

THE RELATIONSHIP OF SELF-EFFICACY, SELF-ADVOCACY, AND
MULTICULTURAL COUNSELING COMPETENCY OF SCHOOL COUNSELORS:
A STRUCTURAL EQUATION MODEL

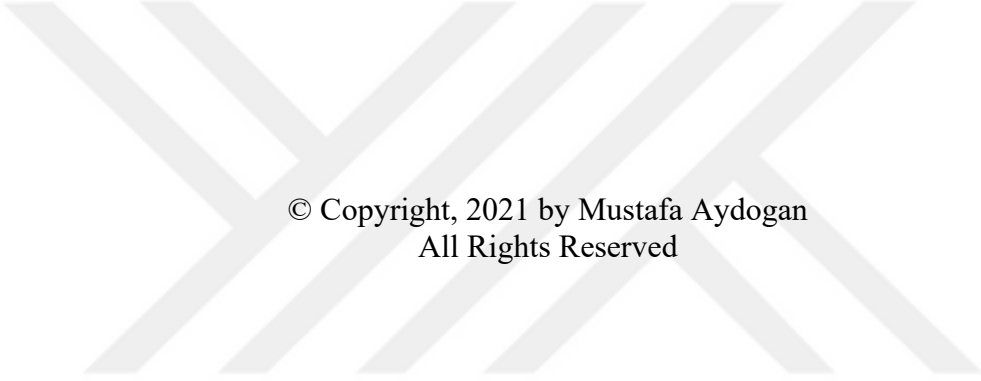


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By

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THE RELATIONSHIP OF SELF-EFFICACY, SELF-ADVOCACY, AND MULTICULTURAL
COUNSELING COMPETENCY OF SCHOOL COUNSELORS: A STRUCTURAL
EQUATION MODEL (167 pp.)

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The purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship among self-efficacy, self-advocacy, and multicultural counseling competency of school counselors currently practicing in the US. The research questions guided this study included (a) What are the direct and indirect influences of school counselor self-efficacy on multicultural counseling competence? (b) Is the relationship between self-efficacy and multicultural counseling competence mediated by self-advocacy for school counselors?

The data were collected from 306 school counselors practicing in the US. Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Structural Equation Model (SEM) were used in the data analysis in the study. The results suggested self-efficacy significantly predicted multicultural counseling competence among the US school counselors. The results of the hypothesized structural model also suggested that self-advocacy had a strong indirect effect on multicultural counseling competence mediated by self-efficacy. The results of the data analysis, discussions of the findings, implications of the current study, and limitations and future research directions are presented herein.

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This work has been a product of all the people I have met along the way to today. All I hope is that their contributions embedded in this paper make a difference to those who have been historically marginalized, isolated, and discriminated against. I for one know that I am an outcome of all the support I have received from family, academic family, friends, and my scholarship provider, the Republic of Turkey, Ministry of Education. So thank you all for helping me become who I am today.

DEDICATION

Dedicated to my dear partner, Xin,
and my lovely daughter, Leyla Hong...



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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

School counselors are certified/licensed professionals who help all students reach their academic, career, and social potentials by implementing comprehensive school counseling programs (American School Counselor Association [ASCA], 2017, 2019). US Bureau of Labor Statistics Occupational Outlook Handbook (2019) reported that there were 324,500 *school and career counselors* as of 2018. It is important to note here that this number included professionals (school psychologists, administrators, or teachers) who perform school counselor duties and do not have adequate school counseling training outlined by American School Counselor Association (ASCA) and the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP). More specifically, ASCA reported to have 36,000 active members including practicing school counselors, graduate students, and counselor educators.

In terms of demographics, school counselors are predominantly European descent (White) females (Erford, 2019). ASCA (Membership Demographics, 2018) reported 81% of its members (36,000) as White and 85% as female. While the profession lacks gender, racial, and ethnic diversity in school counselors, students of these school counselors have become more and more diverse. For example, in 1996, 33.61% of the students in the US schools were students of color (Hispanic, Black, Asian/Pacific Islander, American Indian/Native American, and two or more races; U.S. Department of Education [DE], 2012). This ratio became 45.43% in 2010, and it was projected to be 50.42% by the end of 2020 (DE, 2012). Furthermore, United States Census (2012) also projected that 50% of all the children under the age of 18 will be the children of color by 2030. Hence, majority-White-female school counselors' responsibility to provide

culture-sensitive services is greater than any other time in the history of school counseling in the US.

School counselors' ability to work with culturally diverse individuals has received a considerable amount of attention in counseling literature (Arredondo et al., 1996; Forbes & Hutchison, 2020; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001, 2004; Shure et al., 2019; Sue et al., 1992; Sue et al., 1982). In a position statement, American School Counselor Association (ASCA, 2019) stated: "School counselors demonstrate cultural responsiveness by collaborating with stakeholders to create a school and community climate that embraces cultural diversity and helps to promote the academic, career and social/emotional success for all students" (p. 24). School counselors' ability to demonstrate cultural responsiveness has been defined as *multicultural counseling competence* (MCC; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001, 2004; Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999). School counselors with MCC are to provide culturally responsive services to all students "particularly students of culturally diverse, low social-economic status, and other underserved or underperforming populations" (ASCA, 2005a, p. 77).

In counseling literature, the construct of MCC has been investigated since its introduction to the counseling profession in 1980s. Sue et al. (1982) proposed to the field of counseling that what had been done in counseling and psychology was to adopt the medical deficit model on diverse client groups. Instead of the inferiority claims that were fed by the "scientific racism" theories (p. 45), Sue et al. offered that everyone inherits culture that is unique, and counselors need to understand and develop competencies to work with these unique characteristics of diverse client groups (Sue et al., 1982). With the contributions of Sue et al. (1992) and later Arredondo et al. (1996), multicultural competencies were expanded and defined in clear terms. MCC has been widely accepted as a threefold concept: *knowledge, awareness, and skills*

(Arredondo et al., 1996; Sue et al., 1982). *Multicultural knowledge* refers to the counselors' understandings of their own worldview as well as their specific knowledge about the cultural groups with whom they work. In contrast, *multicultural awareness* is related to the counselor's own ability to recognize their attitudes and beliefs about minority groups and to recognize the need for self-reflection on values, stereotypes, and biases. Finally, *multicultural skills* are related to the counselors' ability to utilize appropriate intervention skills that are culture-sensitive and effective working with diverse populations (Cook et al., 2019; Forbes & Hutchison, 2020; Sue et al., 1992).

In addition, there has been a growing literature on the multicultural issues in relations to school counselors (Constantine & Gushue, 2003; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001, 2004, 2008; Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004; Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999; Shure et al., 2019). ASCA Ethical Standards (2016) stated "school counselors monitor and expand personal multicultural and social-justice advocacy awareness, knowledge, and skills to be an effective culturally competent school counselor" (B.3.i). In other words, to be a culturally competent school counselor is not only a necessity but also an ethical responsibility.

Unlike the commonly accepted tripartite model initially offered by Sue et al. (1982), it appears that school counselor MCC has different dimensions due to the uniqueness of school counseling work environment. For instance, Holcomb-McCoy (2001) reported racial identity and terminology as additional factors of MCC for school counselors as well as the previously mentioned factors, self-awareness, knowledge, and skills. Similarly, in 2012, Tadlock-Marlo et al. pointed that many measurements (such as the one used by Holcomb-McCoy [2001]) to assess school counselor MCC were either developed for or normed based on clinical mental health professionals. Instead, Tadlock-Marlo et al. (2012) offered a new MCC scale that confirmed

ASCA and AMCD standards. After a series of validation studies, they reported their instrument offered four subscales: collaboration, assessment of school environment, reflection of personal culture, and interpersonal relationships. Pointing that their results did not reflect the results of previous research on school counselor MCC, Tadlock-Marlo et al. (2012) suggested that “continuous investigations concerning factor loadings that represent school counselor multicultural competencies may reveal additional latent theory to be analyzed” (p. 248).

Multicultural counseling literature offers a linkage between various variables and MCC. To begin with, MCC has been found to be predicted by White racial identity development (Constantine, 2002b; Ottavi et al., 1994) and racism attitudes (Constantine, 2002b). According to Constantine (2002b), participants (school counselor trainees) who “harbor racist attitudes may be less aware of cultural issues in the context of counseling” (p. 170); they were, in turn, less likely to appreciate and utilize cultural characteristics of students with whom they worked. In addition, another consistent predictor of MCC includes the number of multicultural courses taken (Holcomb-McCoy, 2005; Pietrantonio & Glance, 2019) as well as gender (Constantine, 2001; Constantine & Yeh, 2001; Constantine & Gushue, 2003; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001; Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004), empathy (Camp et al., 2019; Constantine & Yeh, 2001), theoretical orientation (Constantine, 2002a), and being a minority group member (Yeh & Arora, 2003). While specific variables such as gender, empathy, or minority status of counselors have been overly investigated in the literature, there is still a lack of information on overarching models of what personality attitudes directly contribute to the development of MCC. Self-efficacy is one of those attitudes that emerges some of these aforementioned variables with MCC.

Self-efficacy is one's belief about their own capacity to accomplish a given task (Bandura, 1982, 1993). Therefore, school counselor self-efficacy (SCSE) is defined as the beliefs a school counselor holds in their ability to perform any school-related task (R. S. Johnson, 2002). Counseling researchers have investigated the concept of self-efficacy as a predictor of school counselors' awareness of achievement gap (Bodenhorn et al., 2010), ethnic identity development (Matthews et al., 2018), school climate (Sutton & Fall, 1995), school counselor advocacy competence (Goldsmith, 2011), and, finally, multicultural counseling competence (Barden & Greene, 2015; Camp et al., 2019). Matthews et al. (2018) found that multicultural self-efficacy explained 50% of the variance in MCC in a sample of 172 practicing school and mental health counselors. Their results also indicated that there were other variables explaining the other 50%, which their study did not offer any further solution. Although various factors have been found to be related to multicultural self-efficacy such as ethnicity and years of experience (Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008), gender (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), and support of school staff and administrators (Sutton & Fall, 1995), none of these studies investigated these complex concepts in the same study. Aforementioned studies either looked at the basic correlations between self-efficacy and cultural competencies (e.g., Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008) or, at the most, a regression analysis of self-efficacy, multicultural self-efficacy, and ethnic identity development (e.g., Matthews et al., 2018; Parikh-Foxx et al., 2020). No study has explored more complex research methods to look at cultural competencies in relation to self-efficacy and self-advocacy for school counselors.

Self-advocacy as a term was associated with individuals with disabilities during the civil rights movement (Test et al., 2005). Individuals with disabilities historically struggled with advocating for their unique needs. Therefore, self-advocacy is defined as one's ability to

effectively assert and negotiate their interests, desires, needs, and rights (Astramovich & Harris, 2007). Similarly, school counselor self-advocacy is defined as “the ability to effectively and appropriately communicate, convey, negotiate, or assert information about ideal school counselors’ roles to those with the ability to change the circumstances that contribute to the problem or inequity” (Clemens et al., 2011, p. 34). School counselor self-advocacy has been suggested in closing the discrepancy between the ideal job requirements and the irrelevant school activities school counselors oftentimes find themselves being obligated to take on (Clemens et al., 2011; Wilkerson et al., 2013).

Although there is a scarcity of research linking multicultural counseling literature to self-advocacy, Trusty and Brown (2005) pointed out that advocacy is included in many multicultural counseling competencies. Therefore, once again, there is a gap in the literature in linking personality attitudes such as self-advocacy and self-efficacy with multicultural counseling competencies in order to see the bigger, perhaps more complex, picture. Investigating school counselor self-efficacy and self-advocacy, this study may provide valuable insights into how such attitudes impact school counselors’ work with culturally diverse students, and, in turn, the results of this study may help counselor educators advance their multicultural training quality by including pedagogical strategies to boost training students’ self-efficacy and self-advocacy skills.

Purpose of the Study

As indicated previously, there is a scarcity of research focusing on school counselor multicultural counseling competence in relations to school counselor self-efficacy and self-advocacy skills and attitudes. Although the literature is saturated with MCC studies on other mental health counselors, school counselors have not gained enough attention from the

counseling researchers for their abilities in working with diverse student populations. This is alarming due to three main reasons. First, due to birth rate differences among different subgroups and immigration from different parts of the world to the US, American schools are becoming more and more diverse. School counselor multicultural counseling competence in working with students from different not only racial and ethnic groups but also “cultural heritage; socioeconomic status; age; gender; sexual orientation; and religious and spiritual beliefs, as well as physical, emotional, and mental abilities” (Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs [CACREP], 2016, p. 42) is indispensable in such school environments. Second reason for why investigation of school counselor MCC is important is related to the school counselor education. During their training, school counselors are taught about the traditional counseling theories and frames of references that are historically based on the European value systems (Holcomb-McCoy & Chen-Hayes, 2011). The discrepancy between the theoretical education and the day-to-day practices of school counselors can only be overcome by understanding the components of MCC and how it can be taught to the training school counselors during their graduate education. Third, along with the influences of Eurocentric counseling theories, the fact that most school counselors are White females also urges school counselor researchers to develop a commonly accepted cultural competence approach in interacting with diverse student bodies.

Other personality attitudes have been found to be predicting a school counselor’s cultural competence. Self-efficacy as a concept has been found to be strongly related to school counselors work quality such as the awareness of achievement gap in their schools (Bodenhorn et al., 2010). Self-efficacy has been defined as the ability and belief about one’s own capacity to successfully perform school counseling related tasks (Gordillo, 2015; Holcomb-McCoy, 2008).

Although there has been a small number of research studies investigating the relationship between self-efficacy and MCC (Camp et al., 2019; Holcomb-McCoy, 2008; Tang, 2020), there is even more limited available research on school counselors. Therefore, a study exploring the complex structure of the relationships between self-efficacy and MCC has potential contributions to the field of school counseling.

Along with the self-efficacy and MCC, this study also investigated school counselors' self-advocacy in relation to their self-efficacy and MCC levels. As a concept school counselor self-advocacy has been defined as the ability to effectively assert and negotiate information with those who can assist school counselors to accomplish the ideal school counselor roles and responsibilities (Clemens et al., 2011). Considering the role confusions and unclear role definitions of school counselors (Bemak & Chung, 2008; DeKruyf et al., 2013), self-advocacy could be a key concept in overcoming these daily struggles of school counselors. Although there has been some research examining the relationship between MCC with various variables (self-esteem, working alliance, self-efficacy, or self-advocacy), there seems to be a scarcity in comprehensive study designs including MCC, self-advocacy, and self-efficacy of school counselors. Thus, the purpose of the current study was to fill this gap in the literature.

Research Questions

The current study pursues to answer the following research questions:

Research Question 1: What are the direct and indirect influences of school counselor self-efficacy on multicultural counseling competence?

Research Question 2: Is the relationship between self-efficacy and multicultural counseling competence mediated by self-advocacy for school counselors?

Definition of Terms

The following is a list of terms that are critical throughout this study process:

Multicultural Counseling Competence: Multicultural counseling competence is a multilayered concept that describes awareness, knowledge, and skills of counselors in being able to consider counseling relationship from cultural perspectives (Sue et al., 1982).

Multicultural Counseling: “Multicultural counseling refers to preparation and practices that integrate multicultural and culture-specific awareness, knowledge, and skills into counseling interactions” (Arredondo et al., 1996, p. 43). While earlier writers of multicultural competencies emphasized race and ethnicity as the components of culture (Arredondo et al., 1996; Sue, et al., 1982; Sue et al., 1992), in this study, all possible dimensions of culture (race, ethnicity, gender, sexual orientation, disability, age, etc.) are included in the meaning of multicultural counseling.

Professional School Counselor: “School counselors are certified/licensed educators who improve student success for ALL students by implementing a comprehensive school counseling program” (ASCA, 2019, p. 1).

School Counselor Multicultural Counseling Competence: School counselors’ ability to effectively work with diverse student populations by collaborating with stakeholders in providing an environment upon which student academic, social, and emotional success can be supported.

School Counselor Self-Advocacy: “The ability to effectively and appropriately communicate, convey, negotiate, or assert information about ideal school counselors’ roles to those with the ability to change the circumstances that contribute to the problem or inequity” (Clemens et al., 2011, p. 34).

School Counselor Self-Efficacy: School counselors' belief about their own ability to accomplish school related activities that are defined by ASCA national model (Holcomb-McCoy, 2008; R. S. Johnson, 2002).

Self-Advocacy: One's ability to effectively assert and negotiate their interests, desires, needs, and rights (Astramovich & Harris, 2007).

Self-Efficacy: Self-efficacy is one's belief about their capacity to accomplish a given task (Bandura, 1982, 1997).

Review of the Literature

In this section, an investigation of existing literature was presented. The section started with an historical perspective on the field of school counseling in an attempt to provide context for the current study. Following, an extensive literature review on multicultural counseling competence, self-efficacy, and self-advocacy in relation school counseling was introduced. The review ended with the need for the study and a summary.

History of School Counseling

It is important to understand the roots of school counseling from a historical perspective because many current issues of school counseling are the results of historical events starting from the early 19th century. To begin with, at the end of 18th and the beginning of 19th century, the ramifications of industrial revolution around the globe forced people to immigrate to cities with the goal of finding jobs for better living conditions. The US was no exception. Cities such as Boston received millions of people from smaller cities as well as immigrants from European countries (Gysbers, 2001; Pope, 2009). As the society needed a systematic approach to match people with the best possible jobs, pioneers like George Merrill, Jesse B. Davis, and Frank Parsons led a movement that was later called 'vocational guidance' (Erford, 2019). Frank

Parsons, often known as “the father of guidance,” was one of the earlier figures who claimed that schools were not providing the vocational preparation for the needs of industrial world. To meet this need of society, he founded the Vocations Bureau of the Civic Services in 1908 to educate underprivileged individuals who were mostly immigrants on the issues of making educated career decisions (Erford, 2019; Gysbers, 2001; Parikh-Foxx et al., 2020). Another important figure who implemented a structured guidance curriculum during his English composition classes in Grand Rapids, Michigan, was Jesse B. Davis. Davis is often credited as “the first school guidance counselor” (Pope, 2009, p. 257). Davis later published his work of implementing vocational guidance in education settings in a book, *Vocational and Moral Guidance* (1914). In these early stages of school counseling, the only purpose of the field was *vocational guidance* (Gysbers, 2001; Pope, 2009). The focus was not yet on individual students, instead, to better the conditions of societal ramifications of industrial revolution (Erford, 2019).

The formation of school counseling was mostly shaped by John Dewey’s cognitive development movement and the trait and factor theory in 1920s, 1930s, and 1940s. Dewey supported the idea of implementing guidance strategies into curriculum in order to support student development (Erford, 2019). While the focus was shifting from vocational guidance to student behaviors, during these decades, E. G. William’s trait and factor theory was still dominantly used in schools. According to this theory, guidance counselors had an indispensable responsibility in providing vocational information to the students. Along with these paradigm changes in the philosophy of school counseling, the establishment of the field was producing long lasting results. For example, in 1926, New York became the first state to require a certification program for guidance workers who had little or no training in their guidance work.

In 1929, New York State Department of Education hired the first full-time guidance personnel to help school districts for incorporation of school counselors into schools (Erford, 2019).

During 1940s, Carl Rogers and his ideas around humanistic counseling approaches shifted school guidance field once more (Gysbers, 2001). As Rogers created his person-centered therapy approach, schools started implementing student-centered approaches to eliminate the problem-child applications of counseling. Later years of school counseling were mostly shaped by World War I, legislation acts, and the Cold War between the United States and the Soviet Union. During these years, with the push of US Congress, schools started testing and data-oriented approaches. School counselors took more and more responsibilities in the process of testing students in order to identify and channel academically talented students to science majors in the race against the superpowers of the world (Gysbers, 2011). Today's school counselors still suffer from the remaining responsibilities of testing in school environments leaving less time to direct student interactions (Erford, 2019; Parikh-Foxx et al., 2020; Schenck et al., 2012).

A milestone in the history of school counseling was the founding of American School Counseling Association in 1952 and, a year later, its becoming a division of American Personal and Guidance Association (APGA, now the American Counseling Association [ACA]). These developments were particularly influential in creating a systematic support and advocacy for school counseling at the local and state level legislation (Erford, 2019; Schenck et al., 2012). For academic research and better communication between the field and academia, ASCA published its *School Counselor* professional journal in 1953. This journal (now *Professional School Counselor*) has been a common platform in supporting the members of the profession (Erford, 2019).

Starting with the civil rights movements and their legislative outcomes, schools have become more and more diverse especially after the end of racial segregations in schools. School counselors were viewed as the agents of social reconstructions in educational settings (Erford, 2019). However, this responsibility is still continuing to shape school counselors' day-to-day activities. According to Lee (2001),

Appropriate educational processes require that schools move beyond the myth of a monolithic society to the reality of cultural diversity. Professional school counselors can be on the cutting edge of this movement. As the 21st Century begins, it is becoming clear that a new American culture is emerging, a universal culture where diversity and pluralism are accepted hallmarks of the society. (p. 261)

During 2000s and the last decade, No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 and ASCA National Model have widely effected the course of the profession (Erford, 2019). The purpose of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 was to keep schools accountable for progress of all the students making sure that no one was "left behind" (Dollarhide & Lemberger, 2006). This act made federal funding available for states and districts to implement rigorous testing measures in order to identify and improve schools that were failing. The No Child Left Behind Act also enforced regulations on the reports of school progress or failure to be publicly published (Erford, 2019). In response to these changes, the field of school counseling also pushed for accountability in the work school counselors performed in schools. ASCA published National Standards for School Counselors in a re-attempt to clarify the school counselor role confusions as well as to bring accountability to the field (Knight, 2010).

ASCA National Model

Following the publication of ASCA National Standards in 1997 that had nine standards, three under each domain of academic, career, and personal/social development (Campbell & Dahir, 1997), the standards were implemented in many schools across the US through various counseling activities; however, the standards were answering the question of “what” to include in school counselors’ work not “how” (ASCA, 2019). In order to put these standards in a broader framework and to describe “how” to implement the national standards, ASCA published *The ASCA National Model: A framework for School Counseling Program* in 2003, now in its fourth edition. ASCA National Model (2012b) described school counselor responsibilities and student success under four fundamental elements—*foundation, management, delivery, and accountability* (in the 2019 edition of the model; *define, manage, deliver, and assess*). Although the changes were made to update the model with more structural modifications than content, “because the educational environment has changed substantially, language from the previous edition was clarified to reflect the current state of education” (p. 7). Table 1 is a synopsis of the main changes in the fourth edition of ASCA National Model.

Define domain (initially called “foundation”) of ASCA National Model (ASCA, 2019) is to answer the “what” of the model. School counseling goals and philosophical foundations are defined in this section. More specifically, (a) program focus, (b) student competencies, and (c) professional competencies are the sub-sections. In the *manage* domain (initially called “management”) “when” and “why” of comprehensive school counseling program are answered. The manage element includes (a) annual management agreements with school stakeholders, (b) advisory council activities and responsibilities, (c) use of data through disaggregation and Program Results Data of process data, (d) perception data, and outcome data, (e) calendars, and

Table 1

Summary of the Main Changes in the Fourth Edition of ASCA National Model

Third Edition	Fourth Edition	Main Changes
Foundation	Define	ASCA Mindset & Behaviors (2014) replaced ASCA Student Standards (research-based mindsets and behaviors are emphasized). Professional Competencies were updated based on the 2016 ASCA Ethical Standards instead of the 2010 document. Data types and gathering methods are clarified. More emphasis on the school data summary for school counselors.
Management	Manage	More attention was given to the school counselor work to promote and teach the school counseling curriculum.
Delivery	Deliver	More emphasis was placed on the school counselor work with analyzing student ability, interest, and achievements, therefore, make recommendations based on the data gathered for students to make decisions for their futures.
Accountability	Assess	User friendly suggestions and tips are added in order to help school counselors collect, analyze, and report data in their work with students, stakeholders, and the future of the school counseling program.

(f) use of time. In the third domain of the ASCA National Model, *delivery*, the “how” of the model, is explicitly explained. The components of the counseling program include (a) guidance curriculum, (b) individual student planning, (c) responsive services, and (d) systems support explaining the details of specific interventions (individual and group counseling, consultation, etc.). All the services described under delivery are categorized under direct and indirect services (ASCA, 2019). In the model, it is emphasized to keep the indirect school counseling activities such as referrals or consultation under no more than 20% of school counselors’ time leaving 80% for direct contact with students. The last section of the model is *assess* (initially called “accountability”). This domain answers the question of “How are students different as a result of the school counseling program?” Data-oriented school counseling program is emphasized by introducing specific ways of how school counselors can be accountable in their schools. School counseling program result reports are supported by (a) curriculum results report, (b) small-group

results report, and (c) closing-the-gap results report. These strategies are to assist school counselors to assess how students are different as a result of school counseling programs in schools (Erford, 2019).

Infusion of Multiculturalism in Counseling

The idea of paying particular attention to the cross-cultural aspects of counseling is relatively a new development in the history of psychotherapy and counseling (Cook et al., 2019; Ridley & Kleiner, 2003). Understanding the history of multiculturalism in the context of helping professions may bring clarity for why this movement started in the first place, how it has evolved through historical events, and, more importantly, where the discussion is heading in the future.

Before 1980s

Only a small amount of literature existed on the issues of culture and multiculturalism in counseling before 1980s (Ridley & Kleiner, 2003). It was during the civil rights movement that the mental health professionals realized how the White values embedded in the traditional counseling approaches could conflict with the values of diverse populations who needed counseling services (DeBlaere et al., 2019; Ridley & Kleiner, 2003; Sue et al., 1982). In response to this realization as a field, newly forming organizations undertook leadership in expanding the multicultural discussion in counseling.

The founding of Human Rights Commission by American Personnel and Guidance Association (APGA; now the American Counseling Association) in 1965 was one of the earlier attempts to recognize the need for culturally responsive practice and research in counseling. However, specific competencies and the definition of multicultural counseling were accomplished by the Association for Multicultural Counseling and Development (AMCD) that was founded in 1972. With explicit efforts from these organizations as well as the research

published during late the 1970s and early 1980s (see Sue et al., 1982), components of multicultural counselling competence began to appear in counseling literature. during these years, it is important to note that the competencies were not required in counselor education programs (Arredondo et al., 1996; Ridley & Kleiner, 2003).

1980s and 1990s

Sue et al. (1982) posited the foundations for the question of why counselors had to have multicultural competence (original term used was *cross-cultural counseling*) to be able to work with culturally diverse clients. They defined cross-cultural counseling as “any counseling relationship in which two or more of the participants differ with respect to cultural background, values, and lifestyle” (p. 47). Furthermore, as a result of the collective attention increasingly paid to clients’ cultural context and the role of counselor in this contextual relationship during 1980s, Sue et al. (1992) published their work, *Multicultural counseling competencies and standards: A call to the profession*, in both the *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development* and the *Journal of Counseling and Development*. In this conceptual article, authors, for the first time, systematically described the components of multicultural competencies. As a result of the field’s acceptance of their tripartite framework as well as APA’s endorsement of MCC in 1993, significant literature arose around the specific competencies, training competent counselors, culturally relevant supervision, and assessment of MCC (Ridley & Kleiner, 2003).

2000s and Current

Multiculturalism was first introduced to encompass mainly the issues of race, ethnicity, and the country of origin (Sue et al., 1992). Extensive research studies and sociopolitical discussions during 2000s have expanded the multicultural counseling discussions by adding other variables and lifestyles into the list; sexual orientation, religion, socioeconomic

background, and other possible value and lifestyle differences that may be a part of counselor-client relationship (Clark et al., 2017; DeBlaere et al., 2019; Pietrantonio & Glance, 2019; Pope-Davis & Coleman, 2001; Sue et al., 1992). In the final analysis, counseling field has appeared to be moving away from the multicultural counseling competence to multicultural social justice competence (Clark et al., 2017; Cook et al., 2019). To that end, Association for Multicultural Counseling and Development published Multicultural and Social Justice Counseling Competencies in 2015. This document is still one of the significant resources for school counselors as well as other professional mental health employees.

While the field of school counseling has dealt with issues that were rooted in the historical events in the recent years, new developments and changes are emerging in the society of the 21st century, therefore, requiring the professional school counselor transform (Dimmitt, 2010; Strear, 2016). First, an important global perspective affecting the school counseling profession is the evolving dynamics of societies in the world due to immigration, globalization, and birthrate differences among the different cultures. Majority White-female school counselors of the US are urged to be culturally competent to work with not only local subcultures in different parts of the US but also the international populations from all over the world (Balkin et al., 2009; Dahir & Stone, 2009; Forbes & Hutchison, 2020; Toomey & Storlie, 2016).

Transforming school counseling programs has been and is going to be an important item on the agenda of the profession (ASCA, 2019). Various subcategories exist in the transformation of school counseling. For example, use of technology and its benefits have been cited in the literature as an important factor in determining the profession's transformation (Friery & Nelson, 2004; Sabella & Booker, 2003; Sabella et al., 2010). Despite the flourishing usage of online world in various fields and businesses, school counseling literature has merely touched on the

issue. For instance, one of the rare studies of school counseling websites, Hestand (2015), suggested that utilization of webpages by school counselors may provide content for culturally diverse students bodies and their parents. This is particularly crucial in making the school counseling services available as counselor-to-student ratio remains as 1:500 while the ideal number suggested by ASCA is 1:250 (Erford, 2019; Hestand, 2015).

Multicultural Counseling Competence

All human interactions, more specifically all counseling relationships are cross-cultural/multicultural that is affected by the backgrounds and lived experiences of involved parties (Arredondo, 1999; Cook et al., 2019; Sue et al., 1992). In these interactions, historical and sociopolitical contexts must be considered as a component of the relationship, and therefore, of the client wellbeing. According to Sue et al.'s (1992) conceptual framework which was later further operationalized by Arredondo et al. (1996), multicultural counseling competence model is a 3 (characteristics) x 3 (dimensions) matrix. Counselor characteristics include (a) counselor awareness of own assumptions, values, and biases; (b) understanding the worldview of the culturally different client; and (c) developing appropriate intervention strategies and techniques. These three characteristics can each be divided into three sub-dimensions: (a) beliefs and attitudes, (b) knowledge, and (c) skills.

Beliefs and attitudes imply that counselors are aware of their own cultural background and its influences on their own worldviews (Arredondo et al., 1996). This dimension stresses counselors' ability to be aware of how their cultural background impacts the counseling relationship with clients (Forbes & Hutchison, 2020; Holcomb-McCoy, 2005; Sue et al., 1992). *Knowledge* dimension refers to the counselor understanding of different worldviews culturally different clients may have. Culturally skilled counselor in this dimension seeks the knowledge

about different cultural groups and their sociopolitical views by respecting and accepting the differences from their own worldviews (Holcomb-McCoy & Chen-Hayes, 2011; Sue et al., 1992). *Skills*, as the third dimension of multicultural counseling competence, “deals with the process of actively developing and practicing appropriate intervention strategies needed for work with culturally different clients” (Holcomb-McCoy, 2005, p. 414). Culturally skilled counselors actively engage in relevant current research regarding culturally appropriate counseling interventions with diverse groups. They also seek multicultural training on specifically the cultural groups they engage with (Sue et al., 1992).

With the conceptual framework offered by Sue et al. (1992), researchers have been exploring multicultural counseling competence in relation to various variables. For example, race and ethnic background have been consistently found to have a strong connection with counselors multicultural counseling competence (Choi et al., 2015; Pope-Davis et al., 1994). To illustrate in their study of 344 graduate students in clinical psychology and counseling psychology, Pope-Davis et al. (1995) found that “being a student of color was related to having a higher level of self-perceived multicultural competence” (p. 327). This relationship is consistent throughout the MCC literature with respect to race and ethnicity. Literature offers two underlying reasons for this phenomenon: (a) Noting that increased contact with racially and ethnically diverse clients was related to the graduate students’ cultural competencies, Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999) offered that counselors of color have higher MCC due to their lived experiences with fellow friends and family members who are also more likely to be minority members (Choi et al., 2015; Constantine & Yeh, 2001; DeBlare et al., 2019; Pope-Davis et al., 1995; Sue et al., 1992); (b) As Herring (1998) stated; “these participants [minority graduate students in counseling] have probably experienced the racism, prejudice, and inequities that exist in U.S. society. Thus, they

would express commitment to social change, cultural identity, and empowerment of students” (p. 11). Furthermore, from the service receiver perspective, clients of minority counselors rate their counselors higher on cultural competence than their White counselors (Constantine, 2002a). More specifically, in a study of 52 counselor-client dyads, Constantine and Yeh (2001) found not only counselor trainees of color perceiving themselves more multiculturally competent but also “Black American and Latino American counselor trainees were rated as significantly more multiculturally competent than their White American peers” (p. 459).

The number of multicultural counseling courses was a significant predictor of MCC in multiple studies (Camp et al., 2019; Chao & Nath, 2011; Constantine, 2002b; Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999). Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999) reported that “those respondents who had taken a multicultural counseling course (46%) had significantly higher levels of self-perceived multicultural counseling competence on the knowledge and racial identity dimensions” (p. 299). Similarly, Bidell (2014) found that the students who reported completing one multicultural counseling course reported significantly higher levels of self-perceived multicultural counseling competence comparing to those who had not yet completed a multicultural counseling course.

Along with counselor race, ethnicity, exposure to diversity, and multicultural training, there are other concepts counseling researchers have found to have strong relationships with multicultural counseling competence. To begin with, Constantine (2002b) explored the impact of White racial identity attitudes on multicultural counseling competence. Constantine (2002b) also reported that White school counselors who had stronger racism attitudes and beliefs had significantly lower levels of self-reported multicultural counseling competence. Therefore, school counselors who “harbor racist attitudes may be less aware of cultural issues in the context of counseling” (p. 170), they are, therefore, less likely to appreciate cultural characteristics of their

students. Similarly, in A. Johnson and Jackson William's study (2015) with 487 White graduate students, students who were at the lower three levels of Helm's (1990) White racial identity model had lower multicultural counseling competence, and those who were at the higher three stages of white racial identity model perceived themselves significantly higher in MCC.

Related Studies

Chao (2006) surveyed 460 national certified counselors (NCCs) to test the study hypothesized of whether amount of multicultural training would strengthen (a) the relationship between racial/ethnic identity and MCC and (b) gender-role attitudes and MCC. The study results showed that racial/ethnic identity was significant related to the multicultural training in increasing counselors' multicultural knowledge but not multicultural awareness (Chao, 2006). Similarly, their second hypothesis was also supported that gender-role attitudes was significantly related to multicultural training in increasing counselors' multicultural knowledge but not awareness. These findings suggested that through multicultural training (i.e., courses, workshops, research projects, or experiential activities), counselors could improve their understanding of racial/ethnic identity and gender-role attitudes, also improving their multicultural knowledge. However, Chao's (2013) study findings also indicated that multicultural training did not improve the participants' multicultural awareness. One possible reason for this is stated by Chao (2006) as "such awareness may take more time to develop than it takes for knowledge to form and may need long and reflective training" (p. 41).

In a study of 118 counselor education students, Barden and Greene (2015) found contradicting results from Chao's (2006) findings. According to Barden and Greene (2015), participant gender and ethnicity did not significantly correlate with their MCC or multicultural counselor self-efficacy (MCSE). Barden and Greene (2015) suggested that the inconsistent

research findings around gender, race, ethnicity, and MCC may be attributed to the demographics of the research samples. Furthermore, Barden and Greene (2015) did find a strong relationship between MCC and amount of time spent in graduate school indicating that students who were in their doctoral programs or further along in their master's program perceived themselves culturally more competent than those who had not spent as much time in their programs. This finding has also been supported by other research studies in the literature (Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008; Sheu & Lent, 2007).

Previous research had found a negative correlation between color-blind racial attitudes and White racial identity stages among graduate students indicating that the graduate students whose color-blind racial attitudes were higher, meaning they rejected or minimized the differences due to race and ethnicity, were more likely to be at the lower levels of White racial identity stages (Gushue & Constantine, 2007). Ladany et al. (1997) and Constantine (2002b) also found that having higher levels of multicultural counseling competence was positively associated with higher stages of White racial identity development. A. Johnson and Jackson Williams (2015) investigated whether White racial identity and color-blind racial attitudes together could predict multicultural counseling competence among 487 White doctoral students studying clinical counseling and school psychology. Their results, similar to previous research, indicated that participants' perceived multicultural counseling competence was significantly predicted by social desirability, multicultural training, participant age, program type (clinical, counseling, school psychology), color-blind racial attitudes, and White racial identity stages (A. Johnson & Jackson Williams, 2015). More specifically, they found "above the benefits of the control variables (multicultural training, age, program type, and social desirability), and holding non-color-blind attitudes, a White trainee's racial identity is an important element of what it

means to be a culturally competent clinician” (p. 447). Therefore, White counseling students should not only consider taking multicultural courses and trainings, but also engage in self-exploration activities regarding their White racial identity development (A. Johnson & Jackson Williams, 2014).

Measurements of Multicultural Counseling Competence

As stated previously, MCC has mostly been investigated from the theory of the commonly accepted triadic model (knowledge, awareness, and skills; Sue et al., 1992). Therefore, most majority of the measures developed on the construct of MCC have been constructed from the commonly accepted model. Although there is no consensus in the literature as to how the MCC should be understood and measured, four commonly used scales are next introduced to provide context for the current study: Multicultural Counseling Inventory (MCI; Sadowsky et al., 1994), Multicultural Awareness- Knowledge- and Skills Survey (MAKSS; D’Andrea et al., 1991), One School Many Differences Survey (OSMDS; Tadlock-Marlo et al., 2012), and Multicultural Competence and Counselor Training Survey-Revised (MCCT-R; Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004).

Multicultural Counseling Inventory. Sadowsky et al. (1994) created the Multicultural Counseling Inventory (MCI) to measure the multicultural counseling competencies of counseling psychologists. As a result of a series of two studies, a 40-item measure was created. Their first study included 604 responses from students and practicing mental health professionals from psychology, school, psychology, clinical psychology, and counseling (Sadowsky et al., 1994). In their second study, they had a group of 320 college counselors. After a series of test development procedures including Confirmatory Factor Analysis, Expletory Factor Analysis, and item revisions, the final version of MCI included 40 items with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 4

= very accurate to 1 = very inaccurate. The total score ranged from 40 to 160 with higher scores indicating higher levels of multicultural counseling competence. Subscales of the MCI included multicultural awareness, counseling knowledge, skills, and counseling relationship. Moderate to strong Cronbach's alpha reliability estimates were reported for each subscale; .78 to .83 for awareness, .77 to .81 for knowledge, .79 to .83 for skills, and .65 to .74 for relationship. Overall scale Cronbach's alpha estimates were .87 to .89 (Sodowsky et al., 1994).

The MCI has been commonly used in the counseling literature (Pope-Davis et al., 1995; Sodowsky et al., 1994; Tadlock-Marlo et al., 2012). Although Sodowsky et al. (1994) used counseling psychologists as the main participant population for the instrument development process, the measure has been tested and used with other mental health professionals (Krentzman & Townsend, 2008). Some critique of the instrument exists in the literature (Tadlock-Marlo et al., 2012). For example, although the MCI was constructed for counseling psychologists and other mental health providers, school counseling researchers have used it. The language and subscales were never validated for a school counselor population (Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004; Tadlock-Marlo et al., 2012).

Multicultural Awareness- Knowledge- and Skills Survey. D'Andrea et al. (1991) constructed Multicultural Awareness- Knowledge- and Skills Survey (MAKSS) based on the derived literature on counselor training and multicultural counseling competence. MAKSS included 60 items with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 4 = *very limited or strongly agree* to 1 = *very good or strongly disagree*. The total score ranged from 60 to 240 with higher scores indicating higher levels of multicultural counseling competence. The scale development study was conducted with 90 counselor education graduate students who were reported to be mostly White and Asian, no further participant information was reported by the authors (D'Andrea et

al., 1991). MAKSS included three subscales: communication skills (20 items), awareness of attitudes for minorities (20 items), and knowledge on cultural groups (20 items; D'Andrea et al., 1991; Kitaoka, 2005). Limited literature on the validity, reliability, or factor structures of the measure is available, however, available literature suggests internal consistency Cronbach's alphas ranged from .49 to .75, .80 to .90, and .91 to .96 for each communication, awareness, and knowledge subscales, respectively (D'Andrea et al., 1991; Kocarek et al., 2001).

MAKSS has also been used as a data collection instrument for MCC studies in the literature (Gamst et al., 2011; Kocarek et al., 2001). A criticism often raised in the literature regarding the psychometrics of MAKSS is that it has lower internal consistency Cronbach's alpha level for the awareness subscale (i.e., .49 to .75; D'Andrea et al., 1991; Kocarek et al., 2001). Furthermore, the length of the instrument was noted to be time-consuming, thus, a 33-item revised version of the MAKSS was offered by D'Andrea et al. (1991), MAKSS-Counselor-Edition-Revised –MAKSS-CE-R.

One School Many Differences Survey. Tadlock-Marlo et al. (2012) noted that most multicultural counseling competence instruments had been normed on mental health professionals (MCCTS-R; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001; or MCI; Sadowsky et al., 1994); therefore they created the One School Many Differences (OSMD) scale for school counselors that also conformed with ASCA standards and Association for Multicultural Counseling and Development (AMCD) standards (Tadlock-Marlo et al., 2012). Following the development and pilot study phases of the instrument, Tadlock-Marlo et al. (2012) collected data from 387 practicing school counselors. Represented races included Caucasian ($N = 326$; 84.5%), African American ($N = 24$; 6.2%), and Hispanic American/Latino ($N = 7$; 1.8%), and others ($N = 10$; 2.6%). After assessing factor structures through the use of EFA, authors decided to utilize a

four-factor structure explaining 37.20% of the variance with the factor names of (a) Collaboration, (b) Assessment of School Environment, (c) Reflection of Personal Culture, and (d) Interpersonal Relationships. The final version of the scale included 37 items with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 5 = *strongly agree* to 1 = *strongly disagree* (Tadlock-Marlo et al., 2012). The total score ranged from 37 to 185 with higher scores indicating higher levels of school counselor multicultural counseling competence. Regarding the reliability and validity of OSMD, Tadlock-Marlo et al. (2012) reported the coefficient alpha to be .87 for the 37-item whole scale.

It is worthy of noting that this scale has not been used by other studies to further validate, however, the authors indicated that the newly developed scale, the OSMD, was the only MCC instrument to be designed for and normed on school counselors (Tadlock-Marlo et al., 2012). As Holcomb-McCoy and Day-Vines (2004) noted, there is a need for multicultural counseling measures that are specifically normed and used for school counselors. Therefore, the OSMD might become a commonly used MCC instrument for school counseling researcher.

Multicultural Competence and Counselor Training Survey-Revised. In an attempt to measure the self-perceived multicultural counseling competence and training of professional counselors, Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999) developed the Multicultural Competence and Counselor Training Survey (MCCTS). In their initial study, Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999) surveyed 151 randomly selected counselors who were members of ACA at the time of their participant recruitment. The final MCCTS had 32 items with a 5-factor structure: knowledge, awareness, definition of terms, racial identity, and skills (Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999).

In an unpublished study, Holcomb-McCoy revised MCCTS in an attempt to measure school counselors' multicultural counseling competence (Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004).

Major changes were made on the language of the initial survey changing the word “client” to “student” to better reflect the school counseling population. A panel of three ethnically diverse school counselors with 5 to 15 years of experience provided their feedback on the scale. Next, a principal component analysis of the data collected from 215 counselors revealed five factors: Multicultural Knowledge, Multicultural Awareness, Definitions of Terms, Knowledge of Racial Identity Development Theories, and Multicultural Skills with the reliability coefficient alphas of .92, .92, .79, .66, and .91, respectively (Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004).

Following the Holcomb-McCoy’s revision in 2001, Holcomb-McCoy and Day-Vines (2004) performed a maximum likelihood factor analysis on their data from 209 ASCA members. Their analysis revealed three factors explaining 55.12% of the variance: multicultural terminology, multicultural knowledge, and multicultural awareness with Cronbach’s alphas of .97, .95, and .85, respectively. The final version of MCCTS-R e included 32 items with a 4-point Likert scale ranging from 4 = *not competent* to 1 = *extremely competent* (Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004). The total score ranged from 32 to 128 with higher scores indicating higher levels of school counselor multicultural counseling competence.

The MCCTS-R was the first MCC scale developed for school counselor population (Holcomb-McCoy & Day Vines, 2004). Satisfying reliability and validity psychometrics of the instrument attracted many school counseling researchers (Conroy, 2015; Holcomb-McCoy & Day Vines, 2004; Na, 2012; Toomey & Storlie, 2016). The cited studies have expanded the school counseling MCC literature in relations to various constructs and populations such as self-efficacy, adherence to ASCA National Model, student performance, recent immigrants, Latino students, and so forth. In a recent study of 206 school counselors, using MCCTS-R Toomey and Storlie (2016) reported “school counselors with a self-reported greater

understanding of multicultural knowledge were more likely intervene in bias-based bullying, harassment, or discrimination targeting Latino students” (p. 356). Likewise, Conroy (2015) results indicated that adherence to ASCA National Model and MCC (measured by MCCTS-R) together predicted the student performance in 115 middle school of Florida whose school counselors provided the data ($N = 115$). Overall, school counseling researchers appear to often prefer the MCCTS-R as a data collection instrument in school counseling related studies; therefore, in the current study, the instrument was utilized to measure the school counselor MCC levels.

MCC and School Counselors

School counselors are professional individuals who work at various levels of educational institutions providing social, academic, career, social, and emotional support to their students through comprehensive school counseling programs (ASCA, 2019). In order to effectively carry out school counseling programs reaching students from various cultural backgrounds, school counselors are required to provide multicultural counseling services (ASCA, 2016; Farmer et al., 2013; Forbes & Hutchison, 2020; Guzman et al., 2013).

American School Counselor Association is the leading organization for school counselors in the US. ASCA provides continues support for its school counselor members (ASCA, 2015). ASCA’s unifying document, Ethical Standards for School Counselors (2016), had clear statements regarding the importance of culturally sensitive school counseling practices. According to the ASCA Ethical Standards (2016), the professional school counselors:

- B.1.d. Are culturally competent and sensitive to diversity among families (p. 6).
- B.2.m. Promote cultural competence to help create a safer more inclusive school environment (p. 7).

- B.3.i. Monitor and expand personal multicultural and social-justice advocacy awareness, knowledge and skills to be an effective culturally competent school counselor. Understand how prejudice, privilege and various forms of oppression based on ethnicity, racial identity, age, economic status, abilities/disabilities, language, immigration status, sexual orientation, gender, gender identity expression, family type, religious/spiritual identity, appearance and living situations (e.g., foster care, homelessness, incarceration) affect students and stakeholders (p. 7).
- B.3.j. Refrain from refusing services to students based solely on the school counselor's personally held beliefs or values rooted in one's religion, culture or ethnicity. School counselors respect the diversity of students and seek training and supervision when prejudice or biases interfere with providing comprehensive services to all students (p. 7).
- B.3.k. Work toward a school climate that embraces diversity and promotes academic, career and social/emotional development for all students. (p. 7)

Along with these statements, ASCA also revised its Cultural Diversity position statement in 2015 (initially published in 1988) that stated, “school counselors demonstrate cultural responsiveness by collaborating with stakeholders to create a school and community climate that embraces cultural diversity and helps to promote the academic, career and social/emotional success for all students” (p. 24). Therefore, multiculturally sound practices for school counselors are not only a necessity due to the increasing cultural diversity in the US schools but an ethical and legal responsibility imposed by ASCA.

The construct of multicultural counseling competence for school counselors appears to be deviating from the traditionally accepted triadic model that includes awareness, knowledge, and

skills initially proposed by Sue et al. (1992). Holcomb-McCoy (2001), for instance, reported additional two factors, racial identity, and terminology, as well as previously mentioned three factors, self-awareness, knowledge, and skills. In addition, Tadlock-Marlo et al. (2012) critiqued the previous school counseling MCC researchers because “the few instruments that do exist to measure MCCs do not seem to cover the realities of the school counselor role. Indeed, the measures that have been developed are typically normed on community mental health professionals and not school counselors” (p. 235). Instead, Tadlock-Marlo et al. (2012) developed a new MCC scale that confirmed ASCA and AMCD standards. From their participant group of 387 practicing school counselors, they found their instrument offered four factors: collaboration, assessment of school environment, reflection of personal culture, and interpersonal relationships. Based on these new dimensions of school counselors’ MCC, “it is important for them (school counselors) to continue fostering interpersonal relationships and collaboration” (p. 248). Assessing the school environment and developing working relationships with other stakeholders are unique to the nature of school counseling work (ASCA, 2016; Clemens et al., 2011; Pietrantonio & Glance, 2019).

Although early researchers referred to MCC in relationship to race and ethnicity (Sue et al., 1992), current MCC literature has included other marginalized groups into the counseling-culture dialog. For example, one of the marginalized groups school counselors mostly found themselves working with is the LGBTQ+ community in school buildings (ASCA, 2016; Bidell, 2005; Farmer et al., 2013; Simons & Cuadrado, 2019). In a comprehensive study of 468 community counselors, school counselors, counseling graduate students, and counselor educators, Farmer et al. (2013) investigated the levels of competence when serving LGB clients. Alarming, comparing to counselor educators, community counselors, and students in training,

school counselors had the lowest level of self-perceived multicultural counseling competence when working with LGBTQ+ students (Farmer et al., 2013). Findings of their study were concerning and eye-opening for the field of school counseling. Furthermore, their results showed that when working LGBTQ+ community members, school counselors perceived themselves as the most competent in their attitudes, followed by their knowledge, and finally skills (Farmer et al., 2013). Their results aligned with that school counselors have strong beliefs on their attitudes about working with students from different backgrounds, however they fail to implement their awareness in real life situations (Chao, 2013; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001). In other words, “because one is able to articulate his or her own biases and prejudices does not mean one is knowledgeable of other cultures or is skilled in cross-cultural counseling” (Holcomb-McCoy, 2001, p. 199).

Self-Efficacy

One of the fundamentals of Albert Bandura’s social cognitive theory that explains the essentials of human-environment interaction is the self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977, 1982, 1993, 1995). Bandura (1982) postulated that people had efficacy beliefs about their knowledge, skills, and capacity in order to accomplish any given task. To be more specific, according to Bandura (1982), “perceived self-efficacy is concerned with judgments of how well one can execute courses of action required to deal with prospective situations” (p. 122). In their comprehensive counseling self-efficacy scholarship review, Larson and Daniels (1998) further clarified that “self-efficacy is a generative mechanism through which people integrate and apply their existing cognitive, behavioral, and social skills to a task” (p. 180).

Self-efficacy theory has received much attention in the counseling literature (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005; Bodenhorn et al., 2010; Camp et al., 2019; Larson & Daniels, 1998; Sutton &

Fall, 1995). Counseling self-efficacy is 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). Therefore, counselors with higher self-efficacy will be more likely to accept challenges trusting in their capacity and training, taking risks continually evaluating the results of their actions, and seeing this process as a moderate challenge with thoughts that are self-aiding (Larson & Daniels, 1998; Parikh-Foxx et al., 2020).

Self-concept is another term frequently used in learning and counseling literature along with the self-efficacy (Burns et al., 2020; Pajares & Schunk, 2001). Although oftentimes these two concepts are used synonymously, self-efficacy is seen as a part of self-concept; the theoretical differences have been noted in the literature (Pajares & Schunk, 2001). To provide clarity, self-concept has been defined as individuals’ sense of self through others’ judgments of them (Burns et al., 2020; Byrne et al., 1996). Here, self-efficacy fundamentally differs from self-concept in the “belief in one’s ability” piece that is not a part of self-concept. In other words, self-efficacy is about the question of “can” (Can I work with diverse populations? Can I work as a competent school counselor?). Self-concept, on the other hand, is about “feeling” (How do I feel about working with diverse students? Do I like myself as a school counselor?). Therefore the answers to these questions would be quite different from one another (Pajares & Schunk, 2001). To further explain the difference, self-efficacy is a domain-specific confidence (Bandura, 1977) meaning that, for instance, a school counselor may have high self-efficacy in their knowledge of working with a specific international student population (e.g., Turkish students); however the same school counselor may have low self-efficacy in their skills to work with other populations. On the other hand, self-concept is related to one’s overall self-worth that is (oftentimes) not a domain-specific value. Pajares and Schunk (2001) suggested that one would not determine the

level of self-worth based on specific domains in life such as mathematic ability, therefore self-concept is the overarching feeling of one's self. Because multicultural counseling competence is domain-specific capability, in this study, self-efficacy was preferred over self-concept to determine school counselors' belief in their capability to work as competent school counselors.

Measurements of Self-Efficacy

Because the nature of counseling work is not simply having the necessary counseling skills or knowing what to do, one's own beliefs in their capacity to "continuously improve multiple subskills to manage ever-changing circumstances in the session" is crucial (Larson & Daniels, 1998, p. 179). Thus, due to the importance of the construct in counseling profession, many attempts to a develop counseling self-efficacy scale have been noted in the literature. Although most of these attempts targeted counselors, psychologists, or social workers (Larson et al., 1992; Mullen et al., 2014; O'Brien et al., 1997), limited number of scales were developed for school counselor population (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005; Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008; Sutton & Fall, 1995). To provide a framework for the current study, several of the aforementioned self-efficacy scales are presented next: Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory (Larson et al., 1992), the School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (Sutton & Fall, 1995), and the School Counseling Multicultural Self-Efficacy Scale (Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008).

Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory. Larson et al. (1992) created Counseling Self-Estimate Inventory (COSE) to measure training counselors' self-beliefs on their capabilities to successfully perform in counseling. This instrument was validated through a pilot study of 159 counseling graduate students. The initial instrument had 67 items with a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 6 = *strongly agree* to 1 = *strongly disagree*. As a result of a series of studies, the

final version of the study had 37 items with five factors: (a) confidence in microskills, (b) attending to process, (c) dealing with difficult client behaviors, (d) behaving in a culturally competent way, and (e) being aware of one's values (Larson et al., 1992). Internal consistency Cronbach's alpha for the COSE overall scale was .93; .88 for Microskills; .87 for Process; .80 for Difficult Client Behaviors; .78 for Cultural Competence; and .62 for Awareness of Values (Larson et al., 1992).

The COSE has been used as a main data collection tool for counseling self-efficacy studies due to its high validity and reliability psychometrics (Drew et al., 2017; Doshi, 2017; Meyer, 2015; Larson & Daniels, 1998; Yuen et al., 2004). In a recent study of 39 rehabilitation counseling master's students, Meyer (2015) found strong relationship between student COSE scores and the development of counseling skills and techniques. This was also parallel to the previous research (Larson & Daniels, 1998) that provided evidence for the strong connection between increased self-efficacy and healthy counselor development (Drew et al., 2017).

The School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale. For the first time in the school counseling literature, Sutton and Fall (1995) created the School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSES) to investigate the relationship between Bandura's (1977) self-efficacy concept and school counselors. The instrument had 33 items with a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 6 = *strongly agree* to 1 = *strongly disagree* (Sutton & Fall, 1995). The data collected from participants who were 316 practicing school counselors from the state of Maine were subjected to a principal component analysis to understand the factor structure of the instrument. The results showed a three-factor concept including (a) efficacy expectancy for being a school counselor (9 items), (b) efficacy expectancy for the role of individual counseling (7 items), (c) outcome expectancy (3 items), therefore, only 19 of the 33 original items loaded scientifically in the factor analysis.

Sutton and Fall (1995) did not report any further internal consistency psychometric information from their analysis.

Due to its missing psychometrics in the initial paper of Sutton and Fall (1995), the SCSES was seldom used in the literature (Larson & Daniels, 1998). Another reason for the critiques of the scale arose from the lacking clarity in the scale language (Larson & Daniels, 1998). Despite the reported poor psychometrics of the SCSES and language deficiencies, it was an important preliminary scale for school counseling researchers (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005; Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008) which helped the expansion of the line of inquiry for others to pursue the work of school counselor self-efficacy (e.g., Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008).

The School Counseling Multicultural Self-Efficacy Scale. The School Counseling Multicultural Self-Efficacy Scale (SCMES) was created in an attempt to investigate the factor structure of multicultural self-efficacy of school counselors for the first in the literature (Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008). Holcomb-McCoy and colleagues (2008) defined multicultural self-efficacy as “professional school counselors' perceived abilities (i.e., beliefs) to carry out and perform tasks that are relevant and specific to equity among students in K-12 schools, and the ethnically and culturally diverse needs of K-12 students” (p. 167). Holcomb-McCoy et al. (2008) collected data only one time from practicing 181 school counselors. The initial instrument had 90 items with a 7-Likert scale ranging from 7 = *very well* to 1 = *not well at all*. As a result of the item analysis, the authors decided to keep a 52-item scale for the factor analysis. As a result, the six factors included (a) Knowledge of Multicultural Concepts (14 items), (b) Using Data and Understanding Systemic Change (9 items), (c) Developing Cross-Cultural Relationships (7 items), (d) Multicultural Counseling Awareness (9 items), (e) Multicultural Assessment (7 items), and (f) Application of Racial and Cultural Knowledge to Practice (6 items). Internal

consistency Cronbach's alpha for the SCMES overall scale was .93; and .95, .91, .89, .93, .89, and .88 for the factors 1 through 6, respectively (Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008).

The SCMES appeared to have sound psychometrics when measuring school counselor multicultural self-efficacy. However, as the creators (Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008) of the instrument also noted there was a strong relationship between school counselor MCC and school counselor multicultural self-efficacy, researchers should be cautious when discriminating these two constructs from each other (Hays, 2008). When two constructs are highly correlated with one another, this may mean that they are the same construct with slight differences from each other. Due to this very reason, a school counselor self-efficacy measurement (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005) was preferred instead of a school counselor multicultural self-efficacy survey such as the SCMES for this current study.

The School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale. Bodenhorn and Skaggs created the School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSE) in 2005 as a result of a series of pilot studies. The main purpose of the scale was to measure school counselor self-efficacy in relation to school counselor roles and responsibilities (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005). As the first step, Bodenhorn and Skaggs (2005) created the initial pool of items utilizing pre-existing literature on self-efficacy, school counseling, and other already-existed counseling self-efficacy scales, National Standards for School Counseling (Campbell & Dahir, 1997), and CACREP standards for counseling programs. They produced 44 items as a result of process described above.

After four more rounds of studies, at the final stage of their SCSE scale development, Bodenhorn and Skaggs (2005) conducted a principal component analysis with an oblique rotation. With the data collected from 342 respondents including masters students and practicing school counselors, the authors decided for a five-factor model accounting for 55% of the

variance. In the final version of the scale, SCSE is a 43-item measure with a 5-point Likert scale ranging from 5 = *highly confident* to 1 = *not confident* with higher scores on the measure indicating higher levels of school counselor self-efficacy (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005). The tool had five subscales: personal and social development (12 items), leadership and assessment (9 items), career and academic development (7 items), collaboration and consultation (11 items), and cultural acceptance (4 items). Internal consistency Cronbach's alpha for the SCSE subscales scale was .91, .90, .85, .87, .72, respectively (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005).

Although various authors reported a nonstable factor structure for Bodenhorn and Skaggs' (2005) SCSE scale (Gordillo, 2015), the satisfying psychometrics of the instruments and comprehensive scale development process have convinced researchers to utilize SCSE in school counseling and self-efficacy related studies (Gilbert, 2016; Gordillo, 2015; Pietrantonio, 2017). In a study of 61 school counseling internship students, Gilbert (2016) found a small but significant relationship between ASCA program implementation of school counselors and their self-efficacy scores as measure by the SCSE (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005). Aligning with previous research, Gilbert (2016) found the participants' age to be a predictor of their self-efficacy older students had higher self-efficacy scores, which was also noted in the scale development study of the SCSE (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005).

Self-Efficacy and School Counselors

Self-efficacy is also an important key in school counselors' ability to successfully perform their school counseling related tasks (Gordillo, 2015; Holcomb-McCoy, 2008; Tang, 2020). Unique to school counselor self-efficacy is that school counselors and school environments including administrative supports, resources, and staff relationships have been found to be reciprocally affecting each other (Parikh-Fox et al., 2020; Sutton & Fall, 1995). For

instance, in their study of 383 school counselors in Maine, Sutton and Fall (1995) found that administrative support positively influenced the school counselor self-efficacy in their ability to execute their school counseling plans.

Similarly, Bodenhorn et al. (2010) found that school counselors with higher levels of self-efficacy were more aware of the achievement gap data in their schools and implemented ASCA National Model. In other word, “all school counselors might start out with a similar goal of narrowing the achievement gap in their schools, but those with stronger self-efficacy might be more likely to retain and meet that goal” (p. 172). In another study, Mullen and Lambie (2016) investigated the impact of school counselor self-efficacy on the programmatic service delivery. In this study, Mullen and Lambie defined programmatic service delivery as “the direct and indirect counseling and educational interventions school counselors facilitate to meet their comprehensive, developmental, school counseling program’s mission and goals, as described by the ASCA” (p. 306). Their structural questioning model analysis indicated that school counselors’ higher self-efficacy explained 48% of the variance in their providing programmatic service delivery. In other words, school counselors with higher self-efficacy were more likely to execute direct or indirect school counseling interventions (Mullen & Lambie, 2016; Tang, 2020).

School counselor self-efficacy has also been explored in relation to multicultural counseling competence. For this purpose, Holcomb-McCoy (2008) developed the first school counselor multicultural self-efficacy scale. To operationalize the concept, Holcomb-McCoy (2008) defined the school counselor multicultural self-efficacy as “professional school counselors’ perceived abilities (i.e., beliefs) to carry out and perform tasks that are relevant and specific to equity among students in K-12 schools, and the ethnically and culturally diverse needs of K-12 students” (p.167). Referring to Bandura’s (1982) self-efficacy theory,

Holcomb-McCoy (2008) posited that when school counselors believed in their capacity to meet the unique needs of diverse students, they would be acting deliberately in the direction of inclusion of those who were marginalized in school environments.

L. V. Johnson et al. (2016) studied the school counselor self-efficacy in relation to their competence working with English Language Learners (ELL). Overall most of their participants were “confident in their ability to engage in school counseling tasks with ELL” (p. 47). Their results also showed that, in this particular sample of 202 school counselors, Black school counselors had significantly higher self-efficacy with ELLs than their White counterparts (L. V. Johnson et al., 2016). This was also consistent with the multicultural counseling competence literature (Constantine, 2002a; Pope-Davis et al., 1995).

Although self-efficacy has been a focus of counseling literature, it has yet to be explored in relation to school counselors (Camp et al., 2019; Holcomb-McCoy, 2008). While a few studies investigated school counselor self-efficacy and multicultural self-efficacy, there is a scarcity of literature on the connections of these variables in relation to school counselors. A few studies that do exist appeared to have limited methodological variety in investigating self-efficacy and MCC. As stated by Larson and Daniels (1998), “in the future [self-efficacy research] would employ sophisticated statistical tools like structural equation modeling, which could both incorporate counselor performance over time and incorporate ingredients of counselor's stable characteristics, personal agency, and environmental variables” (p. 214). Therefore, in this study, self-efficacy was studied in relation to school counselors' self-advocacy attitudes, amount of time spent with diverse students, and school counselor MCC, therefore, next section introduces the existing literature on self-advocacy.

Self-Advocacy

Self-advocacy as a term was first associated with individuals with disabilities during the civil rights movement (Clemens et al., 2011; Test et al., 2005). Historically, struggling with meeting their unique needs, individuals with disabilities and their family members have become stronger in building self-advocacy skills (Trusty & Brown, 2005). School counselors played an important role in the process of making school environments accommodating the needs of students with disabilities (Erford, 2019). With more and more responsibility in this process, school counselors became advocates for all students especially those with disabilities as well as minority, international, and LGBTQ+ students (Astramovich & Harris, 2007; Simons & Cuadrado, 2019).

In their conceptual work on advocacy competencies for school counselors, Trusty and Brown (2005) stated “although authors vary in conceptualization, a common theme is that advocacy involves identifying unmet needs and taking actions to change the circumstances that contribute to the problem or inequity” (p. 259). Although everything a school counselor can be considered as advocacy work, Trusty and Brown (2005) argued that advocacy must be understood in its own terms for: (a) school counselors to be able to focus on only advocacy work that is different than other roles they may take on and (b) school counselor educators to teach it effectively.

Measurements of Self-Advocacy

Measurement of self-advocacy have gained much attention in different fields especially in nursing and special education; however, counseling literature has not paid enough attention to the measurement process of self-advocacy (Clemens et al., 2011). To this date, only Clemens et al. (2011) introduced a school counselor self-advocacy scale. For this reason, limited

measurement resources are currently available. To provide an example for comparison, Female Self-Advocacy in Cancer Survivorship Scale (Hagan et al., 2016) was also presented in detail below.

Female Self-Advocacy in Cancer Survivorship Scale. Hagan et al. (2016) created the Female Self-Advocacy in Cancer Survivorship (FSACS) Scale to measure “adult female cancer survivor’s abilities to advocate for their health, well-being, and self-worth during their cancer journey” (p. 429). Their test development process produced a final scale of 57 items with a 6-point Likert scale ranging from 6 = *strongly agree* to 1 = *strongly disagree* with three dimensions of the total scale: Application of Information, Leading My Health Care, and Connected Strength. Internal consistency Cronbach’s alpha was .92 for the total scale; .88, .81, and .90 for the dimensions, respectively (Hagan et al., 2016). The authors reported no further information regarding factor structure of the scale (Hagan et al., 2016). Due to lacking factor analysis results and small number of participant pool ($N = 40$), the study has not gained enough attention in the cancer related literature.

School Counselor Self-Advocacy Questionnaire. Clemens et al. (2011) created the first School Counselor Self-Advocacy Questionnaire (SCSAQ) based on the existing self-advocacy literature originating from Bandura’s work during 1970s and 1980s (Bemak & Chung, 2005; Brott & Myers, 1999; Trusty & Brown, 2005). Noting that school principals could greatly hinder or boost a school counselor’s self-advocacy work (Walker, 2006), the survey language was regarded to the school counselors’ relationships with school principals (Clemens et al., 2011). Following a series of data collection and statical analysis including exploratory factor analysis and confirmatory factor analysis, Clemens et al. (2011) offered a nine-item instrument with a 4-Point Likert scale ranging from 4 = *strongly agree* to 1 = *strongly disagree*. As a result of

exploratory and confirmatory factor analysis, the authors decided that a unidimensional model was the best fit explaining 47% of the variance.

To date, The SCSAQ remains as the only school counselor self-advocacy scale in the literature (R. Anderson, 2015; Havlik et al., 2019). Furthermore, strong Cronbach's alpha (.84) and detailed scale development procedures have also made the instrument a reliable data collection tool for school counselor self-advocacy research (R. Anderson, 2015; Clemens et al., 2011). Recently, Havlik et al. (2019) found strong relationship between school counselors' self-advocacy levels and their role confusions. The authors stated,

Because they [school counselors] are comfortable engaging in professional advocacy with their principal, when "battles" come up (i.e., circumstances in which they need to advocate in order to enact their appropriate roles), they do not feel like they have to choose what to fight for but are simply comfortable advocating for whatever they feel is important. (p. 8)

Therefore, the SCSAQ was used in the present study due to (a) its satisfactory validity and reliability scores and its unidimensional factor structure and (b) its strong relationship with school counselor role confusion and school counselor connection with other staff members (Clemens et al., 2011; Havlik et al., 2019).

Self-Advocacy and School Counselors

School counselor self-advocacy is defined as "the ability to effectively and appropriately communicate, negotiate, or assert information about ideal school counselors' roles to those with the ability to change the circumstances that contribute to the problem or inequity" (Clemens et al., 2011, p. 34). School counselor advocacy and self-advocacy have been used interchangeably in the literature (Clemens et al., 2011). Perhaps this is because when school counselors are able

to self-advocate for the ideal school counseling roles and responsibilities, they are also advocating for the unmet needs of historically marginalized students.

School counseling literature is saturated with studies that explored the role confusions of school counselors and its relation to other school stakeholders (Bemak & Chung, 2008; Brott & Myers, 1999; Dahir & Stone, 2009; DeKruyf et al., 2013; Scarborough & Culbreth, 2008). One salient theme across these studies was that school counselor professional identity development was interwoven with their self-advocacy actions (Bemak & Chung, 2008; Scarborough & Culbreth, 2008). For example, examining the discrepancies between actual and preferred practice of school counselors, Scarborough and Culbreth (2008) surveyed 361 school counselors including participants from elementary ($n = 117$), middle school ($n = 120$), and high school levels ($n = 124$). They found grade level, implementation of National Standards for School Counseling Programs (Campbell & Dahir, 1997), and years of experience to be each a predictor of the discrepancy between the participants' actual and preferred school counseling practices. More specifically, high school counselors felt the discrepancy as the biggest, whereas elementary school counselors perceived that the way they practiced was the closest to the way they preferred. Furthermore, school counselors with more experience were more likely to report that they felt less discrepancy between actual and preferred school counseling practices (Scarborough & Culbreth, 2008). Although they did not specifically measure self-advocacy as a variable in their study, their findings had consistency with the self-advocacy research consensus that as school counselors had more experience in their role and more support from other stakeholders in their schools, they would be more likely to implement ideal school counselor practices (Clemens et al., 2011; Scarborough & Culbreth, 2008). Similarly, in their grounded theory research, Brott and Myers (1999) collected data on professional school counselor identity. Their study revealed

that as school counselors gather experiences over the years of service, they become more knowledgeable and influential in their school environments. Because school counselors perceived themselves more effective in their schools, they were more likely to self-advocate for their roles as school counselors, thus, they were more likely to challenge common misconceptions around school counseling and school counselor roles (Brott & Myers, 1999). In this complex process of self-advocacy, Bemak and Chung (2008) warned school counselors to move beyond the “nice counselor syndrome (NCS)”. They defined NCS as manifesting with school counselors who “live up to their reputation of being nice people by the manner in which they consistently strive to promote harmony with others while avoiding and deflecting interpersonal conflicts in the school setting”. Bemak and Chung (2008) offered recommendations to move beyond “nice counselor syndrome” to become advocates of social justice and organizational change:

- Align multicultural/social justice advocacy and organizational change services with school mission and goals
- Be aware of NCS.
- Remember that it is not personal.
- Have the courage to speak up and speak out as a multicultural/social justice counselor.
- Address environmental, cultural, social, historical, political, and organizational factors that affect students’ personal, social, and academic development.
- Remember that conflict is part of the package. (Bemak & Chung, 2008, pp. 378-379)

To move beyond the discussion of confusions around school counseling roles, it is crucial for school counseling literature to further elaborate on how to better prepare school counselors to

skillfully advocate for ideal school counseling interventions described by ASCA National Model (2019) and how self-advocacy of school counselors is related to other important components of counseling services such as culturally sensitive practices.

Summary

A study to investigate the complex relationships among MCC, self-efficacy, and self-advocacy is required to explain the impacts of personality attitudes of self-efficacy and self-advocacy on the multicultural aspects of school counselors' work with increasingly diverse students. According to the National Center for Educational Statistics (DE, 2012) and United States Census (2012), more than 50% of US school population will be the students of color while more than 80% of ASCA members are White females (Membership Demographics, 2018). Not only the racial, ethnic, and gender disparities between the school counselors and students but also the current school counselors' inability to effectively work with culturally diverse individuals provide a rational for the current study to further expand the intellectual discussion around cultural competence to personality attitudes of school counselors.

School counselor self-efficacy was defined as the self-perceived ability and belief to accomplish school related activities that were defined by ASCA national model (R. S. Johnson, 2002; Parikh-Foxx et al., 2020). Current literature presented a strong relationship between self-efficacy and MCC. According to Constantine (2001) and Barden and Greene (2015), self-efficacy as a construct was related to higher levels of MCC. Amount of time spent as a practicing counselor and amount of time in graduate school were predictive of MCC and self-efficacy (Barden & Greene, 2015; Camp et al., 2019; Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008; Sheu & Lent, 2007). However, no study has explained the indirect relationships between MCC and self-efficacy in relation to self-advocacy. In other words, although the relationship between MCC

and self-efficacy has been consistently reported (Barden & Greene, 2015; Camp et al., 2019; Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008), existing literature failed to provide answers to the question of whether counselors with higher levels of self-efficacy are more likely to be culturally competent or counselors who become culturally competent will be more likely to perceive themselves as having skills and belief to accomplish their counseling related tasks. Furthermore, there is also no study pertaining to neither the relationship between school counselor self-efficacy nor school counselor self-advocacy.

School counselor self-advocacy was defined as the capacity to convey and assert information about ideal school counselor responsibilities to other stakeholders in school environment (Clemens et al., 2011). Current literature indicated that self-advocacy was strongly predicted by the number of years spent as a school counselor and prior classroom experience (R. Anderson, 2015). As school counselors spent more and more time in their environment, they became more knowledge and resourceful in influencing other school personnel in a way that served them to have more time for counseling related work leaving less time for non-counseling related work such as proctoring tests (Brott & Myers, 1999; Havlik et al., 2019). Up to this date, no study investigated the relationship between self-advocacy and MCC nor the connection between self-advocacy and self-efficacy. Therefore, current study explored the relationships among self-advocacy, self-efficacy, and MCC. With the path and SEM analysis, the study provided valuable insights into the directionality of these relationships.

This chapter introduced the present investigation, which examined the relationship of school counselor self-efficacy, school counselor self-advocacy, and school counselor multicultural counseling competence. Definitions and terms used in the study were introduced. Literature pertaining to the history and current school counseling practices, the development and

evolving process of multicultural counseling competence was explored. Further literature on self-efficacy, self-advocacy, and their connections to school counselor multicultural counseling competence were explored. Next chapter explains the research methodology used in this study as well as the instruments employed in the data collection process.



CHAPTER II

METHODOLOGY

The methodology employed to conduct this study is explained in this section. The chapter includes the research questions and the details of the study participants. Following, procedures for conducting the study is explained step-by-step. Next, instruments used in the study for data collection and data analysis procedures are elucidated in detail. The chapter ends with delimitations of the study and a summary.

Research Questions

The current study pursues to answer the following research questions:

Research Question 1: What are the direct and indirect influences of school counselor self-efficacy on multicultural counseling competence?

Research Question 2: Is the relationship between self-efficacy and multicultural counseling competence mediated by self-advocacy for school counselors?

Participant Selection and Sample Size

Population for this study included professional school counselors who were practicing at the time of the study in K-12 schools in the United States. The author contacted potential participants through two main means: *ASCA Scene*, an online platform organized and managed by the American School Counselor Association (ASCA) for its members to interact for peer support and research purposes. Participants were also asked to take part in the study in Facebook groups that are specifically designated to school counselors. A total of 306 participant responses were included in the statistical analysis of the current study. The demographic details of the

participants and their school characteristics are presented in the results chapter of this dissertation.

In regard to the sample size, SEM researchers have recommended varying numbers for adequate power (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Bollen, 1989; Carmines & McIver, 1981; Quintana & Maxwell, 1999). For example, Bentler and Chou (1987) suggested a ration of participants to each estimated parameter of 5:1 should be reached in SEM research. Kline (2011) suggested this number should be 20:1. Overall, adequate ration of participant number to each variable in the model should be 10:1 (Bentler & Chou, 1987; Mueller, 1996).

Other researchers suggested that SEM is a complex statistic, therefore, the desired participant number should depend on the complexity of the model or factor and item numbers on each variable measured (Kline, 2011). Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that a total of 250 participants should be targeted while early researchers suggested 100 (J. C. Anderson & Gerbing, 1988). Currently, 200 has become the golden rule of SEM researchers (Crockett, 2012). The final sample size for this study included 306 participants. Therefore, in the current study, the sample size expectations suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999) and Bentler and Chou (1987) were met.

Procedures

The researcher submitted the current study proposal to the Institutional Review Board (IRB) of Kent State University in the Fall semester of 2020 for human subject ethical considerations. Following the IRB approval (Appendix A), an invitation email (see Appendix B) was delivered to school counselors across the country through ASCA Scene and school counselor Facebook groups. The author utilized a web-based data collection site, Qualtrics (www.kent.qualtrics.com), to send out all the surveys as a survey package via an electronic link. When potential participants clicked on the link, they were directed to a page that included the

following along with a copy of the consent form, IRB approval, and the contact information for the researcher: Demographic Questionnaire, School Counselor Self-Advocacy Questionnaire (SCSAQ; Clemens et al., 2011), the School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSE; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), and Multicultural Counseling Competence and Training Survey-Revised (MCCTS-R; Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004).

Data collection process took place in the Fall semester of 2020 resulting in 387 responses. Upon survey completion, participants were given a chance to provide their emails if they wished to enter into a lottery-style drawing to win one of the 15 \$20 Amazon gift cards. The drawing was conducted at the completion of data collection, and winners were notified via email including \$20 Amazon gift card redeem codes.

Instruments

The instruments of this study were utilized to collect data about the school counselors' demographics, amount of experience as a school counselor and with diverse students, their ability to advocate for the school counseling work in their environments, their beliefs about their capacity to accomplish school counseling related tasks, and finally, their abilities to effectively work with diverse student populations. The instruments of the study included (a) a demographic form created for this study, (b) School Counselor Self-Advocacy Questionnaire (Clemens et al., 2011), (c) School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), and (d) Multicultural Counseling Competence and Training Survey-Revised (Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004).

Demographic Data Form (Appendix G)

A demographic data form was created to gather data from the participants of this study. Appendix G is the list of questions on the demographic data form that included: race/ethnicity,

gender, age, CACREP versus non-CACREP status of graduating school, number of years as a school counselor, amount of multicultural counseling training (workshops, courses taken, in-service trainings, etc.), frequency of the time spent with students with diverse backgrounds, state of employment, educational level of practice (elementary, middle, high school), type of school district (urban, suburban, rural), and estimated student-to-school counselor ration.

School Counselor Self-Advocacy Questionnaire (Appendix D)

School Counselor Self-Advocacy Questionnaire (SCSAQ) was developed by Clemens et al., in 2011. The purpose of their questionnaire was “to measure school counselors’ use of self-advocacy skills in the context of advocating for their roles within a school” (p. 35). Clemens et al. (2011) followed the 10-step process in construct development offered by Crocker and Algina (2008). The 10-step model is specifically regarded for subject-centered instruments in social sciences and education; therefore, the goal was to find the location of school counselors on the continuum of advocacy competence.

SCSAQ is 9-item measure that is on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (coded as 1) to *Strongly Agree* (coded as 4; Clemens et al., 2011). The total score ranges from 9 to 36; higher scores indicated higher level of school counselor self-advocacy than lower scores. There are no reverse coded items in the scale. Sample items include: “I maintain positive working relationships with professionals in the school,” “I use problem-solving skills to find solutions to role challenges,” and “I share data with my principal to support or to make changes to my role as a school counselor.”

The developers of the instrument ran Exploratory Factor Analysis (EFA) to explore the underlying factor structure of the measure that initially had 10 items. Based on their results, a unidimensional (one factor) structure was reported, and factor loadings ranged from .43 to .79

with a Coefficient Alpha of .87. One-factor solution explained 47.17% of the variance with an Eigenvalue of 4.72. Clemens et al. (2011) collected another set of data from 342 school counselors in order to run a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) without duplicating responses. Based on the unsatisfactory CFA results, one item was eliminated based on the highly correlated pair of items ($> .80$). Therefore, the unidimensional model for the 9-item SCSAQ presented a good model fit. Comparing the tested model to a null model, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) was reported to be .86 indicating reasonable fitness.

Clemens et al.'s (2011) tool to assess school counselor self-advocacy has been utilized in other studies. R. Anderson (2015), for instance, investigated school counselor self-advocacy in relation to personal characteristics, school setting, school tasks, and burnout ($N = 1,165$). She reported Cronbach's Alpha to be .82, which is a good indicator of the survey reliability. The findings of R. Anderson (2015) also indicated positive correlations between SCSA and years of experience, being at an elementary level, and level of education. On the other hand, SCSA had a negative correlation with school counselor burnout and amount of non-counseling tasks. These results of R. Anderson (2015) should be considered with caution due to the lack of indications for causation. To gain better sense of causality among the variables, no higher order statistical methods such as SEM or path analysis were employed (R. Anderson, 2015).

School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (Appendix E)

Bodenhorn and Skaggs created SCSE in 2005 as a result of a series of pilot studies. The main purpose of the scale is to measure school counselor self-efficacy in relation to school counselor roles and responsibilities (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005). The scale development process consisted of four distinct studies that were conducted to improve and support the psychometric properties of the measurement.

As the first step, Bodenhorn and Skaggs (2005) created the initial pool of items utilizing pre-existing literature on self-efficacy, school counseling, and other already-existed counseling self-efficacy scales, National Standards for School Counseling (Campbell & Dahir, 1997), and CACREP standards for counseling programs (CACREP, 2001). They produced 44 items as a result of process described above. Next, a panel of five experts who were described as “leaders within the school counseling and counselor education professions” were asked for their feedback on the items (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005, p. 16). Based on the feedback from panelists, the authors decided to eliminate three of the initial 44 items and added 10 new items as suggested by the panel experts leaving the total number as 51 items in the scale for the second stage of their study, item analysis with a sample of school counselors.

At the second stage of their study, Bodenhorn and Skaggs (2005) collected 226 school counselor’s responses to a brief demographics questionnaire as well as the 51-item survey. As a result of the item analysis, the test developers omitted 8 items due to either non-discrimination or confusing wording. The scale with the remaining 43 items had a coefficient alpha of .95. In terms of group differences, female participants, those who had teaching experiences, and those who had three or more years of school counseling experience had significantly higher scores. Additionally, school counselors who had training on and/or implemented ASCA National Standards had significantly higher self-efficacy levels than those who did not.

With the purpose of finding validity, specifically concurrent validity statistics, this time 116 master’s level school counseling students volunteered to take the survey package with a demographic questionnaire, SCSE survey, one of the already existing measures (randomly assigned to the participants). Based on the data analyzed, coefficient alpha was reported as .96. Bodenhorn and Skaggs’ (2005) SCSE questionnaire had a correlation of .41 with a commonly

used self-efficacy scale, Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (Larson et al., 1992). Furthermore, newly developed SCSE scale had a lower correlation with the social desirability scale developed by Crowne and Marlowe (1960) indicating that participants did not answer the items based on their desire to be “approved” by the researchers. SCSE survey was also completed with 38 master’s students who also completed the State Trait Anxiety Inventory (STAI; Spielberger, 1983). There was significant negative correlations between the SCSE and STAI, $-.42$ indicating that, as Bandura (1995) also suggested, higher self-efficacy is related to lower anxiety and avoidance. And finally, there was a significant relationship between SCSE and The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale, second edition (TSCS-2; Fitts & Warren, 1996). Bodenhorn and Skaggs (2005) commented on the lacking relationship by stating, “this result is actually very positive and validates the theoretical differences between self-confidence and self-efficacy” (p. 27).

At the final stage of their SCSE scale development, Bodenhorn and Skaggs (2005) conducted a principal component analysis with an oblique rotation. With the data collected from 342 respondents including masters students and practicing school counselors, the authors decided for a five-factor model accounting for 55% of the variance. In the final version of the scale, SCSE is a 43-item measure that is on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *Not Confident* (coded as 1) to *Highly Confident* (coded as 5; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005). The tool had 5 subscales (factors), personal and social development (12 items), leadership and assessment (9 items), career and academic development (7 items), collaboration (11 items), and cultural acceptance (4 items). A 5-point Likert-type scale was used ranging from 1 (*not confident*) to 5 (*highly confident*). Higher scores on the measure indicated higher levels of school counselor self-efficacy skills (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005).

Although various authors reported a nonstable factor structure for Bodenhorn and Skaggs' (2005) SCSE scale (Gordillo, 2015), the satisfying psychometrics of the instruments and comprehensive scale development process have convinced many researchers to utilize SCSE in school counseling and self-efficacy related studies (Gilbert, 2016; Gordillo, 2015; Pietrantonio, 2017).

Multicultural Counseling Competence and Training Survey-Revised (Appendix F)

Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999) developed the Multicultural Competence and Counselor Training Survey (MCCTS) in an attempt to measure the self-perceived multicultural counseling competence and training of professional counselors. In their initial study, Holcomb-McCoy and Myers (1999) surveyed 151 randomly selected counselors who were members of ACA at the time of their participant recruitment. The final MCCTS had 32 items with a 5-factor structure: knowledge, awareness, definition of terms, racial identity, and skills (Holcomb-McCoy & Myers, 1999).

In an unpublished study, Holcomb-McCoy revised MCCTS in an attempt to measure school counselors' multicultural counseling competence (Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004). Major changes were made on the language of the initial survey changing the word "client" to "student" to better reflect the school counseling population. A panel of three ethnically diverse school counselors with 5 to 15 years of experience provided their feedback. Next, the principal component analysis of the data collected from 215 counselors revealed five factors: multicultural knowledge, multicultural terminology, multicultural awareness, and multicultural skills with the reliability coefficients of .95, .83, .97, and .74, respectively (Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004).

Following the Holcomb-McCoy's revision in 2001, Holcomb-McCoy and Day-Vines (2004) performed a maximum likelihood factor analysis on their data from 209 ASCA members. The analysis revealed three factors explaining 55.12% of the variance: multicultural terminology, multicultural knowledge, and multicultural awareness with Cronbach's alphas of .97, .95, and .85, respectively.

The final version of MCCTS-R is a 32-item scale that is on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from *Not Competent* (coded as 1) to *Extremely Competent* (coded as 4; Holcomb-McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004). The total score ranges from 32 to 128 with higher scores indicating higher levels of school counselor multicultural counseling competence.

Structural Equation Model (SEM)

Structural Equation Model (SEM) is a statistical procedure to test complex theoretical models that have observed and unobserved variables (Bollen, 1989). SEM includes Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) and Path Analysis (PA) in order to understand the relationships among multiple variables derived from theory. In recent years, it has been increasingly employed in social science research especially in counseling (Crockett, 2012; Crockett & Hays, 2015). Crockett (2012) explained SEM in a step-by-step approach and suggested that counselors and counselor educator might use this tool in order to (a) investigate the factor structures of existing and new instruments, (b) empirically confirm or disconfirm theoretical constructs, and (c) evaluate alternative models to determine a better fitting model for their collected data.

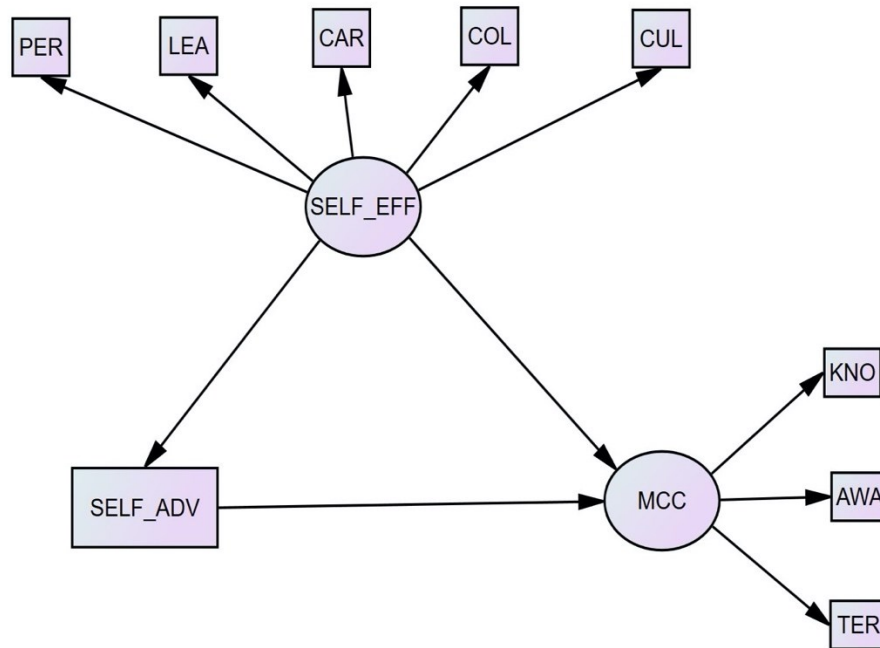
As the use of SEM has become a regular practice in social sciences over the last two decades (Chan et al., 2007), sophisticated software packages have become available including LISREL, AMOS, EQS, Mx, and Mplus. Most of these software packages provide researchers with an option to draw path diagrams in conceptualizing and visualizing the statistical

relationships among various theoretical variables (Crockett, 2012). AMOS 25.0 (Arbuckle, 2006) and LISREL (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1993) were utilized in this study in order to run the SEM due to their availability and common usage in the literature (Chan et al., 2007; Crockett & Hays, 2015).

The SEM analysis has five sequential steps that have been commonly accepted in the literature: (a) Model Specification, (b) Model Identification, (c) Model Estimation, (d) Model Testing, and (e) Model Modification (Bollen, 1989; Crockett, 2012; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). These steps are to carefully examine the proposed theoretical model that is visualized in Figure 1 and to ensure that the analysis and modifications are accurate and theoretically sound. The following sections introduce the steps in depth.

Model Specification

Model specification is to derive a theoretical model based on the existing theory and available (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). To put another way, utilizing all available knowledge, the researcher specifies a model that has observed and latent variables that are theoretically associated, therefore, certain inferences can be drawn without collecting and analyzing data for the model. Model specification process must be embedded in theory in order to avoid specification error where the hypothesized model does not fit the data and is not statically

Figure 1*Proposed Structural Equation Model*

Note. SELF_ADV = self-advocacy, SELF_EFF = self-efficacy, PER = personal and social development, LEA = leadership and assessment, CAR = career and academic development, COL = collaboration, CUL = cultural acceptance, MCC = multicultural counseling competence, KNO = multicultural knowledge, AWE = multicultural awareness, TER = multicultural terminology.

unacceptable (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). The ultimate goal of model specification is to propose a model producing a sample covariance matrix (S) that perfectly or closely fits the model implied covariance matrix of ($\Sigma(\theta)$; Bollen, 1989). To clarify, when the model is well-specified, sample covariance matrix (S) is sufficiently reproduced by the implied covariance matrix of ($\Sigma(\theta)$).

According to J. C. Anderson and Gerbing (1988), a two-step approach is recommended when the researchers aim to develop or confirm a theory/model in social sciences such as counseling. As the first step, *the measurement model* is specified identifying the observed variables that indicate latent variables in the model (J. C. Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Crockett, 2012). In the study, the measurement model included two latent concepts as depicted in Figure 1. First latent concept, school counselor self-efficacy, is estimated by five observed factors (i.e., personal and social development, leadership and assessment, career and academic development, collaboration, cultural acceptance). Second latent variable is school counselor multicultural counseling competence. This latent variable is estimated by three observed factors (i.e., terminology, knowledge, skills).

The measurement model is well specified when latent variables are measured accurately. The second step in model specification, J. C. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) offered, is *specifying the structural model*. Structural model includes the relationships among latent variables in a model. These relationships must be specified, and a theoretical path diagram can illustrate these asserted directional connections among the model variables (Crockett, 2012). Comparing to a set of equations explaining the structure coefficients, path diagrams are commonly used as they visualize which variables are observed or latent and the direction of associations among these variables, and which variables are fixed or freely estimated (Bollen, 1989). In the proposed study, the structural model includes 2 observed and 2 latent variables. With Figure 1, a path diagram shows these variables and their relationships to each other.

Model Identification

Following the specification of the model, model identification is the next step in SEM procedure. Model identification is considered as the process of estimating the unknown

information from the known information in the model (Bollen, 1989). Unknown information includes the model parameters that can be free (i.e., relationships among variables in the model that are to be estimated), constrained (i.e., relationships that are known but considered as equal to another parameter in the model), or fixed (i.e., parameters that are fixed to a specific value). In order to identify the model, as Bollen (1989) offered, t-rule must be satisfied. That is to ensure the number of parameters to be estimated is less than the ones that are known in the sample variance-covariance matrix. The number of known parameters is calculated using $k(k + 1)/2$, where k is the number of observed variables in the SEM model.

On the other hand, unknown parameters are to be estimated by the researcher based on the sample data (Bollen, 1989). These parameters may include factor loadings, variances, co-variance, or the relationships between exogenous and endogenous variables or. Fixed parameters in the model such as a factor loading between a latent and an observed variable that is fixed to 1 (often a 0 or 1) are considered as known. According to the t-rule, in order to consider a model to be identified the number of free parameters must be less than the number of known parameters. In the proposed SEM model, there are 10 observed variables; therefore, there are 55 known parameters. The number of parameters to be estimated is 10. Given the number of known parameters (55) is greater than the unknown parameters (10), the proposed SEM model is said to be identified.

Model Estimation

The third step in the SEM analysis, model estimation, is a necessary step due the impossibility of knowing the population parameters. In other words, the goal model estimation is to estimate the theoretical model parameters by minimalizing the difference between model implied covariance matrix ($\Sigma(\theta)$) and population covariance matrix (Σ). This estimation process

is an iterative process meaning several calculation procedures are employed to produce the best fitting model that has the closest sample covariance matrix (S) to the model implied covariance matrix ($\Sigma(\theta)$). This difference between ($\Sigma(\theta)$) and (S) is represented with a statistic called Chi-square (χ^2). When the χ^2 is zero, this is concluded as a perfect fit between the data and the theoretical model (Bollen, 1989; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010).

Several estimation procedures or fitting functions are available to produce a χ^2 that is as close to zero as possible (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Most widely fitting function is the Maximum Likelihood (ML) followed by generalized least squares (GLS), and ordinary least squares (OLS). ML is more often preferred by researchers of SEM because it is a scale-free estimation calculation meaning that if one of the scales in the model were to be transformed, the overall estimation would be sensitive to the change, therefore the model estimation statistic would remain the same (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). A possible disadvantage of using ML may occur when the data are not continuous or normally distributed (Crockett, 2012). This assumption of normality is a determining factor in choosing the appropriate fitting function. Although, ML and OLS are normality sensitive meaning when the assumption is not met in the observed data, the χ^2 value will not be accurately calculated, there are asymptotically distribution-free (ADF) estimators to be employed (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). Robust Maximum Likelihood (RML; Satorra & Bentler, 1994) and Weighted Least Squares (WLS; Browne, 1984) are the two commonly used fitting functions that are not dependent on the distribution type of the data (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). However, it is suggested that WLS is not a small sample size friendly method due to its inability to produce correct estimation of χ^2 with smaller samples (Mueller, 1996).

Model Testing

As the next step in the SEM model procedure, model testing is the process of understanding how well the proposed theoretical model fits to the sample data (Hu & Bentler, 1999). In other words, researchers test whether model implied covariance matrix ($\Sigma(\theta)$) and sample covariance matrix (S) are the same, if not, how significant the difference is. Model testing involves a commonly accepted two-step approach, testing the measurement model and testing the structural model (J. C. Anderson & Gerbing, 1988; Kline, 2011). At the first step of testing the measurement model, J. C. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggested to test whether the observed variables measured the expected latent concepts in the direction expected. Therefore, in the proposed study, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was run in order to illustrate that chosen latent constructs (school counselor self-efficacy and multicultural counseling competence) were adequately measured by their associated observed variables (i.e., factors of the latent variables).

Following the testing of the measurement model, J. C. Anderson and Gerbing (1988) suggested determining the extent to which proposed structural model fits to the sample data. There are several fitness indices in deciding the fitness of the model to the sample data: The Chi-Square Test, Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA), Standardized Root-Mean Square Residual (SRMR), Goodness of Fit Index (GFI), and the Comparative Fit Index (CFI). Each of these indices has their own weakness, therefore, Schumacker and Lomax (2010) suggested that researcher utilize several of fitness indices in determining the fitness of the proposed model to the sample data.

The Chi-Square Test. More commonly reported measure fit, the chi-square test (χ^2) is to determine the extent to which model implied covariance matrix ($\Sigma(\theta)$) and sample covariance matrix (S) are interrelated (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). The χ^2 is not significant when the model implied covariance matrix ($\Sigma(\theta)$) and sample covariance matrix (S) are similar. However, the Chi-Square test is a sample size sensitive measure; meaning that the χ^2 tends to produce insignificant results when there are more than 200 participants in study, therefore researchers are warned to check with other model fit indices for consistent results.

Root-Mean-Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA). RMSEA takes analysis of residuals into account by using the square root of the mean-squared differences between the elements of S and Σ . Generally accepted index values range from 0.00 to 1.00. RMSEA values lower than .05 indicates a good model fit although values between .05 and .08 are still considered acceptable when other indicines are within the good model fit values (Hu & Bentler, 1999).

Standardized Root-Mean Square Residual (SRMR). SRMR is based on the difference between the observed data correlation matrix and theoretical correlation matrix. SRMR also ranges between 0 and 1 where 0 indicates a perfect model fit, however, values less and .08 are acceptable (Hu & Bentler, 1999). SRMR is an absolute fit index and is not sensitive to large sample sizes unlike chi-square test.

Goodness of Fit Index (GFI). GFI is a measure of variance and covariance in the sample covariance matrix that is predicted by the theoretical model. The GFI values range between 0 and 1 higher values indicating better model fit (Kline, 2011). Schumacker and Lomax (2010) suggested that GFI values higher .90 and .95 are the indicators of a good model fit.

Comparative Fit Index (CFI). CFI is a measure fit model that is a comparison of the theoretical model to an alternative model (Hu & Bentler, 1999). The alternative model would be hypnotized to have no relationships among its variables (a null model). CFI values can be between 0 and 1, suggested values of .90 and .95 indicate good model fit.

There has been some discussion around the appropriateness of model testing. The main issue in these discussions is whether an alternative model being tested is necessary when there may not be any theoretical foundation (Martens, 2005; McDonald & Ho, 2002). Martens (2005) proposed two fundamental perspectives on the argument. First, by testing alternative models to better explain the data, one can test hypothesis to determine whether the hypothesized model is supported by the data, or an alternative model can explain the data with a better precision. Martens also offered a second reason for the necessity of alternative model testing in SEM that is to eliminate the confirmation bias by considering multiple options for a better fit model. Although these reasons are appealing, researchers are warned by the possible risk of producing better-fitting model without any theoretical foundation. However, researchers should look for at least one or two alternative models that have theoretical background in order to better test alternative theories in advancing the literature (Martens, 2005).

Model Modification

As the last step, SEM researcher may modify their model when the sample data do not confirm the hypnotized model (Quintana & Maxwell, 1999). Model modification involves eliminating non-significant parameters from the theoretical model or adding new parameters that were not offered in the initial model (Chan et al., 2007; Crockett, 2012). Software packages such as AMOS include Modification Indices (MI) providing possible changes in the chi-square

statistics if a new path is included in or excluded from the initially offered model (Quintana & Maxwell, 1999).

Although model modification offers ways to improve a model to better fit the sample data, this topic remains controversial in the literature because the process is not driven by theory but the sample data (Chan et al., 2007; Crockett, 2012). The approach is no longer a confirmatory (confirming the theory by the sample data) but an exploratory process, which may decrease the generalizability of the results to the population (Schumacker & Lomax, 2010). It is suggested that if model modification is applied by adding or eliminating a new path in the model, theoretical justification should be sought first, as the recommended modifications may not lead to a general model but to the sample data only (Quintana & Maxwell, 1999).

Delimitations

1. Participants in this study included practicing school counselors at the time of the study identified by the ASCA National directory.
2. Counselor educators and supervisors and counseling graduate students were excluded to participate in the study due to the focus of the research.
3. Self-administered measures were used through online means.
4. The survey questions were read and answered in English language.
5. The data of the study were collected during the Fall semester of 2020 (i.e., August, September, and October) with the purpose that the potential participants may have had less fatigue than later months of the education year.

Summary

Chapter 2 delineated the research methodology along with research questions, participant characteristics, procedures, and the instruments used in the study. The chapter introduced the

steps taken to make meaning of the data collected. SEM analysis steps were explained. In the following chapter, the results of the study are reported along with the data collection procedures and participant demographics.



CHAPTER III

RESULTS

The findings of the study are presented in Chapter 3. The main purpose of the study was to investigate the relationship among self-advocacy, self-efficacy, and multicultural counseling competence of school counselors using structural equation model. The first part of the chapter includes data collection and data screening procedures followed by participant demographics. In the next part, summary and factor structures (i.e., CFA) of each measure used in the study are presented. Next, proposed structural model properties are introduced to answer the research questions.

Research Questions

The current study pursues to answer the following research questions:

Research Question 1: What are the direct and indirect influences of school counselor self-efficacy on multicultural counseling competence?

Research Question 2: Is the relationship between self-efficacy and multicultural counseling competence mediated by self-advocacy for school counselors?

Data Screening

Data from 387 responders were input into SPSS (version 27) for data screening and handling missing data. Because the methodology used in this study was structural equation model (SEM), AMOS (version 26) was utilized for SEM modelling and its stems (e.g., CFA and model fit analysis). However, AMOS requires a complete dataset (e.g., no missing values) in order to run specific analyses. The first step in handling missing data was to check the data for participant responses that were missing one (or more) full section(s) of the survey. As a result, 32

responses were detected to miss either a full scale (e.g., Multicultural Counseling Competence Scale) or the entire survey package. These 32 (8.2%) responses were omitted from further analysis.

Deleting responses from a dataset may have drawbacks. For example, if a specific group of participants (e.g., rural school counselors) missed a question because it did not speak to them, then deleting their responses would skew the data in an unknown direction. Therefore, Little's Missing Completely at Random Test (MCAR; Little, 1988) was computed on the data file of 355 cases. MCAR is used to investigate whether the missing data is randomly missing. The null hypothesis is that the data are missing randomly. When the $p > .05$ we accept the null hypothesis and conclude that our data are missing randomly, and there is no pattern in the missing data points. For the current data, $p = .939$ ($\chi^2 = 4087.98$, $df = 4299$), therefore, the researcher accepted the null hypothesis and concluded that the data are missing randomly in this dataset.

After establishing the randomness of the missing data, the next step was to determine how to estimate the missing data points. According to Sterner (2011), researchers should make a decision on the method of filling missing data based on how much data are missing. In the current data set of 306 cases, there was between 0 and 1% missing data for each variable. In other words, in average there were 0 to 4 missing data points for each of the 87 items in the survey. Demographic survey had no missing data. Sterner (2011) suggested that when there is less than 1% missing data points, missing data imputation can be performed on SPSS using the linear trend at point function (a combination of regression and mean substitution analysis). Linear trend at point method utilizes a regression analysis where the variable with missing value/s is the dependent variable, and the sequence of all the participant responses to the particular variable is

the independent variable (IBM, 2021). Thus, the missing data points in the current study were imputed by the linear trend at point method.

Statistical Assumptions

As suggested by Kline (2011) structural equation model analysis is sensitive to certain assumptions that need to be met before the analysis can be conducted. The following section includes the procedures for the statistical assumptions of univariate outliers, univariate normality, multivariate normality, linearity, and homogeneity of variance.

Univariate Outliers

Univariate outliers are the data points that have extreme lower or higher scores than the rest of the scores on a distribution of a variable (Barnett, 1978). Glass et al. (1972) suggested that when the researcher fails to detect and omit the univariate outliers in a data set, the results of the study would be skewed in an unknown direction. Hoyle (2012) also suggested that due to many possible reasons (e.g., data entry errors, misunderstood questions, or random answers) SEM researchers must be aware of univariate outliers in their data sets.

In the current study, the author first examined the dataset for univariate outliers by visualizing the data distribution with histogram and boxplot functions of SPSS as suggested by Mowbray et al. (2019). No extreme values in a single variable were detected as a result of visual review of the histograms and boxplots. However, this technique is considered to be a first step in univariate outlier detection. For a more systematic way of exploring outliers, Warner (2008) offered that researchers are to investigate scores that have higher than +4.0 or lower than -4.0 z-scores. Following Warner's guidance, z-scores were calculated for each individual response to the variables used in the final SEM model. Accordingly, two subscales of the self-efficacy scale, *Career and Academic Development* and *Collaboration*, had the z-scores of just below the cutting

score of -4.0 (-4.23 and -4.19, respectively), which was neglectable. However, one participant had a z-score of -4.76 on the total score of self-advocacy scale. This was also neglected by the researcher after checking the item-level responses of the participant. As described later in this chapter, overall self-advocacy scale had a high mean score of 4.39 (SD = .47). Therefore, the participant with a z-score of -4.76 might have ended up being an outlier.

Univariate Normality

Univariate normality assumption indicates the normal distribution of the data points on a variable (Warner, 2008). As suggested by Kline (2011), the researcher examined the assumption of univariate normality in the current dataset based on the skewness and kurtosis of the data distribution for the continues variables. Skewness is a reflection of the data distribution symmetry. A perfect dataset would have a skewness of zero. Kurtosis, on the other hand, is concerned with the weight of the tails in a distribution, which is highly correlated with the flatness and peakedness of a distribution shape (Warner, 2008).

Skewness and kurtosis are expected to be between -2.58 and 2.58 in order to meet the assumption of univariate normality (Warner, 2008). As presented in Table 2, skewness and kurtosis values of all the variables ranged between -1.069 and 1.558; therefore the researcher concluded that based on the skewness and kurtosis values, statistical assumption of multivariate normality was met in the current dataset.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for the Used Measures in Structural Model (N = 306)

Variables	<i>M (SD)</i>	Min	Max	Skewness	Kurtosis
PER (<i>n</i> =12)	4.36 (.48)	2.417	5.000	-.984	1.266
LEA (<i>n</i> =9)	3.98 (.65)	1.778	5.000	-.776	.573
CAR (<i>n</i> =7)	4.20 (.59)	1.714	5.000	-1.011	1.536
COL (<i>n</i> =11)	4.34 (.49)	2.273	5.000	-1.069	1.558
CUL (<i>n</i> =4)	4.33 (.52)	2.750	5.000	-.655	-.116
AWE (<i>n</i> =19)	3.39 (.43)	1.667	4.000	-.429	-.178
KNO (<i>n</i> =9)	2.80 (.63)	1.105	4.000	-.122	-.477
TER (<i>n</i> =4)	3.48 (.54)	2.000	4.000	-.543	-.623
SA (<i>n</i> =8)	4.39 (.47)	2.152	5.000	-.938	1.132

Note. PER = *personal and social development*, LEA = *leadership and assessment*, CAR = *career and academic development*, COL = *collaboration*, CUL = *cultural acceptance*, AWE = *multicultural awareness*, KNO = *multicultural knowledge*, TER = *multicultural terminology*, SA = *self-advocacy*. Medium score (M), standard deviation (SD), and minimum and maximum scores are presented for each variable.

Multivariate Outliers and Homogeneity of Variance

In detaching multivariate outliers in the study, Mahalanobis distance was utilized.

Mahalanobis distance is calculated as the mean of the means for each column in the dataset.

Each response is, then, compared to this hypothetical center. In the current sample, 49 responses were found to be outside of the acceptable distance at the p value of .05. In other words, there was 0.05 percent change of having the distance these 49 (13.7%) responses had from the theoretical center. Therefore, these 49 responses were omitted from further analysis.

Homogeneity (i.e., homoscedasticity) is a statistical assumption that is to test whether there is equal variance across the sample data. It can be revealed by examining a visual

demonstration of the scatterplot produced by SPSS. In the current sample, a visual examination of the data projected on a scatterplot resulted in a rectangular shape distribution, indicating a strong evidence that the sample data had equal variance across the dataset. In other words, homogeneity assumption was met in the sample of 306 responses.

Participants

As outlined in Table 3, most participants in the sample identified their sex as Female ($n = 273$, 89.2%) followed by males ($n = 33$, 10.8%). This high proportion of the females over males in the current sample reflected the overall field female-male gender ratio as evidenced by the ASCA members who reported to be 85% female (Membership Demographics, 2018). No participants reported transgender or other. Age of the participants ranged from 22 to 70 years ($M = 38.4$, $SD = 10.3$). Regarding race, 242 participants identified as White (79.1%) followed by 35 Black or African American (11.4%), 4 Asian (1.3%), 3 American Indian or Alaska Native (1.0%), 1 Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (.3%), and 21 others (6.9%).

Experience and Education

Almost half of the participants in the study reported to have less than five years of experience ($n = 143$, 46.7%). There were 76 (24.8%) participants with six to 10 years of experience, 42 (13.7%) participants with 11 to 15, 27 (8.8%) participants with 16 to 21, and finally a small percentage (5.9%) of the sample reported their years of experience at highest (21 years and more).

As outlined in Table 3, more than half of the participants ($n = 179$, 58.5%) reported to take zero to 3 credit hours of multicultural counseling training annually. A little lower than a third ($n = 86$, 28.1%) of the participants reported to take four to seven credits of multicultural training, 24 (7.8%) participants took eight to 11, and a small percentage of the sample ($n = 17$,

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for Participants Educational Background

Characteristics	<i>M</i> or <i>n</i>	<i>SD</i> or %
Sex		
Male	33	10.8
Female	273	89.2
Age	38.4	10.3
Race		
American Indian or Alaska Native	3	1.0
Asian	4	1.3
Black or African American	35	11.4
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	1	.3
White	242	79.1
Other	21	6.9
Years of Experience		
5 years or fewer	143	46.7
6-10 years	76	24.8
11-15 years	42	13.7
16- 20 years	27	8.8
21 years and more	18	5.9
CACREP	38.4	10.3
A CACREP accredited program	245	80.1
Not a CACREP accredited program	61	19.9
Multicultural Counseling Training Credits Annually		
0-3 credits	179	58.5
4-7 credits	86	28.1
8-11 credits	24	7.8
12 or more credits	17	5.6
Frequency of Interaction with Diverse Students	3	1.0
Very Rarely	4	1.3
Rarely	8	2.6
Occasionally	45	14.7
Frequently	106	34.6
Very Frequently	143	46.7

5.6%) indicated that they took 12 or more credit hours of multicultural counseling training each year. Furthermore, participants also reported the frequency of their interactions with diverse students (e.g., minority, low SES, immigrant). Almost half of the participants ($n = 143$, 46.7%) reported to interact with diverse students *very frequently*, 106 (34.6%) interacted *frequently* with their diverse students. A smaller group of participants ($n = 45$, 14.7%) reported to interact with diverse students *occasionally*, 8 (2.6%) participants *rarely*, and 4 (1.3%) reported to interact with diverse students *very rarely*. Additionally, 80.1% ($n = 245$) of the participants reported graduating from a CACREP accredited program. The rest of the group ($n = 61$, 19.9%) reported graduating from a non-CACREP accredited program.

School Setting and Location

Appendix H includes demographic data on participants' schools. Varying number of participants from 47 states participated in the study. There were no participants from Louisiana, Mississippi, and South Dakota. Higher number of participants joined the study from California ($n = 27$, 8.8%), Pennsylvania ($n = 25$, 8.2%), and Ohio ($n = 20$, 6.5%). On the other hand, smaller number of participants joined the study from Wyoming ($n = 1$, 0.3%), West Virginia ($n = 1$, 0.3%), and Vermont ($n = 1$, 0.3%).

Regarding the setting of participants' school, 81 (26.5%) participants reported working at an urban setting (see Appendix H). Almost half of the sample ($n = 141$, 46.1%) worked in a suburban setting, and 27.5% (84) of the participants reported working in a rural setting. Additionally, participants reported their school level for this study, a fifth ($n = 64$, 20.9%) of the participants worked at an elementary school. Another fifth ($n = 68$, 22.2%) of the sample worked at a middle/junior high. The highest frequency of the participants worked in a high school ($n = 126$, 41.2%). A smaller group of participants ($n = 43$, 14.1%) reported working at two or more

school levels, and five (1.6%) participants reported other to this question. In terms of the number of students per school counselor, participants reported an average of 347 student per counselor with a standard deviation of 170.0.

Data Analysis

The goal of the following section was to provide evidence for reliability estimates and factor structures for each instrument used in the study. Modifications made to each measure were also reported. SPSS (V. 27) and AMOS (V. 26) software were used for data analysis and generating visual graphics.

School Counselor Self-Advocacy Questionnaire Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The researcher utilized School Counselor Self-Advocacy Questionnaire (SCSAQ) to measure school counselor self-advocacy skills of the current sample. The SCSAQ is on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from *Strongly Disagree* (coded as 1) to *Strongly Agree* (coded as 5). The total score ranges from 9 to 45, higher scores indicated higher level of school counselor self-advocacy than lower scores. There are no reverse coded items in the scale. For the current sample, the score range varied among the items. Item number 1 had a range of two with a minimum score of three and a maximum score of five. Item numbers 3, 4, 5, and 9 had a range of three with a minimum score of two and a maximum score of five. The rest of the items (e.g., items 2, 6, 7, and 8) had a range of 4 with a minimum score of one and a maximum score of five. Overall, nine-item scale had a mean of 4.38. Cronbach's Alpha was .82.

Following a careful examination of the SCSAQ items (e.g., EFA, CFA) and model fit indicators, item number one was removed from further analysis in this study. The item, "I maintain working positive relationship with professionals in the school" had the highest mean score of 4.83 comparing to the item items on the scale. This item also explained the least amount

of variance in the scale ($r^2 = .135$). When the item was deleted, the Cronbach's Alpha increased to .827, and as demonstrated in Table 4, the overall CFA model fit indices showed improvements compared to the nine-item model.

As depicted in Figure 2, the researcher ran a CFA analysis in order to better understand the unidimensionality of the SCSAQ with the current sample of 306. As shown in Table 4 (see Model 1b), the updated model had a Chi-square of 67.354 ($\chi^2/df = 3.368$), which was significant; however χ^2/df ratio of 3.368 was within the acceptable limits. Other model fit indices included the RMSEA (.939), CFI (.939), GFI (.950), and SRMR (.0494). Modification indices provided valuable suggestions to improve the model fitness to the observed data. Accordingly, as shown in Figure 3, three error covariances were freed (see Figure 1). As outlined in Table 4, the final model had an improved overall model fit ($\chi^2 = 68.502$, $df = 24$, $\chi^2/df = 2.854$; RMSEA = .078; CFI = .946; GFI = .953; SRMR = .0329).

Table 4

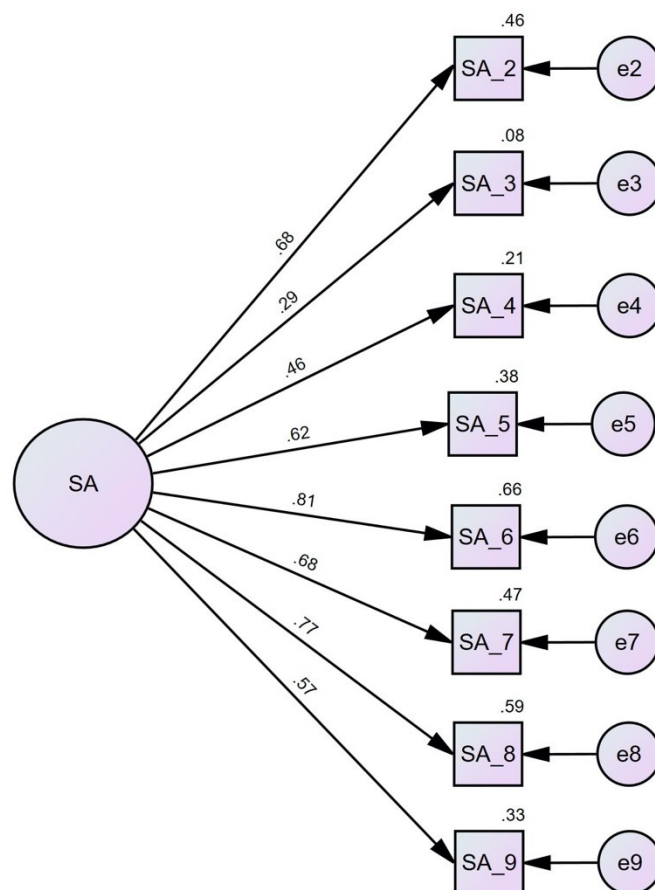
Summary of Model Fit Indices for Two Models (8 - 9 items) and Modified Model

	χ^2	df	p	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	SRMR
Model 1	104.362	27	< .01	3.865**	.097	.906	.929	.0464
Model 1b	67.354	20	< .01	3.368**	.088	.939	.950	.0494
Model 2	68.502	24	< .01	2.854**	.078	.946	.953	.0329

Note. ** = $p < .001$, GFI = Goodness of Fit Index, CFI = Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR = Standardized Root Mean-Square Residual. Model 1: Original model with 9 items proposed by Clemens et al. (2011); Model 1b: eight-item model excluding item 1 due to poor psychometrics; Model 2: Modified model with three covariances freed to reach model fitness to the observed data.

Figure 2

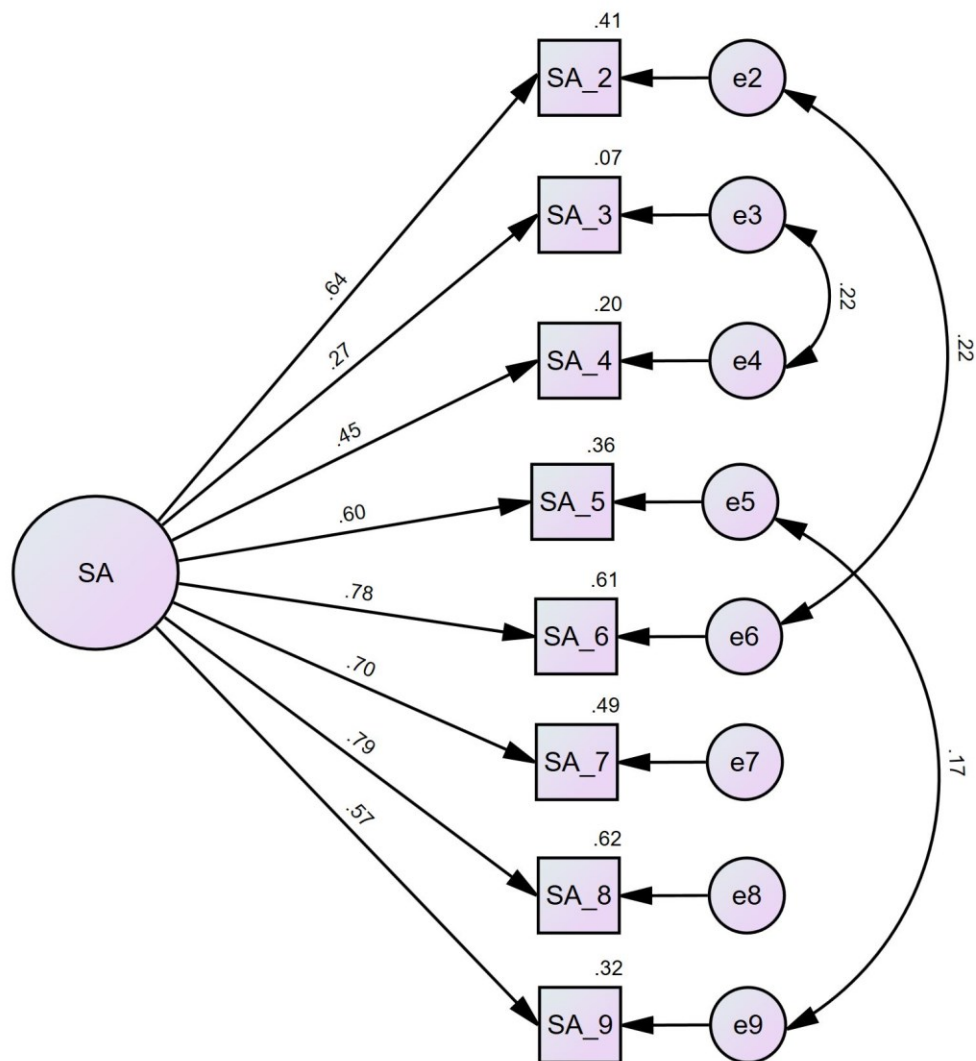
The Initial Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Model for the SCSAQ



Note. SA = self-advocacy.

Figure 3

The Final Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Model for the SCSAQ



Note. SA = self-advocacy.

In the above section, the author conducted a confirmatory factor analysis to understand the factor structure of the SCSAQ. As offered by Clemens et al. (2011), a unidimensional factor structure was confirmed by loading all items onto a single factor. Due to poor item psychometrics, item number 1 was deleted, which improved the overall scale Cronbach's Alpha and CFA model fit indices (see Table 4); in other words the updated model better represented the observed data.

Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that SEM researchers make model fitness decisions based on multiple fit indices because each fit index has their own weakness in their calculations. Accordingly, the author of the current study examined each fit index separately and made a decision of the overall model fitness after considering the rest of the available indices. More commonly accepted test of fitness is the Chi-square which is the indicator of the difference between the predicted model and the observed model based on the sample data. When the two models are similar (or the same in an ideal world), Chi-square would be closer to zero. The results of the modified model (Model 2 in Table 4) produced an insignificant Chi-square ($\chi^2=68.502$). However, Hu and Bentler (1999) suggested that Chi-square values are sensitive to sample size, therefore, offered χ^2/df to be below 5.0 in order to have an acceptable model fit. The Chi-square/degrees of freedom ratio was 2.85 in the current study, which was under the acceptable cut-off score (Hu & Bentler, 1999; Kline, 2011).

Along with Chi-square, the author also checked for other fit indices. First of all was the root-mean-square error of approximation (RMSEA), a goodness of fit index where the goal is to approximate the population to the observed sample. RMSEA values between .05 and .08 are considered to indicate an acceptable model fit value (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Final modified model for the SCSAQ was .78, which was accepted to represent a good model fit. Furthermore, CFI,

GFI, and SRMR are other fit indices all of which have been satisfied by the modified model produced by the SCSAQ sample data in this study (see the methodology chapter of this study and Kline [2011] for further information). With the acceptable values of the aforementioned fit indices, the author concluded that the observed data adequately represented the hypothesized model for self-advocacy in the current study.

Multicultural Counseling Competence and Training Survey-Revised Confirmatory Factor Analysis

The researcher utilized the Multicultural Counseling Competence and Training Survey-Revised (MCCTS-R) as a proxy measure of school counselor multicultural counseling competence. The MCCTS-R is a 32-item scale that is on a 4-point Likert scale ranging from *Not Competent* (coded as 1) to *Extremely Competent* (coded as 4). The MCCTS-R has three subscales: (a) multicultural terminology, (b) multicultural knowledge, and (c) multicultural awareness. The total score ranges from 32 to 128 with higher scores indicated higher level of school counselor multicultural counseling competence. The scale had no reverse coded items. In the current study, individual item scores ranged from two to four for items 3, 4, 6, 8, and 9 in the Multicultural Awareness subscale and 1, 2, 3, and 4 in the Multicultural Terminology subscale. The rest of the items including all the Multicultural Knowledge subscale items had a range of 3 with a minimum score of two and a maximum score of four. The mean scores for each subscale were 3.47 ($SD = .54$), 2.80 ($SD = .63$), and 3.39 ($SD = .43$), respectively. Overall, 32-item scale had mean score of 3.05. Regarding the internal consistency, Cronbach's Alphas for each subscale were .95 for Multicultural Terminology, .96 for Multicultural Knowledge, and .87 for Multicultural Awareness with a score of .96 for the overall scale.

As shown in Figure 4, the initial CFA model had three factors correlating with each other and 32 items loading on their designated factors (items 1 through 19 loading on Multicultural Knowledge; 20 through 28 on Multicultural Awareness; and 29 through 32 on Multicultural Terminology). The hypothesized measurement model offered by Holcomb-McCoy and Day-Vines (2004) produced a poor model fit ($\chi^2 = 1492.924$, $df = 461$, $\chi^2/df = 3.238$; RMSEA = .086; CFI = .862; GFI = .751; SRMR = .0626). However, examining modification indices provided opportunities to improve the overall model fit. Thus, as Figure 5 visualizes, six covariances were freed. As shown in the Table 5, modified model had significantly better model indices ($\chi^2 = 1013.382$, $df = 454$, $\chi^2/df = 2.232$; RMSEA = .064; CFI = .925; GFI = .820; SRMR = .0623).

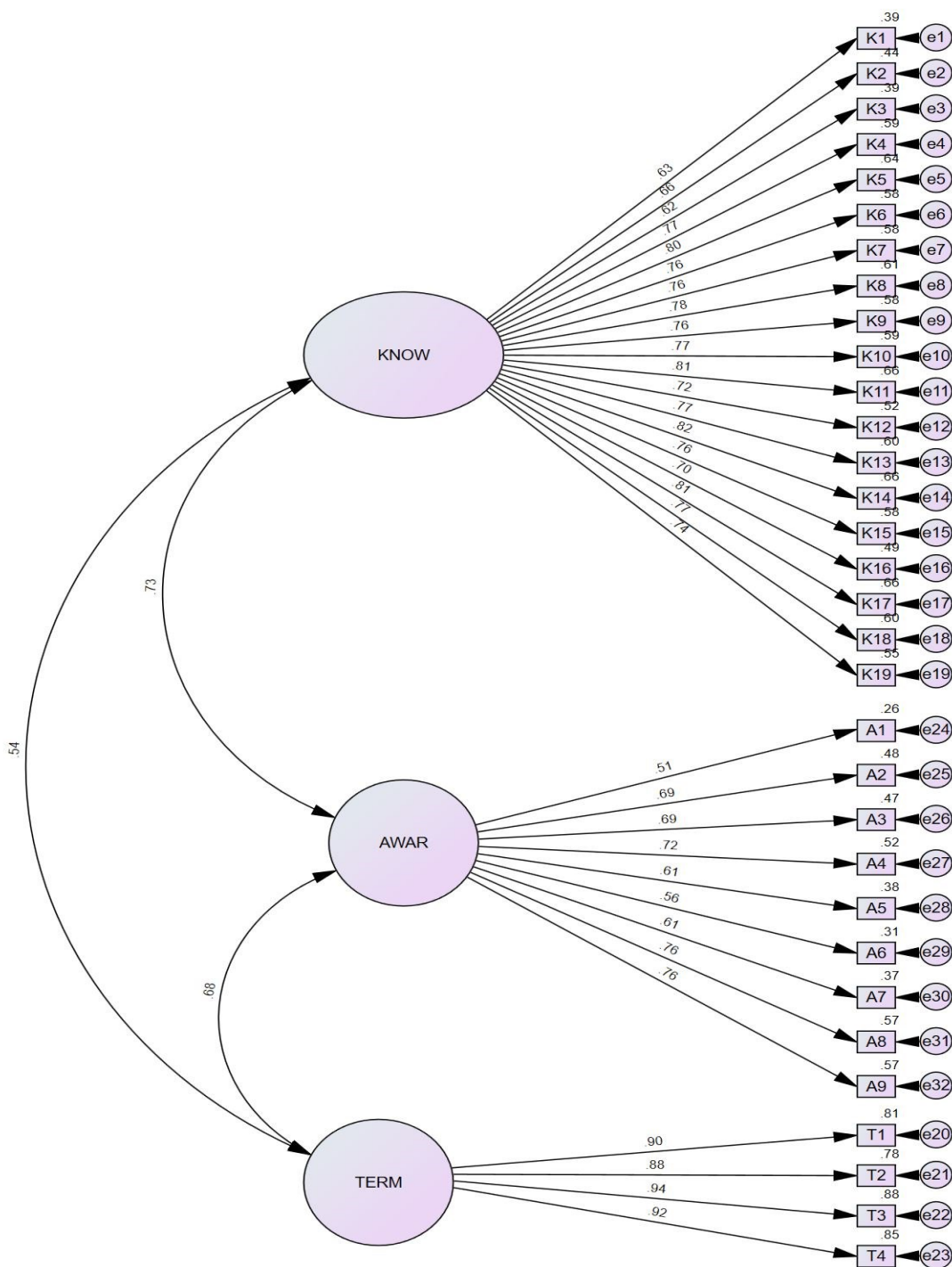
Table 5

Summary of the Mode Fit Indices for Two Models

	χ^2	df	p	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	SRMR
Initial Model	1492.924	461	< .01	3.238	.086	.862	.751	.0626
Modified Model	1013.382	454	< .01	2.232	.064	.925	.820	.0623

Figure 4

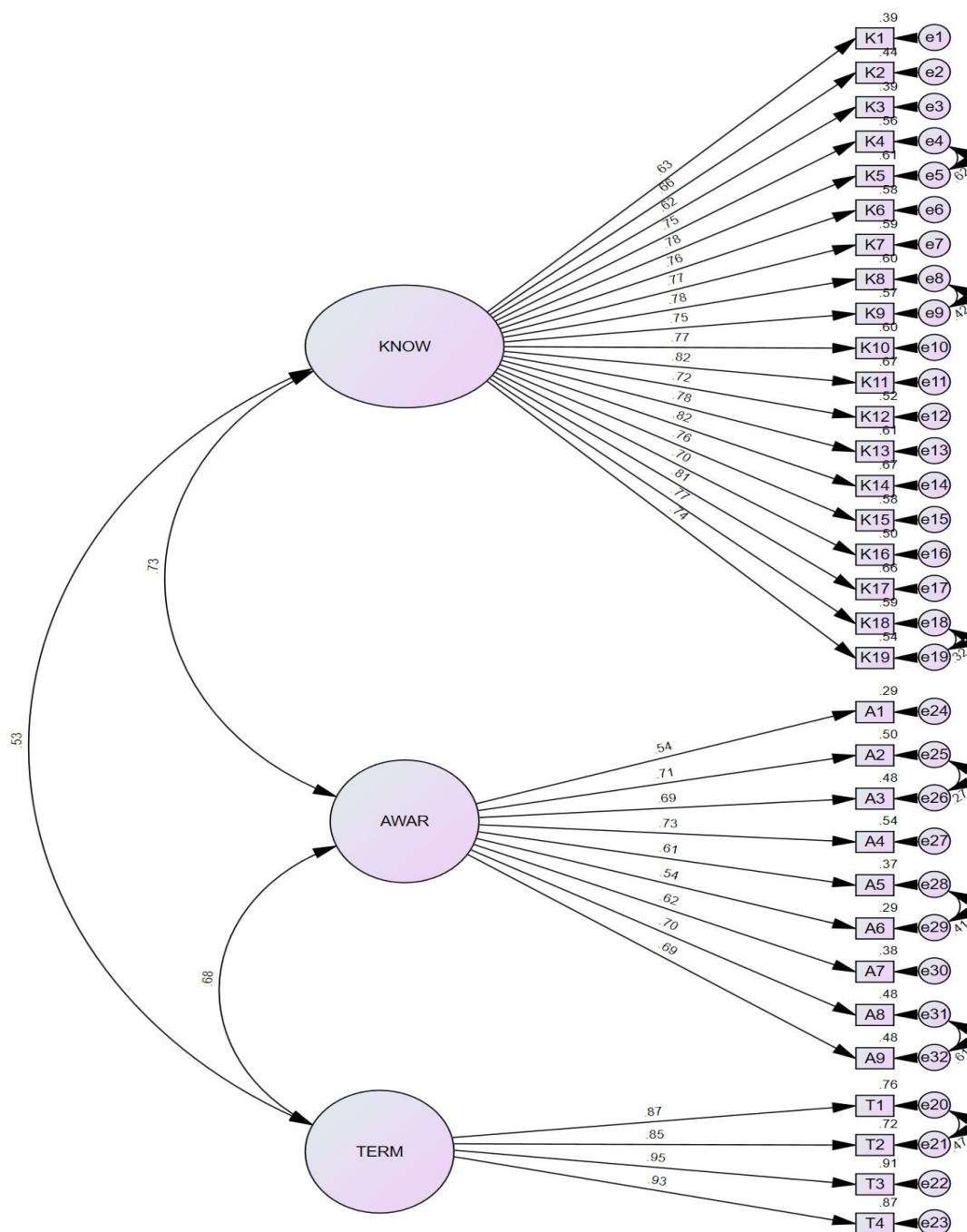
The Initial Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Model for the MCCTS-R



Note. KNO = multicultural knowledge, AWE = multicultural awareness, TER = multicultural terminology.

Figure 5

The Final Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Model for the MCCTS-R



Note. KNO = multicultural knowledge, AWE = multicultural awareness, TER = multicultural terminology.

In the current study, MCCTS-R (McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004) was utilized to measure school counselors' MCC. As suggested by the original authors of the study, school counselor MCC was hypothesized to have a factor-structure: multicultural terminology, multicultural knowledge, and multicultural awareness. A CFA was conducted to confirm the model as well as to better understand the model fitness to the observed data in the current study.

In the initial model CFA analysis, 19 items were loaded on the multicultural knowledge, nine items were loaded on multicultural awareness, and four on the multicultural terminology factors. This model produced inconsistent evidence in regard to different fit indices. For instance, while χ^2/df (3.24) ratio was within the acceptable range, in other words, represented a good model fit, the RMSEA index indicated a poor model fit (Hu & Bentler, 1999). Therefore, after considering the modification indices, a set of suggestions produced by AMOS to improve the model, the researcher decided to free seven error covariances among the items of the scale. This improved the overall model fit indices. The new RMSEA value (.064) was within the acceptable range (.06 - .08). The CFI, GFI, and SRMR values were also improved, therefore, the author conclude that the modified model produced enough evidence to be an adequate representation of the sample data in this study. Furthermore, based on the CFA results, the MCCTS-R was accepted to be a sufficient measure for school counselor multicultural counseling competence and was included in the final SEM model.

School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale Confirmatory Factor Analysis

In the current study, School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSE) was used to measure school counselor self-efficacy. The SCSE is a 43-item measure that is on a 5-point Likert Scale ranging from *Not Confident* (coded as 1) to *Highly Confident* (coded as 5). The SCSE had 5 subscales: (a) Personal and Social Development (PER), (b) Leadership and Assessment (LEA),

(c) Career and Academic Development (CAR), (d) Collaboration (COL), and (e) Cultural Competence (CUL). The total score for the scale ranges from 43 to 215 with higher scores indicated higher level of school counselor self-efficacy skills. There are no reverse coded items in the scale. In the current sample data, number of items with a range of three (from two to five) was seven for the Personal and Social Development, three for the Leadership and Assessment subscale, two for the Career and Academic Development subscale, six for the Collaboration subscale, and two for the Cultural Competence subscale. Additionally, one item in the Personal and Social Development Subscales, five items in the Collaboration, and two items in the Cultural Competence had a range of two with a minimum score of three and a maximum score of five. The rest of the items ranged from one to five. The mean scores and standard deviations for each subscale were 4.35 ($SD = .48$), 3.97 ($SD = .65$), 4.20 ($SD = .459$), 4.34 ($SD = .49$), and 4.32 ($SD = .52$), respectively. Overall scale mean statistic was 4.25 ($SD = .48$). Additionally, Cronbach's Alpha for the subscales were .90, .91, .87, .86., and .70 for the Personal ad Social Development, Leadership and Assessment, Career and Academic Development, Collaboration, and Cultural Competence, respectively. Overall scale alpha was .96 for the current study sample.

As shown in Figure 6, the initial CFA model produced a five-factor structure correlating with each other and 43 items loading on their designated factors (items 1 through 7 loading on Career and Academic Development; 8 through 18 on Collaboration; 19 through 22 on Cultural Competence; 23 through 31 on Leadership and Assessment; and 32 through 43 on Personal ad Social Development). The hypothesized measurement model first offered in Bodenhorn and Skaggs (2005) produced a poor model fit to the current dataset ($\chi^2 = 2058.098$, $df = 850$ $\chi^2/df = 2.421$; RMSEA = .0068; CFI = .840; GFI = .761; SRMR = .0582). The researcher examined the modification indices suggested by AMOS software, thus, eight of the indices that would produce

more significant changes in the model fit were accepted. These modifications resulted in freeing the eight error covariances that can also be observed visually in Figure 7. As shown in the Table 6, modified model had significantly better model indices ($\chi^2 = 1600.011$, $df = 843$ $\chi^2/df = 1.898$; RMSEA = .054; CFI = .900; GFI = .798; SRMR = .0582).

Table 6

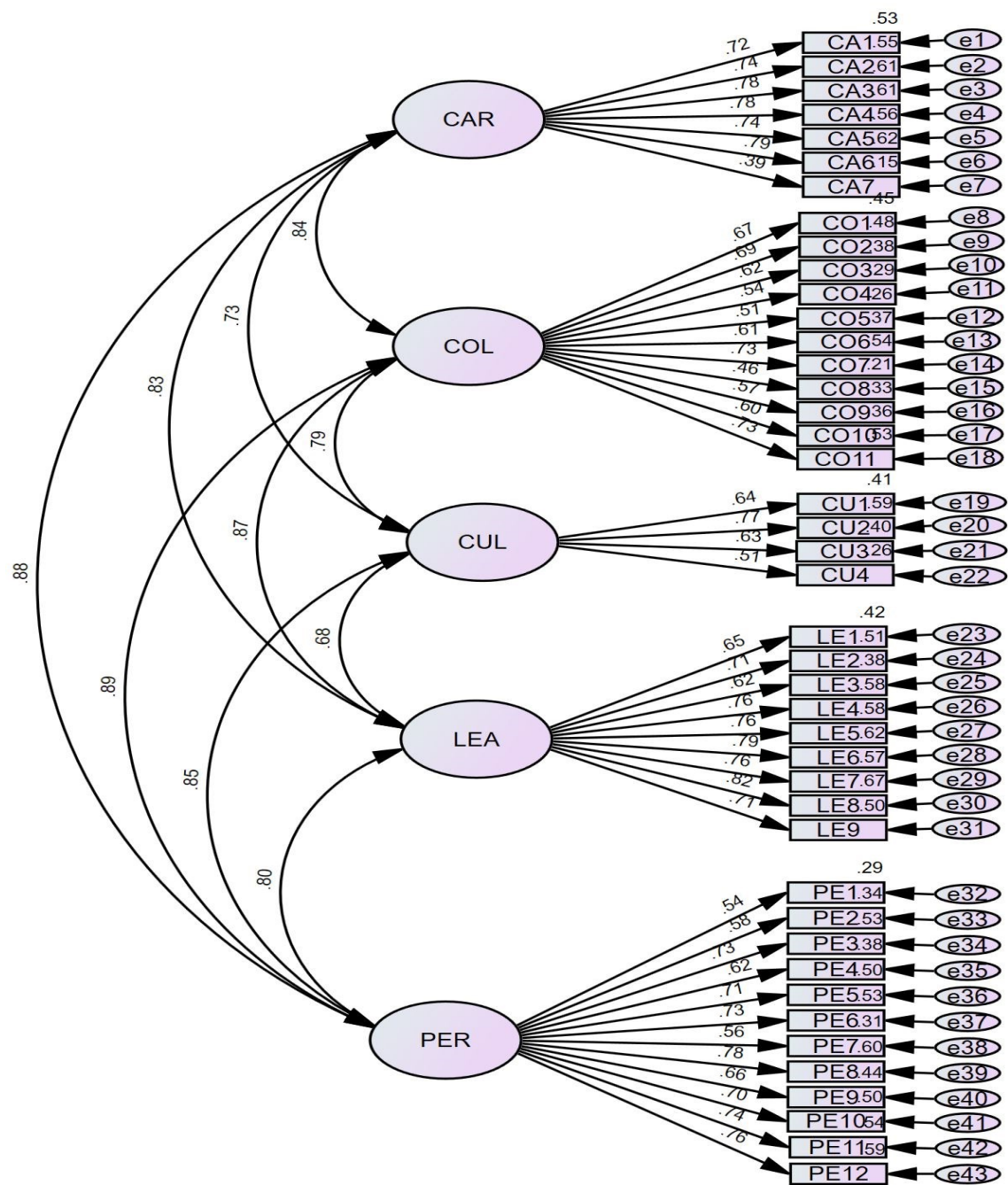
Summary of the Mode Fit Indices for Two Models

	χ^2	df	p	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	SRMR
Initial Model	2058.098	850	< .01	2.421	.068	.840	.761	.0582
Modified Model	1600.011	843	< .01	1.898	.054	.900	.798	.0582

Bodenhorn and Skaggs' (2005) study results suggested that School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSE) had five subscales, Personal and Social Development (PER), Leadership and Assessment (LEA), Career and Academic Development (CAR), Collaboration (COL), and Cultural Competence (CUL). As a part of the measurement model analysis in the current study, the researcher conducted a CFA analysis to better understand the model fitness of the hypothesized model to the current study sample data.

Figure 6

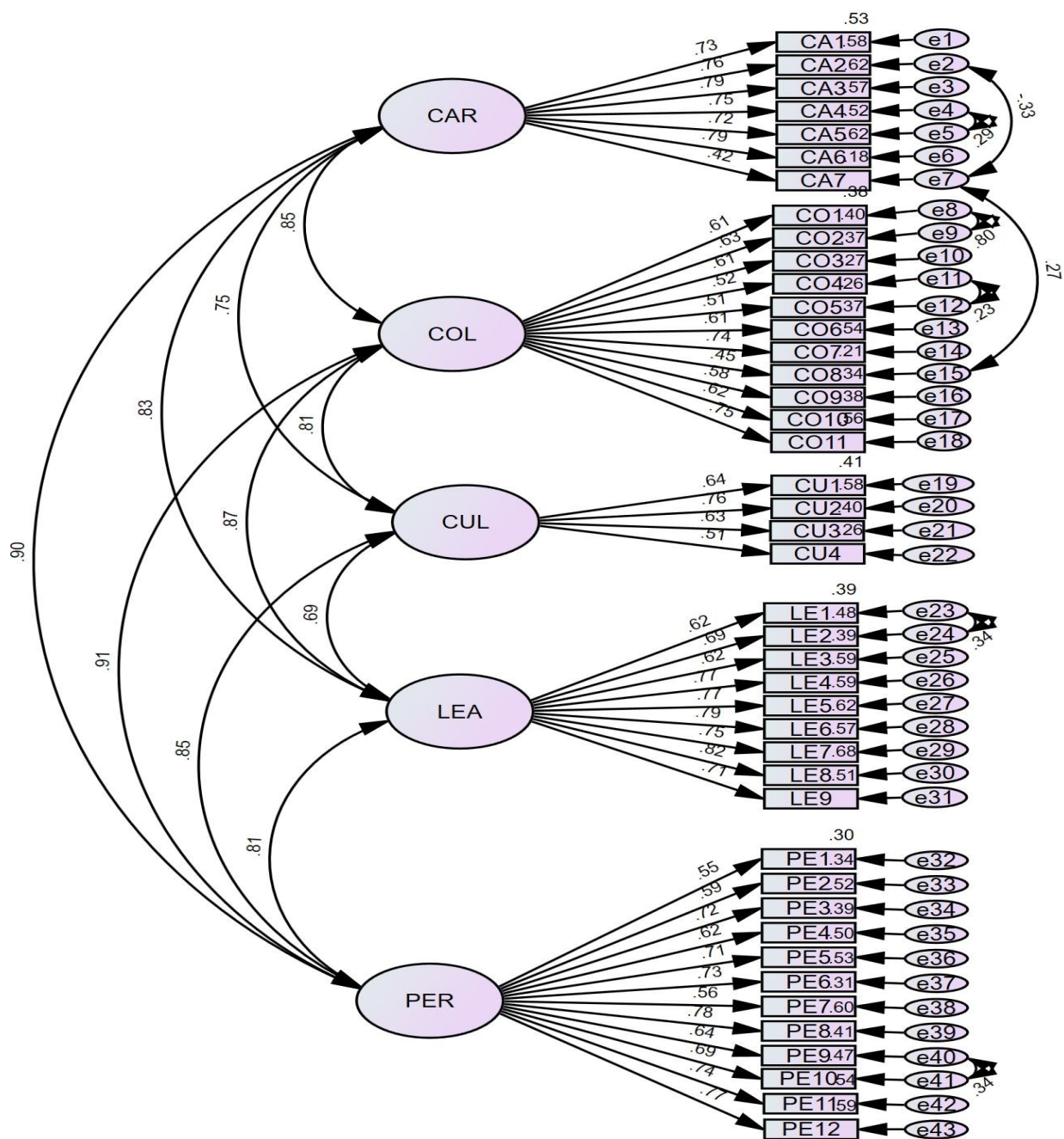
The Initial Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Model for the SCSES



Note. CAR = career and academic development, COL = collaboration, CUL = cultural acceptance, LEA = leadership and assessment, PER = personal and social development.

Figure 7

The Final Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) Model for the SCSES



Note. CAR = career and academic development, COL = collaboration, CUL = cultural acceptance, LEA = leadership and assessment, PER = personal and social development.

The CFA analysis produced a set of model fit indices that were not consistent. For instance, the measure of the difference between the predicted model and the observed model, Chi-square (χ^2) ratio to degrees of freedom (df), as suggested by Hu and Bentler (1999), was an evidence of a good fitting model (2.42) whereas the fit index of a comparison between the theoretical model and the alternative model, CFI, indicated a poor fitting model (.84). Therefore, seven of the modification indices were accepted to improve the overall model fit to the data. This process provided a Chi-square/degrees of freedom value of ($\chi^2/\text{df} = 1.9$) which was a strong evidence for a good model fit. Additionally, the RMSEA and CFI values (.054 and .9, respectively) were within the good model fitness range. On the other hand, the GFI value was expected to be between .90 and .95, however the value was .79, which was, according to Schumacker and Lomax (2010), an evidence of a poor model. However, Kline (2011) also offered that GFI values should be between 0 and 1 emphasizing that the higher values are indicative of a better model fit. Given the other fit indices provided enough evidence for a good model fit, the author of the study accepted the low GFI value as neglectable concluding that the hypothesized model of the SCSE was adequately represented by the observed sample data.

Structural Model

After investigating the factor structures and unidimensionality of the observed and unobserved variables in the structural model, according to J. C. Anderson and Gerbing (1988), the next was to test if the hypothesized model had statistical merits. As shown in Figure 8, SE and MCC were treated as unobserved (e.g., latent) variables and self-advocacy was treated as an observed variable. Overall structural model had nine observed variables and two latent variables.

Results of the SEM analysis revealed that there were two statistically significant relationships among the structural model variables. According to the model, self-advocacy was a

significant predictor of self-efficacy ($F [1, 305] = 153.345, p < .001$). SCSA explained 33.5% of the variance in SCSE scores. Furthermore, SCSE was a significant predictor of MCC ($F [1, 305] = 166.765, p < .001$). SCSE explained 35.4% of the variance in the MCC scores. However, there was not a significant relationship between self-advocacy and multicultural counseling competence.

Based on these results, initially proposed SEM model that suggested self-advocacy was a mediator variable between self-efficacy and multicultural counseling competence was not supported by the data due to the lacking statistically significant relationship between self-advocacy and multicultural counseling competence.

Although there was insignificant relationship between self-advocacy and multicultural counseling competence, the significant relationships between self-advocacy and self-efficacy and self-efficacy and multicultural counseling competence suggested the researcher that another model could better explain the relationships among the study variables. Thus, after examining possible models and consulting with the theory embed in the literature, the researcher identified that self-efficacy served as the moderator latent variable between self-advocacy and multicultural counseling competence. When there is a significant indirect relationship through a mediator with no direct relationship between two variables, this type of moderation only association was called indirect-only mediation by Zhao et al. (2010) and full mediation by Baron and Kenny (1986). Therefore, the rest of this chapter was written about the newly emerged model.

The emerged proposed model produced an acceptable model fit to the data (i.e., $\chi^2 = 127.987, df = 25, p < .001$; CFI = .945; GFI = .916; RMSEA = .116; SRMR = .0452). However, as visualized in Figure 9, three modification indices produced by AMOS were utilized to improve the model fitness to the data. As presented in Table 7, this procedure improved the

model fit indices (i.e., $\chi^2 = 89.424$, $df = 23$, $p < .001$: CFI = .965: GFI = .41; RMSEA = .097: SRMR = .0432).

Table 7

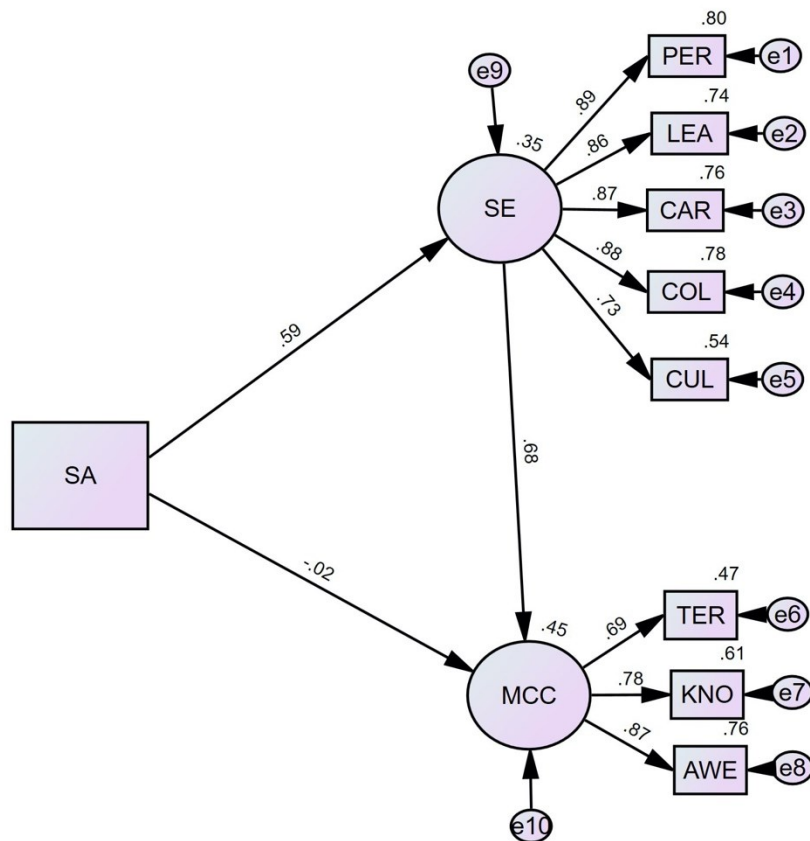
Summary of the Mode Fit Indices for Two Models

	χ^2	df	p	χ^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	GFI	SRMR
Initial Model	127.987	25	< .001	5.119	.116	.945	.916	.0452
Modified Model	89.424	23	< .001	3.888	.097	.965	.941	.0432

The structural model produced direct and indirect effects among the model variables. The researcher tested the relationships by bootstrapping method as suggested by Preacher and Hayes (2004). Bootstrapping is a highly regarded statistical procedure to produce random samples based on the N of a study. For example, in the current study, the N was 306, thus, 5,000 random samples of 306 sample size were drawn. Then, the current dataset was compared to the 5,000 random samples to test whether the relationships in the model were significant. Results of this process showed that self-efficacy mediated 91% of the total effect of self-advocacy on multicultural counseling competence (i.e., the proportion of the mediated effect [.34] to the total effect [.31]). In other words, self-efficacy moderated 91% of the relationship between self-efficacy and multicultural counseling competence.

Figure 8

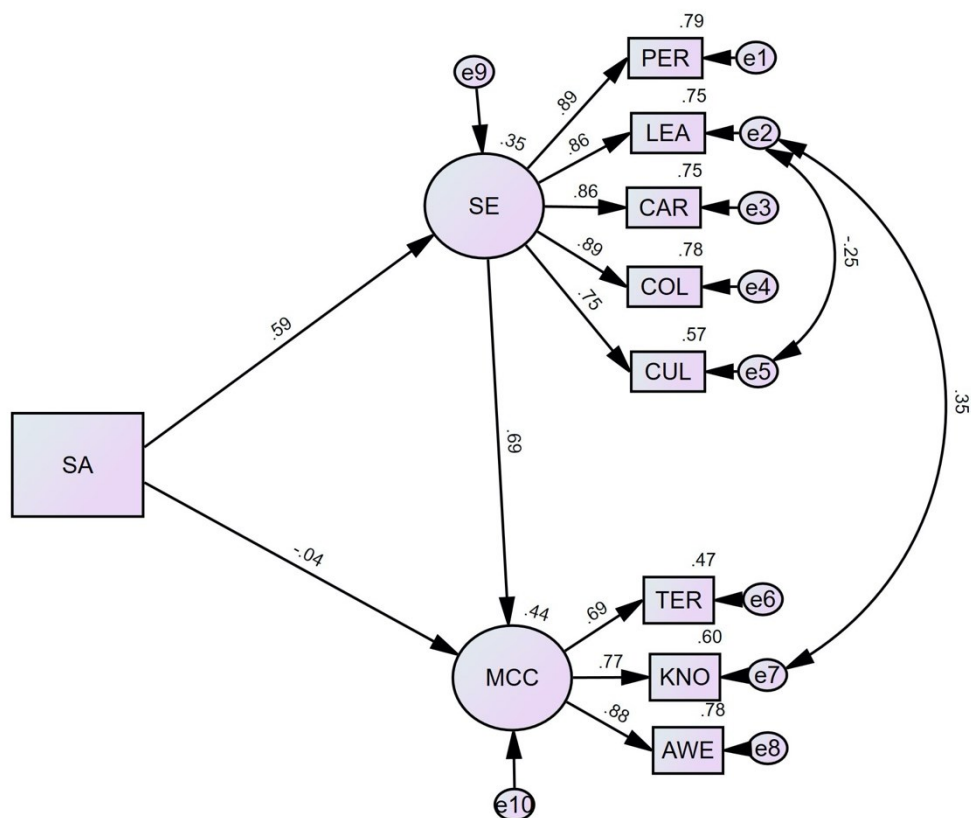
Structural Equation Model With Standardized Estimates



Note. SA = self-advocacy, SE = self-efficacy, PER = personal and social development, LEA = leadership and assessment, CAR = career and academic development, COL = collaboration, CUL = cultural acceptance, MCC = multicultural counseling competence, TER = multicultural terminology, KNO = multicultural knowledge, AWE = multicultural awareness CUL = cultural acceptance, MCC = multicultural counseling competence, TER = multicultural terminology, KNO = multicultural knowledge, AWE = multicultural awareness.

Figure 9

Final Structural Equation Model With Standardized Estimates



Note. SA = self-advocacy, SE = self-efficacy, PER = personal and social development, LEA = leadership and assessment, CAR = career and academic development, COL = collaboration, CUL = cultural acceptance, MCC = multicultural counseling competence, TER = multicultural terminology, KNO = multicultural knowledge, AWE = multicultural awareness.

Summary

Chapter 3 included the results of this study. Data collection and data handling procedures were described to demonstrate the rigor demonstrated in the study process. Demographics, education background, and school settings were reported to provide insights on the sample population of the study. CFA and reliability estimate for each measure used in the study served

as basis for the structural equation model analysis (SEM). The SEM analysis showed that self-advocacy was not a predictor of multicultural counseling competence, therefore, updated model provided strong evidence for the mediation relationship of self-efficacy between self-advocacy and multicultural counseling competence.

The next chapter provides an extended discussion of the study findings along with the detailed interpretations of each research question proposed for the current study. Furthermore, limitation of the study, implications of the findings for practicing school counselors, and school counselor education are also discussed in the next chapter. Finally, the researcher includes future research suggestions.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the researcher delivers an overview of the current study followed by the discussions of the finding. The following includes a section addressing each research question in relation to the current study findings and previous literature. This chapter also provides the implications of the current study for practicing school counselors, counselor educators and supervisors, leadership and advocacy, and research. This chapter ends with limitations of the study and a conclusion.

Study Overview

School counselors are to provide culture sensitive interventions and services to the diverse student bodies (ASCA, 2019). According to ASCA (Membership demographics, 2018), approximately 81% of the currently practicing school counselors in the US are White (81%) and 85% are female. On the other hand, students of these school counselors are increasingly becoming diverse regarding their race, ethnicity, nation of origin, and so forth (Cook et al., 2019; DE, 2012). Thus, understanding and improving the school counselors' ability to work with students of diverse backgrounds is a priority in the field of school counseling. Therefore, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship among self-efficacy, self-advocacy, and multicultural counseling competency of school counselors currently practicing in the US. The data were collected through an online survey package that included a demographic questionnaire created for this study, School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSE; Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005), the School Counselor Self-Advocacy Questionnaire (SCSAQ; Clemens et al., 2011), and the Multicultural Counseling Competence and Training Survey-Revised (MCCTS-R; Holcomb-

McCoy & Day-Vines, 2004). Participants of this study were 306 currently practicing school counselors in the US. The sample was predominantly women ($n = 273$; 89%), White ($n = 242$; 79%), with less than 10 years of experience ($n = 219$; 71%) and graduated from CACREP accredited schools ($n = 245$; 80%) with an average age of 38. The number of participants was evenly distributed across school settings (urban, suburban, rural) and school levels (elementary, middle, etc.).

The results of this study indicated that there was a statistically significant relationship between self-advocacy and self-efficacy. The relationship between self-efficacy and multicultural counseling competence was also significant. However, there was no significant relationship between self-advocacy and multicultural counseling competence. Structural equation modelling results showed that there was an indirect significant relationship between self-advocacy and multicultural counseling competence mediated by self-efficacy.

Discussions of Finding

The main purpose of the study was to investigate the complex relationships among self-efficacy, self-advocacy, and multicultural counseling competence of school counselors in the US. The structural equation model provided partial support to the initially proposed model. Following section introduced the specific discussions of the research questions pertaining to the connections between the study results and previous research.

Addressing Research Question 1

Research Question 1: What are the direct and indirect influences of school counselor self-efficacy on multicultural counseling competence?

In order to examine the relationship between self-efficacy and MCC, SEM analysis was conducted. The results showed that self-efficacy was a significant predictor of MCC partially

answering the first research question of the current study. Additionally, self-efficacy explained 35.4% of the variance in MCC. This finding is consistent with the *priori* literature on the relationship of self-efficacy and MCC (Constantine, 2001; Na, 2012). For example, in a dissertation study of school counselors, Na (2012) found that school counselor self-efficacy was significantly related to their cultural competency in working with recent immigrant students. To better understand this connection, it is important to remember the definition of self-efficacy, which is the self-perceived ability and belief to accomplish school counseling related activities (Barden & Greene, 2015). This definition of self-efficacy indicates that school counselors with higher self-efficacy beliefs and skills will be more likely to be aware of their school counseling programs, requirements, and activities. Thus, school counselors with strong commitment to their school counseling programs and plans with the emphasis on diversity and culture work would also be more likely to have strong belief and ability to put these plans from their school counseling program into action, which may explain the key connection between school counselor self-efficacy and MCC. Supporting this possible elucidation, Gilbert (2016) found a significant relationship between ASCA program implementation and self-efficacy of school counselors in the US. Their findings were also supported by Mullen and Lambie (2016) whose research suggested that school counselors with higher self-efficacy beliefs were more likely to execute their direct and indirect school counseling interventions (i.e., school counseling plans). Therefore, the finding of the current study supported by the literature suggests that school counselors with higher self-efficacy are more likely to implement their school counseling plans and programs including the ones on multicultural school counseling, thus, they are also more likely to have higher multicultural counseling competence.

The direct and strong relationship between school counselor self-efficacy and MCC is also related to school counselors' relationships with other stakeholders in their schools. The current study findings supported this relationship. One of the subscales of the School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSE) with the highest mean score was *Collaboration*. This subscale had items such as "consult and collaborate with teachers, staff, administrators and parents to promote student success" and "communicate in writing with staff, parents, and the external community." The higher scores assigned to the Collaboration subscale indicate that school counselors with higher self-efficacy beliefs pay specific attention to their relationships with other involved parties in their work with students. These findings are also consistent with the literature suggesting administrative support is highly related to school counselor self-efficacy skills in implementing school counseling plans (Sutton & Fall, 1995). Bodenhorn et al. (2010) advanced this discussion by adding that school counselors with higher self-efficacy were more likely to have strong relationships with their administrative colleagues and to be aware of the achievement gap data in their schools. They suggested all school counselors want to pay attention to the achievement gap in their schools; however, only those with strong beliefs and skills (i.e., self-efficacy) with the support of other involved stakeholders can actually act on their plans to close the achievement gap in their schools.

The strong relationship between self-efficacy and MCC is also a key factor in expanding school counselor effectiveness to various groups of students. For instance, in a study of school counselors' knowledge and skills in supporting students who experienced homelessness, Cook et al. (2019) found a strong connection between supporting students experiencing homelessness and multicultural self-efficacy. The current study finding aligns with their results in relation to meeting the specific needs of a sub-population in a school environment (e.g., students

experiencing homelessness). In order to meet the needs of a diverse student population (e.g., MCC), school counselors are to perceive themselves as competent and able to act on their observations (e.g., self-efficacy; Cook et al., 2019).

Parikh-Foxx et al. (2020) investigated the relationship of self-efficacy and school counselors' work for enhancing student career and college readiness in a large sample of 2,047 school counselors. Their results provided an insight into the interpretation of the current study results. For instance, Parikh-Foxx and colleagues (2020) found that school counselors with more training in career related tasks (e.g., higher self-efficacy) were more likely to perceive themselves as skilled and capable of helping student with career related decisions. Although their focus was not on different student populations, based on the previous research (Bodenhorn et al., 2010; Holcomb-McCoy et al., 2008) we could draw a connection that school counselors with higher self-efficacy would be more interested in helping diverse students with special college and career readiness needs. As the current study findings suggest that higher self-efficacy is associated with higher MCC, this finding adds valuable support to the connection of career counseling, self-efficacy, and cultural competence (Parikh-Foxx et al., 2020).

Addressing Research Question 2

Research Question 2: Is the relationship between self-efficacy and multicultural counseling competence mediated by self-advocacy for school counselors?

To understand the indirect effect of self-efficacy on MCC moderated by self-advocacy, SEM analysis was conducted. The SEM analysis included two relationships in calculating a possible indirect effect of self-efficacy on MCC mediated by self-advocacy. The first was the relationship of self-efficacy and self-advocacy, which was significant, and self-efficacy explained 33.5 % of the variance in self-advocacy. The second was an insignificant relationship

between self-advocacy and MCC. Therefore, there was no significant indirect effect of self-efficacy on MCC mediated by self-advocacy. However, this finding is unique to the current study because there had been no studies examining the mediating role of self-advocacy on the relationship between self-efficacy and MCC. In other words, school counselors' ability to communicate and negotiate information about ideal school counselor roles to those with power (e.g., self-advocacy) did not play a significant role between their self-perceived ability to accomplish school counseling activities (e.g., self-efficacy) and their cultural competence (e.g., MCC). One assumption to explain this phenomenon could be that when school counselors are negotiating their roles and job duties with other stakeholders, they are only focused on the activities that are unrelated to school counseling, instead of advocating for the ideal school counselor roles. Bemak and Chung (2008) called this phenomenon as "nice counselor syndrome" (p. 372). They suggested that school counselors (the school counseling discipline as a whole) could advocate for what is needed by the students they serve as opposed to always negotiating against what is not relevant to school counseling job duties. The ASCA National Model has also put extra attention on this aspect of school counselor role confusion by encouraging school counselors to be more *accountable* with data on their work (ASCA, 2019). By collecting data on what is needed by and working for their students, school counselors could advocate for all of their students. A promising research finding from Havlik et al. (2019) suggested that younger school counselors were significantly more likely to advocacy for their ideal school counseling roles. Therefore, the current study finding that suggested school counselor self-advocacy did not play a role on the relationship between self-efficacy and MCC could be explored with more emphasis on the amount of experience by future school counseling researchers.

An unexpected finding of this study was to discover the indirect effect of self-advocacy on MCC fully mediated by self-efficacy. In other words, higher self-advocacy skills and attitudes of school counselors was related to higher self-efficacy in their school counseling related tasks, which in turn affected their multicultural counseling competence with diverse students. Additionally, the significant indirect effect of self-advocacy on MCC mediated by self-efficacy was a positive relationship, which indicated that school counselors with higher self-advocacy skills and attitudes are more likely to be self-efficacious in their school counseling duties, which also improved their multicultural counseling competence. However, as stated above, there was no significant direct relationship between self-advocacy and MCC.

Several conclusions can be drawn based on the SEM results. First, after reviewing the literature resulted by multiple attempts to search for the key words of *self-advocacy*, *self-efficacy*, *multicultural counseling competence*, *ASCA*, *ASCA national model*, *school counselor*, *school counseling*, *moderation*, and *structural equation model* through different databases that included PsycINFO, ERIC, EBSCOhost, PsycEXTRA, Academic Search Complete, Dissertations and Theses Global, Electronic Theses and Dissertations Center, and Education Research Complete, the author of the current study found no literature to explain the mediator role of self-efficacy on the self-advocacy—MCC relationship. Self-efficacy has been repeatedly found to be a key mechanism that helps counselors apply their skills to a counseling related task (Larson & Daniels, 1998). In a study of 61 school counseling interns, for instance, Gilbert (2016) suggested that self-efficacy could be a strong indicator of ASCA program implementation. The level of the ASCA national model implementation in schools could be particularly important in explaining the positive outcomes of the self-advocacy—self-efficacy relationship on cultural competence. School counselors who communicate and negotiate the ideal

school counselor job duties which include “specifically address(ing) the students of culturally diverse . . . populations” (ASCA, 2005a, p. 77) are likely to generate mechanisms through which they can integrate and apply their existing knowledge to work toward a plan to meet the needs of historically oppressed students.

As Bandura (1977) suggested people with strong beliefs in their own capacity are likely to see the malfunctioning systems around them as the source of their determination and resilience as opposed to disinclination and helplessness. Holcomb-McCoy (2008) offered that when school counselors believed in their capacity to meet the unique needs of diverse students, they would be acting deliberately in the direction of inclusion of those who were marginalized in school environments. Therefore, the results of the structural model provide a strong argument that multicultural counseling competence is indirectly related to how well a school counselor can advocate for the ideal job duties through their beliefs in their own capacity to succeed in applying those idea school counseling roles into the needs of diverse students.

In contrast to Havlik et al. (2019) findings that suggested that higher self-advocacy beliefs were related to school counselors’ advocacy and social justice practices for marginalized student populations, the current study did not find a direct relationship between school counselor self-advocacy and school counselor cultural competence. Supporting the current study findings, in a qualitative investigation of school counselors’ advocacy for LGBTQ students, Simons and Cuadrado (2019) found that school counselors “did not have much control to make changes in the school, either for or on behalf of LGBTQ students” (p. 5). Although this contradiction in the literature warrants further research, one possible interpretation could be that school counselors’ self-advocacy struggles are often confined by other stakeholders in their working environments because, perhaps, their superiors are not supportive of their advocacy work.

Another perspective on the self-efficacy connection between self-advocacy and MCC might be related to the preparedness of school counselors. Bandura (1977) reported people with more trainings and positive experiences with a task would be more likely to have higher self-efficacy beliefs on their capacity to accomplish the task related activities. In the school counseling realm, although school counselors view their self-advocacy work as valuable and important, they would have to have higher beliefs and skills in their capability to transfer these advocacy beliefs into beneficial ways of assisting diverse students. Thus, due to the lack of training in skills-based interventions (Day-Vines et al., 2007), school counselors might be limited in seeing the connection between their self-advocacy work and its relation to serving students with special needs.

Implications

The results of the current study offered a significant relationship among self-advocacy, self-efficacy, and multicultural counseling competence. Additionally, another important finding of this study is the mediator role self-efficacy on the relationship between self-advocacy and multicultural counseling competence. These results have valuable implications for currently practicing school counselors, school counselor educators, supervisors, leadership and advocacy, and research. Next section includes implications for each group separately.

Implications for Practicing School Counselors

The current study findings offered that school counselors with higher self-advocacy are more likely to have higher self-efficacy, and in turn, higher MCC. However, there was no direct relationship between self-advocacy and MCC. The implications of these significant and insignificant relationships among the study variables are mainly concerned with school

counselors' own beliefs and skills in their capacity to accomplish their school counseling plans which include specific interventions for students of diverse backgrounds.

One of the sources of self-efficacy is performance outcomes (Bandura, 1977). In other words, positive school counseling experiences are likely to increase self-efficacy, which in turn, will encourage school counselors to believe in their capacity to accomplish even more in their school counseling programs. Therefore, based on the current study findings supported by the theory school counselors should start with smaller and realistic projects in working with diverse school populations. Fully Implementing ASCA national model might be an unrealistic task for school counselors who may have limited or no experience with the model (Gilbert, 2016); however, starting with one component of the model (i.e., assess) can be a manageable plan, which will increase school counselors' self-efficacy beliefs. As they perceive their performance outcomes as positive and encouraging, school counselors may implement other components of the ASCA national model with a specific plan in mind.

Given the strong indirect effect of self-advocacy on MCC, practicing school counselors should not only focus on their culture related interventions such as activities to celebrate cultural festivals or interventions to bridge the achievement gap, but also pay attention to their relationships with other teachers, administrative staff, parents, and other school counselors colleagues (Bodenhorn & Skaggs, 2005; Sutton & Fall, 1995). School counselors with stronger social and professional relationships can have more support in creating a collaborative atmosphere for culturally diverse students with all the parties' involvement. Therefore, indirectly, as supported by the current study, school counselors may advocate for the ideal school counseling duties with an attitude that they are competent to accomplish their tasks, which, in turn, increases their ability to serve diverse students.

School counselors should also participate in districtwide school counseling group activities in order to gain exposure to how other school counselors are advocating for their school counseling programs and diverse student groups in their own schools. This is particularly important in being in an environment that can provide vicarious learning experiences and social persuasion for best practices (Bandura, 1977). In a study of 361 school counselors, Scarborough and Culbreth (2008) found that participants with more years of professional experience as a school counselor were more likely to practice their profession in their preferred ways. Therefore, school counselors with less experience should collaborate with those with more experience. This may help them get exposed to the best practices, ways of advocating for their school counseling programs, creative ideas to improve administrative support, and interventions to support all students under their responsibility.

Implications for School Counselor Educators and Supervisors

As established in the introduction section of this study, most school counselors come from non-diverse backgrounds in regard to race, ethnicity, and gender. Most counseling students grow up with individuals who share similar cultural values. They attend colleges with their peers from similar parts of the country. As they arrive their counseling departments, the situation is likely to be similar to their high school or college. In the meantime, most counselor educators and supervisors also come from a similar background with these counselor trainees. In the case of the school counseling field, following graduation, these school counselors transition to their schools that have more than half of the population coming from different cultural groups including race, ethnicity, religion, nation of origin, etc. Therefore, school counselor educators have an important responsibility in multicultural counseling training of school counselors. The

current study findings suggest valuable insights into how counselor educators can help school counseling trainees be prepared for their work with diverse student bodies.

Counselor education programs often offer one course in multicultural counseling. In these courses, counselor educators could help students understand the connection among self-advocacy, self-efficacy, and multicultural counseling competence. Collecting data, for example, on the student self-advocacy, self-efficacy, and MCC could be a way to accomplish this plan. It can be a department-wide application where counseling students could regularly submit their responses about their self-perceived beliefs and attitudes. From their data, a short report could be generated describing where each student is and possible next steps to improve their skills and beliefs in self-advocacy and self-efficacy, which, in turn, as the current study findings suggested, will improve their ability to serve diverse clients/students.

Furthermore, counselor educators could partner with local school districts for their students to gain short term, project-based experiences. Given the high numbers of students each school counselor is assigned to (e.g., 347 in the current study), school districts might also benefit from such collaborations. For example, counselor educators could encourage school counseling trainees to plan group projects for which they can collect and analyze data and present their results/suggestions back the school as well as their peers in their graduate programs. Through these projects, counselor educators can model and teach their school counseling students specific ways of implementing ASCA national model with an emphasis on cultural competence.

In agreement with other studies (e.g., Na, 2012), school counselors participated in the current study reported lower scores of self-efficacy in the *leadership and assessment* subscale. This subscale is concerned with school wide assessment, presenting data, and transforming the results of assessment into prevention-based school counseling programs. Therefore, counselor

educators should consider paying specific attention to their students' assessment skills and data-driven school counseling beliefs. For instance, in traditional andragogy, all students have the same set of assignments in their counseling classes; however, a list of creative assignments to be chosen from based on what each counseling trainee needs could be a way to support the future school counselors with different needs. This would also allow counseling students to focus on their own career expectations instead of instructors', which will increase their self-efficacy beliefs by becoming self-directed learners (Bandura, 1977). Different assignments to collect different types of data based on the students' own interests and abilities could help these adult learners become assessment and data driven school counselors.

Although further investigation is required, the insignificant direct relationship between self-advocacy and MCC found in this current study might be an indication of school counselors' excluding cultural components from their self-advocacy efforts. Prior literature (Chao, 2013; Farmer et al., 2013; Holcomb-McCoy, 2001) suggested that although school counselors have higher awareness on the issues of culture, they have lower confidence in their reported skills and actions. Given that most school counseling trainees are White female, counselor educators could focus on skill building activities with real-life exposure to people from different backgrounds. Although students have practicum and internship courses in most school counseling programs across the US, providing opportunities to experience school environments early in their program may inform their decisions for career related activities during their graduate schools (e.g., participating in more workshops for skill building).

Implications for Supervision

Supervision could be an environment for a series of self-exploration and skill building processes in helping school counseling graduate students and practicing school counselors with

their self-advocacy, self-efficacy, and cultural competency. The current study findings suggested that school counselors with higher self-advocacy beliefs are likely to have stronger beliefs in their ability to accomplish their school counseling related tasks. This strong relationship is also likely to help school counselors provide specialized services to their diverse students. Given these findings, supervisors could incorporate self-efficacy building activities into the process of supervision. For instance, supervisors could invite their school counselor supervisees to focus on specific populations in their working environments as a part of the supervision process. This way, utilizing the supervision time school counselors could take a break from their busy schedules (DeKruyf et al., 2013) to pay attention to the activities that could assist them to build strong relationships with diverse students, parents, and other community members.

One consistent issue with school counseling supervision is the systemic negligence of supervision services designed for school counselors. Luke and Bernard (2006) suggested that most school counselors stop receiving clinical supervision once they are hired as a full-time school counselor. This becomes even more alarming considering the burnout levels (Bemak & Chung, 2008), overwhelming work conditions of school counselors, and their needs for clinical supervision (Parikh-Foxx et al., 2020). To provide services to larger number of school counselors, supervisors could facilitate group supervision sessions designed for school counselors to share and learn from each other in building their self-efficacy as well as their advocacy attitudes for their ideal school counseling roles. As most school districts employ multiple school counselors, supervisors could invite school counselors of the same district to be a part of a group supervision process. This way, school counselors of different experience levels and diverse backgrounds could support each other by sharing best practices for advocacy and multicultural school counseling work in their schools.

Implications for Leadership and Advocacy

In this study, the author observed a strong relationship between self-advocacy and self-efficacy of school counselors. One important aspect of self-efficacy is to be able to have the training and preparations of specific tasks in order for school counselors to believe in their ability to accomplish their school counseling plans. In supporting this aspect of school counseling, ASCA national model suggests school counselors to collect and share data about the achievement gaps among different student groups in their schools (Bodenhorn et al., 2010). This could be further promoted through local and national leaders and advocates of the field. For example, having more beneficial and practical data collection and analysis-focused workshops could be a way for school counselors to be an important part of the effort toward closing the achievement gap in the US. Another important aspect of data-driven school counseling approach is to be able to present the results and implications of the findings to the audience with the power to make systematic changes. Therefore, local, national, and international organizations should also focus on the best practices in presenting the needs of diverse students through data.

Collaboration is a fundamental part of school faculty. ASCA suggested “school counselors work with stakeholders, both inside and outside the school” (ASCA, 2005b, p. 25). Through local organizations, school counselors could bring ideas and share in regard to creating connection and collaboration relationships among the members of the profession. Local, state, and national conferences could serve as a place for school counselors and leaders to connect with each other. As the current study supported, school counselor self-advocacy can only be effective where teachers and administrative staff can work with school counselors (Clemens et al., 2011). This connection would benefit school counselors with strong self-efficacy beliefs to advocate on

behalf of all students especially those who need specifically designed services for their unique needs.

Implications for Research

The current research included three main variables in the structural equation model, which produced meaningful findings. In order to see a bigger picture of how MCC can be predicted by various variables, the author suggests future researchers to use SEM with other related variables that had been cited to predict MCC in counseling literature (e.g., racial identity, ASCA model implementation level, administrative support, achievement gap awareness, etc.). A more complex model explaining how MCC is related to other variables could provide counselor educators and supervisors with a deeper perspective on how to prepare future school counselors with confidence and competence in working with all students of all cultures.

Structural equation modeling was utilized as the methodology of the current study. There now is evidence that MCC can be predicted with multiple latent variables such as self-advocacy and self-efficacy. Counseling research focusing on the change of the variables over time could use latent growth modeling (LGM; Schumacker & Lomax, 2010) in order to examine the growth trajectory of the web of the relationships among self-advocacy, self-advocacy, and MCC (and perhaps other variables). Although LGM requires much bigger data sets and higher statistical knowledge, such research could give counseling literature more precise and detailed understanding of the variables with the evidence provided in the current study.

In the current study, the author utilized the only available self-advocacy scale for school counselors developed by Clemens et al. (2011). However, this scale is relatively new with limited psychometrics on its components. In the current study, poor factor loadings and CFA results negatively affected the overall measurement and structural model. Therefore, utilizing the

findings of the current study, school counseling researchers could develop a stronger instrument with more comprehensive list of items covering school counselor self-advocacy belief and skills.

Limitations

The first limitation of this study was the participant selection method. This study employed online survey data technique reaching out to the participants through online means (i.e., emails, ASCA Scene posts, and social media posts) with no random selection. ASCA Scene was mainly used to reach out to the participants. There is a strong possibility that those who were already active and engaged in nationwide professional platforms and discussions ended up participating in the current study. However, those who feel disconnected from the rest of the profession may not have had the opportunity to participate in this research study. Thus, the study results might have been positively skewed by this limitation.

As the nature of this dissertation method required, the data were collected through self-reporting surveys. Self-reported data collection methods could provide researchers a skewed picture of the real situation, which could be connected to a well-known phenomenon in social sciences, social desirability (Sodowsky et al., 1994). It is likely that the participants in this study may have felt to provide the “politically current answers” to some of the survey questions. For example, one of the items of the MCCTS-R was “I can define racism,” which may have urged some participants to rate higher than their honest answers due to the socio-political culture of the American society at the time of the data collection. Research on multicultural counseling competence has produced mixed results in regard to social desirability. Although Sodowsky et al. (1994) and A. Johnson and Jackson Williams (2015) reported strong correlations between social desirability and MCC, Constantine and Ladany (2000) found no effect of social desirability on MCC. Therefore, it has been suggested that counseling researchers diversify data

collection methods by utilizing observer rating scales, and client/student perception of counselor performance (A. Johnson & Jackson Williams, 2015). Perhaps, future school counseling researchers should collect data from various perspectives (e.g., students, parents, principals, teachers, etc.) on cultural competency, self-advocacy, and self-efficacy skills of school counselors.

The third limitation of the current study had to do with the number of participants from each state of the US. Although no implications were drawn based on the location of the participants in the current study, the generalizability of the study findings might be limited for some states due to low numbers of participants from those states. Future research should focus on the participant recruitment strategies in order to have equal or close-to-equal number of participants from each state, which would provide stronger insights on the state or regional differences regarding the study variables.

The current study was designed and proposed before the COVID-19, a pandemic that has changed human lifestyle including school counselors worldwide; however the data collection took place during the lockdown and work-from-home process. Along with the negative consequences of working online from home, school counselors have already suffered from higher levels of burnout due to their unclear job expectations and the high numbers of students per school counselor (Lee et al., 2007). Taking both considerations into account, it would be an expected conclusion that some of the participants in this study might have rated their self-efficacy, self-advocacy, and multicultural competency skills lower than how they may have perceived them to be before COVID-19. Future studies should take the effects of COVID-19 and exacerbated burnout levels into account of the research process.

Conclusion

Due to immigration and higher birth rates of minorities in the US, 50% of the children under 18 years old will be the students of color by 2030. However, their school counselors are still predominantly White females. Therefore, the US school counselors' need to provide culture sensitive services to those with different cultural backgrounds is crucial. The findings of the current study suggested that school counselors with higher self-advocacy skill and beliefs are also likely to have stronger self-efficacy beliefs in their school counseling related activities. This significant relationship is, in turn, positively related to higher school counselor multicultural counseling competence. In other words, there was a significant indirect relationship between self-advocacy and multicultural counseling competence mediated by self-efficacy in the sample 306 school counselors. Although further research is warranted to validate and advance the findings of the current study, there now is strong evidence that suggests school counselors' advocacy beliefs have an indirect effect on their ability to work with diverse student populations through their beliefs in their potential to successfully perform school counseling related tasks.



APPENDICES



APPENDIX A

THE INSTITUTIONAL REVIEW BOARD (IRB) APPROVAL

Appendix A

The Institutional Review Board (IRB) Approval

From: Research Compliance researchcompliance@kent.edu
Subject: IRB Level I Protocol application #20-444- please retain this email for your records
Date: October 14, 2020 at 1:45 PM
To: MCGLOTHLIN, JASON jmcgloth@kent.edu

RC

RE: Protocol #20-444- entitled “The Relationship of Self-Efficacy, Self-Advocacy, and Multicultural Counseling Competency of School Counselors: A Structural Equation Model”

We have assigned your application the following IRB number: **20-444**. Please reference this number when corresponding with our office regarding your application.

The Kent State University Institutional Review Board has reviewed and approved your Application for Approval to Use Human Research Participants as Level I/Exempt from Annual review research. Your research project involves minimal risk to human subjects and meets the criteria for the following category of exemption under federal regulations:

- Exemption 2: Educational Tests, Surveys, Interviews, Public Behavior Observation

This application was approved on **October 13, 2020**.

*****Submission of annual review reports is not required for Level 1/Exempt projects. We do NOT stamp Level I protocol consent documents.**

For compliance with:

- DHHS regulations for the protection of human subjects (Title 45 part 46), subparts A, B, C, D & E

Important:

- You must report any external funding or contract to our office (as well as Sponsored Programs) related to this project.
- You must file the following as necessary: submit a closeout form when all interaction/interventions are completed and data is de-identified, and file an amendment form to request a project change. You must promptly report any changes in risk and any adverse/unanticipated events.

[Visit our website](#) for forms.

Kent State University has a Federal Wide Assurance on file with the Office for Human Research Protections (OHRP); [FWA Number 00001853](#).

To search for funding opportunities, please sign up for a free Pivot account at http://pivot.cos.com/funding_main

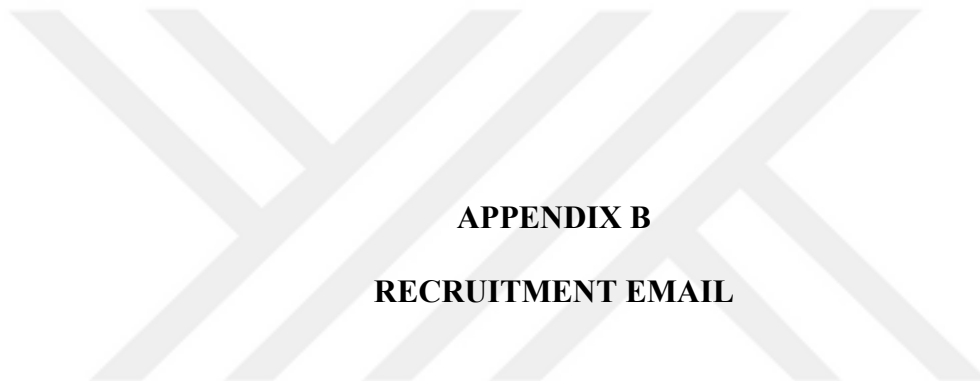
If you have any questions or concerns, please contact us at Researchcompliance@kent.edu or by phone at 330.672.2704 or 330.672.8058.

John McDaniel | IRB Chair | 330.672.0802 | jmcdani5@kent.edu

Kevin McCreary | Director | 330.672.8058 | kmccrea1@kent.edu



20-444
Approved.pdf



APPENDIX B
RECRUITMENT EMAIL

Appendix B

Recruitment Email

The Relationship of Self-Efficacy, Self-Advocacy, and Multicultural Counseling Competency of School Counselors: A Structural Equation Model

Hello! I am Mustafa Aydogan, a Doctoral student at Kent State University in Counselor Education and Supervision. I am currently investigating school counselors' multicultural competence in relation to their self-efficacy and self-advocacy skills.

Purpose of this Study: Your participation in this study can help identify how cultural competence is related to personality attitudes such as self-efficacy and advocacy and how to improve counselor education in this matter. You will be asked to take part in a short survey lasting no more than 15 minutes. None of your personal information will be collected or used in this study, and any information about you or your responses to the study will also remain confidential.

PLEASE NOTE: There will be no penalty for not participating or leaving the study at any point. It is your right to decline this offer without any penalty. In short, it is your choice.

Compensation: As a small incentive for your time, you will have the chance to enter your email address to enter into a **lottery-style drawing to win one of the 15 20\$ Amazon gift cards**. The drawing will be conducted at the completion of data collection, and winners will be notified via email.

Participation Criteria: You will be eligible to participate in the study, if you are at least 18 years of age and a currently practicing school counselor with a minimum of 1-year experience.

Participation Process: If you are interested in participating, please go ahead and click on the link provided to you below. On this site, you will see a document entitled: *electronic consent form* with more details about the study and the procedures. The research investigators are available to address any questions about the study via e-mail: Jason McGlothlin at jmcgloth@kent.edu and Mustafa Aydogan, maydogan@kent.edu.

Outcomes of the Study: Your perspectives and feedback may directly influence the future development of school counseling education and multicultural training in counseling programs.

Survey Link: https://kent.qualtrics.com/jfe/form/SV_3pELAOILniUXacJ

Sincerest thanks,

Jason McGlothlin, Ph.D.
Principle Investigator

Mustafa Aydogan
Co-Investigator

APPENDIX C
INFORMED CONSENT FORM

Appendix C

Electronic Consent Form

Title: The Relationship of Self-Efficacy, Self-Advocacy, and Multicultural Counseling Competency of School Counselors: A Structural Equation Model
PI Name: Jason McGlothlin

We are asking you to participate in a research study that involves you completing a survey. We hope to learn about how school counselors' self-advocacy and self-efficacy are related to their ability to work with culturally diverse students .

Participation takes around 15 minutes (average was 14 minutes in the trials).

Your participation is confidential. However, you should be aware that this study is not being run through a secure server, similar to the kind typically used to handle credit card transactions. This means there is a possibility that a third party may view your responses.

The risks of participating in this project are no greater than those encountered in everyday life. You will not benefit directly from this research, but your participation will help us learn more about how school counselor multicultural counseling competence is associated with self-efficacy and self-advocacy.

Participating in this research is voluntary, and you may withdraw at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you would be otherwise entitled.

Compensation for participating will be provided through an entry into a lottery-style drawing to win one of the 15 20\$ Amazon gift cards. You must complete the entire survey and enter your email address in the last section of the survey in order to qualify for entry into the drawing. The lottery-style drawing will be conducted at the completion of data collection, and winners will be notified via email.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, you may contact either of the investigators: Jason McGlothlin at jmcgloth@kent.edu or Mustafa Aydogan, at maydogan@kent.edu. This study has been approved by the Kent State University IRB with the 20-444 protocol number. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant or complaints about the research, you may call the Kent State University IRB office at 330-672-2704.



APPENDIX D

SCHOOL COUNSELOR SELF-ADVOCACY QUESTIONNAIRE

Appendix D

School Counselor Self-Advocacy Questionnaire

Please indicate the extent to which you agree that you use these skills to advocate for your role as a counselor.

Use the following scale:

1 = Strongly Disagree

2 = Disagree

3 = Neither Agree nor Disagree

4 = Agree

5 = Strongly Agree

1- I maintain positive working relationships with professionals in the school.

1 2 3 4 5

2- I effectively communicate my perspective on my role to my principal.

1 2 3 4 5

3- I “choose my battles” when advocating for my role as a school counselor.

1 2 3 4 5

4- I listen to my principal's perspective on my role as a school counselor.

1 2 3 4 5

5- I use problem-solving skills to find solutions to role challenges.

1 2 3 4 5

6- I present information clearly about my role as a school counselor to my principal.

1 2 3 4 5

7- I share data with my principal to support or make changes to my role as a school counselor.

1 2 3 4 5

8- I follow up appropriately my principal about my role as school counselor.

1 2 3 4 5

9- I cope effectively with challenges to my role as a school counselor.

1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX E

SCHOOL COUNSELOR SELF-EFFICACY SCALE

Appendix E

School Counselor Self-Efficacy Scale (SCSE)

Below is a list of activities representing many school counselor responsibilities. Indicate your confidence in your current ability to perform each activity with recent immigrant students by circling the appropriate answer next to each item according to the scale defined below. Please answer each item based on one current school, and based on how you feel now, not on your anticipated (or previous) ability or school(s). Remember, this is not a test and there are no right answers.

Use the following scale:

- 1 = not confident,
- 2 = slightly confident,
- 3 = moderately confident,
- 4 = generally confident,
- 5 = highly confident.

Please circle the number that best represents your response for each item.

1. Advocate for integration of student academic, career, and personal development into the mission of my school.

1 2 3 4 5

2. Recognize situations that impact (both negatively and positively) student learning and achievement.

1 2 3 4 5

3. Analyze data to identify patterns of achievement and behavior that contribute to school success.

1 2 3 4 5

4. Advocate for myself as a professional school counselor and articulate the purposes and goals of school counseling.

1 2 3 4 5

5. Develop measurable outcomes for a school counseling program which would demonstrate accountability.

1 2 3 4 5

6. Consult and collaborate with teachers, staff, administrators and parents to promote student success.

1 2 3 4 5

7. Establish rapport with a student for individual counseling.

1 2 3 4 5

8. Function successfully as a small group leader.

1 2 3 4 5

9. Effectively deliver suitable parts of the school counseling program through large group meetings such as in classrooms.

1 2 3 4 5

10. Conduct interventions with parents, guardians and families in order to resolve problems that impact students' effectiveness and success.

1 2 3 4 5

11. Teach students how to apply time and task management skills.

1 2 3 4 5

12. Foster understanding of the relationship between learning and work.

1 2 3 4 5

13. Offer appropriate explanations to students, parents and teachers of how learning styles affect school performance.

1 2 3 4 5

14. Deliver age-appropriate programs through which students acquire the skills needed to investigate the world of work.

1 2 3 4 5

15. Implement a program which enables all students to make informed career decisions.

1 2 3 4 5

16. Teach students to apply problem-solving skills toward their academic, personal and career success.

1 2 3 4 5

17. Evaluate commercially prepared material designed for school counseling to establish their relevance to my school population.

1 2 3 4 5

18. Model and teach conflict resolution skills.

1 2 3 4 5

19. Ensure a safe environment for all students in my school.

1 2 3 4 5

20. Change situations in which an individual or group treats others in a disrespectful or harassing manner.

1 2 3 4 5

21. Teach students to use effective communication skills with peers, faculty, employers, family, etc.

1 2 3 4 5

22. Follow ethical and legal obligations designed for school counselors.

1 2 3 4 5

23. Guide students in techniques to cope with peer pressure.

1 2 3 4 5

24. Adjust my communication style appropriately to the age and developmental levels of various students.

1 2 3 4 5

25. Incorporate students' developmental stages in establishing and conducting the school counseling program.

1 2 3 4 5

26. I can find some way of connecting and communicating with any student in my school.

1 2 3 4 5

27. Teach, develop and/or support students' coping mechanisms for dealing with crises in their lives – e.g., peer suicide, parent's death, abuse, etc.

1 2 3 4 5

28. Counsel effectively with students and families from different social/economic statuses.

1 2 3 4 5

29. Understand the viewpoints and experiences of students and parents who are from a different cultural background than myself.

1 2 3 4 5

30. Help teachers improve their effectiveness with students.

1 2 3 4 5

31. Discuss issues of sexuality and sexual orientation in an age appropriate manner with students.

1 2 3 4 5

32. Speak in front of large groups such as faculty or parent meetings.

1 2 3 4 5

33. Use technology designed to support student successes and progress through the educational process.

1 2 3 4 5

34. Communicate in writing with staff, parents, and the external community.

1 2 3 4 5

35. Help students identify and attain attitudes, behaviors, and skills which lead to successful learning.

1 2 3 4 5

36. Select and implement applicable strategies to assess school-wide issues.

1 2 3 4 5

37. Promote the use of counseling and guidance activities by the total school community to enhance a positive school climate.

1 2 3 4 5

38. Develop school improvement plans based on interpreting school-wide assessment results.

1 2 3 4 5

39. Identify aptitude, achievement, interest, values, and personality appraisal resources appropriate for specified situations and populations.

1 2 3 4 5

40. Implement a preventive approach to student problems.

1 2 3 4 5

41. Lead school-wide initiatives which focus on ensuring a positive learning environment.

1 2 3 4 5

42. Consult with external community agencies which provide support services for our students.

1 2 3 4 5

43. Provide resources and guidance to school population in times of crisis.

1 2 3 4 5



APPENDIX F
MULTICULTURAL COUNSELING COMPETENCE AND TRAINING
SURVEY-REVISED

Appendix F

Multicultural Counseling Competence and Training Survey-Revised (MCCT-R)

Directions: Listed below are competency statements based on AMCD's Multicultural Counseling Competencies and Explanatory Statements. Please read each competency statement and evaluate your multicultural competence using the following 4-point scale.

- 1 - Not competent (Not able to perform at this time)
 - 2 - Somewhat competent (More training needed)
 - 3 - Competent (Able to perform competently)
 - 4 - Extremely competent (Able to perform at a high level)
-

1. I can discuss my own ethnic/cultural heritage.

1 2 3 4

2. I am aware of how my cultural background and experiences have influenced my attitudes about psychological processes.

1 2 3 4

3. I am able to discuss how my culture has influenced the way I think.

1 2 3 4

4. I can recognize when my attitudes, beliefs, and values are interfering with providing the best services to my students.

1 2 3 4

5. I verbally communicate my acceptance of culturally different students.

1 2 3 4

6. I nonverbally communicate my acceptance of culturally different students.

1 2 3 4

7. I can discuss my family's perspective regarding acceptable and non-acceptable codes-of-conduct.

1 2 3 4

8. I can discuss models of White Racial Identity Development.

1 2 3 4

9. I can define racism.

1 2 3 4

10. I can define prejudice.

1 2 3 4

11. I can define discrimination.

1 2 3 4

12. I can define stereotype.

1 2 3 4

13. I can identify the cultural bases of my communication style.

1 2 3 4

14. I can identify my negative and positive emotional reactions toward persons of other racial and ethnic groups.

1 2 3 4

15. I can identify my reactions that are based on stereotypical beliefs about different ethnic groups.

1 2 3 4

16. I can give examples of how stereotypical beliefs about culturally different persons impact the counseling relationship.

1 2 3 4

17. I can articulate the possible differences between the nonverbal behavior of the five major ethnic groups (i.e., African/Black, Hispanic/Latino, Asian, Native American, European/White).

1 2 3 4

18. I can articulate the possible differences between the verbal behavior of the five major ethnic groups.

1 2 3 4

19. I can discuss the counseling implications for at least two models of racial/ethnic identity development.

1 2 3 4

20. I can discuss within-group differences among ethnic groups (e.g., low SES Puerto Rican student vs. high SES Puerto Rican student).

1 2 3 4

21. I can discuss how culture affects a student's vocational choices.

1 2 3 4

22. I can discuss how culture affects the help-seeking behaviors of students.

1 2 3 4

23. I can discuss how culture affects the manifestations of psychological disorders.

1 2 3 4

24. I can describe the degree to which a counseling approach is appropriate for a specific group of people.

1 2 3 4

25. I can explain how factors such as poverty, and powerlessness have influenced the current conditions of at least two ethnic groups.

1 2 3 4

26. I can discuss research regarding mental health issues among culturally/ethnically different populations.

1 2 3 4

27. I can discuss how the counseling process may conflict with the cultural values of at least two ethnic groups.

1 2 3 4

28. I can list at least three barriers that prevent ethnic minority students from using counseling services.

1 2 3 4

29. I can discuss the potential bias of two assessment instruments frequently used in the schools.

1 2 3 4

30. I can discuss family counseling from a cultural/ethnic perspective.

1 2 3 4

31. I can anticipate when my helping style is inappropriate for a culturally different student.

1 2 3 4

32. I can help students determine whether a problem stems from racism or biases in others.

1 2 3 4

APPENDIX G
DEMOGRAPHIC DATA FORM

Appendix G

Demographic Data Form

1- How would you identify yourself?

- ☐ White (1)
- ☐ Black or African American (2)
- ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native (3)
- ☐ Asian (4)
- ☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (5)
- ☐ Other (6)

2- How would you identify your gender?

- ☐ Male (1)
- ☐ Female (2)
- ☐ Transgender (3)
- ☐ Prefer not to disclose (4)
- ☐ None of these (please describe) (5)

3- What is your age?

4- I graduated from

- ☐ A CACREP accredited program (1)
- ☐ Not a CACREP accredited program (2)

5- How many years have you worked as a school counselor?

- ☐ 5 years or fewer (1)
- ☐ 6-10 years (2)
- ☐ 11-15 years (3)
- ☐ 16- 20 years (4)
- ☐ 21 year or more (5)

6- On average, how many credit hour of multicultural counseling training do you take annually (workshops, courses taken, in-service trainings, etc.)?

- ☐ 0-3 (1)
- ☐ 4-7 (4)
- ☐ 8-11 (5)
- ☐ 12 or more (6)

7- How often do you interact with students from culturally diverse backgrounds (Minority, Low SES, or Immigrant) as a school counselor?

- ☐ Very Rarely (1)
- ☐ Rarely (2)
- ☐ Occasionally (3)
- ☐ Frequently (4)
- ☐ Very Frequently (5)

8- In which state do you currently reside?

▼ Alabama (1) ... I do not reside in the United States (53)

9- What is the current school level you work (if multiple, please pick the one that you spend more time at)?

- ☐ Elementary (1)
- ☐ Middle/Junior high (2)
- ☐ High (3)
- ☐ Combination of two or more school levels (4)
- ☐ Other (please specify) (5) _____

10- Which of these options best describes your current work setting?

- ☐ Urban (1)
- ☐ Suburban (2)
- ☐ Rural (3)

11- In your school, in average 1 school counselor is responsible for students (in numbers).

APPENDIX H
PARTICIPANT STATE DETAILS

Appendix H

Participant State Details

Descriptive Statistics for Participant School

Characteristics	<i>M</i> or <i>n</i>	<i>SD</i> or %
State		
Alabama	7	2.3
Alaska	3	1.0
Arizona	11	3.6
Arkansas	4	1.3
California	27	8.8
Colorado	7	2.3
Connecticut	5	1.6
Delaware	2	0.7
Florida	7	2.3
Georgia	9	2.9
Hawaii	2	0.7
Idaho	4	1.3
Illinois	10	3.3
Indiana	10	3.3
Iowa	7	2.3
Kansas	4	1.3
Kentucky	3	1.0
Maine	1	0.3
Maryland	8	2.6
Massachusetts	7	2.3
Michigan	7	2.3

Minnesota	1	0.3
Missouri	8	2.6
Montana	2	0.7
Nebraska	3	1.0
Nevada	3	1.0
New Hampshire	1	0.3
New Jersey	13	4.2
New Mexico	1	0.3
New York	11	3.6
North Carolina	13	4.2
North Dakota	3	1.0
Ohio	20	6.5
Oklahoma	1	0.3
Oregon	6	2.0
Pennsylvania	25	8.2
Puerto Rico	1	0.3
Rhode Island	1	0.3
South Carolina	6	2.0
Tennessee	4	1.3
Texas	7	2.3
Utah	2	0.7
Vermont	1	0.3
Virginia	7	2.3
Washington	6	2.0
West Virginia	1	0.3
Wisconsin	10	3.3
Wyoming	1	0.3

I do not reside in the United States	3	1.0
School Setting		
Urban	81	26.5
Suburban	141	46.1
Rural	84	27.5
School Level		
Elementary	64	20.9
Middle/Junior high	68	22.2
High	126	41.2
Combination of two or more school levels	43	14.1
Other	5	1.6
Number of Students per School Counselor	347	170



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