2019

Counselor Educators' Social Justice and Advocacy Beliefs and Relationship to Their Actions

Marcia Colantha Davis
Walden University

Walden University

College of Counselor Education & Supervision

This is to certify that the doctoral dissertation by

Marcia Colantha Davis

has been found to be complete and satisfactory in all respects,
and that any and all revisions required by
the review committee have been made.

Review Committee
Dr. Melinda Haley, Committee Chairperson, Counselor Education and Supervision Faculty
Dr. Sidney Shaw, Committee Member, Counselor Education and Supervision Faculty
Dr. Mark Stauffer, University Reviewer, Counselor Education and Supervision Faculty

Chief Academic Officer
Eric Riedel, Ph.D.

Walden University
2019

Abstract

Counselor Educators' Social Justice and Advocacy Beliefs and Relationship to Their Actions

by

Marcia Colantha Davis

MA, Wayne State University, 1991

BS, Wayne State University, 1984

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Counselor Education and Supervision

Walden University

February 2019

Abstract

Using Bandura's social learning theory as a frame, this quantitative survey study examined the relationship between attitudes and beliefs of counselor educators and the importance they placed on taking social justice as well as advocacy action in their personal and professional lives. Two survey instruments, the Social Issues Advocacy Scale and the Social Justice Scale, were given to faculty members of graduate counselor education programs to examine the question of whether a statistically significant relationship exists between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy, and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives. The research design was a quantitative survey study using a nonrandom convenience sample. The number of the convenience sample was (N = 78). Thirty-one percent (n = 24) of the respondents identified themselves as male, and 69% (n = 54) identified themselves as female. A Pearson correlation analysis yielded a moderate correlation (r = 0.401, p = 0.00) between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives. Thus, counselor educators who expressed stronger attitudes and beliefs about social justice and advocacy tended to be more active in including social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives. Results suggest that institutions and faculty must be social justice thought leaders and take action for social justice and advocacy.

Counselor Educators' Social Justice and Advocacy Beliefs and Relationship to Their Actions

by

Marcia Colantha Davis

MA, Wayne State University, 1991

BS, Wayne State University, 1984

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Counselor Education and Supervision

Walden University

February 2019

Dedication

I would like to dedicate this dissertation to both of my children, Bruce N. Cartwright and Sheila L. Davis, who kept encouraging me not to quit on the many occasions when letting this process cease was foremost on my mind. My children and my grandchildren believed and had faith that I would complete this process when I no longer thought it was possible. I would also like to dedicate this dissertation to my chair, Dr. Melinda Haley, who has remained by my side since my internships, and who, after the loss of my previous chairperson, was willing to step in and become my chair. Dr. Haley has helped me get over the many moments when I just wanted to quit due to the frustration of going through this process. I would like to thank my good friends Shirley Phillips Horne, Alice Raby, and Dr. Debra Napier, who asked about my progress and who encouraged me not to quit; and my friends and colleagues Dr. Eugene M. Schimmel, who helped me with quantitative statistics and was there when I needed him, and Dr. Darnell Anderson, who was always ready to assist me during this process.

Acknowledgments

I would like to thank all of my former professors who assisted me with the many classes I took prior to getting to the writing of the dissertation. I especially owe a great deal of accolades to my chair, Dr. Melinda Haley, who has been my staunch supporter throughout the writing of the dissertation, and of course I want to and must thank my methodologist, Dr. Sidney Shaw, who became my third methodologist after the dissertation was already being written. I would also like to thank Dr. Hickman, who stuck by me in my first quantitative course; had I not been able to telephone him almost nonstop, I am not sure that I would be at this place in the PhD pursuit.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

Kiselica and Robinson (2001) and Malott and Knoper (2012) reported in their research that it was not a new idea that counselors needed to increase their experience and knowledge of social justice and advocacy for the ethical treatment of their clients. There is a historical record confirming that in the earliest formation of the counseling profession in the 20th century, proponents of social justice and advocacy considered these concepts to be necessary aspects of counseling (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001; Mallinckrodt, Miles, & Levy, 2014). In fact, these proponents considered advocating for those demonstrating mental health issues to be the morally correct thing to do (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001**;** Myers, Sweeney, & White, 2002). In 1999, Loretta Bradley, then president of the American Counseling Association (ACA), included in her opening remarks at the 1999 ACA convention regarding the need for mental health counselors to focus on the social justice and advocacy needs of future clients as indicators of clients' presenting problems (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001). Kiselica and Robinson (2001) used the words *advocacy counseling* when discussing and describing the importance of including social justice and advocacy in the counseling process (p. 388).

Infusing social justice and advocacy training into counselor education (CE) curricula is also not a new concept. Ratts (2009) discussed how the counseling profession has noted the importance of including social justice paradigms in the training of future counselors. Ratts referred to this move as the "fifth force" of counseling, following the four traditional forces of "psychodynamic, cognitive behavioral, existential-humanistic, and multicultural counseling" (p. 161). Yet despite this longstanding acknowledgment of the need for counselors to engage in social justice

advocacy in their practice with clients, there has been little research regarding whether such concepts and practices are being taught to students in CE programs (Chung & Bemak, 2013; Glosoff & Durham, 2010).

Many scholars have specifically demonstrated in their research that there is a lack of evidence identifying social justice and advocacy studies in graduate counseling programs (Brubaker, Puig, Reese, & Young, 2010; Chung & Bemak, 2013; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). These authors have noted that research literature has tended to focus on social justice theory rather than the inclusion of social justice concepts and practices in counseling curricula within the classroom. Social justice and advocacy concepts and practices need to be important components in graduate counseling programs for future counselors to be properly trained and to develop the competencies to help a diverse client population (Chang, Crethar, & Ratts, 2010; Collins, Arthur, Brown, & Kennedy, 2015; Mallinckrodt et al., 2014). Chang et al. (2010) and Ratts and Hutchins (2009) referred to the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision and the ACA Advocacy Competencies to support the importance of social justice and advocacy studies in CE programs.

The problem that I identified was that students were reporting low self-efficacy for being change agents because the concepts of social justice and advocacy were not being taught or modeled in their classrooms by their CE faculty (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Ratts & Wood, 2011). Social justice advocacy training is important if future counselors are going to engage in such important work (Collins et al., 2015). The gap I found was that there were no evidence-based studies identifying a correlation between the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor educators regarding

social justice and advocacy and the importance that these faculty place on the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in their personal and professional lives. There was not any literature that explored faculty in counselor education programs attitudes, beliefs, or actions as change agents (Chung & Bemak, 2013; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Ratts, Singh, Nassar-McMillian, Butler, & McCullough, 2016; Ratts & Woods, 2011). There was some literature indicating that counselor educators may be resistant to change and that incorporating social justice advocacy concepts and practices within the CE curriculum presents too great of a paradigm shift for CE program administrators or faculty (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Odegard & Vereen, 2010; Ratts & Wood, 2011).

I focused my study on examining the relationship between the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of CE faculty members and the importance that these faculty place on the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in their personal and professional lives. The results of my study may help to increase awareness regarding any faculty attitudes, beliefs, and actions that might either facilitate or obstruct the eventual infusion of social justice and advocacy concepts into the stated curriculum. Understanding the relationship between faculty attitudes, beliefs, and actions, and how those might form supports or barriers, might constitute a first step toward CE curriculum change that would be inclusive of social justice and advocacy concepts. In the remainder of this chapter, I describe the background and problem upon which my current study were founded, the research question and theoretical foundation, and the basic nature of the study. In addition, I provide basic definitions and assumptions, scope and delimitations, and a

description of limitations. I conclude this chapter with the significance of the study and a summary of the main points I provided.

Background of the Study

An international theme among scholars in many of the helping and teaching professions such as social work, teacher education, and medical education is that social justice and advocacy must be infused into the curriculum of programs that train the next generation of practitioners to help facilitate the health and growth of a diverse population (Arar & Oplatka, 2016; Mills & Ballantyne; 2016; Rice, Girvin, Frank, & Foels, 2016). Some scholars in the counseling profession have also added to the professional counseling literature by addressing the importance of including social justice and advocacy training in graduate mental health counseling program curricula (Bemak, Chung, Talleyrand, Jones, & Daquin, 2011; Brubaker, Puig, Reese, & Young, 2010; Chang et al., 2010, Crethar & Ratts, 2010; Ratts et al., 2016; Ratts & Wood, 2011). Chang et al. (2010), Ratts (2009), and Ratts and Wood (2011) are among scholars who have maintained that future mental health counselors should understand that there is the possibility that many societal factors in clients' lives may contribute to clients' presenting problems. Many scholars from both counseling psychology and mental health counseling agree that based on their research, counselor educators should add social justice and advocacy concepts to counseling programs (Bankston, 2010; Bemak et al., 2011; Brubaker et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Chung & Bemak, 2013; Collins et al., 2015; Glosoff & Durham, 2010; Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Ratts & Wood, 2011; Ratts et al., 2016).

The Importance of Social Justice and Advocacy to Clients and the Profession

Many of the research articles I reviewed for this study emphasized the importance of mental health counselors understanding the concepts of social justice and advocacy to understand clients' presenting problem(s). Bemak et al. (2011) stated that there was a need to revamp and infuse social justice into the George Mason University (GMU) counseling development program; they noted that the career and educational counseling course at GMU would be a good vehicle to use in promoting social justice, because students could look back at the social justice advocacy work of Frank Parsons, who was the founder of the vocational counseling movement at the turn of the 20th century. Counselor educators who continue to teach traditional counseling theories to students perpetuate the traditional individualist teaching method that requires students only to remember the content of theories (Brubaker et al., 2010; Collin et al., 2015). Educators should teach from social justice pedagogy, meaning that faculty should create an atmosphere where educator and student alike can develop awareness of diverse communities and can explore their own beliefs and assumptions (Brubaker et al., 2010; Collin et al., 2015; Malott & Knoper, 2012). Chang et al. (2010) discussed a phenomenon they called the "fundamental attribution error," whereby historically counselors had focused on the individual without taking into consideration how a person's environment can affect his or her well-being (p. 84). For example, Crethar et al. (2008) noted that "issues of social justice are integral to counseling because our clients do not exist as individuals independent of society, culture, and context" (p. 24). Steele (2008) emphasized that social justice advocacy brings important additions to counselor training programs.

Traditional Beliefs and Attitudes of Administrators and Faculty

Some researchers have noted some resistance among CE programs and counselor educators in institutions of higher learning regarding making changes to their current curriculum. For example, Ratts and Wood (2011) noted problems associated with introducing new ideas into academic institutions in general. They stated that academic institutions tend to resist changes to their accepted and traditional ways of thinking and completing tasks. This resistance to paradigm change may make it difficult to add social justice and advocacy as new components in established curricula.

A change in traditional ways of doing things might be viewed as a threat to the existing policies and practices of a CE program (Ratts & Wood, 2011). Odegard and Vereen (2010) suggested that counselor educators who were willing to incorporate social justice and advocacy concepts into their classrooms might need help getting through the bureaucratic challenges from administrators who view changes to the existing policies and practices of the CE program as a threat.

It is possible that individual counselor educators could feel threatened by moving away from teaching counseling with a Western individualistic theoretical focus that traditionally has emphasized client change rather than societal change (Chang et al., 2010). For example, Ratts and Wood (2011) stated that introducing social justice into counselor education might be viewed as a threat to counselor educators who adhere to keeping a focus on the individual client and who do not accept that a client's presenting problem could be founded in social, political, or economic conditions.

Then again, some counselor educators who tried to implement the inclusion of social justice concepts into their classrooms may have run into barriers that made them

feel less than successful. Odegard and Vereen (2010) noted that due to the lack of social justice teaching resources, counselor educators who did try to use social justice materials to facilitate discussions in the classroom found that it was difficult to evaluate the effectiveness of teaching social justice. Researchers have laid a foundation that supports the notion that the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor educators and administrators regarding the implementation of social justice and advocacy into CE curricula or classrooms are important if such changes to the curriculum are to be made (Chung & Bemak, 2013; Ratts & Wood, 2011).

Gap in the Literature and the Need for the Current Study

Although mental health workers early in the 20th century found it important, necessary, and correct to include social justice and advocacy in their work with clients who had mental health issues (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001**;** Myers, Sweeney & White, 2002), many contemporary researchers have noted the lack of research regarding the training of counselors in social justice and advocacy within CE programs (Chung & Bemak, 2013; Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012). For example, as recently as 2005, some researchers noted that they were unable to find empirical studies on counselors and social justice advocacy (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). Even as late as 2014, some researchers observed that there was still sparse literature on addressing the addition of social justice advocacy into the training of supervisees during the supervisory process (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014). After an extensive literature review, I found no evidence-based research identifying a correlation between the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor educators regarding social justice and advocacy and the importance

these faculty place on the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in their personal and professional lives.

Problem Statement

The problem I identified was that students were reporting low self-efficacy for being change agents because the concepts of social justice and advocacy were not being taught or modeled in their classrooms by their CE faculty (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Ratts & Wood, 2011). Social justice advocacy training is important if future counselors are going to engage in such important work (Collins et al., 2015). Some researchers have found that some students experienced self-doubt about their ability to become agents of change in the lives of their future clients, especially when social justice and advocacy counselor educators had not previously introduced the concepts into students' schemas (Collins et al., 2015; Mayhew & Fernández, 2007). Without examining the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor educators on how to be a social change agent, this goal for the counseling profession's future may not be realized. Mayhew and Fernández (2007) reported that according to social cognitive theory, when people achieve self-efficacy (i.e., self-confidence in being capable of successfully completing a task), they gain incremental levels of change in their behavior, and these discernible behavioral changes increase the likelihood of them becoming social justice advocates. I discuss the concept of self-efficacy in detail under the theoretical foundation within this chapter; however, it is important to note that without practice and an ability to experience success in a task, self-efficacy is unlikely to develop (Bandura, 1989, 2001). Therefore, providing these experiences for students in CE programs is paramount.

Mayhew and Fernández (2007) reported that students could obtain self-efficacy for social justice and advocacy work if they were challenged, supported, and provided the opportunity to practice skills; however, this would require interaction with and feedback from faculty. The interaction and feedback described by Mayhew and Fernández require a program with "rigor," meaning a decrease in the standard class format of lectures and an increase in role-playing, with students participating in interactive exercises demonstrating the suffering of disenfranchised groups in society (p. 56). Mayhew and Fernández hypothesized that the cognitive skills acquired by students would cause retention and understanding of the need for social justice and advocacy on behalf of those groups. Further, these researchers noted that classroom lectures, presentations (e.g., PowerPoints), and research assignments do not replace actual student immersion into the world of the disenfranchised groups, contending that such immersion more aptly develops the desired cognitive skills theorized by Bandura to lead to self-efficacy for social justice and advocacy work. Mayhew and Fernández reported that there is a need to create experiential forms of learning for students that provide opportunities for them to learn about social justice and at the same time address their resistance to learning about cultural differences.

Educators' pedagogical methods of including social justice advocacy in graduate mental health counseling programs have provided considerable information on the proposal of inclusion (Bankston, 2010; Chung & Bemak, 2013; Mallinckrodt et al., 2013; Smith, Reynolds, & Rovnak, 2009). The search by scholar practitioners for empirical data on the inclusion of social justice and advocacy studies in graduate mental health counseling programs has rendered few results (Brubaker et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2010;

Glosoff & Durham, 2010; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005; Odegard & Vereen, 2010; Ratts & Wood, 2011; Steele, 2008). My own search for empirical data on the inclusion of social justice and advocacy in graduate programs supported the results of other scholar practitioners.

Purpose of the Study

After an exhaustive literature review, I could not find research exploring the relationship between faculty members' attitudes, beliefs, and actions in relation to social justice and advocacy concepts, and practices in their professional and personal lives. Some researchers have supported the notion that there is some resistance by program administrators and counselor educators to incorporating social justice and advocacy into educational programs (Brubaker et al., 2010; Glosoff & Durham, 2010; Steele, 2008). Therefore, my purpose for this quantitative survey research was to examine the attitudes and beliefs of CE faculty members as they relate to social justice and advocacy actions by those faculty members in their personal and professional lives.

Research Question and Hypotheses

RQ: Is there a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy, and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives?

H_0*:* There is not a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy as measured by the Social Justice Scale (Torres-Harding, Siers, & Olson, 2012) and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives as measured by

the Social Issues Advocacy Scale (Nilsson, Marszalek, Linnemeyer, Bahner, & Misilek, 2011).

H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy as measured by the Social Justice Scale (Torres-Harding et al., 2012) and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives as measured by the Social Issues Advocacy Scale (Nilsson et al., 2011).

Theoretical Framework

Within my current study, I used the theoretical framework of Bandura's (1977) social cognitive theory (SCT; also known as *social learning theory*) as a foundation for exploring the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of faculty regarding the inclusion of social justice and advocacy applications into their current mental health counseling curricula. Through SCT, Bandura stressed the reciprocity between self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and the setting of goals that might be achieved by modeling techniques by educators. Bandura reported that a researcher could best judge theoretical methods based on their effectiveness in changing behavior. When a person understands his or her motivation for behavioral changes, the likelihood of the person internalizing them is greater than it is when changes are based on "self-discovery" (Bandura, 1977, p. 4).

Bandura (1977) suggested that achieving self-awareness about any motivation to change current beliefs about a subject is more likely to bring about a change in those beliefs than any self-discovery will be. Bandura stated that if a theory does not take into consideration that how a person thinks can influence or determine his or her actions

related to a construct, then that theory does not take into consideration the complexity of human behavior.

People learn not only through self-discovery, but also from observing the behavior of other people in the environment. Bandura (1977) referred to this type of learning as *modeling* (p. 22). Modeling offers a benefit to the observer in that modeling provides an example enabling others to learn a construct or activity vicariously via observation (Bandura, 1977). Social learning theory (i.e., SCT) describes modeling as an influence that allows observers to learn figuratively about constructs or activities that serve as guides to their behaviors or performances (Bandura, 1977). It is important for student learning that faculty model social justice and advocacy within the classroom and via their professional activities.

According to Bandura (1977), observational learning achieved from watching others (i.e., modeling) occurs in four areas:

- *Attentional processes*: Bandura suggested that observation alone is not enough to learn a construct or activity, in that a person must also attend (i.e., pay attention) to and become aware of the behavior being modeled and how modeling is exhibited.
- *Retention processes:* Bandura reported that if a person cannot remember what he or she has observed, the chance of the observed modeling being manifested outside of the modeling environment is low. According to Bandura , two permanent operational memory systems must be in place for observed learning to manifest outside the modeling environment; the systems are

"imaginal and verbal" (p. 25), memory codes that make performance of the observed modeled behavior possible (Bandura, 1977).

- *Motor reproduction* processes: This is the third effect of observing, and it involves converting the modeled observations into performance via the spatial and temporal areas of the human brain (Bandura, 1977).
- *Motivational processes*: This is the fourth effect of observational learning. Bandura distinguished between acquiring and performing the observed modeled behavior. Bandura suggested that a person is most likely to perform an observed modeled behavior if the results of the behavior are of value to the person.

The construct of self-discovery associated with modeling is related to the construct of perceived self-efficacy, which involves how well a person believes that he or she can effectively accomplish or do well with any potential situational events (Bandura, 1982, 1993).

Bandura (1982, 1993) asserted that determinations made by people regarding their ability to achieve a phenomenon are based on their self-perception of efficacy; their perception of whether they possess the ability to achieve something determines their choice to participate in an activity or not. The perception of self-efficacy determines how much effort a person exerts in pursuing or not pursuing an activity or idea regardless of any obstacles they must overcome (Bandura, 1982, 1993). The self-perception of efficacy is not a standalone belief but involves the personal components of cognition, social skills, and behavioral skills before any action or performance can be demonstrated by an individual (Bandura, 1982, 1993). People with perceived self-efficacy can imagine

or visualize that they will become successful in any endeavors, without the ability to imagine or visualize that the opposite will be true (Bandura, 1977, 1989). A belief in self-efficacy possibly influences a person's cognitive ability to process information and to become motivated to try new and different constructs (Bandura, 1989, 1993).

Unfortunately, there has been very little research on how SCT and self-efficacy have influenced educators and students regarding social justice and advocacy in higher educational settings. The exception to this statement is the research of Sandage, Crabtree, and Schweer (2014). These scholars researched the impact of the attitudes of educators, and the subsequent influence of educators, on students regarding social justice advocacy and self-efficacy (Sandage et al., 2014).

The cumulative interest of both counselors and psychologists regarding the inclusion of social justice into the counseling curricula led Sandage et al. (2014) to begin a study on social justice in an education program. For the study, Sandage et al. decided to use differentiation of self (DoS) and social justice as the framework for their research. DoS are a construct based in a cooperative and wide-ranging sense or vision of selfhood (Sandage et al., 2014). In Chapter 2, I present an in-depth discussion on the research and outcome of the study conducted by Sandage et al.

If current counselor educators are untrained in social justice and advocacy within their master's or doctoral programs, this may affect their own self-efficacy for engaging in social justice and advocacy activities. I found no studies in which researchers studied the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor educators regarding social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives. Given that social justice and advocacy

have yet to be infused into CE curricula, faculty perceptions about social justice and advocacy and faculty confidence in their abilities have important implications for CE.

Nature of the Study

I used a quantitative survey research design for my study. Most quantitative research begins with the testing of a theory (Creswell, 2014). In keeping with the quantitative approach, I used an instrument to collect data on attitudes, beliefs, and actions; I analyzed the data using statistical methods (Creswell, 2014). The research question of interest within this study was related to faculty members' attitudes, beliefs, and actions regarding social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives.

I provided the participating faculty of CE programs who completed and returned prior informed consent the Torres et al. (2012) Social Justice Scale (SJS) and the Nilsson et al. (2011) Social Issues Advocacy Scale (SIAS). I analyzed the data using the most current version of the SPSS to obtain the Pearson product correlation coefficients for the one group referenced in the hypothesis concerning the relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy, and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives.

Definitions

Every research study involves terms that are specific and potentially unique to that study. It is important for readers to understand the definitions of such terms to follow the intent of the researcher. Therefore, I provide the following definitions for this study.

Actions: When researchers discuss social justice and advocacy, the word *action* may apply to a range of activities, such as a faculty member actively trying to change

government policies that unfairly impact a certain population, volunteering for political causes and for candidates representing those causes, or participating in demonstrations and rallies related to socioeconomic policies and oppression (Torres-Harding et al., 2012).

Administrators: Administrators are the department heads and program coordinators who may have the power to determine faculty workloads or course assignments and may have the power to impose consequences on faculty members who push to integrate social justice into CE, if those administrators are opposed to this integration of social justice (Ratts & Wood, 2011).

Advocacy: Advocacy consists of the act of an individual promoting the rights of other individuals and/or communities whose liberties might be in danger of disappearing (West-Olatunji, 2010). It involves "action that is directed toward changing or transforming the process by which public decisions are made, thereby affecting the political, social, and economic contexts that influence people's lives" (Nilsson et al., 2011, p. 259). Advocacy can be regarded as a form of social justice work that targets societal and institutional practices that create barriers for clients to achieve access to tools for self-development and challenges social oppression and inequality (Murray, Pope, & Rowell, 2010).

Advocacy competency: Advocacy competency is a term used to describe the capability to understand and advocate effectively for those who do not have equal access to goods and services in society (Toporek, Lewis, & Crethar, 2009).

Attitudes: Torres-Harding et al. (2012) described attitudes "as involving general dispositions towards a given behavior" (p. 79). They attributed the definition of attitudes

to Ajzen (1991). Torres-Harding et al. developed the SJS "to measure attitudes towards social justice and social justice related values, perceived self-efficacy around social justice efforts, social norms around social justice efforts, and intentions to engage in social justice related activities and behaviors" (p. 80).

Curriculum: A curriculum can be described as a program specifically designed to promote learning in a designated subject (e.g., social justice, advocacy, counseling, social work, psychology); the specified subjects have faculty who teach the subject matter (Odegard & Vereen, 2010).

Faculty: *Faculty* is a term I use throughout this research to refer to those persons who are hired as instructors/teachers in a CE program.

Multicultural competence: Multicultural competence is a concept found in the statements of the ACA, American Psychological Association, and National Association of Social Workers. Codes of ethical conduct emphasize the professional responsibility to recognize and respect the diversity of clients in order to allow equal access to available services and to make sure that personal biases do not interfere when counseling diverse populations (Pack-Brown, Thomas, & Seymour, 2008). Multicultural competence refers to information that a faculty member has about the various worldview orientations of and histories of oppression endured by marginalized groups, and of the culture-specific values that influence the subjective and collective experiences of marginalized populations (Constantine, Hage, Kindaichi, & Bryant, 2007).

Paradigm: *Paradigm* is a term used to explain theories or models in science (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). A faculty member using a social justice counseling paradigm uses social advocacy and activism as a way of addressing

inequitable social, political, and economic conditions that interfere with the academic, career, and personal or social development of a person, a community, or families (Lewis, Ratts, Paladino, & Toporek, 2011).

Social justice: Social justice is a concept engaged in by individuals who acknowledge systematic and oppressive unequal access to resources accorded to members of society. Social justice involves addressing unequal access based on forms of sexism, racism, classism, and other isms, and bringing about a solution of inclusion for those disenfranchised by the policies of decision makers (Odegard & Vereen, 2010).

Social justice advocacy: Social justice advocacy distinguishes advocacy as an individual's direct service to clients and client groups from advocacy work that focuses on professional or guild concerns (Toporek et al., 2009, p. 262).

Assumptions

In this study, the first assumption was that counselor faculty members have measurable attitudes, beliefs, and actions related to the importance of incorporating social justice advocacy and practices into their personal and professional lives. My second assumption was that participants answered the survey questions honestly. There was no built-in safeguard for me to determine whether the participants' responses included in the data collection were honest. I also assumed that the chosen survey would provide the data it was intended to collect based on the already-stated variables.

Scope and Delimitations

The scope of this study was inclusive of all faculty who currently worked in counselor education programs within the United States. I used a sample drawn from all eligible faculty members from the Association of Counselors, Educators, and Supervisors

(ACES) Counselor Education and Supervision Network (CESNET) database. This could help increase the generalizability of the study results to more than just local participants in one geographical area (Creswell, 2014). At the beginning, I set Survey Monkey to ask an inclusionary question, such as "Are you a member of the faculty for counselor education masters or doctoral programs?" If the participant's answer was "no," the participant was automatically sent to an exit page. I did not extend participation in this study to other counseling professionals (e.g., counseling psychologists, licensed marriage and family counselors, or social workers) or graduate students enrolled in a program. By excluding professionals in related professions, I delimited this study to faculty in the mental health counseling profession.

Limitations

A constraint in this study was the limitation of volunteers self-selecting as participants; this self-selection might have excluded important input from other mental health counselors and educators. Indeed, Boslaugh and Watters (2008) stated that sampling bias may take place when research participants are able to self-select into a study. Another limitation was the inability to generalize findings to other mental health professionals such as social workers, psychologists, or licensed marriage and family therapists because this study did not include participants from this group of professionals. A last limitation of this study was that a correlational study does not measure cause and effect, as correlations can only measure the relationship between two variables (Boslaugh & Watters, 2008).

Significance

Discussion of including social justice training in pedagogy for potential counselors is not new. McDowell and Shelton (2002) researched the debate about including social justice training in marriage and family therapy programs, noting a minimal amount of research in this area that recognized the needs of societal members affected by social justice and advocacy deficits in their lives. A search of peer-reviewed literature indicated a lack of research identifying counselor educators' attitudes and actions regarding social justice and advocacy. The words I searched for were *counselor attitudes*, *counselor beliefs*, and *counselor actions about social justice and advocacy*. A few of the search sites I used were EBSCOhost, Sage, ProQuest, Academic Search Complete, and PsycARTICLES. Scholar-practitioners have suggested that social justice and advocacy practices will be important additions to graduate programs to prepare future counselors to properly serve their clients (Brubaker et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Ratts, 2009; Ratts & Wood, 2011). It is imperative to begin training students in graduate mental health counseling programs about social justice and advocacy if these students are going to serve diverse client populations (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Ratts, 2009; Ratts & Wood, 2011).

In the current study, I measured the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of faculty regarding the concepts of social justice and advocacy in their professional and personal lives. The identification of attitudes, beliefs, and actions may facilitate or debilitate faculty motivation for infusing social justice concepts into the counselor education curriculum. Gaining knowledge about faculty attitudes, beliefs, and actions could help educators develop understanding about what is needed to contribute to a paradigm shift in

how faculty conceptualize such practices within CE programs (Odegard & Vereen, 2010).

The inclusion of a social justice and advocacy paradigm by introducing the concepts of social justice and advocacy during practicums, internships and supervision in graduate counseling programs may lead to social change by helping researchers and educators to understand the relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding social justice concepts and practices, and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives. These concepts and actions are embedded in the competencies developed by the ACA (Ratts, Toporek, & Lewis, 2010). This knowledge could lead to helping faculty develop a greater understanding regarding the need for inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in the counselor education and supervision curriculum. There is a need for educators to impart social justice advocacy concepts, combined with multiculturalism, to impart their students, so that students will develop a greater understanding as to how injustices, inequities, and oppression, based on such factors as race and culture, can affect the mental well-being of their potential clients (Glosoff & Durham, 2010).

Summary

According to the ACA, social justice and advocacy are important pillars of the counseling profession (Ratts et al., 2010). What is known by scholars in the mental health profession is that there are outside forces in the lives of people that influence how they interact within the environment in which they live (Lee, 2007; Lee & Rogers, 2009). In the last decade, scholars have put an emphasis on the importance of counselor educators including multiculturalism in the education of students in graduate counseling

programs (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Ratts et al., 2016; Ratts & Wood, 2011). By infusing multicultural knowledge into CE curricula, it may be possible to ensure that counselors know about and understand the importance of learning about other cultures whose members seek services from mental health professionals (Arredondo & Perez, 2003; Bemak et al., 2011; Constantine et al., 2007; Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Ratts et al., 2016). The researchers Chang et al. (2010), Constantine et al. (2007), and Glosoff and Durham (2010) noted in their research that mental health counseling perspectives are Eurocentric in philosophy, and historically, some counselors did not understand their clients who were not from a European background. Often, these counselors based their beliefs concerning others on their own biases and stereotypical information about others (Chang et al., 2010; Glossoff & Durham, 2010).

After the inclusion of multicultural classes in counseling mental health graduate programs, scholars began to review the literature that proposed the need for the addition of social justice and advocacy training for counselors (Arredondo & Perez, 2003; Constantine et al., 2007; Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Zalaquett et al., 2008). The literature indicated that counselors might not be able to provide adequate services to culturally different clients without learning about the importance of social justice and advocacy in their clients' lives. Unless both educators and those graduating from counseling programs learn about the importance of these concepts, clients might not benefit from counseling services (Arredondo & Perez, 2003**;** Collins et al., 2015; Constantine et al., 2007; Crethar & Ratts, 2008; Zalaquett et al., 2008)**.** Within the United States, historical and sociopolitical forces have created external barriers to resources for many of those clients based on factors that include, but are not limited to, racism, multiculturalism,

ethnicity, sexism, and socioeconomic status (Chang et al., 2010; Kiselica & Robinson, 2001; Ratts, 2009; Ratts & Wood, 2011).

However, despite the literature that has supported the need for the inclusion of social justice and advocacy in counselor programs (Bemak et al., 2011; Chang et al., 2010; Crethar & Ratts, 2008), I was unable to find research that explored the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of faculty or how these attitudes, beliefs, and actions in faculty members' personal and professional lives could be related to the importance that faculty place on implementing such social justice concepts. In addition, some of the research literature supported the notion that there is resistance from administrators and faculty regarding this paradigm shift within their programs (Bemak et al., 2011; Chang et al., 2010; Crethar & Ratts, 2008; Odegard & Vereen, 2010). There was a paucity of empirical research on the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of faculty regarding social justice and advocacy.

My purpose in this quantitative survey research study was to explore the relationship between counselor educators' attitudes, beliefs, and actions about social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives. Therefore, I examined one research question: Is there a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy, and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives?

This study may help counselor educators to develop awareness regarding faculty attitudes, beliefs, and actions related to social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives (Chang et al., 2010; Glosoff & Durham, 2010; Pohan & Aguilar, 2001). The information obtained from my research may contribute to knowledge regarding how

faculty members' attitudes and beliefs relate to their actions. This knowledge may lead to the development of strategies that could create a paradigm shift within counselor education programs for the inclusion of a social justice curriculum. This concludes the summary of Chapter 1. In Chapter 2, I provide the following information: an introduction to the problem and purpose of the study, a synopsis of the current literature, the literature search strategy, the theoretical foundation, and a literature review related to key variables and/or concepts.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

A problem I identified from a review of the literature is that students are reporting low self-efficacy for being change agents because the concepts of social justice and advocacy are not being taught or modeled in their classrooms by their CE faculty (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Ratts & Wood, 2011). Social justice advocacy training is important if future counselors are going to engage in such important work (Collins et al., 2015). Some researchers have found that some students experienced self-doubt about their ability to become agents of change in the lives of their future clients, especially when counselor educators had not previously introduced the concepts of social justice and advocacy into students' schemas (Collins et al., 2015; Mayhew & Fernández, 2007). Without examining the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor educators concerning how to be a social change agent, this goal for the counseling profession's future may not be realized.

Other scholars have reported that students should be properly trained in the concepts of social justice and advocacy if they are to become the change agents that their clients need them to be in today's diverse world (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Collins et al. (2015) and Ginns et al. (2015) supported the findings by other scholars that social justice and advocacy training is important if future counselors are going to engage in such important work in their personal and professional lives. After an extensive literature review, I found no evidence-based research identifying a correlation between attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor educators regarding social justice and advocacy and the importance that these faculty place on the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in their

personal and professional lives. Therefore, this study was a first step in determining whether there are supports or barriers related to the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of faculty that might support or prevent the eventual infusion of social justice and advocacy within counselor education programs.

My purpose for this quantitative survey study was to examine the relationship between the attitudes and beliefs of university faculty members and the actions they take toward the addition of social justice and advocacy practices in their personal and professional lives. The continuous variables I was interested in for this research were faculty attitudes, beliefs, and actions, and the level of importance that faculty place on social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives. The outcome of my research may have the potential to support the research of the previously named scholars regarding the inclusion of social justice and advocacy in the personal and professional lives of mental health counselor educators.

After finding research supporting the inclusion of social justice practices in the pedagogy of CE programs but minimal research on the infusion of social justice, Odegard and Vereen (2010) conducted a qualitative study using grounded theory to determine if college educators in counseling programs were integrating social justice theories in their classrooms. The emergent theory that resulted from this study included the concepts of the need to increase awareness, the need for a paradigm shift, and the need for an integration of social justice concepts into CE classrooms. These authors also discussed the many challenges of including social justice concepts into the curriculum but continued to discover limited knowledge of actual social justice practices in the classroom (Odegard & Vereen, 2010). Odegard and Vereen suggested a follow-up

quantitative study using a survey that incorporates any concepts discovered during their grounded theory research of college educators in counseling programs and their integration of social justice into their programs.

Many scholars around the world, from both the helping and teaching professions, have noted a lack of infusion of social justice and advocacy into the core curriculum of training programs for future practitioners, and concern has been raised regarding how well equipped future educators and health care providers will be to work successfully with diverse and marginalized populations (Arar & Oplatka, 2016; Joseph, 2011; Mills & Ballantyne, 2016; Rice et al., 2016). The empirical research of scholar practitioners in the mental health counseling profession has also determined that students in graduate counseling programs should receive education in social justice advocacy if they are to serve their future clients (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012). Scholar practitioners have suggested that social justice and advocacy practices will be important additions to graduate programs for preparing future counselors to serve their clients (Brubaker et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Ratts, 2009; Ratts & Woods, 2011). However, a search of the peer-reviewed literature resulted in a lack of research identifying social justice and advocacy practices in graduate mental health counseling programs (Brubaker et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Chung & Bemak, 2013; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Ratts & Wood, 2011). According to Ratts (2009) and Ratts and Wood (2011), it is imperative to begin training students in graduate mental health counseling programs about social justice and advocacy if they are going to better serve diverse client populations.

Discussion of including social justice training in the pedagogy of potential counselors is not new. McDowell and Shelton (2002) researched the debate about including such training in marriage and family therapy and learned that researchers had done a minimal amount of research in this area to recognize the needs of societal members affected by social justice and advocacy deficits in their lives. Scholars have conceptually added to the professional counseling literature regarding the importance of implementing social justice and advocacy studies in graduate mental health counseling programs (Bemak et al., 2011; Brubaker et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012; Ratts & Wood, 2011).

Educators' pedagogical methods of including social justice advocacy in graduate mental health counseling programs have provided considerable information on why the theory is important (Bankston, 2010; Collins et al., 2014; Smith et al., 2009), but little research has been done on including social justice advocacy within counseling programs (Brubaker et al., 2010; Chung & Bemak, 2013; Glosoff & Durham, 2010; Steele, 2008). The search by scholar practitioners for empirical research data on the inclusion of social justice and advocacy studies in graduate mental health counseling programs has rendered few results (Brubaker et al., 2010; Collins et al., 2015; Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005; Odegard & Vereen, 2010; Smith et al., 2009). With little evidence for the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in the classroom, despite research demonstrating its necessity, my first step to begin to identify this impasse was exploring the attitudes and beliefs of CE faculty regarding faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives. The past decade has seen discussion in peer-reviewed journals of the importance of mental health counseling programs including

social justice and advocacy class studies in their pedagogy (Malott & Knoper, 2012; Ratts & Wood, 2011).

The impetus for this discussion has been changing cultural demographics in the United States and concerns that students in graduate mental health counseling programs are not being trained to work with a changing society (Collins et al., 2015). The ability for students to conceptualize forces impacting culturally diverse ethnic groups will become an important aspect of their ability to understand the concepts of social justice and advocacy as they relate to their future clientele (Chang, Hays, & Milliken, 2009; Collins et al., 2015). Along with a conceptualization of social justice and advocacy, students need to understand the history of oppression and inequity for disenfranchised groups in the United States and how this affects these groups' well-being (Collins et al., 2015).

With little evidence for the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts into the core curriculum, despite research demonstrating its necessity (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012), it remains important to explore the relationship between attitudes and beliefs and social justice actions of CE faculty. After a decade of recognition but little action, the next step is to explore the barriers to implementation of social justice and advocacy concepts. The professional and personal attitudes and beliefs of faculty could possibly be hindering the infusion of social justice and advocacy concepts into counseling programs. Despite an exhaustive literature review, I found no studies that identified the attitudes and beliefs of CE faculty regarding this issue.

My research was based on the research of scholar practitioners (e.g., Brubaker et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Ratts, 2009; Ratts & Wood, 2011) whose findings support

the theory that social justice and advocacy studies should be important standard components in any mental health graduate counseling program. My study has the potential to increase awareness and knowledge about counselor educators' attitudes and beliefs, and how that awareness and knowledge will facilitate faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives. This knowledge may lead to strategies that could lead to a paradigm shift for the inclusion of a social justice and advocacy pedagogy in CE programs (Odegard & Vereen, 2010). In the remainder of this chapter, I provide a discussion regarding my literature search strategy, the theoretical foundation for the study, and a literature review on the key variables and concepts related to this study.

Literature Search Strategy

The strategy for the literature search was to locate empirical data on the relationship between attitudes and actions of mental health counselor educators regarding social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives. The use of databases such as EBSCOhost, PsycINFO, Sage, ProQuest, PsycINFO, Academic Search Complete, and PsycARTICLES was instrumental in providing information for this study. The use of Google Scholar was also an important factor in retrieving research information about social justice and advocacy. The Walden Library was used extensively to search for information important to this research, and the section titled "Find an Exact Article" was used extensively. The "Find an Exact Article" area of the library website provided a way for me to link with journals important to the research and to search by article title or digital object identifier (DOI).

The research sources that provided the most advantageous and valuable information linked directly to peer-reviewed journals such as the *Journal of College Counseling*, *Journal of Counseling and Development*, *Counseling Psychologist*, *Counselor Education and Supervision*, and *Journal of Educational and Psychological Consultation*. The numerous journals that I used provided many studies conducted by counseling scholars, mental health professionals, and psychologists, as well as rehabilitation practitioners' discussions on theories of social justice and advocacy and the importance of including the concepts as a part of CE programs.

The search terms I used included *social justice*, *advocacy*, *mental health counseling*, *counselor educators*, *mental health counselors*, and *university counseling administrators*. I searched for research that addressed the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor educators regarding social justice advocacy and how the concepts were included in their personal and professional lives. A search of peer-reviewed literature resulted in a lack of research identifying social justice and advocacy practices and counselor educators' attitudes, beliefs, and actions in counseling programs (Brubaker et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Ratts & Wood, 2011). In further search of the literature on social justice and advocacy, I found that the concepts go as far back as the 18th century, as previously noted by Kiselica and Robinson (2001), and resurfaced again in the beginning of the 20th century when Clifford Beers, a previously hospitalized psychiatric patient, revealed the inhumane treatment of patients in his 1908 book, *A Mind That Found Itself: An Autobiography* (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001, p. 79). For my study, I searched the current literature from 1999 to the present from peer-reviewed journals and selected some seminal articles from the 1980s.

Theoretical Foundation: Bandura's SCT

The theoretical framework that I used for this study was Bandura's (1977) SCT (also known as *social learning theory*). Bandura (1989, 2001) explained the theory as being emergent, which means that people are not without fault and contribute to what happens to them in life. According to Bandura, a feature of social learning theory is that humans cognitively make decisions via motivation, reinforcement of their behavior, and whether the benefits derived from their behavior encourage them to retain a concept or let it go. Bandura stated that a theory has value when the theory's method ultimately demonstrates psychological change in behavior that occurs; a theory should have "predictive power" (p. 5) and reliably recognize the reasons for human behavior changing and the process that brought about the change.

Bandura (1977) also reported that theoretical methods are best judged on their effectiveness in changing behavior. When a person understands his or her motivation for behavioral changes, the likelihood of the changes becoming internalized is greater than for behavioral changes based on "self-discovery" (Bandura, 1977, p. 4).

Self-Efficacy

One feature of social cognitive learning theory is self-efficacy (Bandura, 1977; Dinther, Dochy, & Segers, 2011). When discussing the introduction of social justice advocacy into the curricula of counseling students, there is the possibility of self-doubt relating to whether faculty members have the self-efficacy and training to infuse social justice and advocacy concepts into the curriculum (Chung & Bemak, 2013; Collins et al., 2015; Malott & Knoper, 2012). Mayhew and Fernández (2007) wrote that according to SCT, a person who achieves self-efficacy (i.e., self-confidence) gains incremental levels

of change in his or her behavior, and the discernible behavioral changes will increase the likelihood of a person becoming a social justice advocate as his or her self-efficacy becomes greater.

Furthermore, lack of faculty self-efficacy for social justice and advocacy can translate into student lack of self-efficacy. Mayhew and Fernández (2007) reported that students can obtain self-efficacy if challenged, supported, and given the opportunity to practice counseling skills, which can develop noticeable behavioral changes in their ability to grasp the concepts of social justice and advocacy; this requires interaction and feedback from faculty members. However, the interaction and feedback described by Mayhew and Fernández require a program with "rigor" (p. 56), meaning fewer lectures and the use of role playing as students participate in interactive exercises demonstrating the suffering of disenfranchised groups. By participating in role playing and exercises focused on disenfranchised groups in society, students may develop cognitive skills that support retention and understanding of the need for social justice and advocacy on behalf of student groups (Mayhew & Fernández, 2007). Classroom lectures and presentations such as PowerPoints and research assignments do not replace actual student immersion into the world of the disenfranchised groups; immersion more aptly develops the desired cognitive skills theorized by Bandura (Mayhew & Fernández, 2007). However, if faculty do not engage in social justice and advocacy in their own professional and personal lives, it may be less likely that they will engage students in this manner in the classroom. Counseling programs taught in the traditional manner of lecturing are necessary but are ineffective in building the cognitive skills and the self-efficacy needed by counseling students to gain knowledge of social justice advocacy (Mayhew & Fernández, 2007).

Mayhew and Fernández reported that there is a need to form education-learning experiences for students that provide opportunities to learn about social justice and at the same time address their resistance to learning about cultural differences.

Human Agency

Bandura (2001) wrote about "an agentic perspective" (p. 1); the word *agentic* is a derivative of *agency* and "refers to acts done intentionally" (Bandura, 2001, p. 6). The agentic perspective essentially refers to humans not only being products of their environments, but also producers of "social systems" (Bandura, 2001, p. 1). A person's cognition is needed for him or her to make sense of his or her surroundings and recognize if he or she has the self-efficacy to be effective when engaging systems that affect his or her life (Bandura, 2001). If a CE program becomes intent on introducing social justice and advocacy into its curricula, the introduction will require answering the question of how to raise the sensitivity level and conscious awareness of students who do not have any conceptualization of social justice and advocacy for disenfranchised groups (Mayhew & Fernández, 2007).

Mayhew and Fernández (2007) stated that this focus of providing students with the opportunity to access their feelings provides them with the opportunity to reflect on their views on race, racism, and any stereotypical attitudes regarding any group or groups. Mayhew and Fernández noted that the opportunity to access feelings is important, especially for White students. According to Bandura (2001) and SCT, people are the "agents" of what happens to them, rather than just passively going through experiences in their environment (p. 4).

The multicultural movement had an influence on how universities and colleges developed their pedagogy to include cultural diversity, introduce how cultures are intertwined, and depend on each other to have a democratic society (Mayhew & Fernández, 2007). The introduction of multiculturalism in education was intended to help look at the systematic teachings of discrimination in society, which promoted cognitions of hate for particular groups (Collins et al., 2015; Mayhew & Fernández, 2007). Bandura (2001) noted that what people believe determined how they interacted with their world and the outcomes (whatever they are) of that, interaction (belief system) can be a wanted outcome or an unwanted one.

The concept of human agency is part of the social cognitive theory agentic perspective and has three types of human agencies, "personal, proxy, and collective" (Bandura, 2001, p. 13). Bandura (2001) described personal agency as when a person thinks about what actions to take about their lives, where motivation originates, where feelings are experienced, and where the outcomes of their cognitions, motivations, and feelings manifest themselves. Often despite people exercising cognition and motivation, the outcomes of their attempts to influence their environment are out of their control; this is when these individuals seek proxy agency (Bandura, 2001). The proxy mode of human agency is sought when people reach out to others who can get them to the resources and goods, and services they cannot obtain with their own efforts (Bandura, 2001). Students in graduate counseling programs should understand the agentic perspective, and the importance of social justice and advocacy.

Social Justice Research Using Bandura's Concept

Bandura's social cognitive theory (aka social learning theory) was in current studies more recent then the 2007 research of Mayhew and Fernandez. These researchers investigated the attitudes of both students and faculty regarding the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in university graduate mental health program curriculums (i.e., classes) that are preparing future counselors to work with clients. The research studies that used Banduras' social cognitive theory as a framework ranged from the years 2010 through 2014. Bandura's theory has been found beneficial in assessing the attitudes of faculty (along with students) for adding social justice advocacy classes to the graduate mental health counseling programs and graduate counseling psychology programs. Bandura's social cognitive theory was an important tool to use in my research.

Miller et al. (2009) noted that over the last few years many scholars from various fields of study, for example, legal, social work, sociology, and education have shown an interest in social justice and advocacy. There are many perspectives/definitions of social justice used by the various fields of study, but almost always discuss the lack of equity, alleviating the disparity of the distribution of resources, and access to resources are examples (Miller et al., 2009). Miller et al. included what the literature has written about social justice and psychologists and stated that psychologists are ethically and philosophically responsible for engaging in social justice, and for finding ways to address social injustices by learning how to advocate.

According to Miller et al. (2009) there was little written about the fundamental factors that might influence college students to become interested in social justice advocacy. Because of the literature discussing social justice, Miller et al. conducted a

theory driven empirical study within a social justice domain to study the social justice interest and commitment of undergraduate college students. Miller et al. studied undergraduate college students using the social-cognitive career theory (SCCT), based on Bandura's social cognitive theory, to determine how students developed an interest and commitment to social justice concerns. Since its inception in 1994, researchers' have used the SCCT in empirical research, proving its ability to articulate self-efficacy, and to explain the career development of students in various professions (Miller et al., 2009). The intent of the Miller et al. study was to explore the psychological processes involved in college students' interest in, and commitment to, social justice.

The research began at a large Northeastern University with undergraduate students enrolled in four courses, two general education courses (for all students), career/life planning for some students; and multicultural diversity. The other two undergraduate courses were introductory level courses in psychology and counseling (Miller et al., 2009). The researchers distributed 374 packets to students who were interested in participating that contained a cover letter, an informed consent form, and a confidential questionnaire. However, only 315 (84%) of the packets were returned at the students' next class period. Of those 315 packets, only 274 were complete and thus retained for analysis (Miller et al., 2009). Students who participated were compensated with a five-dollar gift card (Miller et al., 2009).

Out of the 274 respondents' research packets retained for analysis, there were 191 females (Miller et al., 2009). The mean age of the respondents was 19.64 (*SD* = 3. 08). The respondents self-reported their racial groups as, 81.8% (*n* = 224) European American, 5.8% (*n* = 16) Latino/a, 4.7% (*n* = 13) African American, .03% (*n* = 8) Asian

American, .7% (*n* = 2) Native American Indian, 1.8% (*n* = 5) as biracial, and .02 % (*n* = 6) reported as "other" (Miller et al., 2009). Out of the 274 participants, 101 identified as first year students, 61 as sophomores, 59 as juniors, 52 as seniors, and one participant did not specify his or her academic standing (Miller et al., 2009). The respondents were also asked to estimate the combined annual incomes of parents and/or their own; "17 reported annual incomes of $25, 000, 58 reported $50, 000, 54 reported $75, 000, 74 reported $100,000, 49 reported over $150, 000, and 22 reported "other" or did not provide this information" (Miller et al., 2009, p. 499).

The research respondents completed a pencil and paper version of the Social Issues Questionnaire (Miller et al., 2009). The Social Issues Questionnaire (SIQ) was developed by the research authors Miller et al. and was based on the social justice literature written by Vera and Speight (2003) and others (Miller et al., 2009). Prior to its use in this research, the SIQ was reviewed by those considered experts in the areas of social justice and SCCT (Miller et al., 2009).

The purpose of Miller et al. (2009) administrating the SIQ was for the researchers to learn about the students' knowledge regarding social inequality and their engagement in social justice activities (Miller et al., 2009). The questionnaire included measurements for the "domain-specific social justice self-efficacy, outcome expectations, interests, choice goals, and social supports, and barriers related to social justice engagement" (Miller et al., 2009, p. 499). The SIQ asks participants to respond to questions using a 10-point Likert scale ranging from 0-9, with zero meaning no confidence at all and nine meaning complete confidence for the question item.

The SIQ contains 20 questions in the social justice self-efficacy section (Part one). In the social justice self-efficacy, section high scores indicate high confidence in demonstrating social justice advocacy activities (Miller et al., 2009). The SIQ social justice self-efficacy section had an estimated internal consistency of .94 for the total scale (Miller et al., 2009). Part two of the SIQ contains 10 questions that measured engagement in social justice activities (outcome expectations) used with a 10-point Likert scale ranging from zero – nine, with zero meaning (strongly disagree) and nine meaning (strongly agree). In the social justice activities/outcome expectations section higher scores indicated the participant's high expectations of becoming involved in social justice advocacy activities (Miller et al., 2009). The internal consistency for the social justice activities section of this study was .81 (Miller et al., 2009).

Part three of the SIQ contained three sections, the first one measured interest in social justice, the second measured commitment, and the third measured supports and barriers to engagement in social justice (Miller et al., 2009). In the first section of Part III contained nine questions, also on a 10-point Likert scale, to gauge interest ranging again from zero - nine, with zero meaning a very low interest and nine meaning a very high interest. In the interest section of Part III, a high score indicated a participant's high degree of interest in social justice (Miller et al., 2009). The second section of Part III, social justice commitment had four questions using the same 10 point Likert scale to gauge commitment, with zero meaning (strongly disagree) and nine meaning (strongly agree). A high score in this section indicated a high likelihood of a participant committing to social justice advocacy in the future (Miller et al., 2009).

The third section of Part III related to the supports and barriers to social justice engagement/commitment. This section had a total of nine questions; five questions related to support, and four questions related to barriers using the same 10-point Likert scale, with zero meaning (not at all likely) to nine meaning (extremely likely). The questions in the third section of Part III were written to gauge a respondent's perceptions of receiving supports or encountering negative barriers to social justice engagement from family, friends, and others (Miller et al., 2009). A high score on the two scales in the third section of Part III would indicate the perceptions of social support without barriers to engaging in social justice advocacy activities (Miller et al., 2009). According to Miller et al. (2009) "social supports and social barriers ($r = .40$, $p < .01$)" are what emerged from the theory-consistent relations study (p. 500). This part of the research revealed the internal consistency estimate for social support was .90 and a .79 estimate for social barriers (Miller et al., 2009).

Miller et al. (2009) aimed to assess if social-cognitive career theory (SCCT) could show how college students might develop an interest in social justice and commitment, and what roles self-efficacy and outcome expectations would have on developing an interest and commitment to social justice. Their study confirmed that self-efficacy when compared with outcome expectations had a strong influence on students' developing an interest in social justice (Miller et al., 2009). The Miller et al. study also confirmed that once an interest in social justice was developed that interest could then lead to a commitment in social justice advocacy. The outcome of the study described a considerable amount of difference between participants' "social justice interest (56%) and social justice commitment (70%)" (Miller et al., 2009, p. 501). Miller et al.

concluded that the findings of this research bolster the value of core SCCT model variables to predict college students' interest in social justice, which then can lead to a commitment.

Miller et al. (2009) reported limitations to this study, the first being the use of a nonrandomly chosen college convenience sample, this choice prevents generalization to students in other colleges in the country. Another limitation noted by Miller et al. was the use of primarily White Middle-class females, which generalizes across other racial, ethnic, and socioeconomic groups not possible. This study did not include the learning experiences of the respondents and their learning experiences would be factors in self-efficacy and outcome expectations (Miller et al., 2009).

Other variables not included in this study are previous social justice experiences, personality dispositions, and experiences with injustices (Miller et al., 2009). Miller et al. (2009) reported that leaving out variables could have diminished a full exploration of the model (SCCT), which might have prevented a complete understanding of social justice interest and commitment. Miller et al. also mentioned that using cross-sectional data did not allow an examination of the influence of social-cognitive variables, and how social justice and commitment would develop over time. Miller et al. recommended that future research could utilize longitudinal methods to investigate the degree to which these variables predict actual social justice advocacy behavior.

As a way of recognizing the call by scholars for the inclusion of social justice and advocacy in counseling programs many counseling psychology training programs started including components of social justice in their programs, specifically in the classes related to supervision training, professional development, and research (Miller &

Sendrowitz, 2011). According to Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) the long-range goals of adjusting the counselor training programs to include social justice was to stimulate the Student's awareness of social justice concerns and to develop the skills necessary to become advocates. Miller and Sendrowitz decided to review and re-examine the Miller et al. (2009) research they completed on social justice interest and commitment in relation to undergraduate college students.

The intent of Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) to conduct the review was to test the external validity of the Miller et al. (2009) research that used social-cognitive career theory (SCCT) to test self-efficacy (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The other intent of Miller et al. was to determine the additional domains regarding social support, barriers, and outcome expectations (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Based on previous research, Miller and Sendrowitz acknowledged that counseling psychology programs had assimilated social justice concepts into their training models for developing an awareness of social justice among students. At the time of their research, Miller and Sendrowitz stated there was a lack of empirical research that examined the outcome associated with the training initiatives developed in the "counseling psychology programs" meant to encourage the college students to develop an interest in social justice initiatives (p. 159).

Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) used an existing model linked to social-cognition as it related to an individual's social justice interest and commitment. Components of the Miller and Sendrowitz study also explored the educational environment of the students and the moral perspectives held by the sample population as these two components were not included in the 2009 Miller and Sendrowitz study. These researchers deemed that the educational environment would be important because it would include the attitudes of

faculty about social justice and the modeling of faculty regarding social justice and advocacy (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

Another important reason for including the educational environment in the research was that the educational environment would provide students with the opportunity to discuss any concerns or lack of knowledge they possessed about social justice (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The moral perspective of the research would allow students to discover for themselves the personal reasons they would be motivated to become involved in social justice and advocacy (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) reported that prior to beginning the research there were few empirical studies that examined what caused individuals to attain an interest in and make a commitment to social justice and advocacy.

The researchers drew their sample from a student population. The method Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) used for the research was the recruitment (over a Two-year period) of doctoral students in a counseling psychology program (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Miller, the first author, recruited the sample population by contacting training directors of 67 American Psychological Association-accredited counseling psychology programs in North America (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The sample population for the research also came from some of the Society of Counseling Psychology listservs (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). A hypothesis of Miller and Sendrowitz was that if educational environments provided trainees with supervision, resources, and time, then an interest in social justice advocacy might increase among the students.

The students were directed to an online survey, using the secure PsychData base, where the participants were instructed to fill out a confidential questionnaire and were

provided with an informed consent (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Due to the methods used for recruiting participants, Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) were unable to determine the rate of the responses. However, the online survey was viewed by 293 persons, 280 participated, and of the 280 only 240 completed the online survey (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). There were 11 participants who were not enrolled in a counseling program at the time of taking the survey, those 11 were eliminated from the analysis, leaving a sample size of 229 (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

The sample size was (n = 226) in doctor of philosophy programs, (n = 2) doctor of psychology, and (n = 1) doctor of education, in counseling psychology programs (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The participants self-reported as 76% female (n = 174), 23% male (n = 52), 0.5% gender – queer (n = 1), 0.5% androgenous female (n = 1), and 0.5% other (n =1), for the 229 (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The mean age of the sample population was reported as 28.86 (SD =5.25). Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) stated the participants self-reported their ethnic and racial identification, 72% (n = 164) Caucasian/European/American/White, 10% (n = 24) Asian/Asian American/Pacific Islander, 6% (n = 13) Latino/a, 5% (n = 11) African American/Black, 3% (n = 6) Middle Eastern, 1% (n = 2) Native American/American Indian, and 4% (n = 9) multiethnic/multiracial. The students were in various stages of their doctorate programs, 25% (n = 58) reported to be in their first year, 15% (n = 35) in the second year, 16% (n = 36) in the third year, 18% (n = 41). Next, in the fourth year, 14% (n = 33) in the fifth year, 7% (n = 15) in the sixth year, 2% (n = 5) in the seventh year, and 3% (n = 6) were other years (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). To protect the confidentiality of the participants, the individual schools they attended were not identified, but most attended

schools identified as the Midwest 17% (*n* = 84), 21% (*n* = 48) Northeast, 14% (*n* = 32) Southeast, 10% (*n* = 24) West, 7% (*n* = 15) South, and 5% (*n*= 12) Northwest (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

The measurements completed by the participants were the online versions of the, Social Justice *Self-Efficacy*, Social Justice Outcome Expectations, Social Justice Interests, and Social Justice Commitment scales of the Social Issues Questionnaire (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) reported there was another scale developed and used just for this study, the Social Justice Training Environment Supports, and Barriers scale. After analyzing the survey results, Miller and Sendrowitz found that approximately 95% of the research participants reported that at least one course incorporated social justice related concerns; approximately 42% reported there were no specific courses referring social justice.

Approximately 67% of the respondents admitted to seldom reading social justice literature; the breakdown of the 67% was 44.5% inconsistently, 20.5% very infrequently, and 2.6% not at all (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The assessment of the students about their educational environment (i.e., training environment that included faculty and the program) for social justice indicated approximately 32% of the respondents reported little opportunities for exposure to social justice advocacy information (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). However, 50% reported that information on social justice advocacy was available in their program, while 18% had no knowledge about the availability of social justice advocacy information in their program (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

In addition, 42% of the respondents to the survey believed that the majority of the faculty in their program was not a part of any social justice pursuits, 43% felt the faculty

in their program were involved in social justice activities, and 15% were not sure about faculty involvement with social justice issues (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The majority of the respondents (58.1%) believed that students were encouraged to become active in social justice and advocacy issues. However, only 30% responded that their program allowed them the time or provided the guidance and resources for students to become involved in social justice advocacy activities (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

The social justice interest (SJI) hypothesis tested by Miller and Sendrowitz for the 2011 research was the domain-specific social justice self-efficacy (SJSE) and the social justice outcomes (SJOE) hypothesis (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The SJSE had a total scale of internal consistency approximation of .95 and subscale approximations of .79 to .92 (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The SJOE produced an approximate internal consistency of .88 (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The interest hypothesis social justice self-efficacy (SJSE) did demonstrate both a direct and indirect effect on social justice interest (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011); the interest hypothesis predicted the domains would support an interest in social justice (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). A commitment hypothesis the Social Justice Commitment (SJC) predicted that social justice interest would determine a commitment to social justice; the internal consistency approximation for the study was .90 (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The SJC was supported by the interest hypothesis by showing a direct correlation to a commitment to social justice, suggesting that students with a higher interest in social justice would most likely commit to social justice later (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The findings by Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) about the beliefs in self-efficacy and a relationship to making a social

justice commitment (SJC) contrasted with the 2009 research findings, meaning these researchers did find a positive direct relational effect between self-efficacy and SJC.

The difference in the findings of the two research studies perhaps had to do with the type of respondents in each study (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). In the 2009 research, undergraduate college students were the sample population with courses in counseling and psychology; whereas in the 2011 study, the respondents were counseling psychology doctoral students. Doctoral students perhaps had more experience and exposure to the concepts of social justice advocacy (Miller et al., 2009; Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

According to Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) the 2009 study, "the indirect effects model of social justice interest and commitment accounted for a substantial amount of variance in social justice interest (approximately 53%) and social justice commitment (approximately 72%), a finding similar to Miller et al. (2009) model results, which accounted for approximately 56% of the variance in social justice interest and 70% of the variance in social justice commitment" (p. 165). Miller and Sendrowitz believed the findings for the 2011 and 2009 studies supported "the generalizability of the social cognitive model of social justice interest and commitment with counseling psychology trainees" (p. 165). The social justice educational or training environment findings supported that by faculty providing students the opportunity to learn about social justice and advocacy it could bolster students' social justice self-efficacy beliefs, which would consequently translate to an interest and commitment to social justice advocacy (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The personal moral perspective portion of the study and how it affected social justice and interest demonstrated both a direct and indirect effect on SJC by boosting the self-efficacy principle (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Miller and

Sendrowitz noted the methodological limitations of the research were that the respondents were primarily self-identified Caucasian/European/White females in doctorate programs and the ability for generalization across varied counseling programs is not known. Another noted limitation is the use of the social justice-training environment and personal moral imperatives scales developed by the authors especially for this study, and whether the scales would be useful in other studies (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

There is also the possibility that the hypotheses and measurements used in the Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) research did not capture all of the pertinent variables needed to be studied and; consequently, did not address the relationships that might exist in populations (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). For example, the Miller and Sendrowitz research did not include personality variables that possibly could influence developing self-efficacy and its relationship to outcome expectations linked to social justice advocacy (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The researchers also limited their study by using cross-sectional data that did not take into consideration how social cognitive variables might influence social justice interest and commitment later (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

Future research might include alternative hypotheses regarding SCCT variables and the use of a longitudinal method to look at how the used variables predict social justice advocacy outcomes (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Although the research by Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) was dedicated to the study of doctorate counseling psychology students, the implications for the importance of including social justice advocacy in training programs was clear to the two researchers. Among the suggestions made by Miller and Sendrowitz for including social justice in the educational

environment, were to put together social justice specific courses, provide social justice outreach, and research opportunities. Another suggestion by Miller and Sendrowitz was for educators to go beyond just including social justice in multicultural courses and to provide other methods of inclusion such as using the emancipatory communitarian approach of Prilleltensky. Miller and Sendrowitz acknowledged student learning about social justice was important and was best accomplished within a social justice counseling (psychology) paradigm (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

In summary, the theoretical framework for this current research was based on Bandura's social learning (aka cognitive learning) theory, that people cognitively make decisions based on the information provided to them (Bandura, 1977). The other concepts or features of Bandura's theory represented in the study are the concepts of self-efficacy (which is a person's belief that he or she can achieve a goal or perform a skill) and the agentic perspective (i.e., the ability to act intentionally) (Bandura, 1977).

Literature Review Revisited

In this section, I review the social justice and advocacy research and literature that relate to my study. I review the history of the social justice and advocacy movement and discuss the current methods for training counselors in social justice and advocacy concepts. Furthermore, I review the research literature pertaining to social justice and advocacy and discuss the lack of infusion of social justice and advocacy concepts into counselor education programs.

History of the Social Justice and Advocacy Movement

Coates (2007) theorized that dialogue about social justice could be a panacea for some, pointing out that discussion is not enough to address the need for social justice

among segments of the population without educating others of the problem. Coates referenced the theorist John Rawls and Rawls' belief that social structures should operate under the philosophy of fair distribution of goods and services to the least in society. Coates indicated a pedagogical paradigm in social justice studies with instructions aimed at social justice problems, as they now exist, along with the knowledge of social systems not accessible to segments of society.

Bankston (2010) studied the social justice theory of John Rawls whom Bankston suggested was credited with coining the term social justice. Bankston posited the increase in education, medical care, and other improvements after World War II did not improve the redistribution of goods and services for many in society depending on their social class, a point Bankston attributes to Rawls. Bankston concluded that education is needed to understand the historical framework of social justice, advocacy, and other theories of social justice.

My discussion of including social justice training in the pedagogy of potential counselors is not a new idea. Mays (2000) noted the work of two well-known moderators, the Rev. Jessie Jackson and psychologist Bonnie Strickland, and their research based on the historical factors of exclusion based or race, culture, gender, and other discriminatory factors influencing a person's well-being. Jackson (2000), in his address to the American Psychological Association convention, reminded the participants that although the nation had witnessed improvements in social justice, injustices continued to manifest itself among the disenfranchised groups in the country, and as counselors and psychologists, social justice and advocacy should become a part of their mission.

Strickland (2000) wrote about being from a "Eurocentric" background and growing up in the South, and the unawareness and limited exposure to other cultures Strickland experienced after arriving at Ohio State University and how that brought about a sense of being in a foreign country. For the first time, Strickland experienced the feelings of being different and of being a minority in a foreign country. These feelings continued for four years until Strickland obtained a job in the South and returned to a place of comfort and familiarity (Strickland, 2000). Mays (2000) reiterated how important it was for mental health practitioners to begin inquiring about social justice issues as a part of their practice to promote psychological well-being with clients and to look beyond just the reported mental health problem.

Kiselica and Robinson (2001) used the words "advocacy counseling" when discussing and describing the role of including social justice and advocacy in the counseling process (p. 388). There is history confirming that during the early formation of mental health counseling, social justice and advocacy were not strangers to the profession. As far back at the 18th century advocating for the mentally ill was considered the moral thing to do (Myers et al., 2002), but somewhere along the years the concepts of social justice and advocacy were pushed to the background (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001).

Kiselica and Robinson (2001) wrote that advocacy had different forms during its history, ranging from social work, psychology, religion, sociopolitical, sociology, and domestic issues impacting people of color (e.g., African Americans and Native Americans). Kiselica and Robinson stated the history of the advocacy movement goes back to the beginning of the 20th century starting with "Clifford Beers" (p. 79). The Beers Mental Hygiene Movement (MHM), the advocacy work of Gerstein, and others

were followed by the theoretical concepts of Albert Bandura and his theory known as the social learning theory (Bandura, 1977).

Beers exposed the horrible, inhumane, treatment he received while a patient in a psychiatric facility and his experience in his 1908 book, *"A Mind That Found Itself: An Autobiography"* (Kiselica & Robinson, p. 79); his exposure was the impetus for what became known as advocacy and social justice leading to the Beers' campaign that became known as the "Mental Hygiene Movement" (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001, p. 79). Beers became what could have been a celebrity. Beers' was invited into the homes of wealthy Americans including the Rockefellers and the Fords to discuss his book and give personal testimony on the negative treatment of the mentally ill in the United States (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001).

The book written by Beers and his subsequent visits to the homes of millionaires brought many thousands of dollars to Beers and the Mental Hygiene Movement (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001). Beers movement caught the attention of world-renowned psychiatrists and psychologists who supported and agreed with Beers' report on the treatment of the mentally ill in the country. The attention Beers' campaigned received from the wealthy corporate leaders, psychologists, and psychiatrists eventually attracted the support of the nation (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001).

Lawrence Gerstein was another champion of advocacy for the disenfranchised who advocated for the oppressed people in Tibet; he was honored by the 1999 American Counselors Association (ACA) for his advocacy work on behalf of the Tibetan people (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001). Kiselica and Robinson (2001) noted many others who were advocates for social justice; they included Du Bois (1905) a sociologist; Parsons

(1908), a vocational counselor; Horney (1930s), a psychologist, and Carl Rogers (1940s), a counselor/psychologist.

Social Justice and Advocacy Training of Counselors and Multicultural Competencies

Kiselica and Robinson (2001) noted in their research that potential advocacy counselors would require certain characteristics, namely, the knowledge and understanding of the suffering of others, and possess the desire to advocate for them. Advocates can communicate on all levels with the identified groups and know how to access resource groups, organizations, and use technology as advocacy tools (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001). McDowell and Shelton (2002) researched the debate about including the training in marriage and family therapy, noting a minimal amount of research in this area to recognize the needs of societal members affected by social justice and advocacy deficits in their lives. Vera and Speight (2003) reviewed multicultural competencies and determined that the guidelines did not suggest how counseling professionals can become agents for change, although the competencies did acknowledged oppression in how mental health services, and testing are administered.

In fact, Vera and Speight (2003) suggested the competences were based on politics (e.g., perhaps, appeasing political agendas) with no groundwork laid towards a social justice agenda. Vera and Speight pointed out that the institutions that train counselors are complicit in their failure for not implementing programs addressing the social justice components in the competencies to uncover the clients presenting problem but focus only on expressing sensitivity for a client from a therapeutic framework.

Vera and Speight pointed out that the institutions that train counselors are complicit in their failure for not implementing programs addressing the social justice components in the competencies to uncover the clients presenting problem but focus only on expressing sensitivity for a client from a therapeutic framework. The notion of preparing counselors in the arenas of social justice and advocacy was viewed by some counselors as being outside the realm of counseling practitioners, therefore providing counselors the latitude to remain within the limits defined (or not defined) in the multicultural competencies (Vera & Speight, 2003).

Arredondo and Perez (2003) differed from Vera and Speight (2003) in their interpretation of the competencies. Whereas Vera and Speight suggested that social justice was not always a principle of the multicultural competencies, Arredondo and Perez (2003) disputed that interpretation noting the historical data stated otherwise. Arredondo and Perez referred to Arredondo et al. (1996), which reflected on the competencies written by Sue and the emphasis Sue placed on social justice by changing the education at universities/colleges, other schools, and any other mental health service providers where counselors are educated or practice in repudiation of the allegation made by Vera and Speight. A statement made by Vera and Speight regarding how minorities developed identities had no impact on these minorities' benefits from counseling was refuted by Arredondo and Perez. Arredondo and Perez stated, how minorities developed their identities was being researched with counseling students and clients; therefore, the assertion by Vera and Speight was without validity.

According to Arredondo and Perez (2003), the 1966 competencies had specific strategies to achieve multiculturalism. Included within the competencies was the mandate

that mentors were culturally different and attended multicultural conferences, which focused on multicultural development. Arredondo and Perez further refuted the notion by Vera and Speight that cultural diversity would be best understood from an intrapsychic or personal perspective, and pointed out the 1992 and 1996 competencies clearly recognized oppression and its environmental influences and the historical factors that created social injustices; the competencies did not support the intrapsychic or personal perspective declared by Vera and Speight. Arredondo and Perez concluded that social scientists that approached the concerns and issues of social justice should reframe from relying on textbook and research theories to guide their knowledge on social justice and advocacy.

Hill (2003) recognized that counselor-training programs did not meet the needs of their culturally diverse students nor did the programs acknowledge the increasing diversity in the population of the United States; this must change if students are to graduate with the tools to counsel a diverse population. Hill referred to the Eurocentric traditional way of doing things as "monocultural" (p. 39) and identified a need for going beyond this perspective for counselor education curriculums to move to a multicultural pedagogy. Hill reported after the Association of Multicultural Counseling, Development (AMCD) adopted the Multicultural Counseling Competencies, and Standards, the accepted standards conceptualized the requirements to introduce multicultural and sensitivity training to counselor trainees and existing counselors (Hill 2003).

After the counseling profession accepted the standards of the Multicultural Counseling Competencies and Standards by the American Counselors Association (ACA), there was increased interest in learning about multicultural concepts and social

justice concerns among faculty at universities. There was also increased concern regarding ethical standards not being met; however, there was little empirical evidence to support the increased interest (Hill, 2003).

Although there had been incorporation of multicultural classes at a few institutions, the reason was not for philosophical change, but for what these universities thought they should do (Hill, 2003). The incorporation of multicultural education within these institutions has been impeded by the lack of training for counselor educators regarding the concepts of multiculturalism, social justice, and resistance to change that has traditionally been imbedded in current philosophical thinking (Hill, 2003).

Smith, Baluch, Bernabei, Robohm, and Sheehy (2003) acknowledged that counselors had been confronted with the task of researching how social injustices in society had played a part in the mental health of clients. The forms of injustices can include racism, sexism, and systematic oppression (Smith et al., 2003). Smith et al. noted college counseling centers and universities need to rethink their traditional way of doing business and recognized the student population should become more diverse, culturally, and ethnically for recognition of their educational needs as it is related to social justice and advocacy.

Counseling centers in various parts of the country have noted their staff has required training in multicultural knowledge because of the staff following the traditional Eurocentric patterns of treatment to people of nonEuropean descent (Smith et al., 2003). Smith et al. (2003) wrote that counselors could not continue to ignore the transitions occurring in society regarding cultural, social, and political concerns, because these transitions relate to minorities. After reviewing the work of other scholars Smith et al.

explained that unless efforts are made to understand a client's outside environment, whatever is done in the therapeutic session with that client might be of little value.

The Importance of Social Justice and Advocacy

Goodman et al. (2004) reflected on a 2001 counseling psychology conference in Houston, TX where the conference's focal point was research in social justice, the practice of social justice, and the need for training in social justice. The conference attendees agreed by more than 80% that counseling psychologists must get back to a social justice and advocacy commitment within its ranks (Goodman et al., 2004). The commitment made in 2001, and once again discussed in the psychology journal in 2003, proved nothing more than additional speech-making about social justice and advocacy in the counseling community, and the commitment to moving forward on social justice and advocacy had not been accomplished (Goodman et al., 2004). Goodman et al. concluded that for social justice and advocacy to move to the forefront in practice, it will have to occur in the individual groups, their environments/communities, and on a sociopolitical and philosophical level (e.g., no more discussion but action was needed).

Another point made by Goodman et al. (2004) was the intercession of counselors regarding social justice and advocacy should be in the broader social framework, for example on the micro level, working with individual and families, on the meso level, working within the communities (e.g., schools and churches), and on the macro level that includes local and national governments and policy makers, and not just the person, yet a person is within, and a part of the social framework. Because of multiculturalism, feminism also came to the forefront regarding social justice issues; Goodman et al. noted that female scholars of European descent have been criticized for not acknowledging the

advantaged positions held by these women in a power structure built upon racial privilege. If the efforts for introducing social justice and advocacy concepts in higher education are to be successful then counselors need to conduct a self-evaluation of their attitudes toward racially and ethnically different groups if the efforts for introducing social justice and advocacy concepts in higher education will be successful (Goodman et al., 2004).

Nilsson and Schmidt (2005) recognized that the subject of social justice as a priority has been receiving attention in the profession of counseling throughout the latter part of the 20th century. During their counseling education programs, students became aware of the social justice concerns and the injustices experienced by disenfranchised groups during their counseling education, but their awareness did not extend to action (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). Nilsson and Schmidt noted that current college students were not like college students of the 60's and 70's who actively advocated for issues they believed unjust.

Nilsson and Schmidt (2005) searched the empirical literature and found no data explicitly examining counselors, social justice, and advocacy; they found that the issues of social justice and advocacy discussed in the literature were based strictly on the theory of including social justice and advocacy in counseling programs. The research of Nilsson and Schmidt has supported the findings of previous scholars such as Goodman et al. (2004), Hill (2003), Smith et al. (2003), and Vera and Speight, (2003) in concluding that the external environment of the client must be brought into the counseling session and be recognized and incorporated for clients to become strong enough to solve their own mental health problems. Nilsson and Schmidt further concluded that problem solving

and expressing empathy and genuine concern for others might be the best skills for students who wanted to work for social justice and advocate for disenfranchised populations.

Research Pertaining to Social Justice and Advocacy

In this section, I review some of the research literature that was important to the formation of my study. I describe each study and state the researchers' hypotheses, and methods, and discuss the results and limitations of the study. Finally, I state why the study is important to, or informs, my study.

Nilsson and Schmidt (2005) wanted to explore the predictors that caused students to become social justice advocacy proponents; the variables explored were the age of the participant, how many courses students had taken, and students' political inquisitiveness. The sample size was comprised of 134 counseling psychology and counseling students from a Midwestern university (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005, p. 270). The mean age of the participants was 31 and the sample was primarily comprised of primarily White females (84%; Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). There were 112 females and 22 males, 10 (8%) participants were African American, 5 (4%) Hispanic, 5 (4%) multicultural, and one (1%) Asian American (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). The stated sexual orientation of most of the participants, 124 (92%) were heterosexual; there were 6 (4%) gay participants, and 4 (3%) bisexual participants (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). For the participants who reported a religion, 88 were Christians (66%); 21 (16%) reported not being religious; 1 (2%) who reported being Buddhist; 1 (1%) reported being Jewish, and 22 (16%) who reported "other" as their religious affiliation (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). The type of advanced degree programs reported by participants were comprised of 107 (81%) masters'

students; 17 (13%) doctoral students, and 9 (7%) who were in education specialist programs (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). There were 77 (58%) who reported their political affiliation as Democrat, 29 (22%) Republican, and 26 (19%) who declared no party affiliation (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005).

Nilsson and Schmidt (2005) used the Activity Scale (ACT) to measure social justice advocacy; they chose the ACT because of the scarcity of instruments available to measure social justice advocacy. The drawback to using the ACT for this study was its' age; the instrument was developed in the 60's and measured the political and social issues of that era. The ACT is also "a 24 – item cumulative scale" (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005, p. 270). Other scales were also used; these were (a) the Problem-Solving Inventory (PSI), which is a 32 item Likert scale that measures values and characteristics; (b) the second Social Interest Scale, which is "a 15 – item dichotomous scale" that gauges a persons' interest and concern for other people, and (c) the Scale to Assess World Views (SAWV), which is a 45 – item Likert scale, that gauges a persons' values, beliefs and hypotheses about "human nature, relationships, nature, time orientation, and activity orientation" (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005, p. 271). These five categories measured group and individual perceptions of the world, using a scale ranging from one, (strongly disagree), to five, (strongly agree) (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005).

The results of the study demonstrated that the variables of age, number of courses, political interest, concern for others, problem solving skills, and worldview proved not to be strong predictors of social justice advocacy (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). Nilsson and Schmidt (2005) stressed that a person's worldview is not necessarily a predictor of social justice advocacy. "However, the low reliability on this scale highlights that these results

must be interpreted with caution" (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005, p. 276). The research did not provide evidence suggesting that having valuable problem-solving skills to solve personal issues necessarily equated to becoming a social justice advocate (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005).

The results of this study indicated that the most significant predictor variable for students' interest in becoming involved in social justice advocacy was an interest in political and social issues (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). When all the variables were included in the outcome, social justice, and advocacy accounted for 30% of the predictive value. Nilsson and Schmidt (2005) concluded that political interest was most important predictor of social justice and advocacy to the research participants than other variables.

One weakness of this study was the use of the ACT. The ACT was designed to measure the thinking and activities of people who participated in wide-ranging political activities that included protesting contentious speakers, social issues, and those who worked in political campaigns (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). The ACT also differentiates between people who are political activists and people who are not political activists (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). Using the ACT to measure the social justice advocacy of the graduate students in the study might not have provided an accurate perspective of the participant's views on social justice advocacy. The PSI, SIS, and the SAWV provided information on values and characteristics, interest and concern for others, and beliefs, values and assumptions of others (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005).

Another drawback to this study is that the small sample sizes for the Lesbian, Gay and Bisexual (LGB) community, and people of color did not provide enough measureable statistical information for this study (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). Therefore, the findings

in this study cannot be generalized to nonWhite groups, because most of the student participants were White (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). This study is important to my study because it explored variables that were hypothesized to motivate an individual's interest and action toward social justice and advocacy.

Based on the growing interest shown by both counselors and psychologists regarding social justice in counseling programs, Sandage, Crabtree, and Schweer (2014) embarked upon a study about social justice. Sandage et al. referred to Ratts who stated the need for adding social justice to counseling curriculums was imperative. The research by Sandage et al. was based on a 2004 perspective espoused by Goodman et al. (2004), that only an active interest about the importance of social justice advocacy in counseling training programs was measurable as compared to just making theoretical statements about social justice advocacy.

After reviewing the research of others on social justice and a commitment to social justice, Sandage et al. (2014) decided to use the Differentiation of Self (DoS) and social justice as the framework for the research. The Differentiation of Self (DoS), "is a developmental construct that has also been positively associated with numerous indices of psychological and relational well-being and includes intrapersonal and interpersonal dimensions" (Sandage et al., 2014, p. 68). The differentiation of self is a construct based in a cooperative and wide-ranging sense or vision of selfhood (Sandage et al., 2014). The intrapersonal dimension entails how a person reacts to (or handles) his or her own emotions and still be able to relate to self and others (Sandage et al., 2014). The interpersonal dimension examines whether a person can keep his or her own self-identity after identifying with others, and at the same time be able to balance emotions and

maintain a distance in the relationship with others (Sandage et al., 2014). Sandage et al. suggested the DoS, is consistent with a healthy and sustainable sense of relating to self, for working towards, and making commitments to social justice. Sandage et al. brought the idea of hope into the equation after reading the writings of Martin Luther King and Cornel West who suggested that hope (in its many forms) can have moral implications "associated to mature selfhood and social justice commitment" (p. 69).

Therefore, the purpose of the study by Sandage et al. (2014) was to investigate the Differentiation of Self (DoS) as a developmental construct and test their theoretical model of DoS, "predicting social justice commitment mediated by hope in a sample of graduate students in the helping profession at a Protestant-affiliated university" (p. 70). Sandage et al. stated they could not locate any theoretical connections or empirical research between social justice and hope. Sandage et al. acknowledged social justice commitment investigations had been conducted on undergraduate and graduate students in counseling psychology programs, but "could not find a previous study focused on social justice commitment in a broader set of helping professions" (p. 70).

The participants in the Sandage et al. (2014) study included master's students from a Protestant-affiliated university in the Midwestern United States. The graduate programs included marriage and family therapy, counseling psychology, and a divinity program; all the programs required counseling skills training and an interest for social justice being a part of student effect/outcome (Sandage et al., 2014). There were 202 students included in the research; the ages ranged from 21 to 60 (M = 33.60; SD = 10.23). There were 56.9% females and 43.1% males in the participant sample (Sandage et al., 2014). Ninety-two percent of the sample identified as European American, 3.0% who

identified as Asian or Asian American, 3.0% as African American, 1.0% as Latina, 0.5% as Native American, and 0.5% as multicultural (Sandage et al., 2014). Sandage et al. stated the percentages of the participants would not total 100% due to "rounding" (p. 70).

The method used for the DoS was the 2003 Differentiation of Self Inventory-Revised (DSI-R) a 46-item self-report tool. On the full scale, the DSI-R has produced a .92 internal consistency score (Sandage et al., 2014). According to Sandage et al. (2014) the DSI-R had an internal consistency in their study of "Cronbach's alpha = .91" (p. 70). The subscales used in the research produced internal consistencies from .81 to .89; they also correlated with many gauges associated with psychoadjustment, relational well-being (Sandage et al., 2014). One of the subscales used to assess the intrapersonal dimension of a participant was the "I" Position and Emotional Reactivity scale (Sandage et al., 2014, p. 70).

The subscales used to assess the interpersonal dimension of participants were the Fusion with Others and the Emotional Cutoff scales, and high findings on these subscales indicates high differentiation (Sandage et al., 2014). The subscales use "a Likert-type scale ranging from 1(*not at all true of me*) to 6 (*very true of me*)" (Sandage et al., 2014, p. 70). The tool used for the hope component of the research was The Hope Scale (HS), a 12 item self-report Likert-type scale ranging from "1 (*definitely false)* to 4 (*definitely true*)" (Sandage et al., 2014, p. 70). The Cronbach's alpha for the HS in the study was .78 (Sandage et al., 2014). The commitment to social justice was tested by using the Horizontal scale of the Faith Maturity Scale (Sandage et al., 2014). The Faith Maturity - Horizontal (FMS-H) scale was developed "to measure a mature spiritual orientation as evidenced by commitments to altruism, justice, and helping others, and was initially

normed among Protestant samples in the United States" (Sandage et al., 2014, p. 70). Sandage et al. (2014) used only three components of the FMS-H, those items focused exclusively on social justice commitment. The words of the three items from the FMS-H were not solely spiritual (Sandage et al., 2014). The FMS-H used a Likert-type scale "ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 9 (*I strong disagree*)" (Sandage et al., 2014, p. 70). The three items on the FMS-H scale were:

(a) I am active in efforts to promote social justice

(b) I speak out for equality for women and persons of color

(c) I care a great deal about reducing poverty in the USA and throughout the world. (Sandage et al., 2014, p. 70).

The three FMS-H items used in this research had an internal consistency of Cronbach's alpha = .71 (Sandage et al., 2014). Once Sandage et al. (2014) obtained permission from the institutional review board, the appropriate school staff were sought out to recruit students for the study. The students were offered a ten-dollar bookstore certificate to participate in the research (Sandage et al., 2014). The students who agreed to participate in the research received a written explanation of informed consent and completed a package containing questionnaires (Sandage et al., 2014).

In the results section of the study Sandage et al. (2014) referred to Condition 1, Condition 2, and Condition 3 as part of the results, these terms were never used in other parts of the article. Therefore, it is not clear if by using the word condition when reporting the study results if the researchers are referring to the three items on the FMS-H scale listed above, meaning items (a), (b), and (c) or some other study results. Sandage et al. reported, Condition 1 results indicated DoS was considerably related to high levels of

hope ($R^2 = .16$, $B = .04$, $p < .00$), Condition 2 indicated that DoS is greatly associated with high levels of SJC, and Condition 3 indicated that hope was strongly associated with SJC ($R^2 = .06$, $B = .41$, $p = .00$). In their discussion, Sandage et al. concluded that the theoretical model they used with DoS predicting SJC by mediating hope was correct. The Differentiation of Self (DoS) was most definitely related with SJC and continued after hope was added to the regression equation (Sandage et al., 2014). Sandage et al. were sure the variables of the DoS and hope, and the relationship to SJC was the first ever empirically tested.

According to Sandage et al. (2014), the study results suggested that people with low levels of DoS would have difficulty handling their internal anxiety leading to fusion (i.e., a tendency to rescue that is inconsistent with social justice advocacy). Low levels of DoS might lead to feelings of being used up, meaning burned out (Sandage et al., 2014). In contrast, high levels of DoS suggested a person's ability to speak up, speak out, and make a commitment to social justice despite what others (e.g., family, friends, and other) might say (Sandage et al., 2014). Sandage et al. suggested that hope was a partial mediating influence on DoS and an SJC, supporting the belief of the historic figure, Martin Luther King, Jr. Sandage et al. reported that hope maintains a vision and an ability to work towards a greater future and could be associated with a commitment to social justice.

Sandage et al. (2014) believed their research has contributed to the scarce empirical research on SJC and its association with DoS, hope and social justice. Sandage et al. noted the study was limited to predominately-European American students in a Protestant-affiliated Midwestern university in the United States, with many students

pursuing ministerial studies. The results of this study most likely cannot be generalized "to a sample composed of only professional therapy students or to secular contexts" (Sandage et al., 2014, p. 71).

Sandage et al. (2014) suggested the need for a longitudinal design study with the same variables, but with a more ethnically diverse group that included different spiritual and religious ideologies. An additional study is suggested to consider causal effects, meaning whether changes in the differentiation of self or hope would eventually foresee changes in SJC (Sandage et al., 2014). Future researchers might also consider using a different measurement; the scale used for this research contained some items that specifically mentioned advocacy as it related to specific social justices concerns, meaning persons of color, women, and socioeconomics (Sandage et al., 2014). Since some students may have problems with the term social justice, it is suggested future research use general and specific measurements of social justice advocate endeavors (Sandage et al., 2014).

Sandage et al. (2014) suggested the study points to several training opportunities in relation to SJC for students "in the helping professions" (p. 72). One of the training opportunities would be to use hope as a mediator to raise student understanding and consciousness about the abject oppression in certain society groups (Sandage et al., 2014). A second opportunity for training would be to assist students with developing skills in social justice advocacy so students can demonstrate hope (Sandage et al., 2014).

Sandage et al. (2014) also suggested students with low DoS or who risk developing depression could be at risk of not developing a commitment to social justice. Sandage et al. also noted that students who lacked the training about injustices might find

it difficult to maintain hope about their ability to become advocates for social justice. Since graduate studies are often stressful for students, counseling and other support systems may be needed to assure students maintain their own well-being while attempting to develop a commitment to social justice (Sandage et al., 2014).

Lack of Infusion into Core Curriculum

Despite the evidence for the need for the infusion of social justice concepts within counselor education programs and the various suggestions of such has brought about little progress in this area (Chung & Bemak, 2013; Coates, 2007; Malott & Knoper, 2012). In fact, Coates (2007) suggested that educators rethink educational paradigms and teach the concepts of social justice and how the practice of social justice can be manipulated to continue the disenfranchisement of targeted groups while rewarding those who are privileged.

Suggested problems. A few of the problems suggested by Meyer et al. (2002) as to why social justice and advocacy had not been included in counseling was that there was (a) no clarity about counselors and the counseling profession, (b) the public have little knowledge about who professional counselors are and the role they play in the helping profession, and (c) the public have little knowledge regarding the accreditation of curriculums and counselor credentials. Myers et al. noted that the school, career, and community agencies accelerated the counseling profession; the authors stated that calling oneself a professional counselor was unheard of until approximately 28 years before their article was researched. Zalaquett et al, (2008) discovered that the focus on advocacy and multiculturalism were considered political fads and the concepts were not taken seriously by administrators at colleges of education and within counseling programs. Zalaquett et

al. stated that administrators should develop counselor education programs reflecting the components and concepts of social justice, multiculturalism, and the importance of these concepts to society and the training of future counselors.

Suggestions for inclusion. Zalaquett et al. (2008) suggested educators could implement the concepts of social justice and multiculturalism by (a) increasing the presence of students and faculty representing cultural diversity, (b) implementing social justice and multicultural instruction into counseling programs, and (c) recognizing that these concepts are not political fads. Zalaquett et al. noted factors that required thought by educators and education administrators: (a) by the end of the next decade most of the children in public schools will be from diverse ethnic groups, (b) the current philosophy of education is based on "European American norms" (p. 324), (c) the agencies providing accreditation of education programs are requiring multicultural and advocacy competencies among faculty. Next is (d) evidence based researchers report social justice and advocacy must become a part of mental health counselor education training programs and (e) recognize educators, educational administrators, researchers, scholar practitioners, and counselors are ethically bound to add social justice, advocacy, and multicultural pedagogy to their educational counseling programs (Zalaquett et al., 2008) .

Bradley, Lewis, Hendricks, and Crews (2008) and Zalaquett et al. (2008) recognized the need for counseling students to learn while in training for students to provide service to their future clients as a part of their ethical obligation. Bradley et al. concluded that advocacy training could be provided through supervision during students' internships. The supervisory training of advocacy during an internship would require a supervisor who understood the concept and need to advocate for clients. If advocacy

training were provided during an internship, the concept of advocacy would go from the theory of advocacy to the action and practice of advocacy (Bradley et al., 2008). According to Bradley et al. advocacy should not be considered a client privilege; advocacy is a "right" (para. 7). Bankston (2010) wrote about the same political, economic, and distribution of goods and services discussed by Vera and Speight (2003), seven years earlier, noting the disenfranchised were just as unimportant to the power brokers a decade later and maintaining the same prevailing attitudes have been maintained regarding all citizens having equal access to the goods and services enjoyed by the privileged.

Given the long history of the profession of counseling developing multicultural, social justice, and advocacy competencies for counselors to be proficient in working with diverse populations, it is surprising that so little has been done regarding infusing social justice and advocacy concepts into the core curriculum of counseling education program (Mallinckrodt et al., 2014; Malott & Knoper, 2012). Therefore, it seems the important place to begin the exploration for this impasse is with the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor education faculty. If the need for social justice and advocacy infusion into the core curriculum of counseling education program has been identified and validated via research, why is the profession not implementing it? After a decade of recognition, but little action, the next step is to explore the barriers to implementation. For example, is there a difference in the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of faculty regarding the importance of infusing social justice and advocacy concepts into the core curriculum that is causing this impasse? From the research literature, I could assume that faculty believes the infusion of such concepts into the curriculum is important, but despite an exhaustive

literature review, no studies were found that identified the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor education faculty regarding this issue. This was the impetus for my study.

The research I discussed in this chapter included a central theme and that was the conceptualization by faculty to infuse social justice and advocacy concepts into their personal and professional lives. I also presented the research by scholars who urge for the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts into graduate mental health counseling programs. Instead, programs have been left with the status quo, which is the traditional philosophical idea of education that aligns with the Eurocentric based philosophy of what students should learn and how students should be educated. The resistance of faculty, administrators, counselors, politicians, and corporate leaders regarding social justice advocacy appeared to be based on concerns that change would be unwelcomed and uncomfortable to the dominant culture (Coates, 2007).

Another area of concern highlighted by scholarly literature was whether counselors with privileged backgrounds had the ability to empathize with disenfranchised groups. Researchers have suggested that all those working in the counseling field should explore the privileges they automatically enjoy by virtue of ethnicity or other forms of privileged (Constantine et al., 2007). The research by Constantine et al. (2007) also confirmed the conceptual literature suggesting that counselors have little knowledge or understanding about social justice, advocacy, and the historical factors if they are not members of a minority group.

The gap is that I could not find any evidence-based research identifying a correlation between the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor educators regarding social justice and advocacy and the importance these faculty place on the inclusion of

social justice and advocacy concepts in their personal and professional lives. Many researchers emphasized the importance of social justice advocacy being a part of a college students' education and the importance of faculty perspectives on social justice, and each used the social cognitive theory. The results from this current study may potentially enable a better understanding regarding the resistance from universities and their faculty to adding social justice and advocacy to the graduate mental health-counseling curriculum. Bandura's social cognitive theory (aka social learning theory) has been used in some studies that investigated the attitudes of both students and faculty regarding the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in graduate mental health curriculums (i.e., classes) that are preparing future counselors to work with clients realizing clients bring more than the presenting problem to therapy sessions. Bandura's social cognitive theory will be the important tool to use in the research it is used by researchers to assess the importance of including social justice advocacy in the educational training of future mental health counseling practitioners.

Summary

In chapter three, I discussed the purpose of my research, the research design, and its connection to the research question; define the target population, the sample size, and the sampling strategy for the study. I provided the information regarding data collection and how the informed consent was provided to participants. In addition, I provided information regarding instrumentation and operationalization of my constructs. I included information pertaining to internal and external validity threats to the study. I discussed and revealed the ethical procedures I conducted and performed for this study. Finally, I concluded chapter three with a discussion of the design and methodology.

Chapter 3: Research Method

My purpose for this quantitative survey study was to examine the relationship between the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of university faculty regarding social justice and advocacy concepts. My variables of interest within this study were faculty attitudes, beliefs, and actions related to social justice and advocacy and how these attitudes and beliefs relate to actions taken within their personal and professional lives. In this chapter, I discuss my research design and rationale, my methodology, and potential threats to the validity of my study.

Research Design and Rationale

Given the paucity of research I found in the literature, an initial descriptive study was the first logical step needed to advance research regarding faculty beliefs about the importance of teaching advocacy and social justice and the importance of including advocacy and social justice in counselors' professional practice (Creswell, 2009, 2014). This study was correlational and did not include an intervention. The continuous variables I was interested in for this study included the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of faculty regarding social justice and advocacy as measured by the Social Justice Scale (Torres-Harding et al., 2012) and the actions taken by faculty in their personal and professional lives as measured by Social Issues Advocacy Scale (Nilsson et al., 2011). My research did not provide any inferences about causation regarding the relationship of the variables.

I originated the research by sending participants a survey via Survey Monkey. The survey contained a qualifying question, an informed consent form, a demographic questionnaire, and both scales as outlined above. I obtained contacts of potential

respondents by using the ACES CESNET listserv. This database included all CE faculties who belonged to ACES, which is the primary professional organization for counselor educators and supervisors (ACES, n.d.). My use of the ACES CESNET listserv would allow me to eliminate professionals not listed as members. After I did not receive the expected response from CESNET, I had to request a change of procedure from the Institutional Review Board (IRB). I discuss the IRB change request in detail in Chapter 4. The statistical analysis I used to obtain the results was the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Thus, the current study does not contain specific independent moderator, mediating, or covariate variables.

Methodology

In this section, I discuss methods for obtaining the information associated with the targeted population**.** I include an explanation of how participants were selected for this study. I also explain how the data for this study were collected and how I calculated my sample size.

Population

The population I targeted for this study was inclusive of all counselor educators included on the ACES CESNET listserv for counselor educators and supervisor members represented on the listserv. There may be at least 3,000 counselors, educators, and administrators listed on the CESNET listserv website (ACES, 2016). I contacted ACES by e-mail regarding how I could gain access and subscribe to the ACES listserv run by Kent University, which is free to those who sign up and abide by specific rules. Dr. Wiggins responded to my request without delay and provided me with a link to process my request to have access to the ACES listserv. The link Dr. Wiggins provided to me

was http://www.cesnet-1net/signup/signup.html; this web address took me to a website that allowed me to make my request to use the CES listserv. I received permission to subscribe to the listserv on July 11, 2016 (see Appendix A).

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

My strategy for the present study was a nonrandom convenience sampling that was anonymous and included counselor education faculty who worked in counselor academic programs. I collected a nonrandom convenience sample because I could only use the surveys that were returned via Survey Monkey. Volunteers self-selected for inclusion in the study**.**

Procedures for Recruitment and Data Collection

I sent an invitation to participate in the research to the listserv, which included the names of faculty in the ACES CESNET database (see Appendix B). Following the guidance of Jaccard and Becker (2002), I had a conservative expectation of a 10% survey response rate. My process for choosing participants from the ACES database was a nonrandom anonymous convenience sample based in part on the location of participants. I did not extend participation in this study to other counseling professionals (e.g., counseling psychologists, licensed marriage and family counselors, and social workers) or graduate students enrolled in a program. At the beginning, I set Survey Monkey to ask an inclusionary question such as "Are you a faculty member of a counselor education master's or doctoral program?" If participants answered "no," they automatically went to an exit page thanking them for participating and explaining that they did not meet the inclusion criteria for my study. If participants answered "yes," they came to an informed consent page, and upon accepting participation, they went to a demographic

questionnaire and were subsequently directed to the survey questions. If participants did not accept the informed consent, they were directed to a "thank you" page. I included only the survey and demographic data in this study. The demographic information I gathered was the following: (a) number of continuing education classes participants took as postgraduates, (b) gender, (c) ethnicity, (d), socioeconomic data, and (e) age. Information gathered through the demographic questionnaire might provide information regarding whether respondents incorporated social justice and advocacy into their personal and/or professional lives. My exclusion of professionals in related professions made my study results less generalizable to other mental health professionals.

At the completion of the study, I collected the survey data from Survey Monkey from a file that I downloaded into an Excel file. I analyzed the data by calculating the Likert-scale scores for each survey item. Debriefing participants was not necessary because this was a descriptive study; however, I will make summaries of results available to those participants who request them. My contact information was included in the informed consent. There were no follow-up procedures required, given that this was a one-contact-only research protocol.

Data Analysis

The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient is the statistical analysis that researchers use to determine if there is a significant relationship between continuous variables (Frankfort-Nachmias & Nachmias, 2008). My research was not intended to determine causation. For tests of association using Pearson product-moment correlations, researchers consider a moderate correlation between variables to be meaningful (Boslaugh & Watters, 2008). I could not locate any reported effect sizes from the studies

I reviewed; therefore, I chose a moderate effect size for the following G*Power analysis (Borenstein, Hedges, Higgins, & Rothstein, 2009). I ran a G*Power analysis with a moderate effect size[*r*] = 0.30, α err prob = 0.05 (level of difference), and 0.80 power (1-β err prob). For analyses that needed specification, I selected two tails, as I did not specify the direction of the correlation, such as negative or positive. I conducted calculations for the sample size using the G*Power for a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Results indicated that the sample size I needed was 84 participants.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

In this section, I describe the instruments for this study. These include the Social Issues Advocacy Scale and the Social Justice Scale. In addition, I address information that researchers have provided about instrument reliability and validity, followed by some sample questions indicative of these measures.

Social Issues Advocacy Scale (SIAS; Nilsson et al., 2011). The authors' stated purpose was to develop a scale to assess social justice advocacy attitudes and behaviors that could be used in several professional and academic fields after their extensive search of the literature revealed no instruments that met the criteria. Nilsson et al. developed the SIAS after exploring and performing two previous studies. In the development of their scale, Nilsson et al. covered three all-purpose areas: (a) personal social justice advocacy, (b) professional advocacy, and (c) legislative advocacy (Fietzer & Ponterotto, 2015).

The first study that these authors conducted to validate this scale included 278 participants (78% women, 93% students). The researchers used a principal component

analysis (PCA) to determine four factors: (a) Political and Social Attitudes, (b) Political Awareness, (c) Social Issues Awareness, and (d) Confronting Discrimination subscales. In the second confirmatory study, Nilsson used 509 undergraduate and graduate students for evidence of the internal structure of the SIAC (Fietzer & Ponterotto, 2015). The correlation between the subscales ranged from .14 to .63, supporting the evidence that the relationship between the SIAC and its subscales was "robust" (Fietzer & Ponterotto, 2015, p. 27). There is compelling evidence that there is consistent internal reliability of the SIAS (Fietzer & Ponterotto, 2015).

The SIAS is a 5-point Likert scale containing 21 total questions. The Social and Political Advocacy subscale contains eight items. The Confronting Discrimination subscale contains three items. The Political Awareness subscale contains six items, and finally the Social Issue Awareness subscale has four items. All 21 items for the scale are rated from 1 = *strongly disagree* to 5 = *strongly agree*. A sample question for the Political and Social Advocacy subscale is "I participate in demonstrations or rallies about social issues that are important to my profession." A sample question for the Political Awareness subscale is "I keep track of important bills/legislative issues that are being debated in Congress that affect my profession." A sample question for the Social Issues awareness subscale is "Societal forces (e.g., public policies, resource allocation, human rights) affect individuals' health and well-being." Finally, a sample question for the Confronting Discrimination subscale is "I am professionally responsible to confront colleagues who display signs of discrimination toward the elderly" (Nilsson et al., 2011).

Possible total scores for this scale range from 21 to 105. The possible scores for subscales are as follows: Scores can range from 8 to 40 for the Social and Political

Advocacy subscale; from 3 to 15 for the Confronting Discrimination subscale; from 6 to 30 for the Political Awareness subscale; and from 4 to 20 for the Social Issue Awareness subscale. High scores on the subscales indicate a strong endorsement for the items in the subscale (Nilsson et al., 2011).

Researchers have used the SIAS scale with both men and women, with participants between the ages 18-60, and with those identified as Caucasian, African American, Asian/Pacific Islander, and Latino/Hispanic, and multiethnic. As part of the procedure in developing the SIAS, Nilsson et al. (2011) "contacted instructors in counseling, psychology, medicine, nursing and education at both graduate and undergraduate levels at five different universities and colleges" for permission to recruit participants for their survey (Nilsson et al., 2011, p. 269). Nilsson et al. suggested that the SIAS might be suited for use in the professions of mental health and the education profession because this was the intended use of this scale. However, the scale could be limited in assessing a few specific social justice skills and activities exclusive to the professions of mental health and education (Nilsson et al., 2011).

The research that I conducted on the SIAS demonstrated that it has a reliability of $\theta = .93$; the Political and Social Advocacy (PSA) subscale was $\theta =. 93$; the Political Awareness subscale was $\theta = .89$; the Social Issues Awareness subscale was $\theta = .89$; and the Confronting Discrimination subscale was $\theta = .89$. Correlation of the subscales of the SIAS was also found to be significant ($\alpha = .01$) and had medium to large positive correlations (Nilsson et al., 2011, p. 269). This means that all of the subscales and the total scales are related but measure different aspects of social justice and advocacy. I

received permission to use this scale from Johanna E. Nilsson via email (see Appendix C).

I searched Academic Search Complete, Sage, Google, and PsycARTICLES looking for research using the SIAS and located an article by Landmark, Zhang, Ju, McVey, and Ji (2017). The purpose of the research by Landmark et al. was to investigate the advocacy experiences of people with disabilities and the family dynamics of engaging in advocacy efforts. However, Landmark et al. only used Nilsson et al. (2011) as a citation and reference, indicating that the questions for their research were devised from Nilsson and other researchers (Landmark et al., 2017).

Social Justice Scale (SJS; Torres-Harding et al., 2012). The SJS was developed to assess attitudes regarding social justice, self-efficacy, willingness to support social justice, and commitment to social justice endeavors. Torres-Harding et al. noted that "The SJS itself does not measure behavioral performance, but rather assesses intentions to engage in social justice related behaviors and can be used as a tool to link social justice related attitudes and behaviors" (p. 86). The SJS is a 7-point Likert scale containing 24 total questions and consists of four difference scales: Social Justice Attitudes (11 items), Social Justice Perceived Behavioral Control (5 items), Social Justice Subjective Norms (4 items), and Social Justice Behavioral Intentions (4 items). The SJS takes 20-30 minutes to complete (Torres-Harding et al., 2012). All 24 items are rated on a scale ranging from 1 = *disagree strongly* through 4 = *neutral* to 7 = *strongly agree*.

A sample question for the Social Justice Attitudes subscale is "I believe that it is important to make sure that all individuals and groups have a chance to speak and be heard, especially those from traditionally marginalized groups." A sample question for

the Social Justice Perceived Behavioral Control subscale is "I am confident that I can have a positive impact on others' lives." A sample question from the Social Justice Subjective Norms subscale is "Other people around me are engaged in activities that address social injustices." Finally, a sample question for the Social Justice Behavioral Intention subscale is "In the future, I will do my best to ensure that all individuals and groups have a chance to speak and be heard" (Torres-Harding et al., 2012).

The interval scores derived from these responses range from 1 to 7 points, with 7 points representing the strongest value for beliefs per item. The possible total scores for this scale range from 24 to 168. The possible scores for subscales are as follows: the Social Justice Attitudes subscale can range from 11 to 77; the Social Justice Perceived Behavioral Control subscale can range from 5 to 35; the Social Justice Subjective Norms subscale can range from 4 to 28; and the Social Justice Behavioral Intentions subscale can range from 4 to 28. High scores on the subscales indicate a strong endorsement for the items in the subscale (Torres-Harding et al., 2012).

Researchers have used the SJS with both men and women. Researchers have also used it with students from both undergraduate and graduate programs. Furthermore, researchers have administered the SJS to individuals who identified as European American, African American, Latino, Asian American, Middle Eastern, and multiethnic or multiracial (Torres-Harding et al., 2012).

Researchers using the SJS reported that Cronbach's alphas for the four subscales were as follows: Attitudes - .95, Subjective Norms - .82, Perceived Behavioral Control (self-efficacy) - .84, and Intentions - .88. These scores indicate strong internal consistency across the four factors, which are related to my study of self-efficacy. I

received permission to use this scale from Susan R. Torres-Harding via email (see Appendix D).

I searched Academic Search Complete, Sage, Google, and PsycARTICLES looking for articles for which researchers used the SJS. Cirik (2015) conducted research using the "Social Justice Scale's Turkish form" (p. 23). The Turkish form of the SJS has 24 items with four factors: (a) attitudes towards social justice, (b) perceived behavioral control, (c) subjective norms, and (d) behavioral intentions (Cirik, 2015). The consensus of the researchers was that the Turkish form of the SJS would assist in measuring the views of future teachers regarding social justice (Cirik, 2015). Cirik conducted research at a university in Istanbul, Turkey, using 515 participants (376 female and 139 male); it was not clear whether the participants were educators. Cirik stated that the purpose of the study was to analyze the psychometric characteristics of the SJS Turkish form, and secondly, "to determine the effects of social justice attitudes, subjective norms, and perceived behavioral control on behavioral intentions" (p. 23). However, later in that paper, Cirik stated the purpose differently, claiming that "the primary aim of this study is to analyze linguistic equivalence, validity, and reliability of SJS. The second aim was to test Ajzen's (1991) model upon whose basis the scale was constructed" (p. 27). After reading this research, I found it difficult to learn the differences between the Torres-Harding et al. (2012) SJS and the SJS Turkish form; however, Cirik did petition Torres-Harding to alter the SJS and received via e-mail. The outcome of the SJS Turkish form was difficult for me to determine based on the stated purpose and stated aim of this work.

Operationalization

I used a correlation to analyze my research question to determine whether there was a relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the importance of social justice and advocacy with faculty taking action in social justice initiatives in their personal and professional lives. As measured by the Social Justice Scale (Torres-Harding et al., 2012) or the Social Issues Advocacy Scale (Nilsson et al., 2011), it is not known if there is a strong Pearson product correlation coefficient ($r \geq 0.80$) between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the importance of social justice and advocacy. I performed the Pearson product moment correlation that answered and determined the correlation coefficient between faculty attitudes and beliefs.

Data Analysis Plan

I used the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 24 to analyze the data for this study. Regardless of my method for collecting data (including surveys), all methods must have a way of translating the data for analysis (Fowler, 2014). According to Fowler (2014), the translation of the research data into a method that I can analyze the data, requires four stages: (1) Make rules by which a respondent's answer will be assigned a value (code) (2) Provide a method to place respondents' answers into the correct data category. The third (3) Place the data into a form adequate for a computer and (4) engage in data cleaning and do a final check of the data for accuracy.

When a computer-assisted self-interviewing (CASI) type of survey is used, the respondent enters his or her responses directly into a computer eliminating the opportunity for interviewer's errors in translating respondents' answers to the survey questions (Fowler, 2014). When and if the researcher discovers no data checks

completed at the time of entering the data, the researcher checks for internal consistency at the time of discovery (Fowler, 2014). I checked the survey to make sure the participants answered all questions and checked for outliers. Boslaugh and Watters (2008) stated that an outlier is recognition that one value is obviously different from the others being analyzed in the data set; often when performing a correlation, the data shows a difference in the two variables. Outliers are sometimes referenced as data that appears to originate from a population other than the variables being researched (Boslaugh & Watters, 2008). I downloaded the survey Excel data file into SPSS for survey calculations. A researcher should check to make sure the population being researched is the same (Boslaugh & Watters, 2008). A researcher can detect outliners by using SPSS to perform a scatterplot, a normal distribution (aka a bell curve), or a histogram (Boslaugh & Watters, 2008).

Research Question and Hypotheses

RQ: Is there a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy, and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives?

H_0: There is not a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy as measured by the Social Justice Scale (Torres-Harding, Siers, & Olson, 2012) and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives as measured by the Social Issues Advocacy Scale (Nilsson, Marszalek, Linnemeyer, Bahner, & Misilek, 2011).

H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy as measured by the Social Justice Scale and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives as measured by the Social Issues Advocacy Scale.

Analysis Plan

I calculated the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to analyze the highest recommended power size for this study. Concerning multiple statistical tests, I did not employ multiple statistical tests for each hypothesis; also, this study did not employ covariates or confounding variables. I interpreted the results of this study based on Interval scale scores derived from the instruments noted already. I did not use other measures noted in this topic (e.g., key parameter estimates) given that, this study was descriptive**.**

Threats to Validity

The term validity is a term used by psychologists and methodologists to describe a relationship between a response and the actual score of the responses to the research questions; the object of validity is to make an error as small as possible in that responses reflect a true score (Fowler, 2014). When an error is connected to answers that are random, causing answers slanted in one direction or another direction there will be less confidence that the research is measuring what is meant to be measured (Fowler, 2014). There are various possible threats to external validity. These threats may include an inability to generalize data to others who do not have the same demographic and experiential attributes due to my reliance on nonprobability sampling techniques (Creswell, 2014).

There are also numerous possible threats to internal validity. These threats included the potential self-selection of responders to the questionnaires who become participants, (i.e. will most responders to the questionnaires have very positive attitudes about social justice and advocacy) causing a restriction of range in the participant population (Creswell, 2014). Boslaugh and Watters (2008) reported internal validity can only be determined if no biases exist that bring about wrongly identifying the explanatory variables in the research. Internal validity can be threatened via, methodical biases when selecting the study group, such as if the researcher introduces an intentional bias to establish causal relationships, for example "self-serving bias" when including participants who asked to be included in the research, and "involving self-ratings that make the participants look-good" (p. 99). In addition, questionnaire responses might provide a false positive rating if many participants attempted to answer surveys in the direction they assume the researcher favors; this can possibly be considered weighting the response (Fowler, 2014). However, for this study I did not communicate with the participants or know the respondents of the survey.

Ethical Procedures

This study did not involve any actual human contact; however, there was possibly the risk of potential harm to the participants. For this study, the risk to participants was deemed low, but risks could include participants experiencing uncomfortable feelings when answering questions. Some ways to reduce risk to the participants can include that all participants remain anonymous and only I as the researcher will have access to the collected data and submit a statement of maintaining confidentiality and minimize any potential links between the answers and identifiers (Fowler, 2014).

Only my committee and I had access to the research data. When accessing the Survey Monkey website and my survey, respondents were first directed to an informed consent (See Appendix E). The informed consent included the following: (a) an accurate brief description of the purpose for my study, (b) a description of how participant information would be kept confidential, (c) the known benefits and risks for participation, (d) my contact information should participants have questions or want to know the results of the study. Next part (e), information about free or reduced cost counseling via a 1-800 number should participants incur any uncomfortable feelings they would like to further explore and (f) that participation is voluntary and participants can withdraw from the study at any time without penalty (Fowler, 2014). After providing electronic indication of consent, participants were directed to the demographic questionnaire and then to the survey.

I did not collect any identifying information; therefore, the respondents were not placed at risk for repercussions of any type. The protection of the research respondent's identity was of upmost importance to me as the researcher. There was no identifiable information linking participants with their survey such as e-mail addresses or names (Fowler, 2014). At the conclusion of my study, the data file provided by Survey Monkey was not accessible to anyone except my committee and me (Fowler, 2014). I protected the research data by using a password that is to known only me on a computer in a locked cabinet; I will keep the data for five years. According to Survey Monkey (2016), survey collections have Transport Layer Security (TLS) enabled to encrypt respondent traffic, the encryption ensures that user data in transit is safe, secure, and available only to intended recipients.

I collected no data prior to my receiving permission to conduct the study by the IRB and I did not collect data from my work place or from people I know professionally. While the risk of an adverse event was minimal with this study, should one have occurred, I would have immediately contacted my chair and the IRB to report it. Once the five-year period for data retention is over, I will delete the data from the computer, its hard drive, and recycle bin by using appropriate methods.

Summary

Scholars have summarized that the inclusion of social justice and advocacy into the training of graduate counseling students would be valuable and important if budding counselors are to be of benefit to his or her future clients (Kiselica & Robinson, 2001; Myers et al., 2002; Ratts, 2009**;** Ratts et al., 2016). My purpose for this quantitative survey study was to explore the relationship between the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor education faculty and the importance they place upon the addition of social justice, advocacy concepts, and practices in their personal and professional lives. I used a nonrandom convenience sampling strategy to solicit participation for my study from counselor educators who have worked in counselor academic programs.

I used the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient as a valid description to determine if there was a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy, and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives. In Chapter 4, I discuss how I collected my data, my analysis procedures, and the results of the study.

Chapter 4: Results

My purpose for this quantitative survey research was to examine the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of university counselor educators and the importance they placed upon the addition of social justice advocacy concepts and practices in their personal and professional lives. I performed an extensive search of the literature, and I discovered no research suggesting that there is a relationship between faculty members' attitudes and beliefs as compared to their actions regarding the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in their personal and professional lives. I created the research hypothesis to answer this question:

RQ: Is there a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy, and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives?

H_0: There is not a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy as measured by the Social Justice Scale (Torres-Harding, Siers, & Olson, 2012) and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives as measured by the Social Issues Advocacy Scale (Nilsson, Marszalek, Linnemeyer, Bahner, & Misilek, 2011).

H_1: There is a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy as measured by the Social Justice Scale and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in $t_h$eir personal and professional lives as measured by the Social Issues Advocacy Scale.

In this chapter, I discuss the demographic characteristics of my respondents, the time frame for data collection, and the exclusion criteria for removal from the data set. I note the necessity of sending respondent requests through Counsel for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) and ACA Connect forum to meet the minimum sample size required based upon setting the power level of the statistical test. I also discuss the survey items, how I obtained them, and how I divided them into two parts for my research hypothesis. I also discuss the survey results as well as the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and its statistical appropriateness for the analysis. In addition, I present the limitations of the survey items.

Data Collection

I received approval for the research from the IRB in October 2017 (Approval # 10-04-17-0231765, expiring October 3, 2018). After I received the approval, I created the survey and posted it on Survey Monkey on October 16, 2017. I conducted calculations for the sample size using G*Power and a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient requiring a sample size of 84 participants. I sent an invitation to participate in the research to the faculty in the ACES CESNET database. I sent the first invitation letter for participation in the research to the CESNET database on October 16, 2017. I sent follow-up posts weekly through the month of October and subsequently through the month of November through December 18, 2017. There were 26 responses to the initial invitation to participate in the research via the CESNET database. I made a request to the IRB on November 7, 2017 for permission to send an invitation to the ACA's Connect-Call for Study Participants site, which the IRB approved on November 16, 2017. I submitted an invitation letter to the ACA Connect site on the 17th. On

December 15, 2017, I sent a change in procedure form to the IRB because after 2 months, I had gathered approximately 26 responses and most of those respondents had not completed the survey. I requested access to the Council for Accreditation of Counseling and Related Educational Programs (CACREP) directory, which is public and lists all CACREP-approved universities and colleges in the United States, along with individual email addresses of the faculty. The IRB approved the request to use the CACREP directory on December 14, 2017. I sent the first direct emails to faculty who were listed as licensed counselors on December 18, 2017. I resumed sending emails on January 4, 2018, due to universities and colleges being closed for the Christmas and New Year's holidays. I sent a minimum of 25 direct emails daily to faculty members in the CACREP directory for universities and colleges until February 2, 2018. I sent 814 emails to faculty members who met the criteria and whose email addresses were available.

There were 127 respondents to the survey, but only 84 respondents completed all 38 Likert-scale items by February 7, 2018. I had to remove the other 43 respondents from the data set because they did not complete all of the 38 questions. Six of the remaining 84 respondents skipped one or more of the demographic items, so their removal from the data set was necessary. Thus, there were 78 respondents included in the statistical analysis for this study from 820 invitations, yielding a response rate of 9.5%.

The survey had 48 questions, with the first 10 including a qualifying question, the informed consent, and the eight-item demographic questionnaire. There were 38 Likert-scale survey questions. Twenty-four questions assessed beliefs and attitudes of counselor educators regarding social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives.

The other 14 questions assessed actions. I used all 24 beliefs and attitudes questions from the SJS. I obtained the action questions from the SIAS, which included 21 items. I omitted seven of those items because their content examined beliefs and attitudes and they were very similar to questions on the SJS and would have invalidated the Pearson product-moment correlation for the two scales. Given the lack of population parameters regarding counselor educators, I cannot determine the generalizability of this sample. It is logical to assume that the actual respondents in this study were those counselor educators who were already interested in the topic of social justice and advocacy.

Demographic Results

The respondents indicated that as postgraduates, they had a range of 0 to 100 continuing education hours on social justice and advocacy, with a mean of 4.96 hours. Forty-six percent (n = 36) indicated having coursework about social justice and advocacy in their own graduate programs, and 54% (n = 42) denied having any coursework (i.e., an entire class devoted to social justice and advocacy). Thirty-one percent (n = 24) of the respondents identified themselves as male, and 69% (n = 54) identified themselves as female. Four percent (n = 3) preferred not to answer the question concerning gender. Seventy-four percent (n = 58) of respondents identified themselves as heterosexuals, 1% (n = 1) of respondents identified as lesbian, 5% (n = 4) of respondents identified themselves as gay, 8% (n = 6) identified themselves as bisexual, 6% (n = 5) identified themselves as other, and 5% (n = 4) preferred not to say. Seventy-three percent (n = 57) of respondents identified themselves as White, nonHispanic; 13% (n = 10) identified themselves as Black, nonHispanic; 3% (n = 2) identified themselves as Asian; 1% (n = 1) identified as Native American/Pacific Islander, 3% (n = 2) identified themselves as

Hispanic, and 8% (n = 6) identified themselves as multiethnic. Twelve percent (n = 9) identified their childhood economic status as under $25,000 per year, 42% ($n$ = 33) identified their status as between $25,000 and $50,000 per year, 17% ($n$ = 13) identified their status as $50,000 to $75,000 per year, 15% ($n$ = 12) identified their status as $75,000 to $100,000 per year, and 14% (n = 11) identified their status as over $100,000 per year. Twenty-nine percent (n = 23) identified themselves as ages 25 to 35, 28% (n = 22) identified themselves as ages 36 to 45, 19% (n = 15) identified themselves as ages 46 to 55, 21% (n = 16) identified themselves as ages 56 to 65, and 3% (n = 2) identified themselves as 66 or older.

I used a nonprobability convenience sample. Given the inherent limitations of convenience samples, there may be a low degree of generalizability (i.e., external validity in this sample). Those respondents who completed the survey could have positive thoughts and feelings about including social justice and advocacy in their curricula and in their personal and professional practices. There is no way to obtain additional data about this issue, given the anonymous nature of the survey.

Results

I collected the data by emailing the survey regarding faculty members' attitudes and beliefs and their actions regarding the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in their personal and professional lives. One-hundred twenty-seven respondents returned surveys. Eighty-four respondents completed all of the attitude and behavioral survey items. Six of those 84 respondents failed to complete all of the demographic items. I included the remaining 78 respondents in the statistical analysis. I exported the data into Microsoft Excel, where I began the data cleaning. I examined the exported data,

identifying and then deleting respondents who had missing data. After cleaning the data, which required eliminating respondents because of incomplete responses, I exported the data to IBM SPSS Statistics Version 24 to perform the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to measure the relationship between faculty members' attitudes and beliefs and their actions regarding the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts into their personal and professional lives. I also ran a scatterplot to illustrate the relationship between faculty members' attitudes and beliefs and their actions regarding the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in their personal and professional lives.

I used the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient because my data set met all of the underlying assumptions necessary for use of that statistical test (i.e., normality, homogeneity of variance, interval data, and independence). I obtained my data set from populations with normal distributions of scores and homogeneous variance throughout those normal distributions. The data sets were interval data. These were repeated measures, but the respondents were responding to two different behavioral sets: expressing attitudes and beliefs and the independent set of acting on those beliefs. Thus, I met all of the underlying assumptions required for valid use of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient.

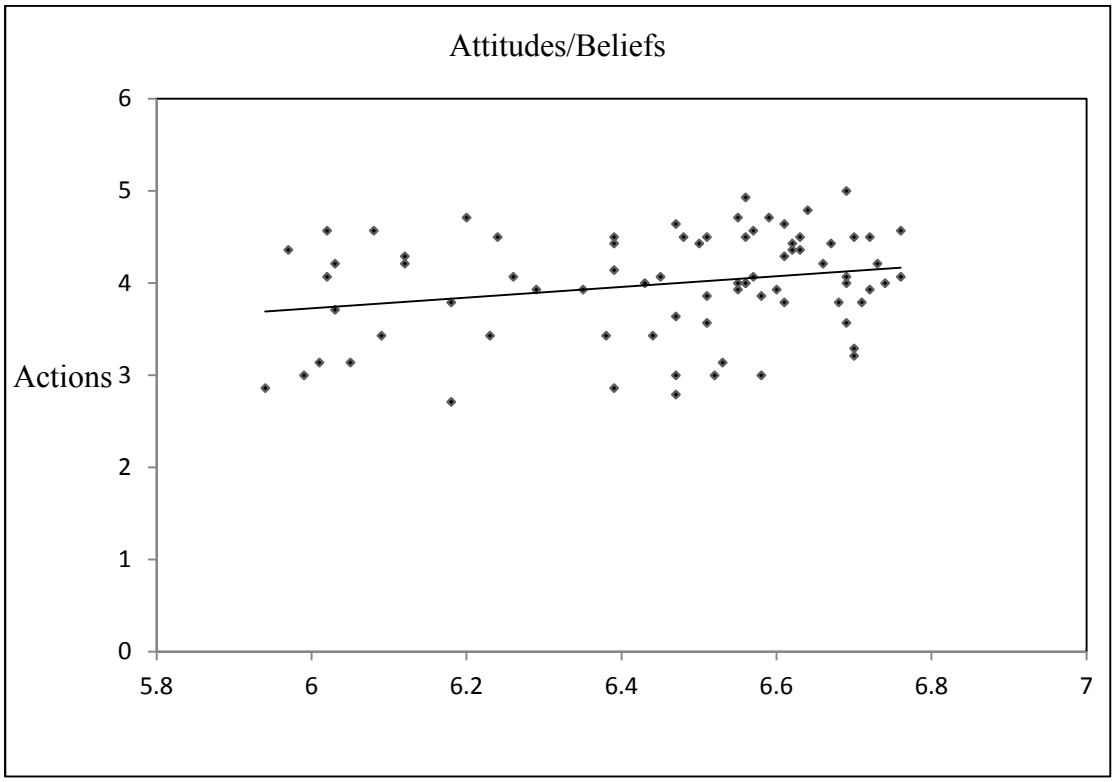

Figure1. Scatterplot correlation of social justice advocacy attitudes/beliefs with actions related to social justice and advocacy. X axis = Social Justice and Advocacy attitudes/beliefs average scores, as measured by Likert-scale Items 1 to 24. Y axis = Social Justice and Advocacy actions average scores, as measured by Likert-scale Items 25 to 38.

I did not include any treatment interventions in my study, and its anonymous nature precludes any measurements of possible adverse effects, even though these adverse effects are extremely unlikely. No participant reported any adverse events in this study. I used the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to test my alternative hypothesis that there is a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy as measured by the SJS (Torres-Harding et al., 2012) and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives as measured by the SIAS (Nilsson et al., 2011). The Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient I used to test the

hypothesis yielded a moderate correlation ($r = 0.40$, $p < .001$) between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives. A Pearson product-moment correlation is considered strong if it is over 0.50, moderate if it is between 0.50 and 0.20, and weak if it is below 0.20 (Field, 2009, p. 57). Given the moderate Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient and $p < .001$, I rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis. There was a statistically significant relationship between counselor educators who expressed higher levels of beliefs and attitudes in support of social justice correlated with higher levels of social justice actions. There were no other hypotheses that emerged from the main hypothesis in this study.

Table 1

Correlation

		Actions	Attitudes/Beliefs
Actions	Pearson correlation	1	0.40*
	Sig (2 tailed)	---	0.00
	N	78	78
Attitudes/Beliefs	Pearson correlation	0.40*	1
	Sig (2-tailed)	0.00	---
	N	78	78

**p* < .05, two-tailed.

Comparison of differences based on participant race/ethnicity was not possible due to an insufficient sample size to conduct such an analysis. Fifty-seven of the

respondents were White, and 21 were in the combined nonWhite groups. I performed a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient on the respondents (36) who had classes on social justice and advocacy in their graduate program ($r = 0.30$, $p = .07$). I performed a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient on the respondents (42) who had not had social justice and advocacy classes in their graduate program ($r = 0.15$, $p = .36$). The Fisher *r* to *z* test I performed yielded a *z* score of 0.67 with a one-tailed *p* value of .25. Of importance to this study, I concluded that there was not a significant difference for counselor educators who followed through with actions consistent with their beliefs and attitudes regarding social justice and advocacy that aligned with whether they had social justice and advocacy classes in their graduate program or not.

I performed a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient on the 54 female respondents and obtained a moderate correlation ($r = 0.30$, $p = .02$). I performed a Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient on the 24 male respondents ($r = 0.30$, $p = .16$). The Fisher *r* to *z* test that I performed yielded a *z* score of -0.08 and a one-tailed *p* value of .47. I concluded that there was not a significant difference between male and female respondents in terms of following through with actions consistent with their beliefs and attitudes regarding social justice and advocacy.

Summary

The research question that I explored was the following: Is there a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives? The final sample size for this study was 78, and I used a Pearson product-moment correlation to analyze the results. I obtained significant results

indicating a moderate correlation ($r = 0.40$, $p < .001$) between counselor educators' attitudes and beliefs about the value of social justice and advocacy and counselor educators taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives. Therefore, I rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis for this sample. Thus, counselor educators who expressed positive attitudes and beliefs about social justice and advocacy tended to be more active in including social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives. I then performed post hoc analyses comparing the scores of 57 White and 21 nonWhite participants, 54 female and 24 male participants, and those 36 participants who had classes on social justice and advocacy in their graduate programs versus those 42 who had not. I did not find any significant differences for any of my comparisons for these subgroups.

In Chapter 5, I discuss my interpretation of these findings, limitations of this study, and limitations to the generalizability of the study. I discuss the implications of this study and recommendations for future research related to this study. I conclude Chapter 5 with a summary of the findings and outcome of the study.

Chapter 5: Discussion

My purpose for this study was to examine the relationship between the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of university counselor educators and the importance they placed on social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives. I found that there were no evidence-based studies identifying a correlation between the attitudes, beliefs, and actions of counselor educators regarding social justice and advocacy and the importance that these faculty place on the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in their personal and professional lives. My research question was the following: Is there a statistically significant relationship between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy, and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives? I used the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient to test the hypothesis. The result yielded a moderate correlation ($r = 0.401$, $p = 0.00$) between faculty attitudes and beliefs regarding the value of social justice and advocacy and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives. Therefore, I rejected the null hypothesis and demonstrated the alternative hypothesis to be valid for this sample. Thus, counselor educators who expressed positive attitudes and beliefs about social justice and advocacy tended to be more active in including social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives.

I also examined relationships between different ethnic groups, males and females, and counselor educators who did or did not have social justice and advocacy coursework; these comparisons did not yield any significant differences between members of those subgroups. There were no significant differences between White and nonWhite

participants, between male and female participants, or between participants who had social justice and advocacy courses in their graduate curriculum and those who did not. In the remainder of this chapter, I discuss my interpretations of the findings, the limitations of my study, and my recommendations for future research on this topic, and finally the implications of my study toward social change.

Interpretation of the Findings

Cognitive transformations, no matter the means, happen through a universal or familiar course of action; this means that despite the split between theory and application, the two are united and reinforced by successful achievements (Bandura, 1977). Mayhew and Fernández (2007) reported that according to SCT, when people achieve self-efficacy (i.e., self-confidence in being capable of successfully completing a task), they gain incremental levels of change in their behavior, and these discernible behavioral changes increase the likelihood of them becoming social justice advocates.

Comparison to Miller et al. (2009)

Miller et al. (2009) conducted a theory-driven empirical study within a social justice domain to study the social justice interest and commitment of undergraduate college students. The intent of the Miller et al.'s study was to explore the psychological processes involved in college students' interest in, and commitment to, social justice. Miller et al. studied undergraduate college students (n = 274) using the social-cognitive career theory (SCCT), based on Bandura's SCT, to determine how students developed an interest in and commitment to social justice concerns. Since its inception in 1994, researchers have used the SCCT in empirical research, proving its ability to articulate self-efficacy (Miller et al., 2009).

Miller et al. (2009) administered the SIQ to learn about students' knowledge regarding social inequality and their engagement in social justice activities (Miller et al., 2009). In the social justice activities/outcome expectations section, higher scores indicated the participant's high expectations of becoming involved in social justice advocacy activities (Miller et al., 2009). Miller et al. aimed to assess whether SCCT could show how college students might develop an interest in social justice and commitment, and what roles self-efficacy and outcome expectations would have in developing an interest in and commitment to social justice. Their study confirmed that self-efficacy, when compared with outcome expectations, had a strong influence on students' development of an interest in social justice (Miller et al., 2009).

The Miller et al. (2009) study also confirmed that once an interest in social justice was developed, interest could then lead to a commitment in social justice advocacy; "in addition, self-efficacy had an indirect effect (through outcome expectations) on social justice interest" (p. 501). Miller et al. explained, "the higher one's outcome expectations specific to social justice activities, the more likely that one will become interested in social justice-specific activities" (p. 501). The outcome of the study described a considerable amount of difference between participants' "social justice interest (56%) and social justice commitment (70%)" (Miller et al., 2009, p. 501). Miller et al. concluded that the findings of this research bolster the value of core SCCT model variables to predict college students' interest in social justice, which then can lead to a commitment. Students showing interest in social justice advocacy activities based on their self-efficacy might support the attitudes and beliefs area of my current research and Bandura's theory of self-efficacy. However, I found a lack of significant differences

between counselor educators who had social justice and advocacy coursework and those who did not. There were no significant differences between those two groups related to their attitudes and beliefs and their actions regarding inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts in their personal and professional lives.

Comparison to Miller and Sendrowitz (2011)

Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) embarked on researching what could cause doctoral counseling psychology students to maintain an interest in social justice since the assimilation of the concept into a class. The 2011 study was a reexamination of a study done by Miller et al. (2009) using undergraduate students (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). Miller and Sendrowitz determined that the educational setting would be important for social justice advocacy because it would include faculty attitudes about social justice and the modeling of faculty regarding social justice and advocacy.

Components of the Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) study also explored the educational environment of the students and the moral perspectives held by the sample population (n = 229), as these two components were not included in the 2009 Miller and Sendrowitz study. Another important reason for including the educational environment (which includes the attitudes of faculty) in the research was that the educational environment could provide students with the opportunity to discuss any concerns or lack of knowledge that they possessed about social justice (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011).

Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) used an existing model linked to social cognition as it related to an individual's social justice interest and commitment. Miller and Sendrowitz tested the interest hypothesis that domain-specific social justice efficacy would predict social justice interest. As they explained, "*social justice interest* (SJI)

refers to the pattern of likes, dislikes, and indifferences regarding social justice advocacy activities" (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011, p. 163). A hypothesis of Miller and Sendrowitz was that if educational environments provided trainees with supervision, resources, and time, then an interest in social justice advocacy might increase among the students.

Miller and Sendrowitz's (2011) research based on the interest hypothesis of Miller et al. (2009) concerning social justice self-efficacy (SJSE) did demonstrate both a direct and indirect effect on social justice interest; the interest hypothesis predicted that the domains would support an interest in social justice (Miller & Sendrowitz, 2011). The findings by Miller and Sendrowitz (2011) about beliefs in self-efficacy and a relationship to making a social justice commitment (SJC) contrasted with the 2009 research findings. As opposed to earlier findings, these researchers did find a positive direct relational effect between self-efficacy and SJC. Even though Miller and Sendrowitz's findings related to the population of students and I examined counseling faculty, the results of my research might support the findings of Miller and Sendrowitz. The respondents in my research supported the notion that their attitudes and beliefs related to their interest in social justice and advocacy as demonstrated through their actions in their personal and professional lives.

Comparison to Nilsson and Schmidt (2005)

Nilsson and Schmidt (2005) wanted to explore the predictors that caused students to become social justice advocacy proponents; the variables that these researchers explored were the age of participants, how many courses students had taken, and students' political inquisitiveness. The results of this study indicated that the most significant predictor variable for students' interest in becoming involved in social justice

advocacy was an interest in political and social issues (Nilsson & Schmidt, 2005). Nilsson and Schmidt concluded that political interest was the most important predictor of social justice and advocacy to the research participants compared to the other variables. The respondents in my current study answered political questions on the survey, such as questions about participating in rallies and supporting social justice concepts. Along with attitudes and beliefs, actions represented that social justice and advocacy were important to the respondents, but there was no indication that political interest was the most important predictor.

The results indicated that regardless of participant ethnicity, gender, or age, or participants having social justice and advocacy classes in their graduate programs, respondents were receptive regarding their attitudes, beliefs, and actions related to social justice and advocacy concepts in their personal and professional lives. Although my study did not include students, but rather counselor educators, the findings support previous studies indicating that counselor educators' attitudes/beliefs (self-efficacy) support their actions of including of social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives (see Miller et al. [2009] and Miller & Sendrowitz [2011]). There was no evidence in my research or the research noted above that age or gender related to being active in social justice and advocacy activities.

Interpretation of the Findings through Bandura's SCT

Through SCT, Bandura stressed the reciprocity between self-efficacy, outcome expectations, and the setting of goals. Self-efficacy possibly influences a person's cognitive ability to process information and to become motivated to try new and different actions (Bandura, 1989, 1993). Bandura (1977) reported that a researcher could best

judge theoretical methods based on their effectiveness in changing behavior. Bandura (1977) stated that if a theory does not take into consideration that how a person thinks can influence or determine the person's actions related to a construct, then that theory does not take into consideration the complexity of human behavior. When a person understands his or her motivation for behavioral changes, the likelihood of the person internalizing those changes is greater than behavioral changes based on "self-discovery" (Bandura, 1977, p. 4).

Bandura posited that people retain theories that have predictive power and explain reasons underlying behavioral changes (Bandura, 1977, 1989, 2001). When people determine that they have the ability to achieve a phenomenon, the basis of their belief is their self-perception of efficacy (Bandura, 1982, 1993). A self-efficacy perception, whether true or false, can determine the choice of participating in an activity (Bandura, 1982, 1993).

The results of my current research support Bandura's theory of self-efficacy as demonstrated by the confirmation that attitudes and beliefs supported the actions of participation in the concepts of social justice and advocacy by the respondents. A perception of self-efficacy determined how much effort a person would exert in pursuing or not pursuing an activity or idea regardless of any obstacles they needed to overcome (Bandura, 1982, 1993). The self-perception of efficacy is not a standalone belief, but involves the personal components of cognition, social skills, and behavioral skills before any action or performance can be demonstrated by an individual (Bandura, 1982, 1993). People with perceived self-efficacy can imagine or visualize that they will become successful in any perceived endeavors, without the ability to imagine or visualize that the

opposite will be true (Bandura, 1977, 1989). The results of my study showed that participants who had positive attitudes and beliefs about social justice and advocacy concepts were more likely to engage in social justice and advocacy actions in their professional and personal lives. It is likely that due to holding strong positive beliefs and attitudes toward social justice and advocacy, these participants had more confidence to engage in social justice and advocacy actions. Bandura found that an individual's perception of self-efficacy determined how much effort that person would exert in pursuing or not pursuing an activity or idea regardless of any obstacles he or she needed to overcome (Bandura, 1982, 1993). Therefore, the results of my study appear to support Bandura's theory.

However, it is logical to assume that the actual respondents, who self-selected to participate in this study, were those counselor educators who were already interested in the topic of social justice and advocacy. The respondents indicated that as postgraduates, they had a range of 0 to 100 continuing education hours on social justice and advocacy, with a mean of 4.96 hours. Forty-six percent (n = 36) indicated having coursework about social justice and advocacy in their own graduate programs, and 54% (n = 42) denied having such coursework. There was no indication that social justice and advocacy coursework affected the results of the findings in this study. Counselor educators who expressed positive attitudes and beliefs about social justice and advocacy tended to be more active in including social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives.

Limitations of the Study

In this section, I discuss the limitations of my study. One limitation of this study was that I did not use a random sample. I used a sample of convenience for this study. My participants self-selected for this study. It is quite probable that participants who self-selected to be included in my study already had generally positive ideas and feelings about social justice and advocacy issues whereas many who might not agree with or who had negative ideas regarding the concepts did not become respondents. I was unable to follow up with any questions about this issue due to the anonymous nature of the survey.

The study's findings are not generalizable to other mental health disciplines such as those of social workers, psychologists, or marriage and family therapists because I delimited my study to mental health counselor educators and did not include participants from those other disciplines. I was not able to generalize the results to counselor educators in rehabilitation or other types of counseling programs because of the different structure of their programs. I only included counselor educators in my sample.

Finally, correlations do not address cause-and-effect relationships; they only measure the relationship between two variables, which for my study were attitudes and behaviors related to including social justice and advocacy issues in graduate counseling curricula and acting for social justice and advocacy in one's personal and professional lives (Boslaugh & Watters, 2008). Thus, the limitations noted in Chapter 1 remain.

Recommendations

Future research could expand upon and improve my research design by making the following improvements or changes. My data were gathered from participants using an anonymous survey. Most likely, those participants who responded were those who

already had positive attitudes related to social justice and advocacy. Because survey research is an indirect measurement of behavior, future research might involve participants who have either positive and negative views or those with ambiguous views on social justice and advocacy.

The counseling profession may only contain potential participants who have positive ideas related to social justice and advocacy. I would recommend a cause-and-effect study that measures faculty members' self-efficacy for incorporating social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives, counselor educators' degree of administrative support for incorporating social justice and advocacy concepts in the classroom, and students' ratings of their own understanding of those concepts. Ideally, a longitudinal follow-up of students' commitment to social justice and advocacy in their counseling work could show the real-life effect of educators' varying levels of support for social justice and advocacy concepts.

In addition, classroom and survey research could include other mental health disciplines and their educators. Furthermore, researchers could format the structure of a survey and a demographic questionnaire so that participants were not using words and only numbers were required. The rationale for not using words and only using numbers would be to prevent the elimination of respondents from the final statistical analysis. For example, in this current study, there were 84 respondents to the survey. There were six respondent eliminations because the demographic questionnaire allowed write-ins and those participants chose not to write in their information. Future researchers might be interested in exploring whether counselor educators who have positive attitudes and

beliefs regarding social justice and advocacy are infusing the concepts in their classrooms.

Implications

It is possible that the results of my study can help increase awareness regarding any possible faculty attitudes, beliefs, and actions that might either facilitate or obstruct the eventual infusion of social justice and advocacy concepts into a curriculum. Understanding the relationship between faculty attitudes, beliefs, and actions, and how those might form support or barriers, might lead to the first step toward CE curriculum change that would be inclusive of social justice and advocacy concepts. Thereby, gaining knowledge about faculty attitudes, beliefs, and actions could help educators develop understanding about what is needed to contribute to a paradigm shift in how faculty conceptualize such potential practices within counselor education programs (Odegard & Vereen, 2010).

The inclusion of this paradigm in counseling and counselor education and supervision curriculum could lead to social change by helping researchers and educators to understand the relationship between faculty' attitudes and beliefs regarding social justice concepts and practices, and faculty taking action in social justice and advocacy initiatives in their personal and professional lives. The social justice advocacy concepts and actions are a part of the competencies developed by the American Counseling Association (Ratts, Toporek, & Lewis, 2010). This knowledge could lead to helping faculty develop a greater understanding regarding the need for their inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts taught in the counselor education and supervision curriculum. Social justice advocacy concepts, combined with multiculturalism, is

intended for educators to impart the concepts to their students, so that students will develop a greater understanding as to how injustices, inequities, and oppression, based on such factors as race and culture, can affect the mental well-being of their potential clients (Glosoff & Durham, 2010).

The potential impact for social change by the inclusion of social justice and advocacy in counseling programs, and counseling practices could broaden the perspective of counselor educators to become more sensitive to, and inclusive of, the needs of ethnic minority and disenfranchised counseling clients. This might help counselors improve their services with individuals and families (Brubaker et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Lewis et al., 2011; Ratts et al., 2016). Counselor educators who have negative opinions regarding social justice advocacy might become open to positive dialogue and research on the concepts of social justice and advocacy. The results from this current study may potentially enable a better understanding regarding the resistance from universities and their faculty to adding social justice and advocacy to the graduate mental health-counseling curriculum.

My study's major implication is that counselor educators who endorse high levels of positive attitudes and beliefs in support of social justice and advocacy also demonstrate actions in support of social justice and advocacy, such as political activism, employing social justice and advocacy in their professional practices, and supporting curricula that include courses in social justice and advocacy.

Conclusion

I completed a quantitative study to research if there was a correlation between the attitudes and beliefs of counselor educators regarding social justice and advocacy, and

their actions in their personal and professional lives. I included only mental health counselors teaching in graduate mental health-counseling programs for this research. I excluded other mental health professional from this research, for example, master's level social workers, marriage and family counselors, rehabilitation counselors, and substance abuse counselors all of whom teach in various colleges and universities graduate programs.

When this research began, I was not sure what to expect after not locating any empirical research on counselor educators and their attitudes, beliefs, and actions regarding the concepts of social justice and advocacy. The only related research was how important it was for counselor educators and their administrators to implement social justice and advocacy into graduate mental health counseling programs (Brubaker et al., 2010; Chang et al., 2010; Mills & Ballantyne, 2016; Ratts et al., 2010; Ratts et al., 2016). The results of my study demonstrated there was a significant relationship between faculty who had positive attitudes and beliefs about social change and advocacy and the actions that university counselor educators take regarding social justice and advocacy in their personal and professional lives. These faculty may be more likely, and willing, to implement social justice and advocacy concepts into their curriculum. This could potentially help fulfill the Association for Counselor Education and Supervision and the American Counseling Association Advocacy Competencies to support the inclusion of social justice and advocacy concepts into counselor education programs; thus, better preparing counselors to meet the needs of diverse clients.

References

Ajzen, I. (1991). The theory of planned behavior. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes, 50*(2), 179-211. doi:10.1016/0749-5978(91)90020-T

Arar, K. H., & Oplatka, I. (2016). Making sense of social justice in education: Jewish and Arab leaders' perspective in Israel. *Management in Education, 30*(2), 66-73. doi:10. 1177/08922020616631409

Arredondo, P., & Perez, P. (2003). Expanding multicultural competence through social justice leadership. *The Counseling Psychologist, 31*(3), 282-289. doi:10.1177/0011000003031003003

Bandura, A. (1977). *Social learning theory.* Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice-Hall.

Bandura, A. (1982). Self-efficacy mechanism in human agency. *American Psychologist, 37*(2), 22-147.

Bandura, A. (1989). Human agency in social cognitive theory. *American Psychologist, 44*(9), 1175-1184.

Bandura, A. (1993). Perceived self-efficacy in cognitive development and functioning. *Educational Psychologist, 28*(2), 117-148.

Bandura, A. (2001). Social cognitive theory: An agentic perspective. *Annual Review of Psychology, 52*, 1-26.

Bankston, C. L. (2010). Social justice: Cultural origins of a perspective and a theory. *The Independent Review, 15*(2), 165-178.

Bemak, F., Chung, C. Y., Talleyrand, R. M., Jones, H., & Daquin, J. (2011). Implementing multicultural social justice strategies in counselor education

training programs. *Journal for Social Action in Counseling and Psychology, 3*(1), 29-43.

Borenstein, M., Hedges, L. V., Higgins, J. P. T., & Rothstein, H. R. (2009). *Introduction to meta-analysis*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Boslaugh, S., & Watters, P. A. (2008). *Statistics in a nutshell: A desktop quick reference.* Sebastopol, CA: O'Reilly Media.

Bradley, L. J., Lewis, J., Hendricks, B., & Crews, C. R. (2008). *Advocacy: Implications for supervision training* (ACAPCD–13). Alexandra, VA: American Counseling Association.

Brubaker, M. D., Puig, A., Reese, R. F., & Young, J. (2010). Integrating social justice into counseling theories pedagogy: A case example. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 50*(2), 88-102.

Chang, C. Y., Crethar, H. C., & Ratts, M. J. (2010). Social justice: A national imperative for counselor education and supervision. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 50*(2), 82-87.

Chang, C. Y., Hays, D. G., & Milliken, T. F. (2009). Addressing social justice issues in supervision: A call for client and professional advocacy. *The Clinical Supervisor, 28*(1), 28-35.

Chung, R. C., & Bemak, F. (2013). Use of ethnographic fiction in social justice graduate counselor training. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 52*(1), 56-69. doi:10.1002/j.1556-6978. 2013. 0002x.x

Cirik, L. (2015). Psychometric characteristics of the Social Justice Scale's Turkish form and a structural equation modeling. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research, 61*, 23-44. doi:10.14689/ejer.2015.61.2

Coates, M. (2007). Social justice and pedagogy. *American Behavioral Scientist, 51*(4), 579-591.

Coe, R. (2002). *It's the effect size stupid: What effect size is and why it is important.* Retrieved from http://www.leeds.acuk/educa/documents/00002182.htm

Collins, S., Arthur, N., Brown, C., & Kennedy, B. (2015). Student perspectives: Graduate education facilitation of multicultural counseling and social justice competency. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 9*(2), 153-160. dx.doi.org/10.1037/tep0000070

Constantine, M. G., Hage, S. M., Kindaichi, M. M., & Bryant, R. (2007). Social justice and multicultural issues: Implications for the practice and training of counselors and counseling psychologists. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 85*(1)*,* 24-29.

Creswell, J. W. (2014). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach* (4th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE.

Crethar, H. C., & Ratts, M. J. (2008). Why social justice is a counseling concern. *Counseling Today, 50*(12), 24-25.

Dinther, M. V., Dochy, F., & Segers, M. (2011). Factors affecting students' self-efficacy in higher education. *Education Research Review, 6*(2), 95-108.

Field, A. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (3rd ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Fietzer, A. W., & Ponterotto, J. (2015). A psychometric review of instruments for social justice and advocacy attitudes. *Journal for Social Action in Counseling and Psychology, 7*(1), 19-40.

Fowler, F. J. (2014). *Survey research methods* (5th ed.). Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage .

Frankfort-Nachmias, C., & Nachmias, D. (2008). *Research methods in the social sciences* (7th ed.). New York, NY: Worth.

Ginns, P., Loughland, A., Tierney, R. J., Fryer, L., Amazan, R., & McCormick, A. (2015). Evaluation of the learning to teach for social justice-beliefs scale in an Australian context. *Higher Education Research & Development, 34*(2), 311-323. dx.doi.org/10. 1080/07294360.2014.956701

Glosoff, H. L., & Durham, J. C. (2010). Using supervision to prepare social justice counseling advocates. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 50*(2), 116-129.

Goodman, L. A., Laing, B., Helms, J. E., Latta, R. E., Sparks, E., & Weintraub, S. R. (2004). Training counseling psychologists as social justice agents: Feminist and multicultural principles in action. *The Counseling Psychologist, 32*(6), 793-836. doi:10. 1177/0011000004268802

G* Power 3.1 Manual. (2014, January 31). Retrieved from http://www.psycho.uni-duesseldorf.de/abteilungen/aap/gpower3

Hill, N. R. (2003). Promoting and celebrating multicultural competence in counseling trainees. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 43,* 39-51.

Jackson, J. (2000). What *ought* psychology to do? *American Psychologist, 55*(3), 328-338.

Jaccard, J., & Becker, M. A. (2002). *Statistics for the behavioral sciences,* (4th ed.). Belmont, CA: Wadsworth/Thompson Learning.

Kiselica, M. S., & Robinson, M. (2001). Bring advocacy counseling to life: The history, issues, and human dramas of social justice work in counseling. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 79*(4), 387-397.

Landmark, L. J., Zhang, D., Ju, S., McVey, T. C., & Ji, M. Y. (2017). Experiences of disability advocates and self – advocates in Texas. *Journal of Disability Policy Studies, 27*(4), 203-211. doi:10. 1177/1044207316657802

Lee, C. C. (2007). *Social justice: A moral imperative for counselors* (ACAPCD - 7). Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.

Lee, C. C., & Rogers, R. A. (2009). Counselor advocacy: Affecting systemic change in the public arena. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 87*(3), 284-287.

Lewis, J. A., Ratts, M. J., Paladino, D. A., & Toporek, R. L. (2011). Social justice counseling and advocacy: Developing new leadership roles and competencies. *Journal for Social Action in Counseling and Psychology, 3*(1), 5-16.

McDowell, T., & Shelton, D. (2002). Valuing ideas of social justice in MFT curricula. *Contemporary Family Therapy, 24*(2), 313-331.

Mallinckrodt, B., Miles, J. R., & Levy, J. J. (2014). The scientist-practitioner-advocate model: Addressing contemporary training needs for social justice advocacy. *Training and Education in Professional Psychology, 8*(40), 303-311. dx.doi.org/10.1037/tep0000045

Malott, K. M., & Knoper, T. (2012). Social justice in application: Counselor training in a legal context. *Journal for Social Action in Counseling and Psychology, 4*(2), 23-40.

Mayhew, M. J., & Fernández, S. D. (2007). Pedagogical practices that contribute to social justice outcomes. *The Review of Higher Education, 31*(1), 55-80.

Mays, V. M. (2000). A social justice agenda. *American Psychologist, 55*(3), 326-327. doi:10. 1037//0003-066X.53.3.326

Miller, M. J., Sendrowitz, K., Blanco, S., Muñz de la Peña, C., Bernadi, S., & Morere, L. (2009). College students' social justice interest and commitment: A social-cognitive perspective. *Journal of* Counseling *Psychology, 56*(4), 495-507. doi:10. 1037/a0017220

Miller, M. J., & Sendrowitz, K. (2011). Counseling psychology trainees' social justice interest and commitment. *Journal of Counseling Psychology, 58*(2), 159-169. doi:10.1037/a002663

Mills, C., & Ballantyne, J. (2016). Social justice and teacher education: A systematic review of empirical work in the field. *Journal of Teacher Education, 67*(4), 263-276.doi:10.1177/0022487116660152

Murray, C. E., Pope, A. L., & Rowell, P. C. (2010). Promoting counseling student's advocacy competencies through service-learning. *Journal for Social Action in Counseling and Psychology, 2*(2), 39-47.

Myers, J. E., Sweeney, T. J., & White, V. (2002). Advocacy for counseling and counselors: A professional imperative. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 80*(4), 394-402.

Nilsson, J. E., Marszalek, J. M., Linnemeyer, R. M., Bahner, A. D., & Misilek, L. H. (2011). Development and assessment of the Social Issues Advocacy Scale. *Educational and Psychological Measurement, 71*(1), 258-275. doi:10.1177/0013164410391581

Nilsson, J. E., & Schmidt, C. K. (2005). Social justice advocacy among graduate students in counseling: An initial exploration. *Journal of College Student Development, 46*(3), 267-279.

Odegard, M. A., & Vereen, L. G. (2010). A grounded theory of counselor educators integrating social justice into their pedagogy. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 50*(2), 130-149.

Pack-Brown, S. P., Thomas, T. L., & Seymour, J. M. (2008). Infusing professional ethics into counselor education programs: A multicultural/social justice perspective. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 86*(3), 296-302.

Pohan, C. A., & Aguilar, T. E. (2001). Measuring educator's beliefs about diversity in personal and professional contexts. *American Educational Research Journal, 38*(1), 159-182.

Ratts, M. J. (2009). Social justice counseling: Toward the development of a fifth force among counseling paradigms. *Journal of Humanistic Counseling, Education, and Development, 48*(2), 160-172.

Ratts, M. J., & Hutchins, A. M. (2009). ACA advocacy competencies: Social justice advocacy at the client/student level. *Journal of Counseling and Development, 87*(3), 269-275.

Ratts, M. J., Singh, A. A., Nassar-McMillian, S., Butler, S. K., & McCullough, J. R. (2016). Multicultural and social justice counseling competencies: Guidelines for the counseling profession. *Journal of Multicultural Counseling and Development, 44*, 28-48. doi:10.1002/jmcd. 12035

Ratts, M. J., Toporek, R. L., & Lewis, J. A. (2010). *ACA advocacy competencies: A social justice framework for counselors.* Alexandria, VA: American Counseling Association.

Ratts, M. J., & Wood, C. (2011). The fierce urgency of now: Diffusion of innovation as a mechanism to integrate social justice in counselor education. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 50*(3), 207-223.

Rice, K., Girvin, H., Frank, J., & Foels, L. (2016). The learning institute: Promoting social justice advocacy within a continuing education program. *Journal of Teaching in Social Work, 36*(4), 380-389. dx.doi:10. 1080/08841233.2016.1200704

Sandage, S. J., Crabtree, S., & Schweer, M. (2014). Differentiation of self and social justice commitment mediated by hope. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 92*, 67-74. doi:10. 1002/j. 1556-6676.2014.00131.x

Smith, L., Baluch, S., Bernabei, S., Robohm, J., & Sheehy, J. (2003). Applying a social justice framework to college counseling center practice. *Journal of College Counseling, 6*(1), 3-13.

Smith, S. D., Reynolds, C. A., & Rovnak, A. (2009). A critical analysis of the social advocacy movement in counseling. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 87*(4), 483-491.

Steele, J. M. (2008). Preparing counselors to advocate for social justice: A liberation model. *Counselor Education & Supervision, 48*(2), 74-85.

Strickland, B. R. (2000). Misassumptions, misadventures, and the misuse of psychology. *American Psychologist, 55*(3), 331-338.

Toporek, R. L., Lewis, J. A., & Crethar, H. C. (2009). Promoting systemic change through the ACA advocacy competencies. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 87*(3), 260-268.

Torres-Harding, S. R., Siers, B., & Olson, B. D. (2012). Development and psychometric evaluation of the Social Justice Scale (SJS). *American Journal of Psychology, 50*, 77-88. doi:10.1007/s10464-011-9478-2

Vera, E. M., & Speight, S. L. (2003). Multicultural competence, social justice, and counseling psychology: Expanding our roles. *The Counseling Psychologist, 31*(3), 253-272. doi:10. 1177/0011000003031003001

West-Olatunji, C. (2010). If not now, when? Advocacy, social justice, and counselor education. *Counseling and Human Development, 42*(8), 10-12.

Zalaquett, C. P., Foley, P. F., Tillotson, K., Dinsmore, J. A., & Hof, D. (2008). Multicultural and social justice training for counselor education programs and colleges of education: Rewards and challenges. *Journal of Counseling & Development, 86,* 323-329.

Appendix A: Request for Permission to Access ACES CESNET Listserv DAVIS MARCIA C Hi Dr. Wiggins, The first reason I am contacting you (perhaps the most important reason)is I am a doctoral student at Walden University in the Counselor, Education and Supervisor (CES) curriculum, an

CC
Melinda A. Haley
07/08/16 at 6:20 PM
Hi Dr. Wiggins,
The first reason I am contacting you (perhaps the most important reason) is I am a doctoral student at Walden University in the Counselor, Education and Supervisor (CES) curriculum, and I am completing chapter three and close to submitting my IRB application. My doctoral research has to do with counselor educators and administrators. I am doing a quantitative study and I want to send out a survey. I would like to know how I can gain permission and access to the ACES listserv to use as a part of my research. I would appreciate a response to this request at your earliest convenience, thanking you in advance.

The second reason is I believe I should be listed as a member of ACES prior to making the above request. However, I have been paying membership dues via my ACA membership for a number of years. I was just on the ACES website and pulled up the membership list and I am not listed as a member, I can provide you with the proof of payment if you desire, thanks

Marcia C. Davis, LPC, NCC

To
DAVIS MARCIA C
07/08/16 at 6:31 PM
Hi Marcia:

Thank you for your email. Let me respond to your issues:

1) You can subscribe to CESNET list serv using this link: http://www.cesnet-l.net/signup/signup.html. Once you are a part of the list serv, you can correspond and make request with others on the list serv via email.

2) The membership director on the ACES website is completely voluntary. It contains only the profiles of members who have elected to complete and post their information. I've confirmed that you are indeed a member of ACES. I checked the most recent member roster from ACA and you are on it. So, no worries there.

Have a good weekend. Let me know if you have further questions.

Marsha Wiggins, Ph.D.
Executive Director, ACES

Appendix B: Request for Research Participation

Subject: Survey request for research participants
From: Marcia C. Davis
To: CESNET-L@LISTSERV.KENT.EDU
Date: February

Dear Counselor Educators:
I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University in the Counselor, Education, and Supervision program. I am in the final phase of my doctoral program and I am requesting that you help me complete this phase. This research is aimed at educators, who are affiliated with university graduate mental health counseling programs.
The purpose of my study is to examine the relationship between faculty attitudes, beliefs, and actions regarding social justice and advocacy, and the importance of the addition of social justice, advocacy concepts, and practices in their personal and professional lives. This survey will include an informed consent and a demographics form. All responses to this survey will remain both confidential and anonymous.
The estimated response time to completing the survey questions is expected to be 30 minutes. This study has been approved by the Walden University Institutional Review Board and the reference number and expiration date is (to be added after approval). Participation in becoming a part of this study is completely voluntary and you can withdraw at any time. The risk for participating in this study is minimal, you may experience some distress when answering the survey questions, if this occurs please contact me at the e-mail address provided above for assistance with getting professional help.
To take the survey, please visit the following link:
https://www.surveymonkey.com/r/

Thanking you in advance for participating in my study.

Respectfully,
Marcia C. Davis, LPC NCC ACS

Appendix C: Demographic Questionnaire

1. How many classes do you currently teach per year in which you infuse social justice and advocacy concepts within your classroom curriculum? (choose one number)

   1 - 2 - 3 - 4 – 5 - 6 - 7 - 8 - 9 - 10 - 11 - 12 +

2. Did you have any classes on social justice and advocacy in your graduate program?
   (1) Yes (2) No
3. How many continuing education hours have you had on social justice and advocacy as a postgraduate? (please provide a number) _____

4. How would you define or identify yourself? Please choose one
   (1) Male (2) Female (3) Heterosexual (4) Lesbian (5) Gay (6) Bisexual (7) Other (8) Prefer not to answer.
5. What is your ethnicity? Please choose one
   (1) White, nonHispanic (2) Black, nonHispanic (3) Asian
   (4) Native American/Pacific Islander (5) Hispanic (6) Multiethnic
6. What was your childhood socioeconomic status?
   1 = under $25,000.00 per year 2 = 25,000 to 50,000 per year
   3 = 50,000 to 75,000 per year 4 = 75,000 to 100,000 per year
   5 = over 100,000 per year
7. What is your age?
   (1) 25 – 35, (2) 36 – 45, (3) 46 – 55, (4) 56 – 65, (5) 66+

   Thank You

Appendix D: Permission to Use Social Issues Advocacy Scale

From: DAVIS MARCIA C
Sent: Thursday, March 24, 2016 6:34 PM
To: Nilsson, Johanna E.
Subject: Social Issues Advocacy Scale (SIAS)

Hello Dr. Nilsson,

My name is Marcia Davis; I am a doctoral student in the Counselor, Education and Supervisor program at Walden University. My dissertation subject is studying the beliefs and attitudes of faculty and administrators regarding the inclusion of social justice and advocacy in the graduate level mental health counseling programs. I have reviewed your article, the Development and Assessment of the Social Issues Advocacy Scale, and would like permission to use this scale in my study. I look forward with much enthusiasm of being in touch with you regarding the SIAS, thanks in advance.

Marcia

To
DAVIS MARCIA C
CC
Marszalek, Jacob M.
03/25/16 at 10:16 AM

Dear Marcia,

We are excited that you are interested in our scale, and you have our permission to use it. Please share your findings with us.

Best Regards,

Johanna

Appendix E: Permission to Use the Social Justice Scale

From: DAVIS MARCIA C

Sent: Monday, April 11, 2016 5:46 PM

To: Susan Torres-Harding

Subject: Social Justice Scale (SJS)

Hello Dr. Torres-Harding,

My name is Marcia Davis; I am a doctoral student in the Counselor, Education and Supervisor program at Walden University. My dissertation subject is studying the beliefs and attitudes of faculty and administrators regarding the inclusion of social justice in the graduate level mental health counseling programs. I have reviewed your article, the Development and Psychometric Evaluation of the Social Justice Scale (SJS), and would like permission to use this scale in my study. I look forward with much enthusiasm of being in touch with you regarding the SJS, thanks in advance. This is a follow-up to a previous email request sent on March 24, 2016 just prior to Easter Sunday; I trust you are very busy and receive many request to use your study; therefore, I am thanking you in advance for your response.

Marcia C. Davis

To
DAVIS MARCIA C
04/12/16 at 1:38 PM

Hi, Marcia: I am sorry that I didn't respond the first time. Your email got lost in my in-box, and I am glad that you contacted me again. No permission is needed to use the scale-- just consider this scale as public domain, as all of the items themselves are in the published article. Here is a copy of the scale itself.

Take care,

Dr. TH

Appendix F: Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that Marcia Davis successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants".
Date of completion: 01/30/2017.
Certification Number: 2300814.