high school, together representing only 11.7% of all completers (Laird et al.). In comparison, 92.3% of White individuals and 85.9% of Black individuals had completed high school. These findings reveal significant gaps between foreign-born and native-born

individuals. In particular, foreign-born Hispanic individuals presented with significant risk for dropping out of school and for not completing high school. These high dropout rates have significance for federal and state governments as well as local communities. In addition to potential difficulties that may arise at time of dropout, such as increased involvement in gangs or other delinquent behavior (Arfaniarromo, 2001), individuals who drop out are more likely to be unemployed, earn less when they are employed, experience poorer mental and physical health (Kaufman, Alt, & Chapman, 2001; U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1992), are more likely to receive public assistance, and are less likely to participate in civic activities (NCES, 1998).

According to the 2005 National Assessment of Education Progress, known as “the Nation’s Report Card,” significant gaps existed between ELLs and White students in both mathematics and reading (Fry, 2005). Specifically, 46% of fourth grade ELL students were at the below-basic level in math, compared to 11% of their White counterparts and 40% of their Black counterparts. In reading, 73% of fourth grade ELL students were below-basic, compared to 25% of their White counterparts and 59% of their Black counterparts. The gap between ELL and White students increased at the eighth grade level, with 71% of ELL students at the below-basic level, compared to 21% of White students and 59% of Black students. For reading, 71% of ELL students were at the below-basic level, compared to 19% of White students and 49% of Black students. These gaps are alarming considering the No Child Left Behind Act’s (2001) mandate that all students be proficient in math and reading by the year 2014, with ELLs being a specific population under consideration.

Kindler (2002) also collected information on methods of instruction and on the credentialing and training of teachers. In the 2000-2001 school year, 22.7% of students receiving LEP services were receiving instruction that incorporated the student's native language. For 53.9% of all students receiving LEP services, English was the exclusive language of instruction. Not all instructors of LEP students were certified in their field. There was an average of one teacher certified in ESL for approximately every 44 LEP students, and an average of one teacher certified in bilingual education for every 47 LEP students. These findings are better understood in context with characteristics of effective programs for ELL students.

Reviewing over 2 decades of research on the educational outcomes of ELLs, Genesee, Lindholm-Leary, Saunders, and Christian (2005) identified a number of program factors and instructional characteristics that promoted academic success of ELLs. These characteristics were a positive school environment; a curriculum that was meaningful and academically challenging, incorporated higher order thinking, was thematically integrated, established a clear alignment with standards and assessment, and was consistent and sustained over time; a program model that was grounded in sound theory and best practices associated with an enriched, not remedial, instructional model; teachers in bilingual programs who understood theories about bilingualism and second language development as well as the goals and rationale for the model in which they were teaching; and the use of cooperative learning and high-quality exchanges between teachers and pupils. Specifically, Genesee et al. concluded that "ELLs are more successful when they participate in programs that are specially designed to meet their

needs (ESL, bilingual, etc.) than in mainstream English classrooms and when the program is consistent throughout the student education” (p. 377). Considering the fact that not all instructors of LEP students are certified in their field (Kindler, 2002), it may be difficult for those instructors to know *how* to design programs to meet ELL needs.

In addition to the educational gaps discussed above, and perhaps contributing factors to the above gaps, several barriers to success and risk factors have been associated with being an ELL. These are discussed below.

Barriers & Risk Factors

For ELLs who also are immigrants, several potential stressors exist related to the immigration experience itself. Pre-migration and migration stressors can include traumatic exposure in immigrants’ homelands such as war, torture, terrorism, natural disasters, famine, etc. (Pumariega, Rothe, & Pumariega, 2005). For some immigrants, a traumatic event may have been the precipitant for migration, whereas for others the migration process itself can be traumatic. For example, immigrants who may spend significant amounts of time in detention or refugee camps before arriving in the U.S., and individuals who are migrating illegally may be exposed to victimization, crime, and general discriminatory practices. Very often, immigrants may experience separation from or loss of extended family and support networks. As with any loss or trauma experience, these experiences can lead to significant trauma and grief reactions that may go untreated. Migrant students (whose families move between geographic areas for the purpose of seasonal work, often agricultural-related) can experience significant difficulties related to continuous disruptions in schooling (Cranston-Gingras, & Anderson, 1990).

There are several potential post-migration stressors that immigrant and non-immigrant ELL students may experience. These include general stressors such as racial labeling and categorization; family stressors such as poverty and single-parent families; and school stressors such as lack of acceptance by peers and teachers, lack of social support networks, new and different cultural scripts, new learning styles, and need for English language acquisition (Baruth & Manning, 1992; Kopala, Esquivel, & Baptiste, 1994; Pumariega, Rothe, & Pumariega, 2005; Williams & Butler, 2003). Specific to Caribbean ELLs, Mitchell and Bryan (2007) described the following characteristics serving as stressors: parental engagement in shift work or multiple jobs leading to children's unsupervised time, serial migration (in which one individual family members migrate sequentially) leading to strained relationships between parents and children, and different expectations in child-rearing practices and in sex roles.

Specific to Latino ELLs, Baruth and Manning (1992) described the following risk factors and concerns: high pregnancy and birth rates, negative cultural identities and poor self concepts, distrust and hostility toward Anglo-American professionals, conflicts between "home language" and "school language," and inability to reconcile loyalties to conflicting cultural expectations. In a qualitative study that interviewed Latino ELL students, several concerns and stressors were indicated (Clemente & Collison, 2000). The Latino ELL students described stress related to trust issues stemming from the inability to communicate effectively through English, difficulty being assertive, pressure to belong to or stay out of certain groups, feeling stereotyped by others, and feeling isolated and segregated from the rest of the school population. ELL students also reported having

minimal contact with school counselors. Latino students who were interviewed after having dropped out of school also voiced frustration with feelings of alienation and discrimination, as well as frustration with lower expectations held by teachers, being labeled a “problem child,” economic and racial barriers to participation in school activities, lack of sensitivity to their needs, and lack of clear communication between school and home (Avilés, Guerrero, Howarth, & Thomas, 1999).

Strengths & Resiliency Factors

Though ELLs present with several potential risk factors, they also have many cultural assets and resiliency factors. Each subgroup of ELLs brings unique and rich cultural wealth and strengths. Unfortunately, for the purpose of this research, there is not time to highlight the strengths of each and every individual subgroup. Thus, only the strengths of two subgroups, Latino and Caribbean ELLs, will be reviewed. However, the reader is encouraged to explore more about individual cultures. Equally important as risk factors are to understanding diverse clients, cultural wealth and resiliency factors provide valuable information about how to best work with individuals and how to use individuals’ strengths as means for understanding difficulties, building efficacy, and solving problems.

Cultural assets that have been described for families of Latino ELLs include having a religious faith; emphasizing a collective orientation; valuing children and engaging in multiple affective gestures from early on; teaching children values which include responsibility to others, collective responsibility, respecting elders and authority figures, and sibling responsibility; and valuing civility such as the expression of

politeness and helpful behaviors (Zambrana & Zoppi, 2002). Zambrana and Zoppi noted that the above characteristics are consistent with defined resilient characteristics regarding internal resources, family climate, and social environment. Specific to Caribbean ELLs are the cultural values of collectivism, the importance of spirituality, focus on self-amelioration, strong sense ethnic pride, and the presence and involvement of extended family (Mitchell & Bryan, 2007).

As ELLs progress in their English language acquisition and understanding of the U.S. culture, they may experience benefits of biculturalism and bilingualism that have been highlighted in the literature. In fact, Trueba (2002) argued that as the demographics of the U.S. continues to become more diverse, “individuals who can best function in a diverse society will have a large cultural capital and greater ability to function effectively. The mastery of different languages, the ability to cross racial and ethnic boundaries, and a general resilience associated with the ability to endure hardships and overcome obstacles will clearly be recognized as a new cultural capital, not a handicap” (p. 24). Thus, the ability to understand and function in more than one culture will serve as cultural capital itself. Research on bilingual, bicultural students has supported this. Bilingual students who were fluent English proficient had better grades, a higher rate of educational stability (i.e., enrollment over time), and were more likely to complete a quarter of their high school credits by the end of ninth grade than were students who were limited English proficient or from English-only backgrounds (Rumberger & Larson, 1998). Similarly, based on data from the 1990 Census, bilingual students were less likely to drop out than English-only speakers, students in bilingual households were less likely to drop out than

those in English-dominant or English-limited households, and students in immigrant households were less likely to drop out than those in nonimmigrant households (Feliciano, 2001). Thus, individuals who were least likely to drop out were able to speak English very well, but also were embedded in bilingual, immigrant households. They had acculturated to some degree, but also maintained their cultural ties.

Culture Brokering

In the literature on bilingualism and biculturalism, much attention has been placed on the practice of culture and language brokering. Language brokering refers to the process of translation that children do for their non-English speaking parents (Buriel, Love, & Ment, 2006). Culture brokering, which often includes language brokering, refers to the ways in which children mediate for their parents between their parents' native culture and aspects of the new culture (Buriel, Love, & Ment; Trickett & Jones, 2007). This role includes a wide range of behaviors, including translating documents sent home by the school, scheduling doctor's appointments, answering telephones, and explaining the meaning of customs, mores, policies, legal constraints, and interaction patterns (Jones & Trickett, 2005). In general, a child acting as a culture broker makes the new culture more comprehensible to their parents or family members. The literature on culture brokering has been mixed in regards to the beneficial and detrimental effects it can have on children engaged in the process (Trickett & Jones, 2007).

Numerous benefits have been cited as associated with culture brokering. First, culture brokering affords children opportunities to enrich their vocabulary and conceptual frameworks as they engage in more sophisticated, adult conversations than their non-

brokering peers (Buriel, Perez, DeMent, Chavez, & Moran, 1998). This increased demand on their cognitive resources may serve to accelerate their cognitive development, which could have positive effects on their academic performance (Buriel et al.). In fact, in a study of Latino adolescent culture brokers (Buriel et al.), language brokering was positively related to biculturalism, both of which were positively related to academic performance, as measured by self-reported grade point averages. Similar results for Latino adolescent culture brokers were found by Acoach and Webb (2004), with language brokering positively related to biculturalism, and both positively related to academic performance. In addition, Acoach and Webb found a positive relationship between culture brokering and academic self-efficacy, both of which were positively related to academic performance. Interestingly, language brokering was correlated with biculturalism among junior high students but not among high school students. This difference may relate to normal cognitive development, whereby older adolescents are more able to adopt multiple perspectives (i.e. bicultural orientation and views) than younger adolescents.

Weisskirch (2005) surveyed Latino adolescent culture brokers regarding their experiences and feelings toward language brokering. Participants were asked to rate their feelings about translating via several statements on a 4-point Likert scale. Though girls reported significantly higher positive feelings toward translating for their parents than boys, both girls and boys reported generally positive feelings, with mean scores for positive items ranging from 2.49 to 3.20. In addition, feelings toward language brokering were positively related to ethnic identity. Thus, individuals who viewed experiences of

language brokering positively developed stronger feelings about who they were as ethnic individuals.

Chao (2006) explored the consequences of language brokering on immigrant parents with a sample of Chinese, Korean, and Mexican adolescents. Results indicated that brokering fostered a greater trust and respect between adolescents and their parents, serving as an important source of support for their parents' acculturation process. However, some results indicated negative effects on adolescents' psychological adjustment, particularly for Korean adolescents.

Other detrimental aspects of culture brokering have received attention in the literature, with authors framing culture brokering (CB) as "a form of 'adultification' or 'role reversal,' in which the adolescent, by taking on CB roles, undermines the traditional power relationship between parents and children and increases parental dependence on their children" (Trickett & Jones, 2007, p. 143). In fact, in a sample of Vietnamese adolescent culture brokers, greater amounts of CB were related to higher adolescent reports of family conflict (Trickett & Jones). It should be noted, however, that in this same study greater amounts of CB also were related to greater family adaptability (degree to which family members participate in different kinds of decisions and adopt different family roles depending on the situation). In a sample of Russian adolescent culture brokers, high levels of CB were correlated to higher adolescent stress and reports of problems at home and with friends, and lower feelings of school membership (Jones & Trickett, 2005). Culture brokering also has been found to be predictive of Latino male adolescent depression (Buriel, Love, & DeMent, 2006).

Taken together, the impact of culture brokering on immigrant families appears mixed. Although there are several beneficial implications of culture brokering, there also are several potential negative outcomes. These results highlight the complex nature of the process of culture brokering and of acculturation.

Conclusion

In this literature review, the need for professional development for school counselors working with ELLs has been made clear. In particular, the need for professional development that could enhance school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs was highlighted. Experiential learning exercises, particularly simulations, were discussed as being a potential means for raising awareness and self-efficacy. In addition, the need for an instrument that specifically measures school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs was revealed. Thus, the goal of this study is to create and test an intervention aimed at stimulating participants' awareness of the experience of ELLs, specifically in relation to how cultural capital affects their school experience. Through this awareness-raising activity, the researcher hopes to raise school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs. Finally, in order to assess any change attributable to the intervention in school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs, a secondary goal of this study is to create and validate an instrument assessing school counselor self-efficacy with ELLs.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

The rationale and need for the study described in Chapter I, along with the review of pertinent literature in Chapter II, reveal an imperative to address school counselors' professional development needs regarding English Language Learners (ELLs). Specifically, to advance science in this area, there is a need for an instrument that examines school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs. Additionally, the argument was made for creative, experiential simulation experiences as a means to increase school counselors' level of self-efficacy with ELLs. Thus, this chapter will include the methodology behind creating and validating the above-mentioned instrument and simulation intervention. A detailed description of the methodological plans for the current study will be provided, including hypotheses, participants, procedures, instrumentation, and data analysis. In addition, the results of the pilot study will be reviewed, including limitations of the pilot study.

The pilot study was conducted in two phases, both of which were approved by the Institutional Review Board of The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Phase one comprised the pilot administration of the School Cultural Capital Game. The purpose of phase one was to determine any needed changes to improve the operation of the intervention. Phase two comprised the instrument development. The purpose of phase

two was to field test the SC-SELL, the WIM, and the demographic questionnaire, and to collect a sufficient amount of data to further the validation process of the SC-SELL.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Question 1: Does participation in the School Cultural Capital Game result in significant mean differences in practicing school counselors' school counseling self-efficacy with ELLs, as measured by scores on the School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs scale?

Hypothesis 1: Participation in the School Cultural Capital Game will result in significantly higher mean differences in practicing school counselors' school counseling self-efficacy with ELLs scores, in comparison with a control group.

Research Question 2: Does participation in the School Cultural Capital Game result in significant mean differences in practicing school counselors' attitudes toward immigrant students, as measured by scores on the Working with Immigrants scale?

Hypothesis 2a: Participation in the School Cultural Capital Game will result in significantly lower mean differences in practicing school counselors' assimilationist attitudes toward immigrant students scores, in comparison with a control group.

Hypothesis 2b: Participation in the School Cultural Capital Game will result in significantly higher mean differences in practicing school counselors' pluralistic attitudes toward immigrant students scores, in comparison with a control group.

Research Question 3: To what degree do practicing school counselors perceive the School Cultural Capital Game as an effective means of meeting their professional development awareness needs?

Hypothesis 3: The mean response of school counselors will be within the range of “somewhat effective” to “effective” (i.e., range 2.00 – 3.00.)

Participants

The population of interest for this study was practicing school counselors who have at least 2 years of experience as a school counselor and who do not speak a second language fluently. Participants were recruited from several schools within Guilford County, North Carolina, an ideal location for this study.

The Guilford County Schools system is the 3rd largest school district in the state and is composed of 120 schools located in both urban and rural areas (Guilford County Schools, 2009a). Situated in the Piedmont Triad area of north central North Carolina, Guilford County Schools (GCS) has experienced an influx of immigrant populations for two main reasons. First, North Carolina possesses a labor market that is highly dependent on the labor of undocumented workers (e.g., farming, manufacturing, service industry), attracting droves of Latino immigrants (Bailey, 2005). Second, the emergence of the Piedmont Triad area as a center for immigrant and refugee services created a welcoming community for newcomers (Bailey). In fact, a number of federally and locally funded organizations established their headquarters in Guilford County, including Lutheran Family Services (an affiliate of the Lutheran Immigration and Refugee Services), World Relief, Jewish Family Services, Hebrew Immigrant Aid Society, and Church World Service, as well as several organizations specifically aimed at the Latino population (e.g., Faith Action, Casa Guadalupe, and Centro de Acción Latino).

Thus, GCS is highly diverse, representing 150 languages and dialects and 142 cultural and ethnic groups (Guilford County Schools, 2009b). In fact, in the 2005-06 school year, 4085 students received ELL services in Guilford County alone (NCES, 2008). Because of the high number of ELLs in the county, GCS opened a school for newly-arrived immigrant and refugee children in grades 5 through 11 in fall 2007, where these students can be specially taught before transitioning into mainstream schools. The school, known as the Newcomers School, is a wonderful addition to GCS and it will be valuable to ascertain the impact on achievement once the school has been in operation for a longer duration. In the short-term, however, school counselors—both at the Newcomers School and at other schools—continue to feel unprepared to meet the needs of ELLs (Eubanks & Heritage, personal communication, Spring 2009). In fact, the school counselor at the Newcomers School relayed to the researcher that she had no special training to work with ELLs and has been “learning as I go...scrambling things together.” Thus, school counselors from Guilford County were an ideal population for this study and a group whose needs must be addressed.

The target sample size for this study was 30 participants, with a target of 15 for the treatment group and 15 for the control group. Due to the availability of grant monies, each participant received a \$15 gift card to Target after completion of the posttest survey. In addition, the treatment group received continuing education credits for their participation.

Procedures

Before data collection, approval for the study was sought from the Institutional Review Board at UNCG. The author had previously met with Monica Walker, Diversity Coordinator, and Susan Eubanks, Elementary School Counselor Supervisor, of GCS and obtained preliminary support for the project. Once approval was obtained from UNCG, the researcher sought and obtained approval from GCS' Research Review Committee. A description of the proposed study was given as well as the potential benefits and risks the study could pose for school counselor participants.

Once permission was granted, the researcher contacted the two directors of counseling services in GCS and asked for 15 minutes of speaking time during one of the GCS school counselors' monthly meetings to recruit participants. There were three such meetings (e.g., elementary, middle, high), with approximately 190 school counselors in total. Due to scheduling conflicts, the researcher was instead offered time at a professional development workshop at which approximately 90 GCS school counselors were in attendance. At this meeting, the researcher described the study in detail and asked for volunteers. In addition, all GCS school counselors received an invitation to participate via email. Of the individuals who volunteered, 30 were intended to be randomly selected to participate and contacted via email and/or phone. The original plan was to randomly assign individuals to a treatment or control group, though to consider availability to participate on the scheduled intervention day as part of group assignment. Changes that were made to the planned procedures are discussed in Chapter IV.

Approximately 1 week before the scheduled intervention, all participants were sent an email that has a link to the pretest survey on SurveyMonkey, an online site for electronic survey research. In the email, participants were asked to complete the survey at some point throughout the week before the day of the intervention. Each participant was given an identification code which they were asked to enter into the survey. This code allowed the author to match participants pre- and posttest surveys.

Treatment Group

As described above, treatment group participants completed the pretest survey during the week prior to the intervention. On the day of intervention, treatment group participants participated in the School Cultural Capital Game. The intervention was held at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro. Upon arrival at the location, participants were given a randomly assigned game code, explained in detail below. Once all participants arrived, the simulation was begun. The author ended the simulation after approximately 11 minutes, after at least one or two FIRs—explained below—had completed the simulation. After the simulation, the author led participants in a debriefing and discussion group. The posttest measures were sent via email to participants approximately one week after the simulation and participants were asked to complete the measures within 1 week's time in order to receive a gift card to Target. Originally, the researcher had planned to give participants 3 days to complete the posttest. This change is discussed in Chapter IV.

Control Group

As described above, control group participants completed the pretest survey during the week prior to the intervention. After being assigned to the control group, the members were asked to keep a record of any professional development activities they engaged in during the course of the study. The posttest measures were sent via email to participants approximately 1 week after the treatment group completed the simulation and participants were asked to complete the measures within 1 week's time in order to receive a gift card to Target. Included in the control group's posttest survey was a request to detail any professional development activities completed. Participants will be debriefed regarding the study and the researcher will offer control group participants the opportunity to participate in a separate administration of the intervention that will take place at a later date. This separate administration will not be part of the dissertation study.

Intervention/Treatment

School Cultural Capital Game

Simulation Background. The School Cultural Capital Game (SCCG; Paredes, 2008) is a copyrighted intervention exercise created by the researcher for this study. It was modeled after the Game of Life¹ experiential exercise, which is based on Peggy McIntosh's (1988) landmark essay "White Privilege: Unpacking the Invisible Knapsack." In the Game of Life, participants are treated stereotypically based on assigned identities (e.g., race, socioeconomic status, gender, literacy, sexual orientation, and wealth) and are given the task of successfully navigating through various societal institutions (e.g., education department, bank, housing office, employment agency, material goods store,

and department of justice). The exercise was designed to simulate the systematic injustice of today's society in the United States.

Similarly, the SCCG was designed with the aim of increasing sensitivity and insight into the experience of linguistically diverse school-aged students, namely ELLs. Specifically, the simulation is an experiential exercise that is aimed at stimulating participants' awareness of the cultural capital system that exists in schools. Within the simulation, participants are given "identities" which correspond to the way they are treated by game facilitators. Participants are treated stereotypically based on their "identity" and on the amount of cultural capital they have or are able to acquire. Participants will not know why they are being stereotyped nor will they know their identity. All that they are told is the following: "We are going to play the School Cultural Capital Game. In this room are 10 school resources that you must navigate as a student. You may be given cultural capital to help you navigate through the stations. Your goal is to be successful. Good luck."

In addition to the Game of Life, Dr. Rick Lavoie's (1989) FAT (Frustration, Anxiety, Tension) City workshop was used as a model for designing simulations. The FAT City workshop is a simulation designed to enable participants to experience the frustration, anxiety, tension, and hopelessness that children with learning disabilities face. Certain aspects of the SCCG were modeled after activities included in the FAT City workshop and the author consulted with Dr. Lavoie regarding the administration of and philosophy behind successful simulations. Dr. Lavoie stressed the importance of "changing the person coming to the table" by developing a heightened level of sensitivity

to the issue at hand (Lavoie, personal communication, September 25, 2008). In addition, Dr. Lavoie emphasized the success of simulations being a result of the created experience of exhaustion and frustration, more so than the particular simulations used: “It’s not that the simulations accurately recreate the way LD (learning disabled) kids learn. It’s that they recreate the experience of frustration LD kids go through when they learn.” Finally, Dr. Lavoie provided a reminder about the value of simulations in helping professionals better relate to the individuals they work with: “Most teachers did well in school and most enjoyed school. The kid they can most relate to is the kid who doesn’t need them.”

Based on the Game of Life, the FAT City workshop, the guides for creating simulations discussed in Chapter 2, as well as research on second language acquisition and the experience of ELLs, the SCCG was created. Below is a truncated explanation of the game. A complete guide for running the simulation, including a detailed explanation of simulation identities, stations, and materials needed for a successful administration can be obtained by contacting the author at mariaparedes4@gmail.com.

Simulation Identities. As mentioned above, participants are given “identities” which correspond to the way they are treated by game facilitators. These identities are represented by codes written on nametags the participants wear during the simulation. Only facilitators know what the code means. The four codes are as follows: FIR, CALP, BIC, and NON, each corresponding to the type of treatment received during the simulation as well as what type of cultural capital (CC) is given to them at the beginning of the simulation. If a participant figures out that they are being mistreated, the Hall Monitor labels him or her a “troublemaker” and brings the person to Detention.

The FIR code represents the typical non-ELL American student whose first and primary language is English. The game is designed to be enjoyable for them. The CALP code corresponds to ELLs who have cognitive academic language proficiency, or the proficiency needed for higher-order, problem-solving discourse. The game is designed to be somewhat enjoyable for them but also somewhat difficult and frustrating. The BIC code represents ELLs with basic interpersonal communication skills, commonly referred to as *playground communication* (Cummins, 1979, 1984). The game is designed to be frustrating and difficult for them. The NON code represents newly arrived ELLs who do not speak or understand any English. It is almost impossible for NONs to get ahead or succeed in the game.

Simulation Stations and Setup. The SCCG has 10 stations that represent various school resources students must navigate and access appropriately in order to be “successful.” These stations are Hall Monitor, Detention/Main Office, Core Classes (Math, Science, Reading), Tutor/ESL class, Home, Lunchroom, Gym Class, Nurse, School Counselor, and Graduation.

Each station requires at least one facilitator. Facilitators receive a minimum of 2 hours of training in the design and operation of the game and have prior experience or training in issues of multiculturalism and diversity. Training consists of the lead researcher walking facilitators through each station, providing an explanation, rationale, and purpose for each aspect of the game. The thoroughness of training allows facilitators to improvise appropriately as needed. In addition to the station facilitators, at least one individual serves as an observer and Lead Facilitator. This individual takes notes on the

administration of the game and, at times, may whisper suggestions to facilitators to improve the general flow of the game. This individual will signal the Detention facilitator to end the game when appropriate. This individual also conducts the focus group at the end of the game.

Though the tasks and manner of acting is spelled out for facilitators, facilitators are encouraged to improvise as they deem appropriate. For example, the Hall Monitor does not send an individual to Detention every single time a rule is broken and is encouraged to consider the pace of the game when doing so. Thus, facilitators can make slight changes in their tasks in order to speed up or slow down individual participants, as well as the game as a whole. As mentioned above, the Lead Facilitator is present during the game and observes the flow of action. At times, she may whisper instructions or guidance to facilitators in order to improve the flow of the game.

After the game has been called to an end, it is important for participants to be adequately debriefed and allowed an opportunity to share any feelings or thoughts experienced during the game. For this study, the researcher will conduct the debriefing session. Several suggested questions are included in the debriefing section of the SCCG guide for operation. These questions were designed to elicit feelings and cognitions that may arise during participation in the exercise, as well as to encourage the process of connecting the game experience to the experience of ELLs. During the debriefing session, the researcher explains various parts of the exercise, as well as basic aspects of cultural capital theory. It is encouraged for this process to be a fluid one, in which dialogue can naturally occur. This is particularly important, as each group of participants will have a

different experience and, as a result, different debriefing needs. Thus, the suggested questions are meant to be a guide, not a script. Sample questions are: How did it feel to be treated the way you were? What group do the rules benefit? How can we relate this game to the nature of schools? What was the most meaningful part of this exercise for you?

Pilot of School Cultural Capital Game

Participants were master's level counseling students in the Department of Counseling and Educational Development (CED) at The University of North Carolina at Greensboro enrolled in a required core class entitled Counseling Diverse Populations (CED 605). This class covers a variety of multicultural issues and diverse populations, and incorporates immersion and experiential activities as part of the normal course requirements.

Students were read and given an informed consent asking them to participate in a simulation that would require them to be treated as a school-aged student navigating one's way through various school resources. The informed consent indicated that the purpose of the intervention was to inform the larger study addressing the professional development needs of school counselors working with ELLs. Fourteen students volunteered to participate. The intervention was conducted 3 days later during the beginning of their regularly scheduled class time. Of the 14 students who volunteered, 12 were students in the School Counseling track and two were students in the Community Counseling track. One student had been an ELL herself, emigrating from Bosnia at the age of 10.

Students who volunteered participated in an administration of the School Cultural Capital Game, described in detail above. Twelve doctoral students volunteered to be trained and served as facilitators of the various stations. In addition, one doctoral student and one professor observed the intervention and provided the researcher with written feedback. The researcher was present, as well, making observations and taking notes during the simulation. In addition, the researcher whispered suggestions to facilitators a few times, coaching them on how to respond when they seemed stumped by a question. The researcher signaled the Detention facilitator to end the administration after approximately 18 minutes. A focus group was then conducted with the aim of debriefing participants and gathering information related to improving the design and operation of the simulation. Included in the focus group was an explanation of the concept of cultural capital as well as an explanation of how the game was set up.

Insight gained from the pilot of the intervention fell into two categories: needed changes to improve the operation of the simulation and support for the simulation as a valid and viable intervention.

In order to improve the flow of the simulation, several suggestions were made by the observers. Some suggestions were as simple as making sure to have enough writing utensils at each station, whereas others raised questions about the design of the simulation. For example, one observer noted that long lines began to form at certain stations—at times causing FIRs to be held up by NONs—and wondered if FIRs should not be held up. The observer suggested consideration of multiple facilitators for certain stations, in particular the Core Classes station. In fact, there were two facilitators present for both the

Core Classes station and Graduation station. This was due to extra substitute facilitators who had been trained and were present. After consideration of this issue, the author decided not to make any related changes for two reasons. First, as intended, FIRs were “successful” in completing the simulation significantly faster than any other group and participant reflections on the experience confirmed the intended purpose of the simulation: stimulation of participants’ awareness of the cultural capital system existing in schools. Thus, delays that FIRs might have experienced during the simulation did not obstruct them from succeeding. Second, though the simulation is set up for FIRs to succeed—paralleling the experience in most school systems—the experience of being held up by ELLs may, in fact, be a valid experience for non-ELL students, and was mentioned by some FIR participants in the focus group. This outcome has important implications for the strength of the simulation. More clearly, though the School Cultural Capital Game was created to simulate the experience of ELLs, an unintended benefit appears to be the simulation of non-ELL students’ and teachers’ experience. Other reactions by participants support this.

Participants had a lot to say about their experience during the focus group. Many voiced increased empathy for the experience of ELLs. Several commented that they felt frustrated during the exercise. Interestingly, this frustration seemed to be shared, at some level, by all four groups. NON and BIC participants talked about feeling frustrated and annoyed that others seemed to “understand what’s going on” while they did not. One student commented “I kept getting sent back and forth between tables and I just wanted to scream!” Another student talked about how she “gave up” during the simulation. In

fact, this particular student was somewhat of a “troublemaker” during the simulation, cracking jokes and choosing to remain at the Home station, chatting with the Home facilitators instead of trying to figure out how to succeed in the game. She was not the only participant who exhibited this behavior. The author asked the focus group to discuss how this behavior related to ELLs’ behavior in the normal school setting, with several students commenting that it “made sense” so many ELLs drop out of school or misbehaved. One student commented that some children misbehave to get attention they are not getting through positive behavior.

CALP and FIR participants also voiced frustration, with a few students commenting that they “felt bad” or “guilty” that they were doing well in the game while others were not. The connection was made to how non-ELL students may feel when completing class assignments more easily than an ELL student. One student stated feeling somewhat “annoyed” by other participants’ complaining. Whereas NON, BIC, and some CALP participants expressed frustration, only FIRs used the word “fun” to describe the experience. In fact, toward the end of the game, a few FIR participants who had completed the simulation and “graduated” sat on a table smiling and chatting while observing others continue to attempt the same “success.” The image of relaxed calm the FIRs exuded was in stark contrast to the image of other participants rushing from table to table with annoyed and frustrated faces.

In the design of the SCCG, the author decided against giving the instruction that CCs could not be shared. This was done intentionally to see whether participants would help those with less information available to them. Only one participant shared CC with

another participant. When asked why they did not share their CC, several commented they thought they were not supposed to. One student said “You told us we were supposed to be successful.” Others voiced agreement with this statement. Thus, the assumed understanding was that in order to be “successful” one must not share their knowledge with others. The author led the focus group in a discussion of how this related to the nature of schools, with several students commenting on schools being the product of an individualistic society.

After the pilot of the simulation, the researcher met with the student participant who was a former ELL herself: Nevena. Nevena emigrated from Bosnia with refugee status in 1995, at the age of 10. Before immigrating to Roanoke, Virginia, her family had been at a refugee camp. Nevena and her 15 year old brother spoke no English, whereas her parents spoke limited English learned several years earlier during secondary school. Her parents were college-educated but had difficulty at first getting jobs in their former professions. Nevena reported a memory of her mother crying for months. Her family had hoped to go to Sweden where they had family, but were not given a choice. Nevena talked about difficulties related to going from a “good” life to a life in which her family had to become accustomed to receiving used furniture from others. She spoke about frustrations with peers who would ask if her family had lived in the jungle or in huts when in Bosnia, stating “No one was aware of what our life was like before.”

Nevena described her early school years as an ELL as confusing and frustrating, stating “There was a lot of just sitting there. You don’t know what you’re doing. You just wait, and then one day, it dawns on you and you get it.” Nevena shared specific sources

of confusion, such as having to learn new symbols for mathematics and being told she should use the colors red and green during Christmas time, when she wanted to use other colors. She stated “I remember thinking, ‘Why can’t I color what I want?’”

By chance, Nevena had been assigned a BIC code. She reported her experience in the simulation was “really frustrating,” stating this was a way in which the simulation related to her experience as an ELL. “I didn’t know what to do or what was going on. After a while, you just give up.” In talking about how the simulation reminded her of experience as an ELL, Nevena spoke about how teachers “mean well but don’t know how to help you.” Nevena stated the simulation was a good way to show others the frustration and confusion that ELLs experience. She offered one suggestion to improve the game, which would involve NON, BIC, and CALP participants made to carry a heavy bag throughout the simulation to represent the extra strain that ELLs may be experiencing. She stated this could serve as a metaphor of how ELLs typically have so much else on their minds that others may not be aware of.

In reviewing the reactions displayed and voiced by participants, it is important to consider the context for participation. To begin with, there was no incentive for participation other than to help the researcher out. Likewise, there was no consequence for deciding to participate or not. Once deciding to participate, participants knew the entire time required would be no longer than 1 hour, including the debriefing group. Finally, participants were not asked to “act as” ELL students. These aspects highlight the power of the simulation. In just under 18 minutes, with no incentive or consequence, participants experienced feelings of frustration, anxiety, and annoyance; participants

“gave up”; and participants found alternative ways to get attention. This outcome is reminiscent of outcomes displayed in Lavoie’s (1989) FAT City Workshop video.

After engaging his participants in an exercise that caused a high level of frustration and anxiety, Dr. Lavoie commented on the way participants had begun to act in ways similar to students with learning disabilities: “You’ve learned that if you get the answer correct, I’m not going to give you any reinforcement. You’re thinking what’s the best that can happen? The best that can happen here is that I get the answer correct and he won’t say anything but the worst that can happen is that I get it wrong and he’s going to embarrass me. So I’m just going to sit here. I’ll respond if he calls on me, but there’s no way I’m going to volunteer.” In a similar way, participants in the SCCG learned quickly that they would not only receive little to no reinforcement for actions performed in the simulation; they also learned that they would be treated in a negative way and “punished” for not completing tasks “correctly.” In both cases, though participants were fully aware of the pseudo-reality of their experience, aware that there was no ultimate consequence or incentive for participation, a pattern of learned helplessness and defeat was displayed. In the case of the SCCG, in just 18 minutes, participants were able to gain an increased empathy for the experience that some ELLs might encounter when faced with a system that does not recognize or value their cultural capital.

Instrumentation

All of the following instruments described were included in the pre- and posttest surveys. In addition to the below instruments, treatment group participants were asked the following question as part of their posttest survey: How effective was the School Cultural

Capital Game in meeting your professional development awareness needs, regarding ELLs? Participants were asked to respond using the following four-point Likert scale: 1 = not at all effective, 2 = somewhat effective, 3 = effective, 4 = very effective.

Demographic Questionnaire (Appendix A)

The following demographic information were collected from participants: age; gender; race; highest degree held; year highest degree earned; part or full-time work status; current school level; years of experience working as a school counselor; previous work experience with ELLs; previous coursework or training in multicultural counseling; number of formal academic courses taken previously related to multicultural/diversity issues; formal academic training in second language acquisition, linguistics, or speech pathology; formal academic training regarding ELLs; estimated percentage of ELLS enrolled in their school; number of hours spent weekly with ELL students; most common and second most common first-language spoken by ELLs in their schools; experience in a country where English is not the main language; number of languages spoken fluently. In addition, participants were asked if they believed their professional development needs regarding ELLs were sufficiently met and to what extent they believed these needs were met. This information was collected primarily for descriptive purposes; some exploratory analyses were conducted depending on the responses.

Working with Immigrants (WIM) (Appendix B)

The Working with Immigrants (WIM; Paredes, 2009b) scale is an adapted form of the Attitudes Toward Multiculturalism (ATM) scale (Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002), an instrument based on Berry and Kalin's (1995) Multicultural Ideology and Tolerance

scales. The Multicultural Ideology scale was designed to assess support for a culturally diverse society and the Tolerance scale was designed to assess one's willingness to accept individuals or groups culturally or racially different from oneself. Cronbach alphas for the Multicultural Ideology and Tolerance scales were .80 and .69, respectively. Cronbach alphas for the ATM were not provided, but were calculated in the pilot study and are discussed below.

The ATM was originally created and used in Hebrew and focused on Israel as its general and educational context. For publication in an American journal, the authors translated the instrument items into English. For this study, the researcher adapted the translated form to a focus on the United States, replacing qualifiers such as "Israel" with "America" and "Hebrew" with "English." In addition, minor changes were made to improve the readability in English (i.e., deleting the preposition "to" and the article "the"). Finally, the researcher renamed the instrument so as not to prime participants toward the word "attitudes" and to illustrate the scale's specific focus on immigrants versus the larger issue of multiculturalism. Permission for these changes was granted by the ATM authors.

The ATM was used to examine Israeli teachers' attitudes toward multiculturalism and the extent to which their attitudes related to perceptions of the school organizational culture. Two separate groups of items were delineated, representing pluralistic and assimilationist attitudes. Through Principal Component Factor analyses conducted on both groups of items, two factor structures were revealed, separating items related to an educational context from items more focused on a general societal context. The four

resulting factors, with sample items, respectively, are as follows: Pluralistic-General (e.g., “Israeli hosts need to learn about the cultures of the immigrants”), Pluralistic-School (e.g., “Teaching styles should be adapted to the specific needs of immigrant students”), Assimilationist-General (e.g., “It is best that immigrants abandon their cultural heritage as soon as possible”), and Assimilationist-School (e.g., “The school is a central agent for turning new immigrants into Israelis”). The two pluralistic factors accounted for approximately 44% of the explained variance and the two assimilationist factors accounted for approximately 55% of the explained variance. Based on the resulting factor structures, 15 items of the original 18 were kept.

The WIM, like the ATM, utilizes a five-point Likert rating scale, ranging from “totally disagree” (1) to “totally agree” (5), with respondents asked to indicate their level of agreement with each item. The instrument yields four separate scores based on the four factors discussed above. However, the general and school items can be combined in analyses to form two distinct factors: Pluralistic and Assimilationist (Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002). For the full study, these two distinct factors will be used for analyses.

School Counselor Self-Efficacy (SCSE) (Appendix C)

The School Counselor Self-Efficacy scale (SCSE; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005) was created as the first author’s dissertation research in an effort to create a psychometrically sound instrument to examine school counselors’ general self-efficacy. Though initial analyses revealed a fairly robust five-factor structure, subsequent analyses have failed to confirm the same findings (Bodenhorn, personal communication, July 15, 2009). As a unidimensional measure, a reliability coefficient of .97 has been found

(Bodenhorn, Wolfe, & Airen, 2010), mirroring the .95 coefficient found initially (Bodenhorn & Skaggs). The five initial factors found were Personal and Social Development, Leadership and Assessment, Career and Academic Development, Collaboration, and Cultural Acceptance, reminiscent of key components of the ASCA National Model (2005).

Promising validity information was provided in the initial validation study. A correlation of .41 was found between the SCSE and the Counselor Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE; Larson et al., 1992), with participants who reported higher counseling self-efficacy scores on the COSE also reporting higher self-efficacy scores on the SCSE. In line with self-efficacy theory, SCSE scores were inversely related to State and Trait Anxiety scores, with higher self-efficacy scores corresponding to lower anxiety levels. Also in line with theory, a significant difference in SCSE scores was found between master's level school counseling students and already practicing school counselors, indicating an increase in level of self-efficacy as experience is gained. A lack of correlation was found with social desirability scores, as well.

The SCSE is a 43-item instrument, with items based on the National Standards for School Counseling (Campbell & Dahir, 1997), the program standards within school counseling used by the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP; 2001) and already established counseling self-efficacy scales for other counseling specialties. Sample items include: "Model and teach conflict resolution skills"; "Follow ethical and legal obligations designed for school counselors"; and "Deliver age-appropriate programs through which students acquire the skills needed to

investigate the world of work.” Respondents are asked to indicate their level of confidence in performing each school counseling task represented in the items. A five-point rating scale is used (1 = not confident, 2 = slightly confident, 3 = moderately confident, 4 = generally confident, 5 = highly confident).

For the purposes of this study, the researcher gained permission from the author of the SCSE to modify the rating scale and delivery of items slightly. Instead of a 5-point scale, a 4-point scale was used (1 = not at all confident, 2 = somewhat confident, 3 = confident, 4 = very confident). The rationale behind using a 4-point scale was to force an agreement or disagreement by respondent and to mirror the 4-point scale used in the SC-SELL. Additionally, “I can” was added to the beginning of each item stem. This was done so in order to be consistent with Bandura’s (2006) recommendations on creating self-efficacy scales.

School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs (SC-SELL) (Appendix D)

This copyrighted measure (Paredes, 2009a) was created for this study by the researcher. First, a review of the literature was conducted to determine if an existing self-efficacy instrument could be utilized. Instruments examined include the School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (Sutton & Fall, 1995), Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory (Larson, Suzuki, Gillespie, Potenza, Bechtel, & Toulouse, 1992), Culturally Responsive Teaching Self-Efficacy Scale (Siwatu, 2007), School Counselor Multicultural Self-Efficacy Scale (Holcomb-McCoy, Harris, Hines, & Johnston, 2008), Multicultural Counseling Competence and Training Survey-Revised (Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004), and

the School-Wide Cultural Competence Observation Checklist for School Counselors (Nelson, Bustamante, Wilson, Onwuegbuzie, 2008). Based on Bandura's (2006) assertion that self-efficacy scales must be task *and* domain specific, none of these scales were deemed appropriate. Specifically, the above scales were not used for one or more of the following reasons: items were specific to general counseling efficacy as opposed to school counselor efficacy, items were specific to teacher efficacy, items were geared toward working with diverse populations in general but not specific to ELLs, items were specific to the school atmosphere as opposed to individual students. Thus, no existing instrument was found that measured the construct of school counselors' self efficacy with ELLs.

Once it was determined necessary to create a new instrument, the author conducted a further review of the literature, which revealed eight domains related to school counselors' work with ELLs. These eight domains were as follows: Communication and Interaction with Home, Assessment, Relationship, Counseling, School Atmosphere, Awareness, Language, and Consultation/Collaboration. Within these eight domains, 72 items were derived from the literature, including several items borrowed or adapted from the various self-efficacy instruments discussed above (see Appendix E for initial item list).

Next, the author met separately with four individuals with expertise related to the construct of school counselor self-efficacy with ELLs. These experts included a currently practicing school counselor who worked exclusively with ELLs at a newcomers school, a professor in counselor education who specialized in the areas of school counseling and

immigrants and who was formerly a school counselor himself, a professor in teacher education who specialized in English as a Second Language teacher education, and a professor in counselor education whose areas of expertise included the multicultural competencies and instrument development. In addition, three of the four individuals spoke a second language fluently and were ELLs themselves.

Each expert was given the 72 items and 7 domains written on separate pieces of paper and were asked to sort the items into domains. Each was instructed to think aloud as they sorted the items and agreed to be tape-recorded during this process. In addition, the experts were asked to share any comments about readability and redundancy, as well as to share thoughts on any items they felt should be omitted or added. After each expert finished sorting items, the author engaged each in a discussion about the items and relevancy of the instrument as measuring the intended construct.

As a result of this process, three of the original items were omitted after it was determined the items described attitudes or beliefs toward ELLs rather than describing specific school counselor tasks. Seventeen items were added to address school counselor tasks experts felt were not addressed by other items. One item was split into two separate items because the original item addressed two separate tasks. One new domain was added, named Advocacy. Based on suggestions by the experts, the author renamed four of the domains to better describe their included items: Relationship became Relationship with Students, Counseling became Counseling Process, Awareness became Self-Awareness, and Language became Sensitivity to Language. (see Appendix F for full summary of changed items).

These steps resulted in an 87-item scale measuring the construct of school counselor self-efficacy with ELLs. A copy of the full copyrighted instrument can be obtained by contacting the author at mariaparedes4@gmail.com. Though domains were originally created to aid in the process of item development, they were not meant to be used as subscales. Likewise, the author did not necessarily hypothesize that each of the domains would fall out as individual and unique factors in the analysis stage. In fact, discussion with each of the expert reviewers addressed the idea that items within domains appeared to strongly relate to items in other domains. Furthermore, each reviewer had at least a few items for which they could provide clear rationales for inclusion in more than one domain.

Sample items from the final scale include: “I can explain test information to linguistically diverse parents”; “I can find ways to better educate myself about a particular ELL subgroup (e.g., Liberians, Mexicans, Vietnamese)”; “I can build a sense of trust in my linguistically different students”; and “I can collaborate with English as a Second Language teachers to address needs of ELLs.” Respondents are asked to indicate their level of confidence in completing each stated task and are encouraged to respond to each statement relative to English Language Learners, unless otherwise specified. The following 4-point Likert scale is used: 1 = not at all confident, 2 = somewhat confident, 3 = confident, 4 = very confident. The full scale can be found in Appendix D.

Pilot of SC-SELL. In order to further the validation process of the SC-SELL, a pilot administration of the instrument was conducted. The purpose of this administration was to field test the SC-SELL, the WIM, and the demographic questionnaire, and to

collect a sufficient amount of data to further the validation process of the SC-SELL. Two main research questions framed this phase of the pilot study:

Pilot Research Question 1: How reliable a measure is the SC-SELL?

Hypothesis 1a: The items of the SC-SELL will be moderately positively correlated with one another.

Hypothesis 1b: The point-biserial correlations for each item will be between .3 and .8.

Hypothesis 1c: The SC-SELL will have a high reliability coefficient.

Hypothesis 1d: The SC-SELL will be moderately correlated with the SCSE, providing support for convergent reliability.

Pilot Research Question 2: What is the factor structure of the SC-SELL?

Hypothesis 2: The SC-SELL will be unidimensional.

Participants were recruited from eight state school counseling listservs. States were chosen based on three criteria: 1) they represented one of the five regions of the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision (ACES), 2) they had an established or progressing school counseling model based on a recent national study on the current status of school counseling models (Martin, Carey, & DeCoster, 2009), 3) and they had a listserv and/or email distribution list connected to the state school counseling organization and were willing to grant permission to distribute the survey. One state, Washington, did not meet the criteria of an established or progressing school counseling model but was later targeted because the Western ACES region states of California and Arizona were not initially participating at the rate of other regions. The resulting eight

states were Arizona, Arkansas, California, Indiana, New York, South Carolina, Utah, and Washington. Organization representatives estimated membership rates as follows: Arizona-2,200, Arkansas- 1,000-1,400, California-1,500-2,000, Indiana-700, New York- 2,000-2,500, South Carolina-1,700, Utah-500-800, and Washington-1300. Thus, approximately 10,900-12,600 school counselors comprised the population sampled. It should be noted that some of the listservs surveyed were exclusively comprised of school counselors whereas others had non-school counselor members, such as licensed professional counselors, counselor educators, and graduate level school counselors-in training.

The author contacted each of the above state school counseling organizations and requested permission (Appendix G) to distribute an email inviting participants to take an online survey consisting of the SCSE, SC-SELL, WIM, and demographic questionnaire, in that order, respectively. Organization representatives indicated their support by sending an email stating their endorsement of the recruitment of organization members via email (Appendix H). Included in the recruitment email (Appendix I) sent to participating listservs was an invitation to participate as well as an incentive for participation, making participants eligible to enter a drawing for one of two \$50 Target gift cards. The email had a link to the survey on SurveyMonkey, an online site for electronic survey research. Having previously had two school counselors take the survey to estimate time needed for completion, the email indicated an estimated completion time of approximately 15-20 minutes. The first page of the survey was the informed consent (see Appendix J).

The invitation email was sent out twice to each participating listserv, approximately 2 to 3 weeks apart. The entire collection period was between mid-August to early November, with some states' collection periods beginning before others, depending upon when approval for each state was granted. An important note about the collection time is consideration of the level of busyness for school counselors depending on when the survey email was received. For example, some school counselors received the invitation email in mid-August which, for some, was before the beginning of the school year. Others might have received the invitation email after the school year had begun, a time when school counselors are often busy with scheduling and placement needs. Dependent upon when the invitation email was received, school counselors' availability or willingness to complete the survey may have differed. Likewise, it is important to note that different regions of the country begin their school year earlier or later than others, with some beginning as early as mid-August and others beginning as late as mid-September. This may have impacted the differing collection rates for states.

One of the settings on SurveyMonkey allows the researcher to decide whether a survey can be completed more than once on the same computer console. Because some school counselors may share a computer, the researcher elected to use this setting. An additional reason relates to the busyness of school counselors. It is likely that a school counselor may close an online survey before completion due to unexpected occurrences (e.g., student crisis, phone call from parent, etc.). This SurveyMonkey setting allows individuals to restart and complete the survey at a later time. A limitation of this that must be noted is that an individual who restarts the survey will have seen some of the

survey items twice. This is not of too much concern considering, the instruments are not testing for performance and school counselors' self-efficacy beliefs and attitudes toward immigrants are unlikely to change in such a short amount of time. Because the researcher set SurveyMonkey not to collect IP addresses, it is impossible to determine how many of the incomplete surveys are attributable to unique individuals or to individuals who restarted the survey later. For this reason, in addition to a high number of complete surveys collected, the researcher did not include incomplete surveys in analyses.

Eight hundred and eighteen individuals began the survey. Of these, 608 completed the survey. Six surveys were not used in analyses because the individual was not a currently practicing school counselor (e.g., current school counseling graduate student, school counselor district supervisor, post-secondary counselor). One survey was not used because the demographic responses were nonsensical. All ACES regions were represented in the sample: North Atlantic, 10.6% ($n = 64$); North Central, 15.6% ($n = 94$); Rocky Mountain, 12.6% ($n = 76$); Southern, 24.1% ($n = 145$); and Western, 36.9% ($n = 222$). Specifically, the percentages of respondents from each respective state were as follows: Arizona 14.6% ($n = 88$); Arkansas 8.8% ($n = 53$); California 6.5% ($n = 39$); Indiana 15.6% ($n = 94$); New York 10.6% ($n = 64$); South Carolina 15.3% ($n = 92$); Utah 12.6% ($n = 76$); and Washington 15.8% ($n = 95$).

Of the 601 school counselors whose responses were included in the data analysis, 85.2% ($n = 512$) were female and 14.8% ($n = 89$) were male. Eighty and one-half percent ($n = 484$) of respondents identified as Caucasian; 6.2% ($n = 37$) identified as Black or of African descent; 7% ($n = 42$) identified as Latino; 1.2% ($n = 7$) identified as Asian; 1.2%

($n = 7$) identified as Native-American; 3.2% ($n = 19$) identified as Multiracial; and .8% ($n = 5$) identified as Other. Respondents ranged in age from 24 years to 75 years ($M = 45.34$; $SD = 11.17$). Most respondents indicated their highest degree as a Master's (85.5%; $n = 514$), followed by 11.6% ($n = 70$) who also had an Education Specialist's degree. Five (.8%) respondents identified as only having a Bachelor's degree and 12 respondents (2%) reported having a doctorate degree. The number of years as a school counselor ranged from individuals who had just begun their first year as a school counselor to individuals who had worked in the field for 36 years ($M = 10.85$; $SD = 7.64$). The vast majority of respondents worked as a school counselor full-time (95.8%; $n = 576$). The distribution of school counselors among elementary, middle, and high school levels was fairly equivalent, with 31.1% ($n = 187$) in elementary, 28% ($n = 168$) in middle school, and 32.3% ($n = 194$) in high school. Fifty-two (8.7%) individuals identified as working in a multilevel school.

The majority of respondents (65.7%; $n = 395$) indicated no previous experience with ELLs. Of the 206 (34.3%) individuals who did have previous experience, many described experience serving in some form of a teacher role, including being a former ESL teacher, teaching English in a foreign country, teaching general education in a high immigration area, and serving as a tutor to ELLs. Some respondents indicated having an ESL certification or having served as a coordinator of ESL services. Other respondents described non-education former careers, such as nursing or translation, in which they regularly worked with ELL individuals.

The majority of respondents (79.9%; $n = 480$) had completed previous coursework in multicultural counseling. Ninety-two percent had taken formal coursework related to multicultural/diversity issues; 54.9% ($n = 330$) had 1-2 courses; 24.6% ($n = 148$) had 3-4 courses; and 12.1% ($n = 73$) had five or more courses. Specific to ELLs, 34.3% ($n = 206$) of respondents indicated having had formal academic training related to ELLs and 23.3% ($n = 140$) indicated having had formal academic training related to second language acquisition, linguistics, or speech pathology. As anticipated, the majority of respondents (71%; $n = 427$) did not feel their professional development needs regarding ELLs are sufficiently met.

Respondents were asked to estimate the percentage of ELLs enrolled in their schools. The largest majority (39.4%; $n = 237$) indicated having 0 - 5%, 24.1% ($n = 145$) indicated having 5 -10%, 15.1% ($n = 91$) indicated 11 - 20%, 9.8% ($n = 59$) indicated 21 - 30%, 3.3% ($n = 20$) indicated 31 - 40%, 2.5% ($n = 15$) indicated 41 - 50%, and 5.7% ($n = 34$) indicated having 51% or more. Respondents also were asked to indicate amount of time spent with ELLs, with 58.9% ($n = 354$) spending 0 - 2 hours a week, 21.6% ($n = 130$) spending 3 - 5, 7.3% ($n = 44$) spending 6 - 8, 3.7% ($n = 22$) spending 9 - 11, and 8.5% ($n = 51$) spending 12 or more hours. Thus, pretty consistently, fewer respondents indicated higher numbers of ELLs present in their schools and fewer respondents indicated spending longer amounts of time with ELLs. Of the ELLs present in their schools, respondents indicated the most common first-language being Spanish (82%, $n = 493$) and the second most common first-language being Chinese (10.6%; $n = 64$). First languages also represented included Albanian, American Sign Language, Amish German,

Apache, Arabic, Armenian, Bengali, Burmese, Cambodian, Creole, Farsi, French, German, Haitian, Hindi, Hmong, Italian, Japanese, Karen, Korean, Lao, Marshallese, Navajo, Polish, Portuguese, Punjabi, Russian, Samoan, Serbian, Somali, Tagalog, Tongan, Turkish, Ukrainian, Urdu, Vietnamese, and the following general categories of languages/dialects: African tribal, Asian-Pacific, Native American, Semitic, and South Slavic.

The majority of respondents (65.7%; $n = 395$) indicated having had experience in a country where English is not the main language, with experience varying from study abroad experiences to having been born and raised in a different country to professional working experience in another country. The majority of respondents (82.7%; $n = 497$) spoke only English fluently. Ninety-seven individuals (16.1%) spoke two languages fluently, six (1%) individuals spoke 3 languages fluently, and one (.2%) individual spoke four or more languages fluently.

Complete demographic data can be located below in Table 3.1. Additionally, a table of SC-SELL scores broken down by demographic variables can be found in Appendix K.

Table 3.1.

Demographic Information for Participants in Pilot Study

<i>N</i> = 601	<i>n</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
<u>Age</u>					
			45.34	11.17	24 - 75
<u>Sex</u>					
Female	512	85.2			
Male	89	14.8			
<u>Race/ethnicity</u>					
Asian	7	1.2			
Black or of African Descent	37	6.2			
Caucasian	484	80.5			
Latino	42	7			
Native American	7	1.2			
Multiracial	19	3.2			
Other	5	.8			
<u>Highest degree held</u>					
Bachelor's Degree	5	.8			
Master's Degree	514	85.5			
Education Specialist's Degree	70	11.6			
Doctorate Degree	12	2			
<u>Year highest degree was earned</u>					
			1998	8.74	1970 - 2009
<u>Work status</u>					
Part-time	25	4.2			
Full-time	576	95.8			
<u>Current school level</u>					
Elementary	187	31.1			
Middle	168	28			
High	194	32.3			
Multilevel	52	8.7			
<u>Years of experience</u>					
			10.85	7.64	0 - 36
<u>Previous work experience with ELLs</u>					
Yes	206	34.3			
No	395	65.7			
<u>Previous coursework in multicultural counseling</u>					
Yes	480	79.9			
No	121	20.1			

Number of formal academic courses taken related to
multicultural/diversity issues:

0	50	8.3
1-2	330	54.9
3-4	148	24.6
5+	73	12.1

Formal academic training in second language
acquisition, linguistics, or speech pathology

Yes	140	23.3
No	461	76.7

Formal academic training regarding ELLs

Yes	206	34.3
No	395	65.7

Professional development needs regarding
English Language Learners are sufficiently met

Yes	174	29
No	427	71

Estimated percentage of ELLs in school

0 - 5%	237	39.4
5 -10%	145	24.1
11-20%	91	15.1
21-30%	59	9.8
31-40%	20	3.3
41-50%	15	2.5
51 + %	34	5.7

Average weekly hours spent with ELLs

0 – 2 hours	354	58.9
3 – 5 hours	130	21.6
6 – 8 hours	44	7.3
9 – 11 hours	22	3.7
12+ hours	51	8.5

Most common first language spoken by ELLs

Spanish

Second most common first language spoken by ELLs

Chinese

Experience in country where English is not the main language

Yes	206	34.3
No	395	65.7

Languages spoken fluently

1	497	82.7
2	97	16.1
3	6	1
4+	1	.2

Pilot Study of SC-SELL Analyses

Item Analysis of SC-SELL

Once the final sample set was determined, the 87 items of the SC-SELL were entered into ItemaLikert (Ackerman, 2005), an item-analysis program designed to provide psychometric information about the quality of individual items on an instrument. All of the items on the instrument had a point biserial correlation between .3 and .8, acceptable values of discrimination (Ackerman, personal communication, Spring 2006). The point biserial is a Pearson correlation between the scored responses for an item and the total test score. Inter-item correlations are the Pearson correlations between the scored responses for each pair of items. Reliability is decreased by items that correlate negatively with other items. Inter-item correlations on the SC-SELL were all positive. In addition, standard deviations for individual items were all between .60 and 1.04, indicating variance in responses. Finally, the overall test statistics were promising, with an alpha reliability coefficient of .98, a mean of 244.05, and a standard deviation of 44.06. Thus, hypotheses 1a-c were supported.

Factor Analysis of SC-SELL

The item-analysis of the SC-SELL did not reveal a need to omit any items. Thus, all items were included in a subsequent exploratory factor analysis including all 601 respondents. A factor analysis was conducted using PASW (Version 17.0) in one stage: factor extraction. Factor rotation was not conducted as it was not revealed necessary, as explained below. As part of the first stage to determine the number of extracted factors, eigenvalues and a scree plot were obtained based on a principal component solution. Four

criteria were used to determine the number of components to possibly rotate: the “Kaiser Rule” (i.e., eigenvalues greater than the average eigenvalue or greater than 1), the scree test, a predetermined percentage of variance of 80%, and the interpretability of the factor solution (Rencher, 2002).

Although there were 11 components with eigenvalues greater than 1, the scree plot (Appendix L) suggests that a unidimensional explanation may best explain the data. This is supported by examining the explained variance. To account for 80% of the variance, a 30-factor solution would need to be supported but this would not make interpretable sense. In addition, individual factor loadings support a unidimensional solution, with items clearly loading onto the first factor. The lowest loading for an item onto the first factor was .51, with the majority of loadings between .6 and .8 (see Appendix M). A unidimensional solution only explains 43.49% of the variance, but makes the most interpretable sense.

Based on the factor analysis explained above, the SC-SELL was revealed to be a unidimensional scale, supporting hypothesis 2. The reliability coefficient for the overall scale was consistent with the results from the item-analysis, with a Cronbach’s alpha of .98.

Multiple Regression Analysis of SC-SELL

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to explore what life experience characteristics are associated with school counselor self-efficacy with ELLs. The following demographic data were regressed using the enter method: age, gender, race (categories = Asian, Black or African Descent, Caucasian, Latino, Native American,

Multiracial, Other), highest degree held (categories = Bachelor's degree, Master's Degree, Education Specialist's Degree, Doctorate Degree), year highest degree earned, part or full-time work status, current school level (categories = elementary, middle, high, multilevel), years of experience working as a school counselor, previous work experience with ELLs, previous coursework or training in multicultural counseling, number of formal academic courses taken previously related to multicultural/diversity issues, formal academic training in second language acquisition, linguistics, or speech pathology, formal academic training regarding ELLs, estimated percentage of ELLS enrolled in their school, number of hours spent weekly with ELL students, experience in a country where English is not the main language, number of languages spoken fluently, and whether ELL professional development needs are met.

An *R*-squared statistic of .27 (adjusted $R^2 = .24$) was obtained. This suggests that 27% of the variance in school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs can be accounted for by the above independent variables. An *F*-statistic of 7.82 with a significance of .00 was found. These findings suggest that the model was supported and the pilot study hypothesis 3 was supported. Several predictor variables were statistically significant at the .05 level or below, including identifying as Asian ($r = -.10$; $p = .01$); identifying as Caucasian ($r = .17$; $p = .00$); identifying as Latino ($r = -.22$; $p = .00$); identifying as Other ($r = -.07$; $p = .04$); having a Master's degree ($r = .08$; $p = .03$), having an Educational Specialist's Degree ($r = -.09$; $p = .02$), year highest degree earned ($r = .07$; $p = .04$), previous work experience with ELLs ($r = .26$; $p = .00$), previous coursework or training in multicultural counseling ($r = .16$; $p = .00$), number of formal academic courses taken

previously related to multicultural/diversity issues ($r = .27, p = .00$), formal academic training in second language acquisition, linguistics, or speech pathology ($r = .21; p = .00$), formal academic training regarding ELLs ($r = .22; p = .00$), estimated percentage of ELLS enrolled in their school ($r = .27; p = .00$), number of hours spent weekly with ELL students ($r = .33; p = .00$), experience in a country where English is not the main language ($r = .19; p = .00$), number of languages spoken fluently ($r = .28; p = .00$), and whether ELL professional development needs are met ($r = .24; p = .00$). The best single predictor was the number of hours spent weekly with ELLs. This finding may be consistent with Bandura's (1977a) explanation of performance accomplishments, in that school counselors who spend more time with ELLs may be able to accrue more mastery experiences with ELLs, which in turn may increase their level of self-efficacy with ELLs. School counselors who spend less time with ELLs may not have as many opportunities to accrue mastery experiences, and, thus, experience less opportunities to raise their level of self-efficacy with ELLs.

Analyses of WIM

In order to field test the Working with Immigrants (WIM) scale, the researcher replicated the principle component factor analyses conducted on the original Attitudes Toward Immigrants (ATI) (Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002). The nine items representing Pluralistic attitudes and the six items representing Assimilationist attitudes were entered into two separate principle component analyses, both with a varimax rotation to mirror the analyses conducted on the ATI. Also, item loadings below .35 were suppressed. Results mirrored the original findings for the ATI.

The analysis conducted on the Pluralistic attitudes resulted in a two-factor solution, which accounted for 49.88% of the explained variance (Appendix N). This is close to the 44% of variance accounted for by the original analyses conducted on the ATM. The two-factor solution was supported by the associated scree plot and by the rotated component matrix, with items clearly falling out onto one of the two factors and item-to-factor loadings mirroring the ATM analyses. One item (“Teaching styles should be adapted to the specific needs of immigrant students”) fell onto both factors, but had a higher loading for the Pluralistic-School factor, as found in the original ATM analyses. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the overall Pluralistic scale was a .78. The Cronbach’s coefficients for the resulting two factors were as follows: Pluralistic-General = .76; Pluralistic-School = .58.

The analysis conducted on the Assimilationist attitudes also resulted in a two-factor solution, accounting for 57.58% of the explained variance (Appendix O), close to the 55% of variance accounted for by the original analyses conducted on the ATM. Just as for the Pluralistic attitudes, the two-factor solution was supported by the associated scree plot and by the rotated component matrix, with items clearly falling out onto one of the two factors and item-to-factor loadings mirroring the ATM analyses. The Cronbach’s alpha coefficient for the overall Assimilationist scale was a .59. The Cronbach’s coefficients for the resulting two factors were as follows: Assimilationist-General = .72; Assimilationist-School = .34.

The results of the above analyses provide support for the factor structure suggested by Horenczyk and Tatar (2002). The reliability coefficients for the Pluralistic-

School and Assimilationist-School factors are low, however, representing a threat to internal consistency for those factors. Thus, scores obtained on these scales must be interpreted with caution.

Two separate bivariate correlations were conducted between the total scores for the SC-SELL and the Pluralistic scale, and Assimilationist scale, respectively. A .30 correlation ($R^2 = .09$) significant at the .01 level (see Cohen, 1994), was found between the pluralistic items and the SC-SELL. A -.13 correlation ($R^2 = .02$) significant at the .01 level, was found between the assimilationist items and the SC-SELL. Though the correlations found are low, these findings seem to imply that a positive relationship exists between school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs and pluralistic attitudes and a negative relationship exists between school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs and assimilationist attitudes. Specifically, it appears school counselors' with higher levels of self-efficacy with ELLs display lower assimilationist attitudes and higher pluralistic attitudes.

Analyses of SCSE

A Cronbach's alpha coefficient was computed for the SCSE instrument. Consistent with previous findings, a coefficient of .96 was found. In order to gain validity information on the SC-SELL, the total scores for the SC-SELL and SCSE were entered into a bivariate correlation. The two scales were found to be moderately correlated with each other ($r = .64$), significant at the .01 level, supporting hypothesis 1d. Thus, respondents who reported higher school counseling self-efficacy scores on the SCSE also reported higher self-efficacy scores on the SC-SELL.

Changes to Full Study

Changes made to the full study as a result of the two pilot studies fell into three categories: changes made to the intervention, changes made to instrumentation, and changes made to analysis.

As discussed above in the review of the intervention pilot study, minor changes were suggested relating to the operation of the SCCG simulation. The researcher made sure to have enough writing utensils for the full study and held the intervention in a larger physical space than for the pilot study so as to allow more room for lines to form and for participants to move about. Other suggestions related to the debriefing questions. Based on these suggestions, two questions were added: “What was the most meaningful part of this exercise for you?” and “Did you have certain expectations coming into this exercise?” Hopefully, these questions helped elicit information related to participants’ personal expectations and experiences in the simulation. Finally, the suggestion was made to videotape the simulation so as to capture the various interactions that occur during the administration. This would allow the researcher to gain a fuller picture of the effectiveness of the administration, including any areas needing change. Though the researcher hopes to employ the use of videotape for future administrations, it was decided to refrain from taping the full study intervention in order to avoid any social desirability bias that may have been induced from the knowledge participants were being videotaped.

As discussed above, the results of the instrumentation pilot study did not reveal a need to omit any items from the SC-SELL. The only change made regarding instrumentation was to add a question on the demographics questionnaire regarding

school counselors' perception of their professional development needs with ELLs. In the pilot study questionnaire, the question was phrased as follows: "Do you feel your professional development needs regarding English Language Learners are sufficiently met?" with a yes/no response format. This same question was kept on the full study questionnaire but was accompanied by the following: "To what degree do you feel your professional development needs regarding ELLs to be met?" The response format was a 4-point Likert (1= not at all met, 2 = somewhat met, 3 = sufficiently met, 4 = fully met). This purpose of this new item is twofold. First, though the researcher hopes that participation in the SCCG will meet *part* of school counselors' professional development needs regarding ELLs, she does not presume that participation will meet *all* of their needs. Second, the response format for the new item allowed the researcher to examine any quantitative change in participants' ELL professional development needs due to participation in the SCCG.

Finally, because the reliability coefficients for the ATM factors, Pluralistic-School ($r = .58$) and Assimilationist-School ($r = .34$) were so low, the researcher will use the overall factors of Pluralistic and Assimilationist to measure attitudes.

Data Analysis

After completion of the data collection period, all results were entered into PASW Statistics 17.0 for Windows (SPSS, Inc., 2009) for data analysis. Research questions, hypotheses, and analyses are located in Table 3.2. Prior to analyzing data to answer the research questions, descriptive statistics and reliability analyses were run for all variables.

Research question 1 (Does participation in the School Cultural Capital Game result in significant mean differences in practicing school counselors' school counseling self-efficacy with ELLs, as measured by scores on the School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs scale?) was analyzed using repeated measures ANOVAs with total scores for the SC-SELL serving as the dependent variable. A within subjects ANOVA examined differences between pre and posttest scores for treatment group participants and a between subjects ANOVA examined differences between treatment and control group participants.

Research question 2 (Does participation in the School Cultural Capital Game result in significant mean differences in practicing school counselors' attitudes toward immigrant students, as measured by scores on the Working with Immigrants scale?) was analyzed using repeated measures ANOVAs. Two separate analyses were conducted, one with total scores for the Pluralistic Attitudes scale of the WIM serving as the dependent variables and one with total scores for the Assimilationist Attitudes scale of the WIM as the dependent variables. For both the scales, a within subjects ANOVA examined differences between pre and posttest scores for treatment group participants and a between subjects ANOVA examined differences between treatment and control group participants.

Research question 3 (To what degree do practicing school counselors perceive the School Cultural Capital Game as an effective means of meeting their professional development awareness needs?) was analyzed through descriptive statistics. Specifically the mean, range, and standard deviation scores were examined.

Table 3.2.

Research Questions

Research Question 1: Does participation in the School Cultural Capital Game result in significant mean differences in practicing school counselors' school counseling self-efficacy with ELLs, as measured by scores on the School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs scale?		
Hypothesis	Variables	Analysis
<i>Hypothesis 1:</i> Participation in the School Cultural Capital Game will result in significantly higher mean differences in practicing school counselors' school counseling self-efficacy with ELLs scores, in comparison with a control group.	<i>Independent Variable:</i> Participation in SCCG <i>Dependent Variable:</i> School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs, as measured by the SC-SELL	Repeated Measures ANOVAs Within: Pre x Post Between: Treatment x Control
Research Question 2: Does participation in the School Cultural Capital Game result in significant mean differences in practicing school counselors' attitudes toward immigrant students, as measured by scores on the Working with Immigrants scale?		
Hypothesis	Variables	Analysis
<i>Hypothesis 2a:</i> Participation in the School Cultural Capital Game will result in significantly lower mean differences in practicing school counselors' assimilationist attitudes toward immigrant students scores, in comparison with a control group.	<i>Independent Variable:</i> Participation in SCCG <i>Dependent Variable:</i> Assimilationist Attitudes as measured by the WIM	Repeated Measures ANOVAs Within: Pre x Post Between: Treatment x Control
<i>Hypothesis 2b:</i> Participation in the School Cultural Capital Game will result in significantly higher mean differences in practicing school counselors' pluralistic attitudes toward immigrant students scores, in comparison with a control group.	<i>Independent Variable:</i> Participation in SCCG <i>Dependent Variable:</i> Pluralistic Attitudes as measured by the WIM	
Research Question 3: To what degree do practicing school counselors perceive the School Cultural Capital Game as an effective means of meeting their professional development awareness needs?		
Hypothesis	Variables	Analysis
<i>Hypothesis 3:</i> The mean response of school counselors will be within the range of "somewhat effective" to "effective" (i.e., range 2.00 – 3.00.	Perception of professional development awareness needs met, regarding ELLs	Descriptive Statistics

Pilot Study Limitations

Several limitations are important to consider related to the pilot study. First, as with any self-report data, responses may reflect the influence of social desirability, with respondents answering in a manner that is not completely honest (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999). This is particularly important to consider since one of the measures asks participants to describe their attitudes toward immigrants. With the current debate over immigration playing a major role in the political and educational arenas, respondents may feel reluctant to answer in a completely honest way. Steps were taken to minimize this bias, with confidentiality assured throughout the process.

Second, sampling issues must be considered. In the case of the pilot of the SC-SELL, only school counselors who belonged to the listserv and/or school counselor organization of the states surveyed were targeted for participation. These school counselors may share personal characteristics that could potentially influence their responses and that are different from those who do not belong to the listserv and/or organization. Likewise, only eight states participated in the survey. There may be characteristics of these eight states that could potentially influence responses. To combat this potential limitation, an effort was made to have a sample that represented each of the five ACES regions. Finally, out of those who were invited to participate, there may be characteristics of those who began and completed the survey versus those who decided not to begin or complete the survey. Again, these personal characteristics, beyond the control of the researcher, could potentially influence the responses.

Third, the time of year for the pilot study of the SC-SELL must be considered. The collection time of mid-August through late-October may have impacted the response rate, particularly dependent on when the survey email was received and the level of busyness of the school counselor. For example, some school counselors received the invitation email in mid-August which, for some, was before the beginning of the school year. Others might have received the invitation email after the school year had begun, during a time when school counselors are often busy with scheduling and placement needs. Depending upon when the invitation email was received, school counselors' availability or willingness to complete the survey may have differed. Likewise, it is important to note that different regions of the country begin their school year earlier or later than others, with some beginning as early as mid-August and others beginning as late as mid-September. This may have impacted the differing collection rates for states.

Fourth, issues related to statistical power must be considered. In the case of the pilot study of the SC-SELL, the large sample size ($n = 601$) could potentially inflate the reliability coefficient of the instrument. To examine this possibility, the author conducted split-half reliability tests to see if similar reliability coefficients would emerge. In fact, the split-half reliability tests produced a Cronbach's alpha coefficients of .97 and .97 for the two separate halves, a .93 correlation between the two forms, and .96 Guttman split-half coefficient, providing further support for the reliability of the instrument.

Finally, caution must be noted in regard to the use of simulations. As discussed in both Chapter II and in the description of the SCCG above, simulations are not intended to recreate the reality of a particular situation or experience. Simulations *cannot* replicate

reality. Rather, a simulation is intended to create the *essence* of an experience, not the details of an experience (Shirts, 2009). In the case of the SCCG, the researcher attempted to set up a symbolic world in which participants could experience part of the *essence* of being an ELL in the school system (i.e., frustration, anxiety, learned helplessness, confusion, lack of understanding, red-tape, disregard, etc.). Thus, when BIC individuals are spoken to in whispered voices during the SCCG, they are not *fully* experiencing the reality of having basic interpersonal communication skills. Rather, they are experiencing the feelings of frustration and difficulty understanding that ELLs *may* experience. In no way does the researcher presume that the SCCG can or does replicate the full experience of being an ELL. Instead, the researcher hopes that the SCCG can raise awareness, sensitivity, and insight into the experience of ELLs, specifically in regards to the cultural capital system they face within schools. Taking this into consideration, it will be important for the researcher to explain this caution to individuals after participation.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The purpose of this dissertation study was to create and test the School Cultural Capital Game as a means of addressing the professional development awareness needs of practicing school counselors regarding the ELL population, and as a means of enhancing school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs and attitudes toward immigrants. A secondary purpose that arose, due to the lack of appropriate instrumentation, was to develop and validate an instrument to assess school counselor self-efficacy with ELLs (see Chapter III). In this chapter, results of the study are presented. Demographic data describing the sample, descriptive statistics, and reliability coefficients for all the scales are provided. Results of the analyses used to test the research hypotheses are presented. Additionally, a qualitative description of the results of the administration of the SCCG is provided.

Sample

As indicated in Chapter III, the target population for this study was practicing school counselors from Guilford County Schools (GCS) who had at least 2 years experience as a school counselor and who did not speak a second language fluently. Two and one-half weeks before the intervention, all school counselors in GCS (approximately 200) received a recruitment email (see Appendix P). This email included an invitation to participate and a link to an online informed consent form on SurveyMonkey (see Appendix Q). By entering their contact information and clicking "I agree to participate,"

individuals indicated their consent. Two days after the recruitment email was sent out, the researcher recruited participants in person at the end of a professional development workshop for GCS school counselors (See Appendix R for hard copy version of informed consent). This workshop was one of several workshops in a series, of which GCS school counselors are required to attend a certain number. Approximately 90 counselors were in attendance at this workshop.

As the recruitment phase progressed and adequate numbers were not being attained, it was decided to loosen the restriction on years of experience. Thus, if an individual without the 2 years experience had expressed interest initially in the study, the researcher contacted her or him to invite them to participate. In addition, reminder emails were sent out to recruit participants and one of the directors of school counseling individually encouraged individuals to participate. Some of the individuals the director contacted were only able to agree to participate in the control group and were thus placed there.

The final sample for this study was 30 practicing school counselors. Though the researcher had intended to randomly assign participants to the treatment or control groups, the difficulties in recruitment prevented full random assignment. In addition to individuals who signed up only if they could be control group participants, a few individuals who initially indicated they were available for the scheduled intervention date later contacted the researcher stating that they were unable to attend. Furthermore, 3 individuals emailed the researcher on the day of the intervention to report they would not be able to attend and one individual, who had stated she would attend that day, did not

show that night. These four individuals still completed the posttest and were considered control group members. Two individuals contacted the researcher after the date that pretests were sent out asking to participate. Since the control group was 2 members short at the time, these individuals were allowed to participate, beginning their pretests at a later date but given the same time duration between pre and posttests. Possible reasons for the difficulties encountered during recruitment, including late changes in availability and their implications will be discussed in Chapter V. Though full random assignment or equal numbers were not achieved, the researcher did attempt to match cases based on school level, when possible.

One individual who had cancelled the day of the intervention and had not yet taken her pretest ended up showing up for the intervention that night. The researcher set her up with a laptop to take the pretest online but because she was taking longer than the anticipated time to complete the pretest and because the others treatment group members were ready, the intervention was begun without her. Though she did not participate in the simulation portion of the intervention, she arrived in time for the debriefing portion and was an active member of the discussion. She later communicated to the researcher that she still felt she got a lot out of the intervention though missing the simulation. If she had completed the pretest in time to join the simulation late, the researcher had planned to give her a FIR code, to reflect the idea that non-ELLs may still be able to “get by” even when missing instructions or coming late to things.

The researcher had originally planned to give participants 3 days to complete the posttest survey but after observing that many individuals did not complete the pretest

survey until the end of the full week given, a full week was given for completion of the posttest survey. However, it came to the researcher's attention that the week the posttest survey was due was benchmark testing time for many school counselors. Five individuals did not meet the deadline for completing the posttest survey but completed the survey within 2 days time after the deadline.

The final distribution of participants resulted in a treatment group of 11 school counselors and a control group of 19 school counselors, for a total sample of 30 participants. The full sample, as well as both groups, was relatively evenly matched in terms of individuals' identified race. Of the full sample, fourteen (46.7%) individuals identified as Black or of African descent, fifteen (50%) identified as Caucasian, and one (3.3%) individual identified as Native American. For the treatment group, five (45.5%) individuals identified as Black or of African descent, five (45.5%) individuals identified as Caucasian, and 1 (9.1%) individual identified as Native American. For the control group, nine (47.4%) individuals identified as Black or of African descent and ten (52.6%) individuals identified as Caucasian.

Only two (6.7%) individuals identified as male, though this is reflective of school counseling being a more female-dominated field. Participants ranged in age from 27 to 75 years ($M = 43.17$; $SD = 11.49$). Most participants indicated their highest degree as a master's (83.3%; $n = 25$), followed by 10% ($n = 3$) who also had an education specialist's degree, and 6.7% ($n = 2$) who also had a doctorate degree. As mentioned above, the restriction on years of experience as a school counselor was loosened during the slow recruitment phase. Only one individual of the 30 did not meet the original requirement,

having finished her master's degree in May 2009 and accrued almost a full year as a school counselor. Not including this individual, the years of experience as a school counselor ranged from 3 to 31 ($M = 11.34$; $SD = 8.72$).

All participants worked as a school counselor full-time, though 2 individuals primarily serve as directors of counseling (one as director of elementary and middle school counselors and one as director of high school counselors). Both of these individuals had worked previously as full time school counselors and concurrently still had as part of their positions the “normal” functions of school counselors, including direct contact with students. The researcher placed one of these individuals in the control and one in the treatment group, so as to be matched on this characteristic. The majority of participants were elementary school counselors ($n = 16$; 53.3%), followed by seven (23.3%) middle school counselors, and five (16.7%) high school counselors. As mentioned above, two individuals identified as multilevel, referring to their primary status as directors of counseling.

Five (16.7%) individuals reported having previous experience with ELLs. This previous experience included mental health counseling with immigrant populations, living and working in orphanages and family court in Chile, and previous school counseling, teaching, or administrative work in schools with high populations of ELL students. The majority ($n = 25$; 83.3%) of participants reported having completed previous coursework in multicultural counseling. Two of the five individuals who reported not having this coursework graduated from their master's programs before (e.g., 1973, 1978) the formation of the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related

Educational Programs (CACREP) in 1981, which later mandated the inclusion of a course in multicultural counseling. Twenty-six (83.3%) individuals had taken formal coursework related to multicultural/diversity issues; 20 (66.7%) had 1-2 courses, 5 (16.7%) had 3-4 courses, and 1 (3.3%) had 5 or more courses. Specific to ELLs, only 1 (3.3%) individual indicated having had formal academic training related to ELLs and none indicated having formal academic training related to second language acquisition, linguistics, or speech pathology.

Participants were asked to estimate the percentage of ELLs enrolled in their schools. Examining pre and post responses to this question, there were no significant differences between groups ($F(1,28) = .45, p = .51$), within control and treatment groups ($F(1,28) = 1.19, p = .28$), or for the interaction between time and group ($F(1,28) = 1.19, p = .28$); however, there were changes from pre to posttest for some individuals. For the treatment group, 2 individuals changed to one-higher categorical bracket (i.e., changing from 0 - 5% to 6 - 10% estimated number of ELLs), one individual changed to two-higher brackets (i.e., changing from 21 - 30% to 41 - 50% estimated number of ELLs), and one individual changed to one-lower bracket (i.e., changing from 6 - 10% to 0 - 5% estimated number of ELLs). One could hypothesize that these changes were related to a higher awareness of ELLs after participation in the intervention; however, there were similar changes for the control group. For the control group, 3 individuals changed to one-higher bracket and 3 individuals changed to one-lower brackets. The lack of significance found may be due to the low effect sizes (.01 - .06) and power ($\geq .1 - .18$) found. All together, 9 individuals changed estimated ELLs from pre to posttest. Again,

though this finding was not statistically significant, one could hypothesize that participation in this study as a whole, including answering instruments focused on ELLs, may have created a higher awareness of the number of ELLs at one's school. Because there were no significant differences between or within groups, the researcher will only report here the amount of ELLs estimated at posttest. See Table 4.1 for both pretest and posttest responses. Eleven individuals (36.7%) indicated having 0 – 5%, ten (33.3%) individuals indicated having 6 – 10%, five (16.7%) individuals indicated having 11 – 20%, two (6.7%) individuals reported having 21 – 30%, one (3.3%) individual indicated having 41 – 50%, and one individual (3.3%) indicated having 51% or more.

Participants also were asked to report the average number of hours spent a week with ELLs. There were no significant differences between ($F(1,28) = .21, p = .65$), within control and treatment groups ($F(1,28) = 1.62, p = .21$), or for the interaction between time and group ($F(1,28) = .12, p = .73$). For the treatment group, 1 individual changed to one-lower categorical bracket (i.e., changing from 0 – 2 hours to 3 – 5 hours spent a week with ELLs). For the control group, 1 individual changed to one-higher categorical bracket, 2 individuals changed to two-lower brackets, and 1 individual changed to one-lower bracket. The lack of significance found may be due to the low effect sizes (.02 - .04) and power ($\geq .06 - .23$) found. Though there were not significant differences found, one may hypothesize that these changes were related to a higher awareness of ELLs *or* a change made in level of interaction with ELLs after participation in the pretest survey. Because there were no significant differences between or within groups, the researcher will only report the average hours spent with ELLs reported at posttest. See Table 4.1 for both

pretest and posttest responses. Twenty-three (76.7%) individuals reported spending 0 – 2 hours a week with ELLs, one (3.3%) individual reported 3 – 5 hours, two (6.7%) individuals reported 6 – 8 hours, one (3.3%) individual reported 9 – 11 hours, and three (10%) reported spending 12 or more hours. Of the ELLs present in their schools, participants indicated the most common first-language as Spanish (76.7%; $n = 23$) and the second most common first-language as Vietnamese (16.7%; $n = 5$). Most common first-languages reported included Arabic, Burmese, Chinese, Farsi, French, Hindi, Korean, Urdu, and the following general categories of languages/dialects: African tribal and Asian-Pacific.

Nine (30%) participants reported having experience in a country where English is not the main language. Three individuals reported living and/or working in Germany related to military duty. One individual studied abroad a semester in Hong-Kong, and 1 individual worked abroad in Chile as part of a professional exchange program and traveled extensively in Spanish-speaking countries. Three individuals reported leisure travel to countries where English was not the main language, ranging from a period of 1 week to 6 weeks in duration. As mentioned earlier, participants were told they were not eligible to participate if they spoke more than one language fluently. However, 1 individual who participated reported speaking Spanish fluently on her demographic form.

Complete demographic data can be located below in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1.

Demographic Information for Participants in Full Study

<i>N</i> = 30	<i>n</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
<u>Age</u>					
			43.17	11.49	27 - 75
<u>Sex</u>					
Female	28	93.3			
Male	2	6.7			
<u>Race/ethnicity</u>					
Asian	0	0			
Black or of African Descent	14	46.7			
Caucasian	15	50			
Latino	0	0			
Native American	1	3.3			
Multiracial	0	0			
Other	0	0			
<u>Highest degree held</u>					
Bachelor's Degree	0	0			
Master's Degree	25	83.3			
Education Specialist's Degree	3	10			
Doctorate Degree	2	6.7			
<u>Year highest degree was earned</u>					
			1996	10.6	1973 -
2009					
<u>Work status</u>					
Part-time	0	0			
Full-time	30	100			
<u>Current school level</u>					
Elementary	16	53.3			
Middle	7	23.3			
High	5	16.7			
Multilevel	2	6.7			
<u>Years of experience</u>					
			11	8.77	1- 31
<u>Previous work experience with ELLs</u>					
Yes	5	16.7			
No	25	83.3			
<u>Previous coursework in multicultural counseling</u>					
Yes	25	83.3			
No	5	16.7			

Number of formal academic courses taken related to
multicultural/diversity issues:

0	4	13.3
1-2	20	66.7
3-4	5	16.7
5+	1	3.3

Formal academic training in second language
acquisition, linguistics, or speech pathology

Yes	0	0
No	30	100

Formal academic training regarding ELLs

Yes	1	3.3
No	29	96.7

Professional development needs regarding
ELLs are sufficiently met

Pre & Posttest responses were the same for all

Yes	2	6.7
No	28	93.3

Pretest--Estimated percentage of ELLs in school

0 - 5%	11	36.7
6 -10%	13	43.3
11-20%	1	3.3
21-30%	3	10
31-40%	1	3.3
41-50%	0	0
51 + %	1	3.3

Posttest--Estimated percentage of ELLs in school

0 - 5%	11	36.7
6 -10%	10	33.3
11-20%	5	16.7
21-30%	2	6.7
31-40%	0	0
41-50%	1	3.3
51 + %	1	3.3

Pretest--Average weekly hours spent with ELLs

0 – 2 hours	19	63.3
3 – 5 hours	4	13.3
6 – 8 hours	3	10
9 – 11 hours	2	6.7
12+ hours	2	6.7

<u>Posttest--Average weekly hours spent with ELLs</u>		
0 – 2 hours	23	76.7
3 – 5 hours	1	3.3
6 – 8 hours	2	6.7
9 – 11 hours	1	3.3
12+ hours	3	10
<u>Most common first language spoken by ELLs</u>		
		Spanish
<u>Second most common first language spoken by ELLs</u>		
		Vietnamese
<u>Experience in country where English is not the main language</u>		
Yes	9	30
No	21	70
<u>Languages spoken fluently</u>		
1	29	96.7
2	1	3.3
3	0	0
4+	0	0

Intervention

As mentioned above, recruitment began 2.5 weeks before the scheduled intervention. Before the intervention date was scheduled, the researcher had to confirm a date on which the 12 trained facilitators and 2 observers could be present. Based on recommendations of one of GCS' school counseling directors, a day and time was selected that would most likely work for school counselors. The intervention was held on a Thursday evening from 6:45 to 8:15 pm, though the simulation portion was not begun until 7:05 pm. Facilitators included master's and doctoral counseling students as well as three practitioners. Three of the facilitators had been participants during the pilot study and three had served as facilitators during the pilot study. The two observers included an associate professor of school counseling familiar with the SCCG and a current practitioner who was trained in the SCCG, both of whom provided the researcher with several pages of written notes and feedback. The researcher had two facilitators each at

the Core Classes and Graduation stations. The researcher was present, as well, making observations and taking notes during the simulation. As during the pilot study, the researcher whispered suggestions to facilitators at times, coaching them on how to respond when they seemed stumped by a question or encouraging them to speed up or slow down their interactions with participants.

Similar to the pilot of the SCCG, the intervention appeared to cause significant reactions right from the beginning. In fact, one of the observers commented on the “extreme silence” present at participants began milling around the center of the intervention room, appearing confused and looking at facilitators for answers. Throughout the simulation, there were nervous smiles and laughter. One CALP, after being turned away by the Gym station, tried to bribe the facilitator: “I have money (referring to cultural capital), I can bribe you!” Observers reported confusion present on the faces of BICs when facilitators didn’t match their non-verbal behavior and discontent on the faces of NONs as they were spoken to without sound. In fact, one observer commented that the 2 NON participants appeared “pissed off!” Individuals in detention appeared to have tense, nervous smiles on their faces, whereas FIRs happily “commiserated” after graduation. One observer commented that individuals who didn’t graduate looked “physically let down” when the game was called to an end.

The researcher signaled the Detention facilitator to end the administration at approximately 11 minutes. The rest of the time was devoted to the debriefing portion of the intervention. The researcher provided an explanation of the concept of cultural capital, as well as an explanation of how the SCCG was set up, and followed the debriefing

questions as outlined in the SCCG guide for operation, available from the author. Coded responses to the debriefing questions, as well as general reflections are presented at the end of this chapter.

Instrument Reliability

Reliability analyses of internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha) for all instruments were conducted on both the pretest and posttest survey responses of the 30 school counselor participants. The reliability estimates for the School Counselor Self-Efficacy (SCSE; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005) and the School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs (SC-SELL; Paredes, 2009a) were found to be within an acceptable range ($\alpha = .97, .98$) for conducting research (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999) for both the pre- and posttests. Consistent with the results from the pilot study of the SC-SELL, the reliability estimates for the two Working with Immigrants (WIM; Paredes, 2009b; adapted from Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002) scales were low to moderate ($\alpha = .49$ to $.76$), with the Pluralistic scale again producing higher reliability coefficients than the Assimilationist scale. Coefficients for both scales were higher for the posttest administration. All Cronbach's alpha coefficients for the pre- and posttest administration of the instruments can be found in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2.

Reliability Information

<i>Instruments</i>	<i>Number of Items</i>	<i>Cronbach's Alpha</i>	
		Pre	Post
School Counselor Self-Efficacy (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005)	43	.97	.97
School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs (Paredes, 2009a)	87	.98	.98
Working With Immigrants (Paredes, 2009b; adapted from Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002)			
Assimilationist Scale	6	.49	.59
Pluralistic Scale	9	.63	.76
Demographic Scale			
Pre	21	-	-
Post	22	-	-

Note: $N = 166$ for all Pretest scales and items and 167 for all Posttest scales and items; however, the final demographic question on the Posttest was different for the two groups (Control, Treatment).

Correlations between instruments also were examined. Consistent with results found in the SC-SELL pilot study, the SCSE and SC-SELL were moderately positively correlated (pretest $r = .61$; posttest $r = .76$), significant at the .01 level. Also consistent with findings from the SC-SELL pilot study, the Assimilationist and Pluralistic scales of the WIM were negatively correlated with each other (pretest $r = -.42$; posttest $r = -.39$), significant at the .05 level. Unlike results from the SC-SELL pilot study, no significant relationships were found between the SC-SELL and either of the two WIM scales.

An interesting difference in correlations among the SCSE and the Pluralistic scale from the WIM was found between the pre- and posttests. For the pretest, the SCSE was moderately correlated with the Pluralistic scale ($r = .53$), significant at the .01 level. Thus, school counselors who reported higher levels of general self-efficacy also reported a

higher level of a pluralistic view of immigrants. For the posttest, however, a correlation of .12 was found between the two, which was not significant ($p = .52$). Full correlation matrices of the instruments for both pre- and posttests results are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3.

Correlations between Scores on Instruments

Pretest Correlations

		SCSE	SC-SELL	Assimilationist	Pluralistic
SCSE	Pearson Correlation	1	.61**	-.06	.53**
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.00	.76	.00
SC-SELL	Pearson Correlation		1	.10	.20
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.59	.29
Assimilationist	Pearson Correlation			1	-.42*
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.02
Pluralistic	Pearson Correlation				1
	Sig. (2-tailed)				

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Posttest Correlations

		SCSE	SC-SELL	Assimilationist	Pluralistic
SCSE	Pearson Correlation	1	.76**	.15	.12
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.00	.44	.52
SC-SELL	Pearson Correlation		1	.15	-.11
	Sig. (2-tailed)			.42	.56
Assimilationist	Pearson Correlation			1	-.39*
	Sig. (2-tailed)				.03
Pluralistic	Pearson Correlation				1
	Sig. (2-tailed)				

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Testing of Hypotheses

Analyses of data were completed related to each of the research questions and corresponding hypotheses. Both descriptive and inferential statistics were included for each question.

Research Question 1: Does participation in the School Cultural Capital Game result in significant mean differences in practicing school counselors' school counseling self-efficacy with ELLs, as measured by scores on the School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs scale?

Hypothesis 1: Participation in the School Cultural Capital Game will result in significantly higher mean differences in practicing school counselors' school counseling self-efficacy with ELLs scores, in comparison with a control group.

A repeated measures ANOVA was used to test Hypothesis 1, with time as the within variable (Pretest, Posttest), and group as the between variable (Control, Treatment), and total scores for the SC-SELL as the dependent variable. Mean and standard deviation scores can be found in Table 4.4.

Mean scores for both groups increased from pretest to posttest and the control group had higher mean scores than the treatment group for both administrations. Consistent with the hypothesis that participation in the SCCG would result in higher mean differences in SC-SELL scores, the total mean score for treatment group members increased by 12.72 points whereas the total mean score for control group members increased by only 2.42 points. This difference in mean change, however, did not prove to be statistically significant ($F(1, 28) = .38, p = .54$). The lack of significance found may be due to the low sample sizes (control $n = 19$, treatment $n = 11$) and a very small effect size (.01) which yielded low power ($\geq .09$). Thus, there was not adequate power to detect significant results if they existed. Similarly, perhaps because of the low sample sizes, low effect sizes (.05; .02), and low power ($\geq .21; .12$), no significant effects were found for

time ($F(1, 28) = 1.38, p = .25$) or the interaction between time and group ($F(1, 28) = .64, p = .43$). Though there were no significant differences found, control group variance (pre $SD = 43.74$; post $SD = 48.01$) was higher than treatment group variance (pre $SD = 28.94$; post $SD = 28.78$) for both the pre- and posttest. A full report of results for the Repeated Measures ANOVA of the SC-SELL can be found in Table 4.4.

Table 4.4.

Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for SC-SELL

Descriptive Statistics

	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	<i>N</i>
Pre SC-SELL	Control	249.42	43.74	19
	Treatment	235.64	28.94	11
	Total	244.37	39.01	30
Post SC-SELL	Control	251.84	48.01	19
	Treatment	248.36	29.78	11
	Total	250.57	41.71	30

Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Group	1038.09	1	1038.09	.38	.54	.01	.09
Error	76973.84	28	2749.07				

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Time	799.33	1	799.33	1.38	.25	.05	.21
Time * Group	369.99	1	369.99	.64	.43	.02	.12
Error(Time)	16194.41	28	578.37				

A one-way ANCOVA on SC-SELL posttest scores was performed as an additional way of assessing the hypothesis. The posttest scores for the SC-SELL were entered as the dependent variable, the group (control, treatment) was entered as the

independent variable, and pretest scores for the SC-SELL were entered as a covariate.

The F -ratio for the main effect of group did not reach significance ($F(1,27) = .25, p = .62$); however, again, it must be noted that the effect size (.01) was very low, yielding low power ($\geq .08$). The results of this ANCOVA can be found in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5.

Results of one-way ANCOVA for Posttest SC-SELL

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Pretest SC-SELL	21574.30	1	21574.30	20.24	.00	.43	.99
Group	268.86	1	268.86	.25	.62	.01	.08
Error	28786.77	27					

Research Question 2:

Does participation in the School Cultural Capital Game result in significant mean differences in practicing school counselors' attitudes toward immigrant students, as measured by scores on the Working with Immigrants scale?

Hypothesis 2a: Participation in the School Cultural Capital Game will result in significantly lower mean differences in practicing school counselors' assimilationist attitudes toward immigrant students scores, in comparison with a control group.

A repeated measures ANOVA was used to test Hypothesis 2a, with time as the within variable (Pretest, Posttest), and group as the between variable (Control, Treatment), and total scores for the Assimilationist scale as the dependent variable. Mean and standard deviation scores can be found in Table 4.6.

It was hypothesized that participation in the SCCG would result in lower mean differences for treatment group participants than for control group participants (i.e.,

participation in SCCG would decrease individuals' assimilationist attitudes toward immigrants). The resulting mean differences, though small, were in the intended direction. The total mean score for treatment group members decreased by .36 whereas the total mean score for control group members increased by .21. This difference in mean change, however, did not prove to be statistically significant. ($F(1, 28) = .04, p = .84$). This lack of significance may be due to the low sample sizes (control $n = 19$, treatment $n = 11$) and a low effect size (.00), which yielded low power ($\geq .06$). No significant effects were found for time ($F(1, 28) = .04, p = .84$) or the interaction between time and group ($F(1, 28) = .61, p = .44$). Effect sizes and power estimates were equally low for the effect of time (effect size = .00; power $\geq .06$) and for the effect of the interaction between time and group (effect size = .02; power $\geq .12$). A full report of results for the Repeated Measures ANOVA of the Assimilationist scale can be found in Table 4.6.

Table 4.6.

Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for Assimilationist

Descriptive Statistics

	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Pre Assimilationist	Control	12.84	2.73	19
	Treatment	13.36	3.53	11
	Total	13.03	2.10	30
Post Assimilationist	Control	13.05	3.12	19
	Treatment	13.00	3.35	11
	Total	13.03	3.15	30

Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Group	.77	1	.77	.04	.84	.00	.06
Error	493.17	28	17.61				

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Source		Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Time	Sphericity Assumed	.08	1	.08	.04	.84	.00	.06
Time * Group	Sphericity Assumed	1.15	1	1.15	.61	.44	.02	.12
Error(Time)	Sphericity Assumed	52.85	28	1.89				

A one-way ANCOVA on Assimilationist posttest scores was performed as an additional way of assessing the hypothesis. The posttest scores for the Assimilationist scale were entered as the dependent variable, the group (control, treatment) was entered as the independent variable, and pretest scores for the Assimilationist scale were entered as a covariate. The *F*-ratio for the main effect of group did not reach significance ($F(1,27) = .46, p = .50$), however, again, it must be noted that the effect size (.02) was very low, yielding low power ($\geq .1$). The results of this ANCOVA can be found in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7.

Results of one-way ANCOVA for Posttest Assimilationist

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Pretest Assimilationist	187.09	1	187.09	50.59	.00	.65	1.00
Group	1.70	1	1.70	.46	.50	.02	.10
Error	99.86	27	3.70				

Hypothesis 2b: Participation in the School Cultural Capital Game will result in significantly higher mean differences in practicing school counselors' pluralistic attitudes toward immigrant students' scores, in comparison with a control group.

A repeated measures ANOVA was used to test Hypothesis 2b, with time as the within variable (Pretest, Posttest), and group as the between variable (Control, Treatment),

and total scores for the Pluralistic scale as the dependent variable. Mean and standard deviation scores can be found in Table 4.8.

It was hypothesized that participation in the SCCG would result in higher mean differences for treatment group participants than for control group participants (i.e., participation in SCCG would increase individuals' pluralistic attitudes toward immigrants). The resulting mean differences, though small, were in the intended direction. The total mean score for treatment group members increased by .73 whereas the total mean score for control group members remained exactly the same. This difference in mean change, however, did not prove to be statistically significant. ($F(1, 28) = .17, p = .68$). This lack of significance found may be due to the low sample sizes (control $n = 19$, treatment $n = 11$) and low effect size (.01), which yielded low power ($\geq .07$). No significant effects were found for time ($F(1, 28) = .28, p = .60$) or the interaction between time and group ($F(1, 28) = .28, p = .60$). Effect sizes and power estimates were equally low for the effect of time (effect size = .01; power $\geq .08$) and for the effect of the interaction between time and group (effect size = .01; power $\geq .08$). Though there were no significant differences found, control group variance (pre $SD = 4.63$; post $SD = 5.39$) was higher than treatment group variance (pre $SD = 3.94$; post $SD = 3.71$) for both the pre- and posttest. A full report of results for the Repeated Measures ANOVA of the Pluralistic scale can be found in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8.

Results of Repeated Measures ANOVA for Pluralistic

Descriptive Statistics

	Group	Mean	Std. Deviation	N
Pre Assimilationist	Control	36.79	4.63	19
	Treatment	37.09	3.94	11
	Total	36.90	4.32	30
Post Assimilationist	Control	36.79	5.39	19
	Treatment	37.82	3.71	11
	Total	37.17	4.80	30

Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Group	6.16	1	6.16	.17	.68	.01	.07
Error	1014.77	28	36.24				

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Time	1.84	1	1.84	.28	.60	.01	.08
Time * Group	1.84	1	1.84	.28	.60	.01	.08
Error(Time)	186.09	28	6.65				

A one-way ANCOVA on Pluralistic posttest scores was performed as an additional way of assessing the hypothesis. The posttest scores for the Pluralistic scale were entered as the dependent variable, the group (control, treatment) was entered as the independent variable, and pretest scores for the Pluralistic scale were entered as a covariate. The F -ratio for the main effect of group did not reach significance ($F(1,27) = .35, p = .56$), however, again, it must be noted that the effect size (.01) was very low, yielding low power ($\geq .09$). The results of this ANCOVA can be found in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9.

Results of one-way ANCOVA for Posttest Pluralistic

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	<i>df</i>	Mean Square	<i>F</i>	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Pretest Pluralistic	317.88	1	317.88	25.03	.00	.48	1.00
Group	4.43	1	4.43	.35	.56	.01	.09
Error	342.91	27	12.70				

Research Question 3: To what degree do practicing school counselors perceive the School Cultural Capital Game as an effective means of meeting their professional development awareness needs?

Hypothesis 3: The mean response of school counselors will be within the range of “somewhat effective” to “effective” (i.e., range 2.00 – 3.00.)

Descriptive statistics were used to address Hypothesis 3, which can be found in Table 4.10. The mean response of effectiveness was 3.18, with a standard deviation of .75 and range of 2. Though this does not support the explicit hypothesis that the mean response would be between 2.00 and 3.00, it supports the implicit hypothesis that the school counselor participants would perceive the SCCG an effective means of meeting their professional development awareness needs regarding ELLs. In fact, the higher than anticipated mean response found exceeded the researcher’s expectations for effectiveness of the SCCG.

Though the mean rating for effectiveness of the SCCG was high, there were no significant differences between ($F(1,28) = 1.07; p = .31$), within ($F(1,28) = .28; p = .60$) or for the interaction between time and group ($F(1,28) = .28; p = .60$) for the degree to which professional development needs regarding ELLs were met (See Appendix S for

descriptive statistics). For treatment group participants, 2 individuals changed to one-higher degree of needs met (i.e., changing from “not at all met” to “somewhat met”) and 2 individuals changed to one-lower degree of needs met (i.e., changing from “somewhat met” to “not at all met.”). To explore whether there was a relationship between treatment group ratings of effectiveness for the SCCG and degree to which professional development needs regarding ELLs were met *after* the SCCG (i.e., posttest), these two variables were entered into a Chi-square analysis. The analysis revealed no significance, $\chi^2(9, N = 11) = 2.13, p < .35$, meaning there was no relationship between the ratings of effectiveness of the SCCG and the degree to which professional development needs regarding ELLs were met *after* the SCCG (See Appendix T for cross tabulation of these variables). The lack of significance found may have been due to the low sample size ($n = 11$), which contributed to low expected frequencies in cells. According to Gravetter and Wallnau (2000), a chi-square statistic can be distorted when the expected frequency of any cell is less than 5. Because of the low sample size, the highest frequency in any cell was 3. Hypotheses regarding why individuals did not report their needs being highly met and why there wasn't much change in degree of needs met from pre- to posttest, *even when* individuals rated the SCCG as effective or very effective, will be discussed in Chapter V.

Table 4.10.

Effectiveness of the School Cultural Capital Game

N = 11

	<i>N</i>	%	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Range</i>
Not at all effective (1)	0	0			
Somewhat effective (2)	2	18.2			
Effective (3)	5	45.5			
Very effective (4)	4	36.4			
			3.18	.75	2 - 4

Observations and Debriefing of Intervention

As mentioned above, the researcher signaled the Detention facilitator to end the administration at approximately 11 minutes, after at least 2 FIR individuals had “graduated.” The rest of the time was devoted to the debriefing portion of the intervention. The researcher provided an explanation of the concept of cultural capital, as well as an explanation of how the SCCG was set up. The debriefing questions, as outlined in the SCCG guide for operation, were loosely followed, with certain questions drawing more discussion than others. Because of time constraints, not all the questions were asked. The researcher used a focus-group approach, in which questions were posed to the group as a whole, but intergroup dialogue was allowed to occur and the researcher responded to questions posed by the group, such as “What was the role of the hall monitor?” Participants were very active during the debriefing of the intervention, with each of the 11 school counselors sharing reflections at different points. As the researcher explained the setup of the SCCG, including the rules, manner in which code-types were spoken to, and built-in bias toward certain codes, participants reacted with a mixture of nervous laughter, nodding or shaking heads, and murmured comments like “Ohhh, now I

get it!” Throughout the debriefing, the researcher made connections between what participants were sharing to theoretical concepts such as cultural capital and second language acquisition, and to research on ELLs. At the end of the debriefing portion, the researcher encouraged participants to recognize what skills (capital) they already had to work with ELLs and encouraged them to recognize that increased services to ELLs can benefit the school as a whole. As the researcher made these recommendations, several participants nodded their heads in seeming agreement.

Below, written notes by the two observers are grouped based on debriefing question/prompt. Direct quotes by participants are indicated by quotations and when code type was known for a participant, it is indicated.

What obstacles did you face?

- Lack of details/information
- Lack of direction
- “Didn’t understand the signs”
- Limited resources
- Red tape
 - “Having to start over when I got to gym station.”
 - “I had to start again. Ugh!”
- “Didn’t know where to begin”
- *NON*: “Completely caught in an endless loop”
- Not knowing why they were put in detention
- The time element
- “School counselor (station) wasn’t helpful.”
 - *BIC*: “I wanted to start at the school counselor but that wasn’t helpful.”
- *CALP*: “She (school counselor station) didn’t want me to be a doctor. I wanted to be a doctor! I had to fight to be a doctor.”
- *BIC*: “When they (facilitators) told me to be successful, no one told me *how* to be successful!”
 - *BIC*: “I tried to really do it (the game), was thinking ‘tell me what to say and I’ll say it!’”

- *CALP*: “You need to be very specific” (referring to asking for things at stations)
- Detention
 - *CALP*: “That is why I stayed away from *that* (detention) table!”

How did it feel to be treated the way you were?

- “Terrible”
- “I wanted more direction!”
- *NON*: “A lot of times I felt what am I doing wrong? Am I stupid? So I’ll just go home (home station). Just wanted to give up...feels good at home.”
- *NON*: “I was okay with watching and picking up (from others) but even that was ignored and looked down. What I wasn’t okay with was doing wrong stuff or being ignored. I wanted to keep going.” “Gestures were offensive”
- *CALP*: “Felt incompetent, thought what am I doing wrong?”
- *BIC*: “I thought ‘something is wrong with me.’ ”
- *CALP*: “It was sort of funny, like why are they talking to me like this? I thought ‘something is wrong with *her* (referring to station facilitators), didn’t trust her.”
- *CALP*: I felt like I was treated like a BIC.
 - *BIC (in response)*: You were *not* treated like us! Look at what you have and look what we got. You got more. You did get it better!”
- *CALP*: “I thought I’m going to college. I didn’t trust the condescending school counselor.”

How did it feel to see others moving through the game more quickly/slower than you?

- *BIC*: “When I saw people graduating, I got real nervous. I looked at someone’s paper to get through the core classes (labeled cheater). Wanted to get through the line.”
- *CALP*: “I wanted to help others.”
- *CALP*: “Tried to connect with other people with the same label, someone who looked like me. We were hostages together.”
- *FIR*: “I just kept going, getting my certificates...I didn’t think about sharing. I realized I got it faster but I wanted to graduate.”
 - Game also simulated the experience of non-ELLs
- *CALP*: “Was thinking ‘How did they do it so fast?’”
- *BIC*: “I was so concerned about myself, I didn’t realize others were treated better.”
- *NON*: “It wasn’t as bad to see people ahead of me as it was to not be able to follow along.”

- Referring to Student-of-the-Month and individuals graduating
 - *BIC*: “It felt good and motivating to hear about student-of-the-month.”
 - *NON*: “I resented the interruption.”
 - *BIC*: “I was excited for him (*FIR*) when he got applause. Once he got it, then I thought I’ll go to him for help.”
 - After *BIC* said this, another individual stated “She’s a cheater!”
 - *CALP*: “Initially it felt like a team, but after the 2nd or 3rd time (that others were recognized), I started thinking it (game) was fixed.”
- “Noticed that no one was talking to the *NONs* and *NONs* weren’t talking to anyone else.”

How and why did you decide to share or not share your capital with others?

- *BIC*: “I asked” (for cultural capital)
- *FIR*: “I didn’t even ask if they (other code types) if they figured it out. I realized you (*BIC*) weren’t getting it, but I thought ‘this is easy for me; why aren’t they getting it?’”
- “Noticed that others had stuff I didn’t have. Didn’t know why *they* had them.”
- “We didn’t have what they had?!”
 - *NON*: “Hook me up with the rules!”
- “I ‘found’ the rules in detention.”
- *FIR*: “I ignored everyone. I focused on the other *FIR*. He was my competitor. Didn’t think about others. I notice a lot of time our students don’t talk to *ELLs*. It is what it is for *you*.”

Did it make a difference when someone helped you?

- “No one helped!”
- *NONs* sort of worked together

Were you ever frustrated to the point of giving up?

- *NON*: “I wanted to give up in detention but it helped me to figure things out by observing while I was in there.”
- When asked if they would have given up if researcher had let game go on for several more minutes, several individuals nodded their heads.
- “It was only 11 minutes?!” referring to duration of simulation
- *NON*: “A lot of times I felt what am I doing wrong? Am I stupid? So I’ll just go home (home station). Just wanted to give up...feels good at home.”

Who made up the rules to this game?

- All: “You!” with laughter

- Rules made up by others

How can we relate this game to the nature of schools?

- *FIR*: “Thinking of the NONs, I can see how some folks turn to gangs. You said you (referring to NON) didn’t get respect, and a gang can give that, where you feel respected, successful, belonging.”
- *FIR*: “Just because they (ELLs) aren’t equipped with certain resources doesn’t mean they aren’t intelligent.”
 - “Common misconceptions that they are not as intelligent. They have intelligence!”
- *CALP*: “I admire them for what they do. If someone dumped me in Spain, I couldn’t handle it.”
 - “So many parents apologize for not speaking English”
- *FIR*: “These students (ELLs) are very enthusiastic about being here. They want to learn.”
- Everyone ignores the ELLs, needing to seek them out more
- Lots of mimicry, learning by watching others
 - “Mimicry occurred between participants; just the way it happens in the schools”
- Same code-types sticking together just like students sticking together with others “like them.”
- “Someone gets labeled ‘cheater’ for milking the system.”

What was the most meaningful part of this exercise for you?

- *FIR*: “The praise! I really enjoyed that. I didn’t do anything and he just praised me. Felt good.”
- *CALP*: “It puts you in their shoes, the frustration, the inability to communicate. I can’t imagine being a second grader who can’t communicate.”
 - Feeling scared, alone, lost
- *CALP* (African-American female): “I thought about anyone that feels marginalized, extends to other minorities. I didn’t take it internally as a woman of color because its happened to me before, maybe why I didn’t take it personally.”
- “We don’t have ESL services at our school, so kids opt out. And they’re not well-received. I think this exercise I will take back to my school to the ELLs that are there, and focus on the positive.”

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

This chapter provides a discussion of the results, implications, and conclusions for this study. The following sections will be presented: summary of results, limitations of the study, integration with the literature, implications for training, and suggestions for future research.

Summary of Results

In Chapter II, school counselors' need for professional development regarding English Language Learners (ELLs) was highlighted. Specifically, the need for professional development focused on the enhancement of school counselors' self-efficacy with ELLs was discussed. The argument was made for experiential learning exercises, particularly simulations, as a potential means for raising awareness and self-efficacy. The grounding theories of cultural capital and self-efficacy were described and discussed, both as a rationale for the use of experiential learning and as a foundation for the design and development of the School Cultural Capital Game (SCCG). The SCCG was created by the researcher, for this study, with the aim of increasing sensitivity and insight into the experience of linguistically diverse school-aged students, namely ELLs. Specifically, the simulation is an experiential exercise that is aimed at stimulating participants' awareness of the cultural capital system that exists in schools. The researcher's hope was that through the simulative experience of being treated as a school-aged ELL, school

counselors' self-efficacy regarding their work with ELLs and school counselors' attitudes toward immigrants in general would be enhanced.

In order to test the effectiveness of the SCCG, a pre/post quasi-experimental study design was employed, with a control and treatment group composed of school counselors. Though the original intention was for group size to be equal, the final treatment group was composed of 11 school counselors and the control group was composed of 19 school counselors. Pretests were conducted during week one, the treatment intervention was implemented during week two, and posttests were administered during week three. Both groups took the following instruments as part of the pre- and posttest surveys: School Counselor Self-Efficacy (SCSE; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs (SC-SELL; Paredes, 2009a); Working with Immigrants (WIM; Paredes, 2009b; adapted from Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002), and a demographic questionnaire. In addition, the treatment group was asked to rate the effectiveness of the SCCG during the posttest and the control group was asked to describe any professional development activities engaged in during the collection period. The treatment group participated in an administration of the SCCG, described in Chapters III and IV. The control group was asked to keep a log of any professional development activities engaged in during the collection period. Though only two participants reported engaging in these activities, neither was related to ELLs specifically or issues of diversity generally.

Two dependent variables, with two separate scores for the second (i.e., self-efficacy with ELLs and attitudes toward immigrants [measured by pluralistic attitudes and assimilationist attitudes]), were examined in two ways. First, repeated measures

ANOVAs were conducted to test for between and within differences for the treatment and control group scores. Second, ANCOVAs were conducted to test for treatment effects on the dependent variables. Finally, descriptive statistics were used to assess the perceived effectiveness of the SCCG, as rated by the treatment participants.

Results of the study indicated that the SCCG did not have a statistically significant impact on participants' self-efficacy with ELLs, nor on their pluralistic and assimilationist attitudes. When using a basic sign-test (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2000), however, small gains on each measure were consistently noted in the intended direction. That is, where change *did* occur from pretest to posttest, the treatment group scores moved in the desired direction (i.e., increases for self-efficacy with ELLs and pluralistic attitudes, decrease for assimilationist attitudes). These desired changes for treatment group scores were in contrast to changes for the control group scores, which displayed smaller changes, lack of change, or changes in the opposite direction. Furthermore, for two of the outcome scores (self-efficacy with ELLs and pluralistic attitudes), there was higher variability for control group scores than for treatment group scores, suggesting changes observed for control group scores were more likely due to chance than changes observed for treatment group scores.

The above findings seem to indicate that the SCCG did have a slight positive impact on both of the dependent variables, though this was not borne out by statistical significance. The lack of statistical significance, however, likely was related to the low sample sizes (control $n = 19$, treatment $n = 11$) and small effect sizes, which yielded low

power for each dependent measure. Thus, there was not adequate power to detect significant results if they existed.

Perhaps the most promising outcome of this study were the ratings of effectiveness given by treatment group participants. The majority of participants rated the SCCG as “effective” ($n = 5$) or “very effective” ($n = 4$), with only 2 participants rating it as “somewhat effective” and no participants rating it as “not at all effective.” This resulted in a mean rating of 3.18 out of 4, suggesting participants perceived the SCCG as an effective means of addressing their professional development awareness needs regarding ELLs. This finding has important implications for training, which will be discussed later.

Interestingly, despite the high level of effectiveness ratings collected, there were no significant differences within treatment group scores for the degree to which professional development needs regarding ELLs were met. That is, the SCCG did not have a statistically significant impact on the degree to which professional development needs regarding ELLs were met. In fact, for 7 out of the 11 treatment group participants, there was no change from pre- to posttest in the degree of needs met. Two participants changed to one-higher degree of needs met (i.e., changing from “not at all met” to “somewhat met”) and two participants changed to one-lower degree of needs met. This finding may seem contrary when considering the high level of effectiveness treatment group participants gave the SCCG; however, there may be an alternative phenomenon at play. As described in Chapter III, the SCCG was created with the intention of raising awareness and sensitivity to the *experience of ELLs*. If successful, as the effectiveness

ratings suggest, an unintended benefit may be related to an increase in awareness of one's *professional development needs regarding ELLs*. That is, participation in the SCCG—as well as completion of the pre- and posttest surveys focused on ELLs—may have highlighted areas of professional development regarding ELLs that had not been as salient in participants' awareness previously, and thus impacted participants' rating of perceived needs met.

The awareness raising nature of the SCCG was evident in the very active participation and rich dialogue of treatment group participants during the debriefing portion of the intervention (see Chapter IV). As discussed in Chapter III regarding the pilot study of the SCCG, it is important to remember the context for participation. Though there was an overall incentive of continuing education credits (CEUs) and gift card for participation in the full study, there was no specific incentive for the intervention. That is, there was no expectation of “performance” for the treatment group members during the SCCG. Likewise, other than not receiving the CEUs and gift card, there was no consequence for deciding to participate or not. Participants knew the entire time required would be no longer than 90 minutes, including the debriefing group. Finally, participants were not asked to “act as” ELL students. Yet, in just 11 minutes, with no incentive or consequence, participants experienced feelings of frustration, anxiety, confusion, and annoyance; reported feeling “terrible,” “stupid,” “incompetent;” questioned their abilities (e.g., “...felt what am I doing wrong?” “...thought ‘something is wrong with me.’ ”); wanted to give up; grouped together with like-coded individuals; and loitered at the Home station where it “feels good.” Furthermore, participants were

able to draw from their experience in the SCCG to have increased empathy for ELLs (e.g., “I can see how some folks turn to gangs...where you feel respected, successful, belonging;” “It puts you in their shoes, the frustration, the inability to communicate. I can’t imagine being a second grader who can’t communicate.”). Finally, participants voiced their intention to translate their experience in the SCCG to practice (e.g., “...I think this exercise I will take back to my school to the ELLs that are there, and focus on the positive.”). In fact, at the conclusion of the debriefing portion, several participants stayed behind to comment on the experience, to share personal experiences related to ELLs, and to ask the researcher to bring the SCCG to their school for teachers to experience. One woman who participated, who happened to have been the one who missed the simulation portion of the SCCG (see Chapter IV), told the researcher a week later that she had already used concepts learned from the SCCG in her work with students.

Limitations of the Study

Several limitations are important to consider. First, as with any self-report data, responses may reflect the influence of social desirability, with respondents answering in a manner not completely honest (Heppner, Kivlighan, & Wampold, 1999). This is particularly important to consider since one of the measures asked participants to describe their attitudes toward immigrants. With the current debate over immigration playing a major role in the political and educational arenas, respondents may have felt reluctant to answer in a completely honest way. Steps were taken to minimize this bias, with confidentiality assured throughout the process.

Second, sampling issues must be considered. The sample of school counselors was restricted to a small geographical area: Guilford County, North Carolina. Though this area represents a particularly salient area for research on ELLs, explained in Chapter III, the focused sample will limit the generalizability of the results to other areas of the country. Of the approximately 200 school counselors invited to participate in the full study, there may be factors that differentiate those who volunteered to participate versus those who did not, including passion for the topic, time availability, and other factors the researcher may not have considered. This potential limitation is of particular salience for this study, considering the difficulties encountered during the recruitment process in securing the number of individuals needed for the study. In fact, random sampling was not possible since only 30 individuals--the minimum number needed for this study--volunteered.

Also related to recruitment difficulties is a potential limitation caused by lack of random assignment to groups and unequal group size. As explained in Chapter IV, though the researcher had intended to randomly assign an equal number of participants to the treatment and control groups, changes in the availability of participants up until the night of the intervention prevented full random assignment. The difficulties encountered during recruitment may have been related to the time of year of the study--late February through mid March--which is the beginning of a busy testing time for GCS and often can be a hectic time for GCS school counselors who typically serve as school-wide testing coordinators. The duties associated with test coordination may have influenced school counselors' willingness to volunteer. In fact, it later came to the researcher's attention that

the week the posttest survey was due was benchmark testing time for many school counselors. Anticipating recruitment difficulties, the researcher had consulted with Susan Eubanks, former Elementary School Counselor Supervisor of Guilford County Schools, regarding the best time for the intervention and chose a Thursday evening. Though this seemed the best possible time, school counselors may not have been willing to volunteer their time late in the day toward the end of work week.

The difficulties encountered during recruitment reflect a larger limitation inherent in the design logistics of the SCCG. Though the responses of participants highlight the power of SCCG in raising awareness and sensitivity to ELLs, the design of the SCCG creates difficulty in administering it. Specifically, in order to run the SCCG, at least 10 trained individuals need to be present. Likewise, in order for the disparity in treatment of different code types to be substantially salient, at least 11 individuals need to participate in the SCCG at the *same time*; no more than 20 individuals at one time is recommended. Thus, the SCCG is not an intervention that can be flexibly scheduled or rescheduled if one's availability changes. Much consideration must be placed into the coordination of individuals' schedules to pick a day and time that will most likely work. For school counselors, whose schedules and responsibilities can vary and shift widely throughout the school day, and based on school setting (e.g., elementary, middle, high), this is not an easy task. In fact, one participant told the researcher that she had set aside time to complete the posttest, "and then 5 students walked into my office one after another, in crisis. I had to come back to the survey later." These logistical difficulties inhibit the

ability to obtain large sample sizes, which relates to the next limitation of statistical power.

Issues related to statistical power must be addressed considering the low sample size. Because the sample size was so low ($n = 30$), the statistical power to detect any real changes was limited as well as the types of data analysis possible. In fact, as discussed in Chapter IV, extremely low power ($\geq .06 - .20$) was found for all ANOVAs and ANCOVAs conducted. Thus, there was not adequate power to detect significant results if they existed. Wiley (2009) discussed what he termed "the clear trade-off" between the advantage of detecting a smaller effect and the disadvantage of the time and expense--and, in the case of this study, design logistics--required related to larger sample sizes. When a sample size is small, as in this study, an experiment can only detect a large effect of the treatment. Wiley also cautioned researchers about the tradeoff between the size of an experiment and the risk of small biases, with larger samples having a higher likelihood of having small but statistically significant biases. In fact, Wiley recommended that "experiments under conditions that require more human intervention and face intrinsic difficulties in standardization, such as experiments in the field, cannot so easily justify searches for small effects in large samples" (p. 449). Thus, for an experiment using the SCCG that is entirely based on human interactions and interventions and that is designed to allow variability from administration to administration, the advantages of carrying out a solid, well-executed, organized administration may outweigh the disadvantage of not being able to detect small effects that may be present.

Though reliability coefficients for the SCSE and SC-SELL were found to be within an acceptable range for conducting research ($\alpha = .97, .98$), the reliability estimates for the two WIM scales were low to moderate ($\alpha = .49$ to $.76$). Scores obtained on these scales thus must be interpreted with caution.

Finally, the caution discussed in Chapter III regarding the use of simulations must be repeated. As discussed in both Chapter II and in the description of the SCCG above, simulations are not intended to recreate the reality of a particular situation or experience. Simulations *cannot* replicate reality. Rather, a simulation is intended to create the *essence* of an experience, not the details of an experience (Shirts, 2009). In the case of the SCCG, the researcher attempted to set up a symbolic world in which participants could experience part of the *essence* of being an ELL in the school system (i.e., frustration, anxiety, learned helplessness, confusion, lack of understanding, red-tape, disregard, etc.). Thus, when BIC individuals are spoken to in whispered voices during the SCCG, they are not *fully* experiencing the reality of having basic interpersonal communication skills. Rather, they are experiencing the feelings of frustration and difficulty understanding that ELLs *may* experience. In no way does the researcher presume that the SCCG can or does replicate the full experience of being an ELL in a school setting. Instead, the researcher hopes that the SCCG can raise awareness, sensitivity, and insight into the experience of ELLs, specifically in regards to the cultural capital system they face within schools. This caution was explained to participants during the debriefing portion of the SCCG.

Integration with Literature

Experiential Learning and Simulations

To date, this study is the first of its kind in several ways. First, though there are articles describing multicultural experiential learning exercises or simulations, the majority are conceptual or descriptive in nature (e.g., Burnham, Mantero, & Hooper, 2009; Jost, Whitfield, & Jost, 2005; Villalba & Redmond, 2008), providing the instructions for conducting the intervention and describing the merits of a particular exercise, but not testing the effectiveness of the exercise. Some researchers have obtained participant ratings of effectiveness after participation in an exercise, but did not collect pretest ratings to use as a comparison or employ the use of a control group (e.g., Junn, Morton, & Yee, 1995; Merta, Stringham, & Ponterotto, 1988). Roysircar, Gard, Hubbell, and Ortega (2005) collected and analyzed pre- and posttest ratings, as well as employed the use of consensual qualitative research (Hill, Thompson, & Williams, 1997); however, the focus of the study was on direct contact *with* ELL students, *not* on simulative experiences of being treated *as* an ELL, making it difficult to compare with this study. Similarly, other researchers have presented descriptive results of immersion experiences, but did not employ empirical methods of assessing effectiveness (e.g., Alexander, Kruczek, & Ponterotto, 2005; Hagan, 2004). Finally, no researcher has explored the impact of an experiential learning exercise or simulation on the outcome variables of school counselor self-efficacy with ELLs or attitudes toward immigrants.

The reasons why empirical methods of assessment have not been extensively used to explore multicultural experiential learning or simulation exercises may be related to

difficulties discussed in the previous Limitations section related to logistics and sample size. Though the lack of empirical methods employed in the above described studies makes comparison with this study difficult, there are still useful comparisons to be made. Specifically, the high ratings of effectiveness given and the descriptive comments made by participants in this study are similar to findings in other studies.

After participating in a role-playing exercise, the Gibberish Exercise which was designed to facilitate empathic multicultural awareness, 61 college student participants rated the general usefulness of the exercise (Junn et al., 1995). A mean rating of 4.88 ($SD = .45$) was obtained on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “very useless” (1) to “very useful” (5). Students also gave high ratings for the usefulness of the exercise in increasing their awareness about their own ethnic roots ($M = 4.29$; $SD = 1.04$). Likewise, students gave high ratings for the usefulness of the exercise in increasing their awareness of other peoples’ ethnic heritage and diversity of experiences ($M = 4.88$; $SD = .34$). These high ratings mirror high ratings obtained after participation in a culture shock simulation study conducted by Merta et al. (1988), described below.

Fifteen counseling psychology doctoral students enrolled in a special topics seminar participated in a two-part exercise designed to increase their sensitivity to cultural differences (Merta et al., 1988). The first part, named the cognitive component, involved students receiving instruction on culture shock and participating in culture assimilator activities. For the culture assimilator activities, students worked in groups to answer culture-based questions after reading vignettes detailing encounter experiences between different cultures. The second part, named the behavioral component, involved

students interacting with Arab students in an interview designed to subject the interviewee (White student) to cultural differences to which the student had to adjust or experience culture shock. The 15 students were asked to rate the value of the two components on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from “low value” (1) to “high value” (5). The cognitive component received a mean rating of 4 and the behavioral component received a mean rating of 4.31 (standard deviations not reported).

The high ratings found in the above described studies are similar to the high rating of effectiveness ($M = 3.18$ out of 4) obtained from this study’s treatment group participants. Commentary and reflections similar to those collected by treatment group participants in the debriefing portion of the SCCG were collected from participants in the Gibberish Exercise (Junn et al., 1995) and the “Monopoly” experiential exercise, described below (Jost et al., 2005).

Participants in the Gibberish Exercise were asked to provide written reflections after participation, which included the following: “...It made me feel terrible and isolated because I was the minority in the exercise. I feel that when an exercise can make one feel that way, it can be a real eye opener.” “It opened my eyes to the adversity and confusion children and people from other countries must feel when they are placed in school and have to adapt to a new culture, language, etc.” “I can now try and relate to those of different cultures and strongly sympathize.” Some participants reported that they felt “lost and frustrated” and “wanted to give up” when unable to complete the tasks included in the exercise. These reflections reflect themes present in the comments of the SCCG

participants, including feelings of frustration and incompetence, desire to give up, increased empathy, and intent to make changes in interactions with diverse individuals.

The “Monopoly” experiential exercise (Jost et al., 2005) is one in which Monopoly™ is played by the ordinary rules except that players are staggered as to when they are allowed to enter the game. By the time some participants enter the game, there are less properties and money to be acquired, which is intended to simulate racial inequities. This intention of the exercise is reflected in the title of the article: “When the rules are fair, but the game isn’t.” This title also reflects the design of the SCCG, in which the rules were the same for all participants, but not all participants were told the rules or treated equally. Reflections of participants in the “Monopoly” exercise mirrored frustrations of SCCG participants: “It was very frustrating for me...I was landing on their property and having to pay them since I couldn’t buy the first round...then I landed in jail and I had to sit there.” “When I started, these people had their houses and cars and were making fans out of their money. There was no way I could get a lead and I lost interest...then I went to jail and wanted to stay there since I could keep my money.” “It’s too hard to play catch up if you start late.” “I was beginning to compare it to what happens in my classroom. The kids who are always there in the beginning—they get the best things. And then the children who come during the year might get the messed up books or not get a book at all.” An interesting parallel between the SCCG and the “Monopoly” exercise is the occurrence of participants wanting to stay in “jail” (“Monopoly”) or at “home” (SCCG), to avoid the frustration of not being able to succeed.

ELL Professional Development for School Counselors

As mentioned in Chapter II, to date only two studies exist examining the impact of multicultural professional development on school counselors working with ELLs (e.g., McCall-Perez, 2000; Schwallie-Giddis, Anstrom, Sanchez, Sardi, & Granato, 2004). Both of the studies demonstrated the value of professional development regarding ELLs for school counselors, evidenced by academic gains made by ELLs, by knowledge and skills gains made by school counselors, by comments shared by participants regarding the utility of the programs, and by desire voiced by participants for further professional development aimed at ELL-related topics. Both programs were comprehensive in nature, involving multiple methods of learning and taking place over extended amounts of time; one program took place over the course of 9 months and the other over the course of 3.5 years. Because of the more comprehensive, long-term approach of both programs and lack of control groups used, it is difficult to fully compare the studies' outcomes to the outcomes of this study which took place over the course of 3 weeks and solely targeted participants' awareness. However, there are important comparisons and conclusions to be made.

Similar to this study, participants in the Schwallie-Giddis et al. (2004) study rated the professional development program highly, with all participants rating the program at a level four or above on a five-point scale. Out of the knowledge, skills, and awareness components targeted, the Schwallie-Giddis et al. participants felt their knowledge and skills were impacted more so than their awareness, which was confirmed by statistically significant gains in knowledge and skills from pre- to posttest, but not for awareness.

This finding highlights a possible gap in training that the SCCG may be able to fill. Similarly, though the McCall-Perez (2000) study did not specifically address whether the described professional development program was targeting knowledge, skills, or awareness, its program components appeared to be focused on skills. Thus, a unique contribution of this study to the literature is its focus on increasing *awareness* regarding the experience of ELLs, which has important implications for training.

Implications for Training

Of the 601 school counselors surveyed across several states in the pilot study of the SC-SELL, an overwhelming majority (71%, $n = 427$) reported that they did not feel their professional development needs regarding ELLs were met sufficiently. Yet, only two empirical articles addressing this need exist, to date. Clearly, there exists a gap in training and research, particularly considering the rapidly growing school-aged population of ELLs. The results of this study provide several implications for enhancing the professional development of school counselors and the training of school counseling students regarding ELLs. First and foremost, the results of the pilot study of the SC-SELL cited above confirm the need for further training regarding ELLs.

The high level of effectiveness ratings given by treatment group participants together with the active and rich dialogue during the debriefing portion of the intervention suggest the SCCG is a valuable intervention for raising awareness regarding the experience of ELLs. Though the SCCG was created as a stand-alone intervention, its awareness-raising capability might serve as a complement to a larger, more comprehensive program such as the ones described by Schwallie-Giddis et al. (2004) and

McCall-Perez (2000). In fact, the addition of the SCCG to the Schwallie-Giddis et al. study would have perhaps addressed the gap that existed regarding awareness.

One solution to the problem of securing enough trained facilitators for each administration might be the use of a train-the-trainer model, in which a first group of school counselors who participate in the SCCG as participants could then be trained to serve as facilitators for a next round of school counselor participants. In fact, one of the school counseling coordinators for GCS suggested using this model as a means for delivering the SCCG to the remaining school counselors in GCS who did not participate in this dissertation study. Thus, the treatment group participants would be asked to serve as SCCG facilitators for other school counselors in GCS. Apart from the logistical benefits of this approach might be the benefits of experiencing the SCCG from a different perspective. In fact, the three facilitators for the full study who had been participants in the pilot study administration of the SCCG commented on the usefulness of seeing the simulation “from the other side.” Thus, serving as facilitators after participating in the SCCG may provide an opportunity to absorb the experience more fully and perhaps gain insights not obtained the first time around, including the perspective of teachers working with ELLs.

The train-the-trainer model also could be utilized in a counselor education setting, whereby a class of school counselor students who participate in the simulation could serve as facilitators the next year for the subsequent class of students. Though the SCCG was designed for use with practicing school counselors, school counselors-in-training also would benefit from the activity, as evidenced by the commentary of the pilot study

student participants. The SCCG could be used in a general school counseling course or in course on multicultural counseling or diversity issues, as a complementary experiential exercise to lecture. In fact, Dickson, Jepsen, and Barbee (2008) found that counselor education students' exposure to experiential training exercises was significantly associated with increased levels of comfort with interracial contact.

Suggestions for Future Research

The school counseling literature, as well as the counseling literature at large, lacks an empirical base regarding school counselors' work with ELLs, both in terms of intentional, theory-based interventions to use *with* ELLs and in terms of effective interventions that can be used to *train* school counselors to work with ELLs. As school population demographics rapidly change, school counselors often are pressed to do more with less, which is exacerbated by pressures to meet high performance standards. Professional development interventions that can be implemented with minimal resources and time commitment but that can have a strong impact would be ideal. The SCCG potentially could serve this purpose if the logistical barriers were solved.

One solution may be the creation of a training video similar to the FAT City workshop video (Lavoie, 1989) described in Chapter II, which would show an administration of the SCCG with school counselors, including the debriefing portion and interviews with participants. If made properly, this video *of* the SCCG would serve the same purpose as participation *in* the SCCG itself: raising awareness and sensitivity to the experience of ELLs. In fact, the FAT City workshop video has been used widely over 2 decades in the same way to raise awareness and sensitivity to the experience of

individuals with learning disabilities. Once created, the video would eliminate the logistical difficulties of scheduling; school counselors could watch the video on their own time. This also would allow the value of the SCCG to be disseminated to a much larger audience. Research testing the effectiveness of the video, as compared to participation *in* the SCCG, will be important as the viewing may not induce the same level of awareness-raising that participation does.

When testing the impact of the SCCG in the future, it might be best to engage in a longer-term study in order to assess change that may develop over time. That is, treatment group participants may have displayed larger changes in their school counseling self-efficacy with ELLs and attitudes toward immigrants if assessed a month or two after participation in the SCCG, after having a longer time to absorb and incorporate the experience.

Because of the low reliability estimates found for the WIM scales, further instrument development is needed. A return to the individual items is necessary to evaluate whether the items reflect the larger constructs of both scales. It also may be beneficial to explore whether the two separate scales--Assimilationist and Pluralistic--should remain two separate scales or whether combining them would be more theoretically sound. That is, exploration is needed regarding whether the constructs are two separate and unique constructs or whether they are opposite poles of the same continuum. Whether the WIM instrument can be salvaged or whether an entirely new instrument needs to be created, there must be further research to create a sound instrument that assesses the construct of school counselors' attitudes toward immigrants,

as no such instrument exists other than the WIM. As discussed in Chapter II, several instruments measuring individuals' attitudes toward immigrants and immigration do exist and some of the measures have been used with school counselors. None of the existing measures, however, specifically examines immigrant school-aged students and their families, other than the Attitudes Toward Multiculturalism measure (Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002), after which the WIM was adapted.

Replications of this study would be important to confirm and better clarify the findings. In replicating the study, it may be helpful to employ different comparison groups. For example, a treatment group of participants engaging in the SCCG might be compared to a treatment group of participants engaged in an ELL professional development activity focused on knowledge-building and/or skill-building. An alternative approach may be to have individuals participate in all three types of professional development and rate them separately as to their effectiveness and impact on various outcome measures (e.g., self-efficacy with ELLs, attitudes toward immigrants, degree to which ELL professional development needs are met). This could be done all together with a simple pre-post design, or could be done sequentially with individuals completing measures in an ABAB design.

Finally, replications of this study using larger sample sizes will allow the researcher to gather clearer statistical findings. Specifically, if there *is* a statistically significant impact of the SCCG, larger sample sizes will provide the power needed to detect the impact. Based on the discussion in the Limitations section on logistical difficulties, the researcher will need to be creative in obtaining larger sample sizes.

Several administrations of the SCCG may be needed to get adequate numbers, which likely will mean inherent limitations in the differences that may be present from administration to administration. As much as possible, standardization of administrations will be important.

References

- Abedi, J. (2006). Psychometric issues in the ELL assessment and special education eligibility. *Teachers College Board, 108*, 2282-2303.
- Abedi, J., Hofstetter, C. H., & Lord, C. (2004). Assessment accommodations for English language learners: Implications for policy-based empirical research. *Review of Educational Research, 74*, 1-28.
- Acevedo, M. C., Reyes, C. J., Annett, R. D., & Lopez, E. M. (2003). Assessing language competence: Guidelines for assisting persons with limited English proficiency in research and clinical settings. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 31*, 192-204.
- Ackerman, T. (2005). *ItemalLikert* [computer software]. North Carolina.
- Acoach, C. L., & Webb, L. M. (2004). The influence of language brokering on Hispanic teenagers' acculturation, academic performance, and nonverbal decoding skills: A preliminary study. *The Howard Journal of Communications, 15*, 1-19.
- Alexander, C. M., Kruczek, T., & Ponterotto, J. G. (2005). Building multicultural competencies in school counselor trainees: An international immersion experience. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 44*, 255-266.
- Arfánarromo, A. (2001). Toward a psychosocial and sociocultural understanding of achievement motivation among Latino gang members in U.S. schools. *Journal of Instructional Psychology, 28*, 123-136.

- Akrami, N., Ekehammar, B., & Araya, T. (2000). Classical and modern racial prejudice: A study of attitudes toward immigrants in Sweden. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 30*, 521-532.
- Albert, K. A., & Luzzo, D. A. (1999). The role of perceived barriers in career development: A social cognitive perspective. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 77*, 431-436.
- Ali, S. R., McWhirter, E. H., & Chronister, K. M. (2005). Self efficacy and vocational outcome expectations for lower SES adolescents: A pilot study. *Journal of Career Assessment, 13*, 40-58.
- Altarriba, J. (2003). Does cariño equal "liking"? A theoretical approach to conceptual nonequivalence between languages. *International Journal of Bilingualism, 7*, 305-322.
- American School Counselor Association. (2005). *American School Counselor Association national model: A framework for school counseling programs*. Alexandria, VA: Author.
- American School Counselor Association. (Adopted 1988; revised 1993, 1999, 2004, 2009). *The professional school counselor and cultural diversity*. [Position statement]. Alexandria, VA: Author. Retrieved September 12, 2009, from <http://www.schoolcounselor.org/content.asp?contentid=178>
- Avilés, R. M. D., Guerrero, M. P., Barajas Howarth, H., & Thomas, G. (1999). Perceptions of Chicano/Latino students who have dropped out of school. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 77*, 465-473.

- Bailey, R. (2005). New immigrant communities in the North Carolina Piedmont Triad: Integration issues and challenges. In E. M. Godziak & S. F. Martin (Eds.), *Beyond the gateway: Immigrants in a changing America* (pp. 3-17). USA: Lexington Books.
- Bandura, A. (1977a). Self-efficacy: Toward a unifying theory of behavioral change. *Psychological Review*, *84*, 191-215.
- Bandura, A. (1977b). *Social learning theory*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1986). *Social foundations of thought and action*. Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist*, *28*, 117-148.
- Bandura, A. (1994). Self-efficacy. In V. S. Ramachaudran (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of human behavior* (Vol. 4, pp. 71-81). New York: Academic Press. (Reprinted in H. Friedman [Ed.], *Encyclopedia of mental health*. San Diego: Academic Press, 1998).
- Bandura, A. (2006). Guide for constructing self-efficacy scales. In F. Pajares, & T. Urdan, (Eds.), *Self-efficacy beliefs of adolescents* (pp. 307-337). Information Age Publishing, CT.
- Barnes, P. E., Friehe, M. J., & Radd, T. R. (2003). Collaboration between speech-language pathologists and school counselors. *Communication Disorders Quarterly*, *24*, 137-142.

- Baruth, L. G., & Manning, M. L. (1992). Understanding and counseling Hispanic American children. *Elementary School Guidance & Counseling, 27*, 113-122.
- Bernaus, M., & Gardner, R. C. (2008). Teacher motivation strategies, student perceptions, student motivation, and English achievement. *The Modern Language Journal, 92*, 387-401.
- Berry, J. W. (2006). Mutual attitudes among immigrants and ethnocultural groups in Canada. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 30*, 719-734.
- Berry, J. W., & Kalin, R. (1995). Multicultural and ethnic attitudes in Canada: An overview of the 1991 national survey. *Canadian Journal of Behavioural Science, 27*, 301-320.
- Bodenhorn, N., & Skaggs, G. (2005). Development of the school counselor self-efficacy scale. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 38*, 14-28.
- Bodenhorn, N. Wolfe, E. W., & Airen, O. E. (2010). School counselor program choice and self-efficacy: Relationship to achievement gap and equity. *Professional School Counseling, 13*, 165-174.
- Bourdieu, P. (1986). The forms of capital. In J. G. Richardson (Ed.), *Handbook of theory and research for the sociology of education*. (pp. 241-258). Greenwood Press, NY.
- Bourdieu, P., & Passeron, J-C. (1977). *Reproduction in education, society and culture*. London: Sage.
- Bump, M., N., Lowell, B. L., & Pettersen, S. (2005). The growth and population characteristics of immigrants and minorities in America's new settlement states.

- In E. M. Godziak & S. F. Martin (Eds.), *Beyond the gateway: Immigrants in a changing America* (pp. 19-53). USA: Lexington Books.
- Buriel, R., Love, J. A., & DeMent, T. L. (2006). The relation of language brokering to depression and parent-child bonding among Latino adolescents. In M. H. Bornstein & L. R. Cote (Eds.), *Acculturation and parent-child relationship: Measurement and development* (pp. 249-270). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Buriel, R., Perez, W., DeMent, T. L., Chavez, D. V., & Moran, V. R. (1998). The relationship of language brokering to academic performance, biculturalism, and self-efficacy among Latino adolescents. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *20*, 283-295.
- Burnham, J. J., Mantero, M., & Hooper, L. M. (2009). Experiential training: Connecting school counselors-in-training, English as a second language (ESL) teachers, and ESL students. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, *37*, 2-14.
- Campbell, C. A., & Dahir, C. A. (1997). *Sharing the visions: The national standards for school counseling programs*. Alexandria, VA: American School Counselor Association.
- Carey, J. C., & Reinat, M. (1990). School counselors' perceptions of training needs in multicultural counseling. *Counselor Education & Supervision*, *29*, 155-168.
- Carranza, E. L. (1992). Scale for the measurement of attitudes toward Chicanos: A research note. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences*, *14*, 277-285.
- Cashwell, T. H., & Dooley, K. (2001). The impact of supervision on counselor self-efficacy. *Clinical Supervisor*, *20*, 39-47.

- Clemente, R., & Collison, B. B. (2000). The relationship among counselors, ESL teachers, and students. *Professional School Counseling, 3*, 339-348.
- Chao, R. K. (2006). The prevalence and consequences of adolescents' language brokering for their parents. In M. H. Bornstein & L. R. Cote (Eds.), *Acculturation and parent-child relationship: Measurement and development* (pp. 271-296). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Cohen, J. (1994). The earth is round. ($p < .05$). *American Psychologist, 49*, 997-1003.
- Constantine, M. G., & Gushue, G. V. (2003). School counselors' ethnic tolerance attitudes and racism attitudes as predictors of their multicultural case conceptualization of an immigrant student. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 81*, 185-190.
- Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs. (2001). *2001 standards*. Alexandria, VA: Author.
- Cowan, G., Martinez, L., & Mendiola, S. (1997). Predictors of attitudes toward illegal Latino immigrants. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 19*, 403-415.
- Cranston-Gingras, A., & Anderson, D. J. (1990). Reducing the migrant students dropout rate: The role of school counselors. *School Counselor, 38*, 95-104.
- Crutchfield, L. B., & Borders, L. D. (1997). Impact of two clinical peer supervision models on practicing school counselors. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 75*, 219-230.

- Comanaru, R. & Noels, K. A. (2009). Self-determination, motivation, and the learning of Chinese as a heritage language. *The Canadian Modern Language Review*, 66, 131-158.
- Cummins, J. (1984). *Bilingualism and special education: Issues in assessment and pedagogy*. Clevedon, England: Multilingual Matters.
- Cummins, J. (1979). Cognitive/academic language proficiency, linguistic interdependence, the optimum age question and some other matters. *Working Papers on Bilingualism*, No. 19, 121-129.
- D'Andrea, M., Daniels, J., & Heck, R. (1991). Evaluating the impact of multicultural counseling training. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 70, 143-150.
- Davison Avilés, R. M., Guerrero, M. P., Barajas Howarth, H., & Thomas, G. (1999). Perceptions of Chicano/Latino students who have dropped out of school. *Journal of Counseling & Development*, 77, 465-473.
- Dickson, G. L., Jepsen, D. A., & Barbee, P.W. (2008). Exploring the relationships among multicultural training experiences and attitudes toward diversity among counseling students. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 36, 113-126.
- Dörnyei, Z., & Ottó, I. (1998). Motivation in action: A process model of L2 motivation. *Working Papers in Applied Linguistics*, 4, 43-69.
- Dumais, S. A. (2002). Cultural capital, gender, and school success: The role of habitus. *Sociology of Education*, 75, 44-68.

- Easton, C., Martin, W. E., & Wilson, S. (2008). Emotional intelligence and implications for counseling self-efficacy: Phase II. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 47*, 218-232.
- Fauth, J., & Hayes, J. A. (2006). Counselors' stress appraisals as predictors of countertransference behavior with male clients. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 84*, 430-439.
- Feliciano, C. (2001). The benefits of biculturalism: Exposure to immigrant culture and dropping out of school among Asian and Latino youths. *Social Science Quarterly, 82*, 865-879.
- Fry, R. (2007). *How far behind in math and reading are English language learners?* Washington, DC: Pew Hispanic Center.
- Genesee, F., Lindholm-Leary, K., Saunders, W., & Christian, D. (2005). English language learners in U.S. schools: An overview of research findings. *Journal of Education For Students Places At Risk, 10*, 363-385.
- Gibson, S., & Dembo, M. (1984). Teacher efficacy: A construct validation. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 76*, 569-582.
- Godziak, E. M. (2005). New immigrant communities and integration. In E. M. Godziak & S. F. Martin (Eds.), *Beyond the gateway: Immigrants in a changing America* (pp. 3-17). Lanham, MD: Lexington Books.
- Goh, M., Wahl, K. H., McDonald, J. K., Brissett, A. A., & Yoon, E. (2007). Working with immigrant students in schools: The role of school counselors in building

- cross-cultural bridges. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling & Development*, 35, 66-79.
- Goncalves, O. F., Ivey, A. E., & Langdell, A. (1988). The multilevel conception of intentionality: Implications for counselor training. *Counseling Psychology*, 1, 377-386.
- Gravetter, F. J., & Wallnau, L. B. (2000). *Statistics for the behavioral sciences* (5th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Guilford County Schools (2009a, Oct 8). About GCS. Retrieved from <http://www.gcsnc.com/community2/aboutGCS%20rev.htm>
- Guilford County Schools (2009b, Oct 8). GCS by the numbers. Retrieved from <http://www.gcsnc.com/community2/aboutGCS2.htm>
- Gysbers, N. C., & Henderson, P. (2000). *Developing and managing your school guidance program* (3rd ed.). Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.
- Hagan, M. (2004). Acculturation and an ESL program: A service learning project. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 32, 443-448.
- Hamann, E. T., Wortham, S., & Murillo, E. G. (2002). Education and policy in the new Latino diaspora. In S. Wortham, E. G. Murillo, & E. T. Hamann (Eds.), *Education in the new Latino diaspora* (pp. 1-16). Westport, CT: Ablex.
- Heppner, P. P., Kivlighan, D. M., & Wampold, B. E. (1999). *Research design in counseling* (2nd ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth.
- Hill, C. E., Thompson, B. J., & Williams, E. N. (1997). A guide to conducting consensual qualitative research. *The Counseling Psychologist*, 25, 517-572.

- Holcomb-McCoy, C. C. (2001). Exploring the self-perceived multicultural counseling competence of elementary school counselors. *Professional School Counseling, 4*, 195-201.
- Holcomb-McCoy, C. C. (2004). Assessing the multicultural competence of school counselors: A checklist. *Professional School Counseling, 7*, 178-186.
- Holcomb-McCoy, C. C., & DeVines, N. (2004). Exploring school counselor multicultural competence: A multidimensional concept. *Measurement and Evaluation in Counseling and Development, 37*, 154-162.
- Holcomb-McCoy, C. C., Harris, P., Hines, E. M., & Johnston, G. (2008). School counselors' multicultural self-efficacy: A preliminary investigation. *Professional School Counseling, 11*, 166-178.
- Holcomb-McCoy, C. C., & Myers, J. E. (1999). Multicultural competence and counselor training: A national survey. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 77*, 294-302.
- Horenczyk, G., & Tatar, M. (2002). Teachers' attitudes toward multiculturalism and their perceptions of the school organizational culture. *Teaching and Teacher Education, 18*, 435-445.
- Institute for Simulation & Training. (nd). *About IST*. Retrieved September 12, 2009 from <http://www.ist.ucf.edu/background.htm>
- Israelashvili, M., & Peretz, S. (2007). An examination of a counsellor self-efficacy scale (COSE) using an Israeli sample. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counselling, 29*, 1-9.

- Jacobson, C. K. (1985). Resistance to affirmative action: Self-interest or racism? *Journal of Conflict Resolution*, 29, 306-329.
- Jones, C. J., & Trickett, E. J. (2005). Immigrant adolescents behaving as culture brokers: A study of families from the former Soviet Union. *The Journal of Social Psychology*, 145, 405-427.
- Jost, M., Whitfield, E. L., & Jost, M. (2005). When the rules are fair, but the game isn't. *Multicultural Education*, 13(1), 14-21.
- Junn, E. N., Morton, K. R., & Yee, I. (1995). The 'Gibberish' exercise: Facilitating empathetic multicultural awareness. *Journal of Instructional Psychology*, 22, 324-329.
- Kaufman, P., Alt, M. N., & Chapman, C. (2001). *Dropout rates in the United States: 2000* (NCES 2002-114). U.S. Department of Education, NCES. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Kindler, A. L. (2002). *Survey of the states' limited English proficient students & available educational programs and services, 1999-2000 summary report*. Washington DC: National Clearinghouse for English Language Acquisition and Language Instruction Educational Programs. Retrieved November 1, 2005 from <http://www.ncela.gwu.edu/pubs/seareports/99-00/sea9900.pdf>.
- Kolb, D. A. (1984). *Experiential learning: Experience as the source of learning and development*. New Jersey: Prentice-Hall.

- Kolb, A. Y., & Kolb, D. A. (2005). Learning styles and learning spaces: Enhancing experiential learning in higher education. *Academy of Management Learning & Education, 4*, 193-212.
- Kopala, M., Esquivel, G., & Baptiste, L. (1994). Counseling approaches for immigrant children: Facilitating the acculturative process. *School Counselor, 41*, 352-359.
- La Celle-Peterson, M. W., & Rivera, C. (1994). Is it real for kids? A framework for equitable assessment policies for English language learners. *Harvard Educational Review, 64*, 55-75.
- Laird, J., DeBell, M., Kienzl, G., & Chapman, C. (2007). *Dropout Rates in the United States: 2005* (NCES 2007-059). U.S. Department of Education. Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics. Retrieved Nov 21, 2009 from <http://nces.ed.gov/pubsearch>.
- Larson, L. M., & Daniels, J. A. (1998). Review of the counseling self-efficacy literature. *The Counseling Psychologist, 26*, 179-218.
- Larson, L. M., Suzuki, L. A., Gillespie, K. N., Potenza, M. T., Bechtel, M. A., & Toulouse, A. L. (1992). Development and validation of the counseling self estimate inventory. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 39*, 105-120.
- Lavoie, R. (1989). *How difficult can this be? The F.A.T. city workshop: Understanding learning disabilities*. [video] Washington, DC: Peter Rosen Productions.
- Lee, C. C. (2001). Culturally responsive school counselors and programs: Addressing the needs of all students. *Professional School Counseling, 4*, 257-261.

- Lent, R.W., Brown, S.D., & Hackett, G. (1994). Toward a unifying social cognitive theory of career and academic interest, choice, and performance. *Journal of Vocational Behavior, 45*, 79-122.
- Lent, R. W., Brown, S. D., & Hackett, G. (2000). Contextual supports and barriers to career choice: A social cognitive analysis. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 47*, 36-49.
- Leong, C-H. (2008). A multilevel research framework for the analyses of attitudes toward immigrants. *International Journal of Intercultural Relations, 32*, 115-129.
- Martin, I., Carey, J., & DeCoster, K. (2009). A national study of the current status of state school counseling models. *Professional School Counseling, 12*, 378-386.
- Masgoret, A. M., & Gardner, R. C. (2003). Attitudes, motivation, and second language learning: A meta-analysis of studies conducted by Gardner and associates. *Language Learning, 53*, 123-163.
- McCall-Perez, Z. (2000). The counselor as advocate for English language learners: An action research approach. *Professional School Counseling, 4*, 13-22.
- McIntosh, P. (1988). *White privilege: Unpacking the invisible knapsack*. Retrieved June 1, 2008 from www.case.edu/president/aaction/UnpackingTheKnapsack.pdf
- Merta, R. J., Stringham, E. D., & Ponterotto, J. G. (1988). Simulating culture shock in counselor trainees: An experiential exercise for cross-cultural training. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 66*, 242-245
- Miranda, A. O., & Umhoefer, D. L. (1998). Acculturation, language use, and demographic variables as predictors of the career self-efficacy of Latino career

- counseling clients. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 26, 39-52.
- Miller, M. J. (2007). A bilinear multidimensional measurement model of Asian American acculturation and enculturation: Implications for counseling interventions. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 54, 118-131.
- Mitchell, N. A., & Bryan, J. A. (2007). School-family-community partnerships: Strategies for school counselors working with Caribbean immigrant families. *Professional School Counseling*, 10, 399-409.
- Mohr, J. J., Weiner, J. L., Chopp, R. M., & Wong, S. J. (2009). Effects of client bisexuality on clinical judgment: When is bias most likely to occur? *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 56, 164-175.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (2005). *The Nation's report card mathematics 2005*, NCEs 2006-453, August, Washington, D.C.: NCEs.
- National Center for Education Statistics. (1998). *The condition of education 1998* (NCEs 98-013). Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- Nelson, J. A., Bustamante, R. M., Wilson, E. D., & Onwuegbuzie, A. J. (2008). The school-wide cultural competence observation checklist for school counselors: A exploratory factor analysis. *Professional School Counseling*, 11, 207-217.
- Nilsson, J. E., & Duan, C. (2007). Experiences of prejudice, role difficulties, and counseling self efficacy among U.S. racial and ethnic minority supervisees working with White supervisors. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 35, 219-229.

- Ochoa, S. H., Riccio, C., Jimenez, S., de Alba, R. G., & Sines, M. (2004). Psychological assessment of English language learners and/or bilingual students: An investigation of school psychologists' current practices. *Journal of Psychoeducational Assessment, 22*, 185-208.
- Office of Minority Health. (2001). National standards on culturally and linguistically appropriate services (CLAS): Final report. Retrieved July 19, 2009, from <http://www.omhrc.gov/assets/pdf/checked/finalreport.pdf>.
- Ommundsen, R., & Larsen, K. S. (1997). Attitudes toward illegal aliens: The reliability and validity of a Likert-type scale. *The Journal of Social Psychology, 137*, 665-667.
- Owen, C. L., & English, M. (2005). Working together as culture brokers by building trusting alliances with bilingual and bicultural newcomer paraprofessionals. *Child Welfare Journal, 84*, 669-688.
- Pajares, F. (1996). Self-efficacy beliefs in academic settings. *Review of Educational Research, 66*, 543-578.
- Pajares, F. (1997). Current directions in self-efficacy research. In M. Maehr & P. R. Pintrich (Eds.), *Advances in motivation and achievement* (Vol. 10, pp. 1-49). Greenwich, CT: JAI Press.
- Pajares, F. (2003). Self-efficacy beliefs, motivation, and achievement in writing: A review of the literature. *Reading & Writing Quarterly, 19*, 139-158.
- Paredes, M. B. (2008). *The School Cultural Capital Game*. Copyrighted intervention exercise. The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

- Paredes, M. B. (2009a). *School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs*. Copyrighted assessment instrument. The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.
- Paredes, M. B. (2009b). *Working with Immigrants*: Scale adapted from Attitudes Toward Multiculturalism (Horenczyk & Tatar, 2002). Unpublished assessment instrument. The University of North Carolina at Greensboro.
- Passel, J. (2007). *Projections of the U.S. population to 2050 by age, race, Hispanic origin, and nativity*. Washington, D.C.: Pew Hispanic Center.
- PASW for Windows. (2009). Release 17.0., Chicago. SPSS Inc.
- Pedersen, P. (1990). The multicultural perspective as a fourth force in counseling. *Journal of Mental Health Counseling, 12*(1), 93-95.
- Pedersen, P. (2000). One in the eye is worth two in the ear! *Simulation & Gaming, 31*, 100-107.
- Pedersen, P. B. (2002). The making of a culturally competent counselor. In W. J. Lonner, D. L. Dinnel, S. A. Hayes, & D. N. Sattler (Eds.), *Online Readings in Psychology and Culture* (Unit 10, Chapter 2), (<http://www.wvu.edu/~culture>), Center for Cross-Cultural Research, Western Washington University, Bellingham, Washington USA.
- Pumariega, A. J., Rothe, E., & Pumariega, J. B. (2005). Mental health of immigrants and refugees. *Community Mental Health Journal, 41*, 581-597.
- Romanowski, M. H. (2003). Cultural capital of migrant students: Teachers' and students' perspectives and understandings. *Rural Educator, 24*, 40-48.
- Rencher, A. C. (2002). *Methods of multivariate analysis*. (2nd ed.). New Jersey: Wiley.

- Rosales, G., Navarro, M. D., & Cardoso, D. (2001). Variation in attitudes toward immigrants measured among Latino, African American, Asian, and Euro-American students. In M. Lopez-Garza & D. R. Diaz (Eds.), *Asian and Latino immigrants in a restructuring economy: The metamorphosis of Southern California* (pp. 353-367). Stanford, CA: Stanford University Press.
- Roseberry-McKibbin, C., Brice, A., & O'Hanlon, L. (2005). Serving English language learners in public school settings: A national survey. *Language, Speech, and Hearing Services in Schools, 36*, 48-61.
- Roseberry-McKibbin, C., & O'Hanlon, L. (2005). Nonbiased assessment of English language learners: A tutorial. *Communication Disorders Quarterly, 26*, 178-185.
- Roysircar, G., Gard, G., Hubbell, R., & Ortega, M. (2005). Development of counseling trainees' multicultural awareness through mentoring English as a second language students. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 33*, 17-36.
- Rumberger, R. W., & Larson, K. A. (1998). Toward explaining differences in educational achievement among Mexican American language-minority students. *Sociology of Education, 71*, 68-92.
- Schunk, D. H. (1981). Modeling and attributional effects on children's achievement: A self-efficacy analysis. *Journal of Educational Psychology, 73*, 93-105.
- Schunk, D. H. (1996). Goal and self-evaluative influences during children's cognitive skill learning. *American Educational Research Journal, 33*, 359-382.
- Schwallie-Giddis, P., Anstrom, K., Sanchez, P., Sardi, V. A., & Granato, L. (2004). Counseling the linguistically and culturally diverse student: Meeting school

- counselors' professional development needs. *Professional School Counseling*, 8, 15-23.
- Shell, D. F., Colvin, C., & Bruning, R. H. (1995). Self-efficacy, attributions, and outcome expectancy mechanisms in reading and writing achievement: Grade-level and achievement-level differences. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 87, 386-398.
- Shirts, R. G. (nd). *Ten secrets of successful simulations*. Retrieved August 7, 2009, from <http://www.stsintl.com/schools-charities/articles/tensecrets.pdf>.
- Singh, N. N., McKay, J. D., & Singh, A. N. (1999). The need for cultural brokers in mental health services. *Journal of Child and Family Studies*, 8, 1-10.
- Siwatu, K. O. (2007). Preservice teachers' culturally responsive teaching self-efficacy and outcome expectancy beliefs. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 23, 1086-1101.
- Smith-Adcock, S., Daniels, M. H., Lee, S. M., Villalba, J. A., & Indelicato, N. A. (2006). Culturally responsive school counseling for Hispanic/Latino students and families: The need for bilingual school counselors. *Professional School Counseling*, 10, 92-101.
- Stephan, W. G., Ybarra, O., Martinez, C. M., Schwarzwald, J., & Tur-Kaspa, M. (1998). Prejudice toward immigrants to Spain and Israel: An integrated threat theory analysis. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology*, 29, 559-576.
- Sue, D. W., Arredondo, P., & McDavis, R. J. (1992). Multicultural counseling competencies and standards: A call to the profession. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development*, 20, 64-88.

- Sutter, J. A., & McCaul, E. J. (1993). Issues in cross-cultural counseling: An examination of the meaning and dimensions of tolerance. *International Journal for the Advancement of Counseling, 16*, 3-18.
- Sutton, J. M., & Fall, M. (1995). The relationship of school climate factors to counselor self-efficacy. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 73*, 331-336.
- Swanson, J. L., & Woitke, M. B. (1997). Theory into practice in career assessment for women: Assessment and interventions regarding perceived career barriers. *Journal of Career Assessment, 5*, 431-450.
- Tatar, M. (1998). Counseling immigrants: School contexts and emerging strategies. *British Journal of Guidance & Counselling, 26*, 337-352.
- Thorn, A. R., & Contreras, S. (2005). Counseling Latino immigrants in middle school. *Professional School Counseling, 9*, 167-170.
- Trickett, E. J., & Birman, E. (2005). Acculturation, school context, and school outcomes: Adaptation of refugee adolescents from the former Soviet Union. *Psychology in the Schools, 42*, 27-38.
- Trickett, E. J., & Jones, C. J. (2007). Adolescent culture brokering and family functioning: A study of families from Vietnam. *Cultural Diversity and Ethnic Minority Psychology, 13*, 143-150.
- Trueba, H. T. (2002). Multiple ethnic, racial, and cultural identities in action: From marginality to a new cultural capital in modern society. *Journal of Latinos and Education, 1*, 7-28.

- Tschannen-Moran, M., Woolfolk Hoy, A., & Hoy, W. K. (1998). Teacher efficacy: Its meaning and measure. *Review of Educational Research, 68* (2), 202-248.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (1992). *Workers with low earnings*. Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office.
- U.S. Census Bureau. (2003, June 18). *Young, diverse, urban: Hispanic population reaches all time high of 38.8 million, new Census Bureau estimates show*. Retrieved October 13, 2009, from <http://www.census.gov/PressRelease/www/releases/archives/population/011193.html>
- Valencia, E. Y., & Johnson, V. (2006). Latino students in North Carolina: Acculturation, perceptions of school environment, and academic aspirations. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 28*, 350-367.
- Van Velsor, P., & Orozco, G. L. (2007). Involving low-income parents in the schools: Communitycentric strategies for school counselors. *Professional School Counseling, 11*, 17-24.
- Villalba, J. A., & Redmond, R. E. (2008). Crash: Using a popular film as an experiential learning activity in a multicultural counseling course. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 47*, 264-276.
- Wagner, R., K., Francis, D. J., & Morris, R. D. (2005). Identifying English language learners with learning disabilities: Key challenges and possible approaches. *Learning Disabilities Research & Practice, 20*, 6-15.

- Weisman, A. G., Rosales, G. A., & Navarro, M. (2007). Personal efficacy, attitudes toward immigrants, and voting behavior among Latino and White university students. *Interamerican Journal of Psychology, 41*, 341-348.
- Weisskirch, R. S. (2005). The relationship of language brokering to ethnic identity for Latino early adolescents. *Hispanic Journal of Behavioral Sciences, 27*, 286-299.
- Wiley, R. H. (2009). Trade-offs in the design of experiments. *Journal of Comparative Psychology, 4*, 447-449.
- Williams, F. C., & Butler, S. K. (2003). Concerns of newly arrived immigrant students: Implications for school counselors. *Professional School Counseling, 7*, 9-14.
- Wittgenstein, L. (1922) *Tractatus Logico-Philosophicus*. English translation by C.K. Ogden & F.P. Ramsey. Routledge and Kegan Paul: London.
- Wrenn, C. G. (1962). *The counselor in a changing world*. Washington, D. C.: American Personnel and Guidance Association.
- Wu, N. H. & Kim, S. Y. (2009). Chinese American adolescents' perceptions of the language brokering experience as a sense of burden and sense of efficacy. *Journal of Youth and Adolescence, 38*, 703-718.
- Yuen, M., Chan, R., Lau, P., Lam, M-P., & Shek, D. T. L. (2004). The counseling self estimate inventory (COSE): Does it work in Chinese counsellors? *Counseling Psychology Quarterly, 17*, 177-194.
- Zambrana, R. E., & Zoppi, I. M. (2002). Latina students: Translating cultural wealth into social capital to improve academic success. *Journal of Ethnic & Cultural Diversity in Social Work, 11*, 33-53.

APPENDIX A: DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Please respond to each of the items below:

1. Please enter your age in years:

2. Please indicate your gender:
 - a. Female
 - b. Male
3. Please indicate your race:
 - a. Asian
 - b. Black or of African Descent
 - c. Caucasian
 - d. Latino
 - e. Native American
 - f. Multiracial
 - g. Other (Please specify) _____
4. Please indicate your highest degree held:
 - a. Bachelor's Degree
 - b. Master's Degree
 - c. Education Specialist's Degree
 - d. Doctorate Degree
5. Please indicate the year your highest degree was earned:
 - a. _____
6. Please indicate if you work full-time or part-time:
 - a. Full-time
 - b. Part-time
7. Please indicate your current school level:
 - a. Elementary
 - b. Middle
 - c. High
 - d. Multilevel (please specify): _____
8. How many years of experience do you have working as a school counselor?

9. Do you have previous work experience with ELLs? (i.e., worked as ESL teacher, taught English in China)
 - a. Yes
 - b. NoIf yes, please briefly specify:

10. Do you have previous coursework in multicultural counseling?
 - a. Yes
 - b. No
11. Please indicate the number of formal academic courses taken previously related to multicultural/diversity issues:

- a. 0
 - b. 1-2
 - c. 3-4
 - d. 5+
12. Have you had formal academic training in second language acquisition, linguistics, or speech pathology?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
- If yes, please briefly specify:
-
13. Have you had any formal academic training regarding English Language Learners?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
- If yes, please briefly specify:
-
14. Do you feel your professional development needs regarding English Language Learners are sufficiently met?
- a. Yes
 - b. No
15. To what degree do you feel your professional development needs regarding ELLs are met?
- a. Not at all met
 - b. Somewhat met
 - c. Sufficiently met
 - d. Fully met
16. Please estimate the percentage of English Language Learners enrolled in your school?
- a. 0 - 5%
 - b. 5 -10%
 - c. 11-20%
 - d. 21-30%
 - e. 31-40%
 - f. 41-50%
 - g. 51 + %
17. On average, how many hours a week do you spend with ELL students?
- a. 0 – 2 hours
 - b. 3 – 5 hours
 - c. 6 – 8 hours
 - d. 9 – 11 hours
 - e. 12+ hours
18. What is the most common first-language spoken by ELLs in your school?
-

19. What is the second most common first-language spoken by ELLs in your school?

20. Do you have experience in a country where English is not the main language?

- a. Yes
- b. No

If yes, please briefly describe experience: (i.e., studied abroad 1 semester in Spain, lived 2 years in Romania)_____

21. How many languages do you speak fluently?

- a. 1
- b. 2
- c. 3
- d. 4+

APPENDIX B: WORKING WITH IMMIGRANTS

The following statements pertain to working with immigrant students. Indicate your level of agreement with each statement.

- 1 = totally disagree
- 2 = somewhat disagree
- 3 = neutral
- 4 = somewhat agree
- 5 = totally agree

Q15.	[REDACTED]
Q1.	[REDACTED]
Q12	[REDACTED]
Q8.	[REDACTED]
Q14.	[REDACTED]
Q11.	[REDACTED]
Q2.	We should help immigrants from different countries of origin keep their cultural heritages.
Q7.	[REDACTED]
Q5.	[REDACTED]
Q13.	[REDACTED]
Q3.	[REDACTED].
Q6.	Teaching styles should be adapted to the specific needs of immigrant students.
Q9.	[REDACTED]
Q4	[REDACTED].
Q10.	It is best for America that immigrants abandon their cultural heritage as soon as possible.

APPENDIX C: SCHOOL COUNSELOR SELF-EFFICACY

****This is a slightly adapted form of Bodenhorn & Skagg's (2005) original scale, which used a 5-point Likert scale and provided a different set of instructions. For a copy of the original scale, please contact Nancy Bodenhorn at nanboden@vt.edu.****

The following statements pertain to general school counseling tasks. Indicate your level of confidence in completing each stated task. Give ratings that you actually believe to be true rather than those that you wish were true.

- 1 = not at all confident**
- 2 = somewhat confident**
- 3 = confident**
- 4 = very confident**

Q24. I can foster understanding of the relationship between learning and work.	
Q1. I can model and teach conflict resolution skills.	
Q25. I can teach students to apply problem-solving skills toward their academic, personal, and career success.	

Q8. I can follow ethical and legal obligations designed for school counselors.	
Q35. I can establish rapport with a student for individual counseling.	
Q26. I can teach students how to apply time and task management skills.	
Q5. I can function successfully as a small group leader.	
Q37. I can provide resources and guidance to school population in times of crisis.	
Q27. I can offer appropriate explanations to students, parents, and teachers of how	

learning styles affect school performance.

APPENDIX D: SCHOOL COUNSELOR SELF-EFFICACY WITH ELLS

****To obtain a full copy of this copyrighted instrument and request permission to use it, please contact the author at mariaparedes4@gmail.com.****

The following statements pertain to school counseling tasks related to working with English Language Learners (ELLs). Indicate your level of confidence in completing each stated task. Give ratings that you actually believe to be true rather than those that you wish were true. Unless otherwise specified, respond to each statement relative to English Language Learners.

- 1 = not at all confident**
- 2 = somewhat confident**
- 3 = confident**
- 4 = very confident**

Q71.	
Q48.	
Q11.	
Q69.	
Q4.	
Q21. I can develop a personal relationship with non-ELL students	
Q53.	
Q59.	
Q3.	
Q67.	
Q13.	
Q33. I can effectively address the social needs of ELLs	
Q29.	
Q14.	
Q46.	
Q74.	
Q51.	
Q57. I can identify how my linguistic/cultural background and experiences have influenced the way I think	
Q44.	
Q25.	

Q45.	
Q76.	
Q40.	
Q68. I can have documents translated into first language of ELLs' parents	
Q70.	
Q63.	
Q52.	
Q65.	
Q2.	
Q75. I can work with community leaders and members to assist with concerns of linguistically different student and families	
Q37.	
Q54.	
Q42.	
Q39.	
Q38.	
Q20. I can develop a personal relationship with ELL students	
Q77.	
Q61.	
Q26.	
Q8.	
Q7.	
Q36. I can implement a program which enables all students to make informed career decisions	
Q28.	
Q84.	
Q27.	
Q83.	
Q24.	
Q80. I can provide professional development to school staff on addressing needs of ELLs	
Q43.	
Q64.	
Q49.	

Q66.	[REDACTED]
Q86.	[REDACTED]
Q62. I can recognize when language ability impacts student learning	
Q50.	[REDACTED]
Q34.	[REDACTED]
Q31.	[REDACTED]
Q79.	[REDACTED]
Q85.	[REDACTED]
Q87. I can advocate for fair testing and the appropriate use of testing	
Q10.	[REDACTED]
Q5.	[REDACTED]
Q16.	[REDACTED]
Q18.	[REDACTED]
Q78.	[REDACTED]
Q81. I can access resources to understand more about a particular ELL subgroup (e.g., Liberians, Mexicans, Vietnamese)	
Q58.	[REDACTED]
Q72.	[REDACTED]
Q15.	[REDACTED]
Q73.	[REDACTED]
Q22.	[REDACTED]
Q35. I can effectively address the academic needs of ELLs	
Q55.	[REDACTED]
Q9.	[REDACTED]
Q30.	[REDACTED]
Q12.	[REDACTED]
Q60.	[REDACTED]
Q47. I can identify ways that the school culture (e.g. values, norms, and practices) is different from my students' home culture.	
Q17.	[REDACTED]
Q56.	[REDACTED]
Q19.	[REDACTED]
Q32.	[REDACTED]

Q1.	[REDACTED]
Q82.	I can find ways to better educate myself about a particular ELL subgroup (e.g., Liberians, Mexicans, Vietnamese)
Q6.	[REDACTED]
Q23.	[REDACTED]
Q41.	[REDACTED]

APPENDIX E: INITIAL ITEM LIST FOR SC-SELL

Communication & Interaction with Home

1. [REDACTED]
2. [REDACTED]
3. [REDACTED]
4. [REDACTED]
5. [REDACTED]
6. [REDACTED]
7. [REDACTED]
8. [REDACTED]
9. [REDACTED]
10. [REDACTED]
11. [REDACTED]
12. [REDACTED]
13. Have documents translated into first language of ELLs' parents

Assessment

14. [REDACTED]
15. [REDACTED]
16. [REDACTED]
17. [REDACTED]
18. Advocate for fair testing and the appropriate use of testing
19. [REDACTED]
20. [REDACTED]
21. [REDACTED]

Relationship

22. Develop a personal relationship with ELL students
23. Develop a personal relationship with non-ELL students
24. [REDACTED]
25. [REDACTED]
26. [REDACTED]
27. [REDACTED]
28. [REDACTED]

Counseling

29. [REDACTED]
30. [REDACTED]
31. [REDACTED]
32. [REDACTED]
33. [REDACTED]
34. [REDACTED]
35. [REDACTED]
36. [REDACTED]

- 37. [REDACTED]
- 38. Implement a program which enables all students to make informed career decisions
- 39. [REDACTED]
- 40. [REDACTED]
- 41. [REDACTED]

School Atmosphere

- 42. [REDACTED]
- 43. [REDACTED]
- 44. Identify ways that the school culture (e.g. values, norms, and practices) is different from my students' home culture.
- 45. [REDACTED]
- 46. [REDACTED]
- 47. [REDACTED]
- 48. [REDACTED]
- 49. [REDACTED]

Awareness

- 50. Identify how my linguistic/cultural background and experiences have influenced the way I think
- 51. [REDACTED]
- 52. [REDACTED]
- 53. [REDACTED]
- 54. [REDACTED]
- 55. [REDACTED]
- 56. [REDACTED]
- 57. [REDACTED]
- 58. [REDACTED]
- 59. [REDACTED]

Language

- 60. Recognize when language ability impacts (both positively and negatively) student learning and achievement
- 61. [REDACTED]
- 62. [REDACTED]
- 63. [REDACTED]
- 64. [REDACTED]
- 65. [REDACTED]

Consultation/Collaboration

- 66. Work with community leaders and members to assist with concerns of linguistically different student and families
- 67. [REDACTED]
- 68. [REDACTED]
- 69. [REDACTED]
- 70. [REDACTED]
- 71. Provide professional development to school staff on addressing needs of ELLs
- 72. [REDACTED]

APPENDIX F: SUMMARY OF CHANGED ITEMS FOR SC-SELL

Final Scale items:

Communication & Interaction with Home

- Q1. [REDACTED]
- Q2. [REDACTED]
- Q3. [REDACTED]
- Q4. [REDACTED]
- Q5. [REDACTED]
- Q6. [REDACTED]
- Q7. [REDACTED]
- [REDACTED]
- Q8. [REDACTED]
- Q9. [REDACTED]
- Q10. [REDACTED]
- [REDACTED] *
- Q11. [REDACTED]
- Q12. [REDACTED]
- Q13. [REDACTED]
- Q14. [REDACTED] *

Assessment

- Q15. [REDACTED]
- Q16. [REDACTED]
- Q17. [REDACTED]
- Q18. [REDACTED]
- Q19. [REDACTED]

Relationship with Students

- Q20. I can develop a personal relationship with ELL students
- Q21. I can develop a personal relationship with non-ELL students
- Q22. [REDACTED]
- Q23. [REDACTED]
- Q24. [REDACTED]
- Q25. [REDACTED]
- [REDACTED]
- Q26. [REDACTED]
- Q27. [REDACTED] *

Counseling Process

- Q28. [REDACTED]
- Q29. [REDACTED]
- Q30. [REDACTED]
- Q31. I [REDACTED]
- [REDACTED]
- Q32. [REDACTED]
- Q33. I can effectively address the social needs of ELLs
- Q34. [REDACTED]
- Q35. I can effectively address the academic needs of ELLs*
- Q36. I can implement a program which enables all students to make informed career decisions
- Q37. [REDACTED]

- Q38. [REDACTED]
- Q39. [REDACTED]
- Q40. [REDACTED]
- Q41. [REDACTED]
- Q42. [REDACTED]
- Q43. [REDACTED] *
- Q44. [REDACTED] *

School Atmosphere

- Q45. [REDACTED]
- Q46. [REDACTED]
- Q47. I can identify ways that the school culture (e.g. values, norms, and practices) is different from my students' home culture.
- Q48. [REDACTED]
- Q49. [REDACTED]
- Q50. [REDACTED]
- Q51. [REDACTED]
- Q52. [REDACTED]
- Q53. [REDACTED]
- Q54. [REDACTED] *
- Q55. [REDACTED] *
- Q56. [REDACTED] *

Self-Awareness

- Q57. I can identify how my linguistic/cultural background and experiences have influenced the way I think
- Q58. [REDACTED]
- Q59. [REDACTED]
- Q60. [REDACTED]
- Q61. [REDACTED]

Sensitivity to Language

- Q62. I can recognize when language ability impacts student learning**
- Q63. [REDACTED] **
- Q64. [REDACTED]
- Q65. [REDACTED]
- Q66. [REDACTED]
- Q67. [REDACTED]
- Q68. I can have documents translated into first language of ELLs' parents
- Q69. [REDACTED] *
- Q70. [REDACTED] *
- Q71. [REDACTED]
- Q72. [REDACTED]
- Q73. [REDACTED] *
- Q74. [REDACTED] *

Consultation/Collaboration

- Q75. I can work with community leaders and members to assist with concerns of linguistically different student and families
- Q76. [REDACTED]

- Q77. [REDACTED]
Q78. [REDACTED]
Q79. [REDACTED]
Q80. I can provide professional development to school staff on addressing needs of ELLs
Q81. I can access resources to understand more about a particular ELL subgroup (e.g., Liberians, Mexicans, Vietnamese)*
Q82. I can find ways to better educate myself about a particular ELL subgroup (e.g., Liberians, Mexicans, Vietnamese)*

Advocacy

- Q83. [REDACTED]
Q84. [REDACTED]
Q85. [REDACTED]*
Q86. [REDACTED]*
Q87. I can advocate for fair testing and the appropriate use of testing

Deleted items

1. Recognize all students, regardless of their cultural background or heritage, deserve equal access to a quality education
 2. Recognize that high academic expectations should be maintained for all students
 3. Recognize that all ELLs are the same
-

Note:

* Item that was added after expert review process

**Item that was split into two from one original item

APPENDIX G: RECRUITMENT EMAIL TO STATE SCHOOL COUNSELOR ORGANIZATION REPRESENTATIVES

Hello [State School Counselor Organization Representative's name],

I am emailing you with a request to send out a survey via your state listserv for school counselors.

Attached is a document that contains the email that I would ask you to send out on the listserv (which would include the link to a surveymonkey.com survey), along with the text included in the survey. As you will see, the informed consent is the first page of the survey, followed by the School Counselor Self-Efficacy scale, the School Counselor Self-Efficacy with ELLs scale, the Working with Immigrants scale, and a Demographics questionnaire. Finally, on the last page are directions to enter a lottery for Target gift cards. Completion of the survey should take approximately 15-20 minutes and would be completely anonymous, as well as voluntary.

I would ask for your conditional permission to send out the survey, pending official approval from my university's IRB. My university will not grant approval until I have permission from you first. An email in response to this one stating permission will be sufficient for me to include in my application to the IRB board.

Once I have IRB approval, I would ask to be able to send the request email out twice---first, as soon as I get IRB approval, and second, a few weeks later after the school year has begun and school counselors have returned to school from vacation and are more frequently checking their email.

Please let me know if you have any questions or concerns that I can address. I very much appreciate your time and consideration.

Best,
Maria

--
--

Maria Brunelli Paredes, MS, LPC, NCC, ACS
Doctoral Student
Department of Counseling & Educational Development
University of North Carolina at Greensboro

~~~~~  
"Justice does not exist because laws exist. Justice needs to be continually created, constantly struggled for."  
"Kindness is the highest form of wisdom."  
"Kindness is tenderness. Kindness is love, but perhaps greater than love...Kindness is good will. Kindness says, "I want you to be happy."- Randolph Ray  
~~~~~

APPENDIX H: PERMISSION TO RECRUIT THROUGH LISTSERV

Arizona:

From: **Allen Hill Jr.** <allenhill23@gmail.com>
Date: Sat, Sep 12, 2009 at 9:14 AM
Subject: RE: sending email again, as you asked
To: Maria Brunelli Paredes <mabrunel@uncg.edu>

We will gladly send out an email blast to our members that contains the link to your survey.

Allen Hill

Arkansas:

From: **ArSCA Technology Team** <arscacounselor@gmail.com>
Date: Fri, Sep 4, 2009 at 12:27 PM
Subject: Re: have now joined ArSCA/ARCA--sorry for the multiple emails!!
To: Maria Brunelli Paredes <mabrunel@uncg.edu>
You have been added to the list-serve. You are welcome to distribute the surveys however will suit you best. Good luck!

Thanks!

ArSCA Technology Team

California:

From: **Whitson, Loretta** <LWhitson@monrovia.k12.ca.us>
Date: Mon, Jul 20, 2009 at 12:29 PM
Subject: RE: Sending Dissertation Survey on Listserv-California School Counselors
To: Maria Brunelli <mabrunel@uncg.edu>
Cc: Linda Hudson <hudsonconsulting@charter.net>

Maria, I am giving my "conditional permission", for the self efficacy survey to be sent out through our list-serve.

Best to you in this endeavor,



Loretta Whitson
Director, Student Support Services
Monrovia Unified School District
626/471-3076

Indiana:

From: **Lin Metzger** <lmetzger@nremc.net>
Date: Tue, Aug 11, 2009 at 1:36 PM

Subject: Re: Forgot attachment!!: Sending out Dissertation Survey on Listserv---Indiana School Counselors

To: Maria Brunelli <mabrunel@uncg.edu>

Cc: Julie Baumgart <mjam@msn.com>, Leah Hooper <ldhooper0630@gmail.com>

We give conditional permission to Maria Paredes to send her survey to the ISCA membership. Maria, you can also send this out on Counselortalk listserv.

Lin Metzger
Executive Director
ISCA

New York:

From: **Robert Rotunda** <brotunda@optonline.net>

Date: Sat, Jul 18, 2009 at 6:24 AM

Subject: RE: Forgot Attachment!!!, now attached---Sending out Dissertation Survey on listserv---New York school counselors

To: Maria Brunelli <mabrunel@uncg.edu>

Maria:

Of course, we would distribute your survey to our listserv. We have done this in the past for many researchers. We only ask that when you have completed your study, that you share your findings with NYSSCA by submitting an article to our Journal for consideration or for our online newsletter. Research in our field and data collection is a passion for us and we always try to encourage researchers by inviting our members to participate in studies.

Bob Rotunda
NYSSCA President 2009-2010

South Carolina:

From: **Ann White** <AWhite@ed.sc.gov>

Date: Wed, Aug 19, 2009 at 1:01 PM

Subject: Re: Sending out Dissertation Survey on Listserv--South Carolina

To: Maria Brunelli Paredes <mabrunel@uncg.edu>

Maria, as discussed in our phone conversation, you are certainly welcome to send your survey link to the elementary and secondary guidance Listservs.

Feel free to subscribe and remain a subscriber via instructions at

<http://www.ed.sc.gov/agency/Innovation-and-Support/Youth-Services/Guidance/jointheguidancelistserv.html>

Good luck,

Ann

(South Carolina Department of Education)

Utah:

From: **Stevenson, Dawn** <Dawn.Stevenson@schools.utah.gov>
Date: Tue, Jul 28, 2009 at 7:11 PM
Subject: RE: Sending out Dissertation survey on listserv--Utah School Counselors
To: Maria Brunelli <mabrunel@uncg.edu>

Maria,

As we discussed by telephone today, I am happy to provide you with conditional permission to administer your survey with school counselors in Utah so that you can move forward with the IRB process. I look forward to working with you as you complete this important research. Let me know if you need additional help at this time.

Dawn

Please note new e-mail address dawn.stevenson@schools.utah.gov
One must still have chaos in oneself to be able to give birth to a dancing star. -Nietzsche

Washington:

From: **Chris Kelly** <tckelly2@comcast.net>
Date: Fri, Sep 4, 2009 at 3:57 PM
Subject: RE: Sending Dissertation Survey on Listserv-Washington School Counselors
To: Maria Brunelli Paredes <mabrunel@uncg.edu>

Hi Maria,

You have conditional permission to send out your survey to WA state counselors pending approval by your university IRB.
How we have done this in the past is that you send the survey or link to me and I send it out to the school counselors that I have a list for and I email you the report that states how many school counselors received the survey. They respond directly to you.
We do not give out email addresses for the counselors.

Chris Kelly
WSCA Executive Director
Tckelly2@comcast.net
253-445-0541

APPENDIX I: RECRUIT EMAIL TO LISTERVS

Dear School Counselor,

I am writing to request your participation in a research study concerning school counselors' work with English Language Learners. Volunteers will complete an online questionnaire that takes approximately 15 – 20 minutes. You are eligible to take this survey if you are a practicing school counselor.

To learn more about the study and to participate, please click on the following website link below:

[insert link]

Participants will be eligible to enter a drawing for one of two \$50 gift cards to Target.

Thank you for your consideration,

Maria Paredes

Doctoral Student

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro

APPENDIX J: INFORMED CONSENT FOR PILOT OF SC-SELL

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro Consent To Act As A Human Participant

Project Title: Validation of the School Counselor Self-Efficacy with English Language Learners Scale (SC-SELL)

Project Director: Dr. L. DiAnne Borders, José Villalba, and Maria Paredes (doctoral student)

The purpose of this study is to explore school counselors' work with English Language Learners (ELLs) and to begin the validation process of a new instrument.

You will be asked to respond to items via an online survey website. It is anticipated that this process will take approximately 15 – 20 minutes. There are no foreseeable risks, only those associated with feelings that may arise from survey questions. You may benefit from this study through the opportunity to contribute to the research and the opportunity to reflect upon your work with ELLs in your school. Also, information gained from this research will assist school counselor training programs in better preparing school counselors to work with ELLs. Finally, participation in the study will make you eligible to enter a drawing for one of two \$50 gift cards to Target.

It is important to the researcher that your responses remain confidential. Therefore, the researcher will request that Survey Monkey NOT attach your email or computer IP address to your survey responses - allowing your responses to this survey to remain anonymous. Absolute confidentiality of data provided through the Internet cannot be guaranteed due to the limited protections of Internet access. Please be sure to close your browser when finished so no one will be able to see what you have been doing. The data will be stored on the student researcher's computer and an external hard drive. All files will be password protected. The files will be maintained for 3 years following the closure of the project, at which point they will be erased. By indicating your agreement with this consent form, you agree that you understand the procedures and any risks and benefits involved in this research. You also are free to refuse to participate or to withdraw your consent to participate in this research at any time without penalty or prejudice; your participation is entirely voluntary. Your privacy will be protected because you will not be identified by name as a participant in this project.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research involving people follows federal regulations, has approved the research and this consent form. Questions regarding your rights as a participant in this project can be answered by calling Mr. Eric Allen at (336) 256-1482. Questions regarding the research itself will be answered by Maria Paredes by calling 336-430-6694 or emailing mabrunel@uncg.edu or Dr. L. DiAnne Borders by calling 336-334-3425 or emailing borders@uncg.edu. Any new information that develops during the project will be provided to you if the information might affect your willingness to continue participation in the project. By indicating your agreement, you are affirming that you are 18 years of age or older and are agreeing to participate in the project described above. Please print a copy of this informed consent form for your records.

APPENDIX K: SC-SELL TOTAL SCORES BY DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES

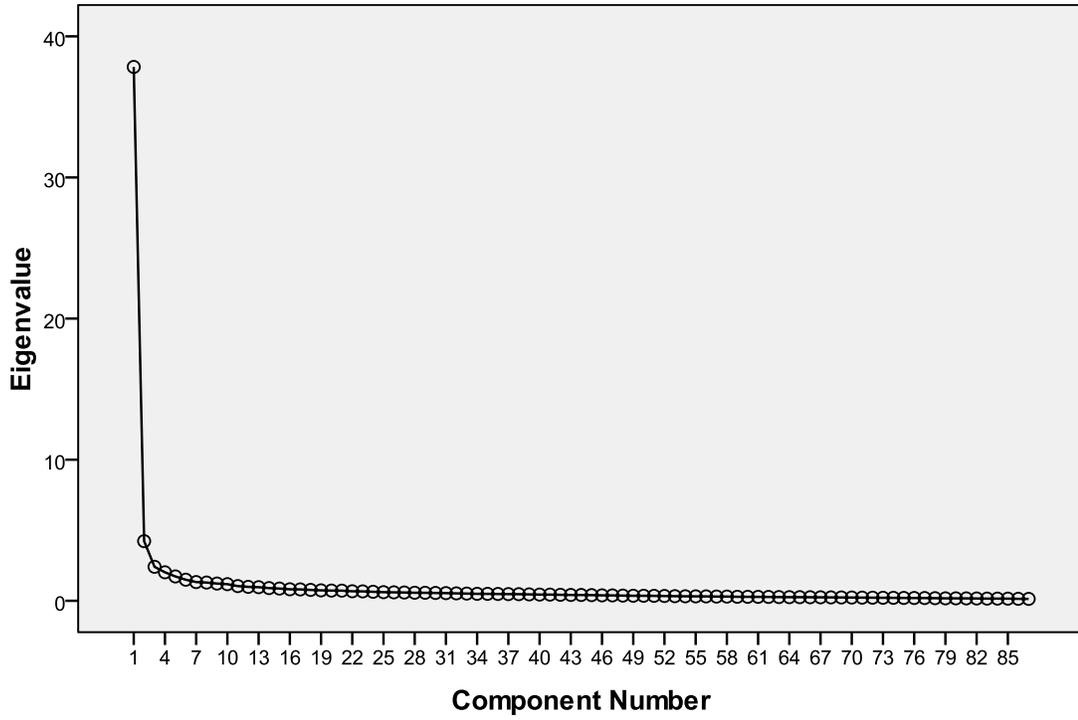
N = 601

	<i>n</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Skewness</i>	<i>r</i>
<u>Race</u>					
Asian	7	284	27.96	.29	.96
Black or of African descent	37	234	49.51	.43	.99
Caucasian	484	240.46	42.45	.01	.98
Latino	42	279.24	44.36	-.48	.99
Native American	7	253.86	39.01	1.31	.98
Multiracial	19	250.1	37.98	-.27	.98
Other	5	278.8	43.23	.37	.99
<u>Sex</u>					
Female	512	243.24	44.30	.01	.98
Male	89	248.75	42.89	.24	.98
<u>Highest Degree Held</u>					
Bachelor's degree	5	232.4	36.11	.86	.98
Master's degree	514	242.6	43.90	.04	.98
Education Specialist	70	254.78	45.89	-.22	.99
Doctorate degree	12	247.67	40.69	1.21	.98
<u>Work status</u>					
Part-time	25	240.6	43.59	.14	.98
Full-time	576	244.20	44.16	.03	.98
<u>Current school level</u>					
Elementary	187	246.67	40.52	-.05	.98
Middle	168	243.29	42.1	.20	.98
High	194	241.38	49.28	.19	.99
Multilevel	52	247.12	42.92	-.79	.98
<u>Previous work experience with ELLs</u>					
Yes	206	259.93	40.9	.22	.98
No	395	235.78	43.49	.01	.98
<u>Previous coursework in multicultural counseling</u>					
Yes	480	247.62	44.02	.03	.98
No	121	229.91	41.70	-.00	.98
<u>Number of formal academic courses taken related to multicultural/diversity issues</u>					
0	50	225.96	41.90	-.28	.98
1-2	330	238.58	42.3	.03	.98
3-4	148	247.24	43.68	.12	.98
5+	73	274.75	40.03	-.01	.98
<u>Formal academic training in second language acquisition, linguistics, or speech pathology</u>					
Yes	140	261.11	40.55	.23	.98
No	461	238.88	43.88	.03	.98

<u>Formal academic training regarding ELLs</u>					
Yes	206	257.69	42.33	.01	.98
No	395	236.94	43.38	.06	.98
<u>Professional development needs regarding ELLs are sufficiently met</u>					
Yes	174	260.47	45.56	.03	.99
No	427	237.37	41.74	-.07	.98
<u>Estimated percentage of ELLs in school</u>					
0-5%	237	231.06	44.07	.18	.98
5-10%	145	246.26	40.08	-.15	.98
11-20%	91	247.65	45.79	.143	.99
21-30%	59	258.51	38.50	.01	.98
31-40%	20	267	42	-.46	.98
41-50%	15	258.13	24.18	.02	.95
51 + %	34	270.79	45.72	.23	.99
<u>Average weekly hours spent with ELLs</u>					
0 – 2 hours	354	232.45	41.66	.07	.98
3 – 5 hours	130	252.82	41.05	-.11	.98
6 – 8 hours	44	258.61	44.92	.00	.99
9 – 11 hours	22	278.41	28.37	.678	.97
12 + hours	51	274.88	42.86	.05	.99
<u>Experience in country where English is not the main language</u>					
Yes	206	255.73	44.05	.02	.98
No	395	237.96	42.94	.02	.98
<u>Languages spoken fluently</u>					
1	497	237.83	41.71	-.02	.98
2	97	274.28	42.17	-.11	.98
3	6	279.17	55.85	-.67	.98
4+	1	194.0	-	-	.99

APPENDIX L: SCREE PLOT FOR SC-SELL

Scree Plot



APPENDIX M: FACTOR LOADINGS FOR SC-SELL

Component Matrix^a

	Component										
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Sc1	.513	.380	.384								
Sc2	.652										
Sc3	.629										
Sc4	.535	.401									
Sc5	.578	.353	.356								
Sc6	.557										
Sc7	.667										
Sc8	.648										
Sc9	.684										
Sc10	.628										
Sc11	.660										
Sc12	.707										
Sc13	.684	.311									
Sc14	.631	.343									
Sc15	.710										
Sc16	.581	-.375									
Sc17	.407							.377			
Sc18	.644										
Sc19	.676										
Sc20	.679										
Sc21	.605	-.354		-.302							
Sc22	.575				.310		.375				
Sc23	.568										
Sc24	.538				.408						
Sc25	.553										
Sc26	.667										
Sc27	.658			-.375							
Sc28	.680										

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Sc29	.749										
Sc30	.645										
Sc31	.642										
Sc32	.661										
Sc33	.768										
Sc34	.642										
Sc35	.722										
Sc36	.663										
Sc37	.606	-.399									
Sc38	.688										
Sc39	.739										
Sc40	.675				.311						
Sc41	.597				.376	.310					
Sc42	.609									.363	
Sc43	.703										
Sc44	.678	-.320									
Sc45	.722										
Sc46	.575										
Sc47	.698										
Sc48	.655										
Sc49	.710										
Sc50	.640	.372									
Sc51	.733										
Sc52	.589			.341	.342	.317					
Sc53	.701	-.330									
Sc54	.678										
Sc55	.714										
Sc56	.673								-.351		
Sc57	.753										
Sc58	.700										
Sc59	.737	-.302									

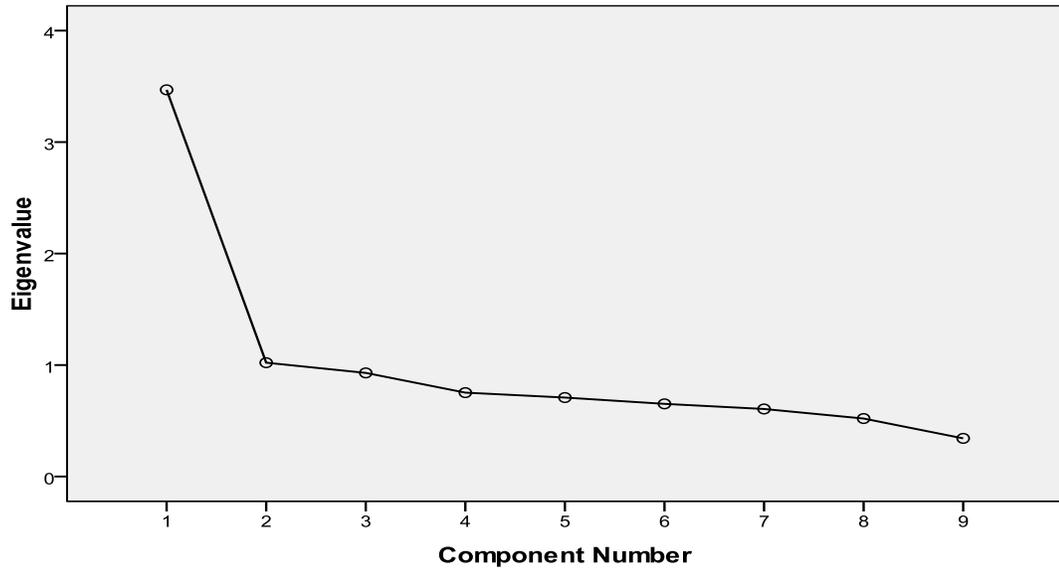
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Sc60	.643										
Sc61	.700										
Sc62	.623										-0.321
Sc63	.706										
Sc64	.623	.326									
Sc65	.605										
Sc66	.625										
Sc67	.635										
Sc68	.526	.303	.346								
Sc69	.651										
Sc70	.527	-0.473									
Sc71	.626	-0.361									
Sc72	.699										
Sc73	.711										
Sc74	.726										
Sc75	.748										
Sc76	.637	.391									
Sc77	.711										
Sc78	.729										
Sc79	.631										
Sc80	.652										
Sc81	.692										
Sc82	.775										
Sc83	.699										
Sc84	.630										
Sc85	.673										
Sc86	.753										
Sc87	.750										

Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis.

a. 11 components extracted.

APPENDIX N: FACTOR ANALYSIS OF WIM PLURALISTIC ITEMS

Scree Plot



Rotated Component Matrix

	Component	
	1	2
Im1	.685	
Im2	.638	
Im3	.753	
Im4	.606	
Im5	.708	
Im6	.464	.559
Im7		.851
Im8		.557
Im9		.483

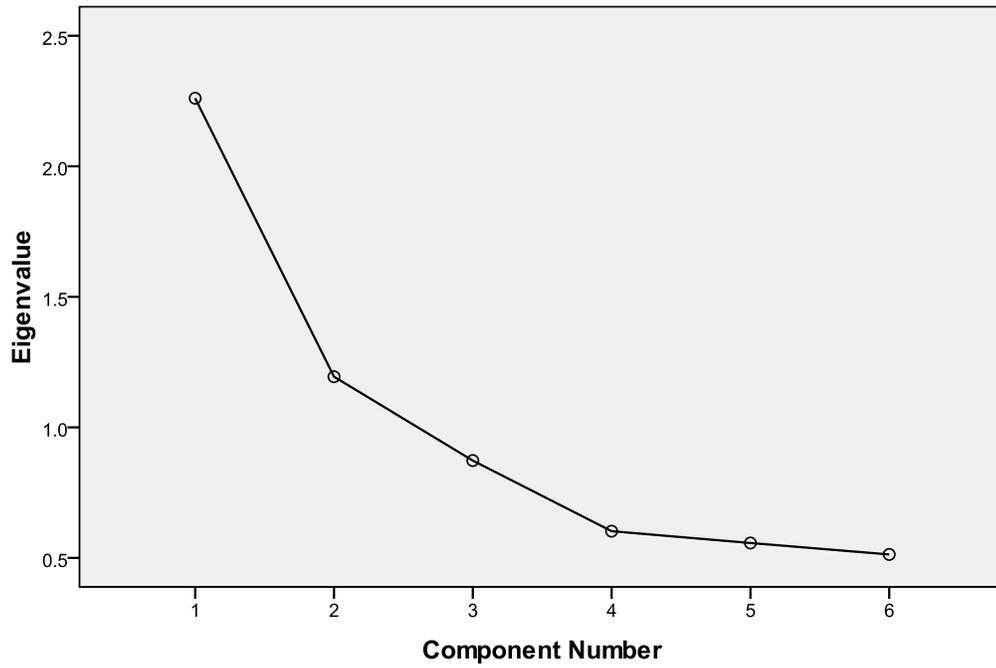
Extraction Method: Principal

Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.

APPENDIX O: FACTOR ANALYSIS OF WIM ASSIMILATIONIST ITEMS

Scree Plot



Rotated Component Matrix

	Component	
	1	2
Im10	.742	
Im11	.778	
Im12	.653	
Im13	.786	
Im14		.786
Im15		.745

Extraction Method: Principal

Component Analysis

Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization

APPENDIX P: RECRUITMENT EMAIL TO GCS SCHOOL COUNSELORS

From: Johnson, Samara D
Sent: Monday, February 15, 2010 5:15 PM
To: Counselors
Subject: Participate in this Research Study and Receive \$15 Target Gift Card and 90 min of Continuing Ed Credit!

Attention GCS School Counselors,
You have the **option** to participate in the research study below. This study has been approved by the Guilford County Schools Office of Accountability and Research. If chosen to participate in the online survey at UNCG, in order to receive the 90 min CEUs, you must get prior approval for a non GCS event through the GCS Professional Development office. If you have any questions, you may contact Maria Paredes, UNCG Doctoral Candidate at mabrunel@uncg.edu or (336)430.6694. Please see e-mail below.
Thanks,

Samara
Samara D. Johnson
Supervisor of High School Counseling
Guilford County Schools
120 Franklin Boulevard
Greensboro, NC 27401
336-370-2331 (office)
336-370-2320 (fax)
johnsos2@gcsnc.com

From: Maria Brunelli Paredes [mailto:mabrunel@uncg.edu]
Sent: Sunday, February 14, 2010 8:13 PM
To: Johnson, Samara D; meadow@gcsnc.com; Meadows, Karen
Subject: Participate in this Research Study and Receive \$15 Target Gift Card and 90 min of Continuing Ed Credit!

Dear Guilford County School Counselor,

I am writing to request your participation in a research study concerning school counselors' work with English Language Learners. A full description of the study can be found by clicking on the following website link:

[http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/____]

Of individuals who choose to participate, 30 individuals will be chosen to participate. All participants will receive a \$15 gift card to Target after completion of the study. In addition, individuals who take part in the intervention described on SurveyMonkey will receive 90 minutes of continuing education credits from the National Board for Certified Counselors via the department of Counseling and Educational Development at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro.

Please note that I will be attending the professional development workshop this Wednesday and will be recruiting participants there, as well

Thank you for your consideration,
Maria Paredes
Doctoral Candidate
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro

APPENDIX Q: INFORMED CONSENT FORM—ONLINE VERSION

Content on Survey Monkey:

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro Consent to Act As A Human Participant

Project Title: Addressing the Professional Development Awareness Needs of School Counselors Regarding English Language Learners

Project Director: Dr. L. DiAnne Borders, Jose' Villalba, and Maria Paredes (doctoral student)

You are being asked if you want to be in a research study. The purpose of this study is to address the professional development needs of school counselors working with English Language Learners (ELLs). From this study, the researcher hopes to collect information about the effectiveness of an intervention and whether any refinements to the intervention need to be made. You have been picked for this study because you are a practicing school counselor. You are eligible to participate if you are employed full time as a school counselor in Guilford County schools, have at least 2 years of experience working as a school counselor, and speak only 1 language fluently. In addition, you must be available to participate in the intervention on the scheduled date. The below description will tell you about the study to help you decide if you want to participate.

If you decide to participate, you may be asked to take part in a simulation that will require you as a participant to be treated as a school-aged student navigating your way through various school resources. Additionally, you will be asked to respond to items before and after the intervention via an online survey website. The time required for the intervention is approximately 90 minutes, and will take place on [*insert date once determined*] at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. The time required for the survey items is approximately 30-40 minutes (15-20 minutes each of 2 times). All participants will receive a \$15 gift card to Target after completion of the study. Individuals who take part in the simulation will receive 90 minutes of continuing education credits from the National Board of Certified Counselors via the department of Counseling and Educational Development. Individuals who do not take part in the simulation will be offered an opportunity to do the simulation at a later date and receive continuing education credits. During the simulation exercise, the researcher will not collect any identifying information from you, but will keep general notes about what changes need to be made to the exercise.

It is important to the researcher that your responses to the survey questions remain confidential. Therefore, the researcher will request that the online survey website (Survey Monkey) NOT attach your email or computer IP address to your survey responses - allowing your responses to the survey to remain anonymous. Absolute confidentiality of data provided through the Internet cannot be guaranteed due to the limited protections of Internet access. You will be reminded to please be sure to close your browser when finished so no one will be able to see what you have been doing. The data will be stored on the student researcher's computer and an external hard drive. All files will be

password protected. The files will be maintained for 3 years following the closure of the project, at which point they will be erased. Your privacy will be protected because you will not be identified by name as a participant in this project. All information obtained in this study is strictly confidential unless disclosure is required by law.

This study is completely voluntary. Thus, you are free to refuse to participate or to withdraw your consent to be in this study at any time. There will be no penalty or unfair treatment should you choose not to be in this study. Participation in this study is not a requirement of your employment, nor will impact your employment. From participation in this study, you may experience new insights and awareness of the experience of diverse students in the school system. In addition, you may have positive feelings related to the knowledge that you are contributing to research that may help school counselors working with English Language Learners. Also, information gained from this research will assist school counselor training programs in better preparing school counselors to work with ELLs. There are minimal potential risks to you as a participant. You may feel a bit of discomfort during the intervention exercise, but no more than the typical discomfort felt in other exercises and discussions had during your normal professional development activities. There are no foreseeable risks associated with the survey, only those associated with feelings that may arise from survey questions.

If you should decide to participate, you will be asked to include your name, phone number, and email address in the spaces provided below. This information will solely be used to email you the link to the online survey and to send a reminder email or phone call about the scheduled intervention date. This information will not be made available to anyone other than me. Out of the individuals who volunteer to participate, 30 will be randomly selected to participate in the dissertation research. However, the researcher will be offering later administrations of the intervention for anyone who is interested in participating.

If you have any questions you would like addressed before agreeing to participate, you can contact Maria Paredes at 336-430-6694 with your questions.

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro Institutional Review Board, which ensures that research involving people follows federal regulations, has approved the research and this consent form. Questions regarding your rights as a participant in this project can be answered by calling Mr. Eric Allen at (336) 256-1482. Questions regarding the research itself will be answered by Maria Paredes by calling 336-430-6694 or emailing mabrunel@uncg.edu or Dr. L. DiAnne Borders by calling 336-334-3425 or emailing borders@uncg.edu. Any new information that develops during the project will be provided to you if the information might affect your willingness to continue participation in the project. By indicating your agreement, you are affirming that you are 18 years of age or older and are agreeing to participate in the project described above. Please print a copy of this informed consent form for your records.

By including your name, phone number, and email address, and clicking “I wish to participate” you are indicating your consent and agreement to participate.

APPENDIX R: INFORMED CONSENT FORM—HARD COPY VERSION
& SCRIPT OF ORAL PRESENTATION

THE UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA AT GREENSBORO
CONSENT TO ACT AS A HUMAN PARTICIPANT:
SHORT FORM ORAL PRESENTATION

Project Title: Addressing the Professional Development Awareness Needs of School Counselors Regarding English Language Learners

Project Director: L. DiAnne Borders & Maria Brunelli Paredes

Participant's Name: _____

What this study is about

Maria Brunelli Paredes has explained in the earlier verbal discussion the procedures involved in this research study. These include the purpose and what will be required of you. Any new information that comes up during the study will be provided to you if the information might affect your willingness to continue participation in the project.

Possible good things that may come out of this study

You may experience new insights and awareness of the experience of diverse students in the school system. In addition, you may have positive feelings related to the knowledge that you are contributing to research that may help school counselors working with English Language Learners. Also, information gained from this research will assist school counselor training programs in better preparing school counselors to work with ELLs.

Possible risks that may occur in this study

There are minimal potential risks to you as a participant. You may feel a bit of discomfort during the intervention exercise, but no more than the typical discomfort felt in other exercises and discussions had during your normal professional development activities. There are no foreseeable risks associated with the survey, only those associated with feelings that may arise from survey questions.

All of my questions

Maria Brunelli Paredes has answered all of your current questions about you being in this study. Any other questions about this study will be answered by phone at 336-430-6694 or email at mabrunel@uncg.edu.

Leaving the study

You are free to refuse to participate or to withdraw your consent to be in this study at any time. There will be no penalty or unfair treatment if you choose not to be in the study. Being in this study is completely voluntary.

My personal information

Your privacy will be protected. You will not be identified by name or other identifiable information as being part of this project. All data collected, including this consent form, will be stored in a locked file cabinet in the researcher's home office for a minimum of three years after the completion of this research, after which time all consent forms will be destroyed. All electronic data will be stored on the student researcher's computer and an external hard drive. All files will be password protected. The files will be maintained for 3 years following the closure of the project, at which point they will be erased.

Study approval

The University of North Carolina at Greensboro Institutional Review Board, makes sure that studies with people follows federal rules. They have approved this study, its consent form, and the earlier verbal discussion.

My rights while in this study

If you have any concerns about your rights, how you are being treated or if you have questions, want more information or have suggestions, please contact Mr. Eric Allen in the Office of Research Compliance at UNCG at (336) 256-1482.

By signing this form, you are agreeing that you are 18 years of age or older. You also agree to participate in the study described to you by Maria Brunelli Paredes.

Participant's Signature

Date

Witness* to Oral Presentation
and Participant's Signature

*Investigators and data collectors may not serve as witnesses. Participants, family members, and persons unaffiliated with the study may serve as witnesses.

Signature of person obtaining consent on behalf of
The University of North Carolina at Greensboro

Date

Script for Oral Presentation of Informed Consent

"You are being asked if you want to be in a research study. The purpose of this study is to address the professional development needs of school counselors working with English Language Learners (ELLs). From this study, I hope to collect information about the effectiveness of an intervention and whether any refinements to the intervention need to be made. You have been picked for this study because you are a practicing school counselor. You are eligible to participate if you have at least 2 years of experience working as a school counselor and speak only 1 language. In addition, you must be available to participate in the intervention on the scheduled date. This discussion and the piece of paper (short form) given to you will tell you about the study to help you decide if you want to be part of the study.

If you decide to participate, you may be asked to take part in a simulation that will require you as a participant to be treated as a school-aged student navigating your way through various school resources. Additionally, you will be asked to respond to items before and after the intervention via an online survey website. The time required for the

intervention is approximately 90 minutes, and will take place on Thursday, March 4th at the University of North Carolina at Greensboro. The time required for the survey items is approximately 30-40 minutes (15-20 minutes each of 2 times). All participants will receive a \$15 gift card to Target after completion of the study. Individuals who take part in the simulation will receive 90 minutes of continuing education credits from the National Board of Certified Counselors via the department of Counseling and Educational Development. Individuals who do not take part in the simulation will be offered an opportunity to do the simulation at a later date and receive continuing education credits. During the simulation exercise, I will not collect any identifying information from you, but will keep general notes about what changes I need to make to exercise.

It is important to the researcher that your responses to the survey questions remain confidential. Therefore, the researcher will request that the online survey website (Survey Monkey) NOT attach your email or computer IP address to your survey responses - allowing your responses to the survey to remain anonymous. Absolute confidentiality of data provided through the Internet cannot be guaranteed due to the limited protections of Internet access. You will be reminded to please be sure to close your browser when finished so no one will be able to see what you have been doing. The data will be stored on the student researcher's computer and an external hard drive. All files will be password protected. The files will be maintained for 3 years following the closure of the project, at which point they will be erased. Your privacy will be protected because you will not be identified by name as a participant in this project. All information obtained in this study is strictly confidential unless disclosure is required by law.

This study is completely voluntary. Thus, you are free to refuse to participate or to withdraw your consent to be in this study at any time. There will be no penalty or unfair treatment should you choose not to be in this study. Participation in this study is not a requirement of your employment, nor will impact your employment. From participation in this study, you may experience new insights and awareness of the experience of diverse students in the school system. In addition, you may have positive feelings related to the knowledge that you are contributing to research that may help school counselors working with English Language Learners. Also, information gained from this research will assist school counselor training programs in better preparing school counselors to work with ELLs. There are minimal potential risks to you as a participant. You may feel a bit of discomfort during the intervention exercise, but no more than the typical discomfort felt in other exercises and discussions had during your normal professional development activities. There are no foreseeable risks associated with the survey, only those associated with feelings that may arise from survey questions.

If you should decide to participate, I will ask that you include your name, phone number, and email address on the sign-up sheet being passed around. This information will solely be used to email you the link to the online survey and to send a reminder email or phone call about the scheduled intervention date. This information will not be made available to anyone other than me. Out of the individuals who volunteer to participate, 30 will be randomly selected to participate in the dissertation research. However, I will be

offering later administrations of the intervention for anyone who is interested in participating.

You should ask any questions you have before making up your mind. Do you have any questions I can address?If you decide you want to be in the study you will need to sign the piece of paper (short form) given to you earlier. A family member, friend, or someone next to you will also need to sign this piece of paper as the witness. Thank you for your time.”

APPENDIX S: RESULTS FOR REPEATED MEASURES ANOVA FOR DEGREE
ELL PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT NEEDS ARE MET

Control N = 19

Treatment N = 11

Control	n	Pretest			n	%	Posttest	
		%	M	SD			M	SD
Not at all met (1)	7	36.8			8	42.1		
Somewhat met (2)	8	42.1			8	42.1		
Sufficient met (3)	4	21.1			3	15.8		
Fully met (4)	0	0			0	0		
			1.84	.77			1.74	.73
Treatment								
Not at all met (1)	5	45.5			5	45.5		
Somewhat met (2)	6	54.5			6	54.5		
Sufficient met (3)	0	0			0	0		
Fully met (4)	0	0			0	0		
			1.55	.52			1.55	.52
		Total Pretest	1.73	.69		Total Posttest	1.67	.66

Test of Between-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Group	.83	1	.83	1.07	.31	.04	.17
Error	21.77	28	.78				

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared	Observed Power
Time	.04	1	.04	.28	.60	.01	.08
Time * Group	.04	1	.04	.28	.60	.01	.08
Error(Time)	3.90	28	.14				

APPENDIX T: CROSS-TABULATION OF ELL PROFESSIONAL
DEVELOPMENT NEEDS MET * EFFECTIVENESS

Degree ELL PD Needs are Met * Effectiveness Cross-Tabulation						
			Effectiveness			Total
			Somewhat Effective	Effective	Very Effective	
Degree ELL PD Needs are Met	Not at all met	Count	0	3	2	5
		% of total	.0	27.3	18.2	45.5
	Somewhat Met	Count	2	2	2	6
		% of total	18.2	18.2	18.2	54.5
Total		Count	2	5	4	11
		% of total	18.2	45.5	36.4	100.0

Chi-Square Tests			
	Value	<i>df</i>	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Pearson Chi-Square	2.13 ^a	2	.35
Likelihood Ratio	2.88	2	.24
Linear-by-Linear Association	.77	1	.38
N of Valid Cases	11		

a. 6 cells (100%) have expected count less than 5. The minimum expected count is .91.

Footnotes

1. The author attended a presentation by Dr. Kathy Gainor explaining The Game of Life exercise at the annual meeting of the Association for Counselor Education & Supervision in the fall of 2005. Dr. Gainor reported that she had attempted but was unable to ascertain the original author and correct citation for the exercise. The researcher was unable to locate an article or book describing the exercise.