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The Effects of Ethnic Identification, Sex, and Type of Problem on the Counselor Choices of Puerto Rican University Students

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THE EFFECTS OF ETHNIC IDENTIFICATION, SEX, AND TYPE OF PROBLEM ON
THE COUNSELOR CHOICES OF PUERTO RICAN UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

by

Maria I. Reyes

A Dissertation Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate School
of Loyola University of Chicago in Partial Fulfillment of the
Requirements for the Doctor of Philosophy

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1985
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VITA

The author, Maria Isabel Reyes, is the daughter of Andres Reyes Baez and Ursula (Navarro-Estrada) Reyes. She was born in Rio Piedras, Puerto Rico, on November 28, 1946. Her elementary education was received at St. Joseph in Chicago, Illinois. Secondary education was completed in 1966 at Robert A. Waller. She received an achievement scholarship upon graduation from high school to attend an international student summer internship in Puerto Rico. The Associate in Arts degree was obtained at Loop City College, one of the Chicago city-wide junior colleges. She completed her education at Northeastern Illinois University, where she received a Bachelor of Arts degree with honors in Secondary Education in 1972. She completed her Masters of Education degree in Guidance and Counseling from Loyola University of Chicago in 1974.

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Fellowship award. She also competed annually at a national level for the Ford Foundation Fellowship and was a five year recipient of this award.

Her interest in counseling has evolved through her work experience in education and administration. The focus of her counseling work has shifted to the policy and management of human services delivery systems. She is presently the Associate Director for the Chicago Field Center of the Girl Scouts of the U.S.A. She has taught a course on Counseling Minorities at Loyola University of Chicago.
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Researchers and practitioners have sought to make counseling services more responsive to client needs by examining client preferences for counselor help. The preferences of White and Black clients for counselor help have been broadly investigated, yet very little is known about the counselor preferences of other racial-ethnic groups. The necessity of understanding the cultural values, attitudes, and behavioral characteristics of the culturally different client has been widely articulated. An understanding of cultural differences would permit the development of new methods, concepts and counseling services which would have relevance for the life experiences of minority clients. In examining what clients like or prefer in counselors it is important to know that racial-ethnic groups (Hispanics, Asian-American, Native Americans) have subgroups and other special cultural characteristics which may influence their preferences for a type of counselor.

In the case of Puerto Rican university students, the question about what factors determine their preferences for a counselor has not been adequately studied. The role of ethnic identification and gender in determining preferences for counselor help with specific problems has not been investigated with a Puerto Rican population. The present study responds to the need for research in this area. It examines the role of ethnic identification and gender in determining the counselor
preferences of Puerto Rican university students. The mediating role of three problem types will also be examined.

The counselor preference research conducted during the late 1960's and early 1970's focused on race (Jackson and Kirschner, 1973; Harrison, 1975) and sex (Jackson, 1975; Dietrich, 1977; Gordon and Grantham, 1979) as determinants of client preferences. A dichotomous black-white racial perspective has dominated the research on the relationship between race and counselor preference. Even when other variables such as interpersonal trust and problem type (Briley, 1977), body language (Dietrich, 1977), problem type (Thompson and Cimbolic, 1978), age (Mayo, 1980), treatment outcomes (Proctor and Rosen, 1981), and racial identity (Parham and Helms, 1981) have been examined, the research has rarely looked beyond Black subjects.

Research with Asian Americans (Sue and Kirk, 1972; Sue and Sue, 1972; Sue and Kirk, 1973; Atkinson, Maruyama and Matsui, 1978; Webster and Fretz, 1978) and Chicano (Olivarez, 1975) has questioned the generalizability of results with Black clients. The few studies that have considered racial-ethnic groups indicate that culture-specific variables play an important role in determining preferences for a counselor (Vasquez, 1975). Furthermore, these studies argue for a distinction among minority groups. Agostini (1976), for instance, calls for the study of Hispanic subgroups, noting that failure to make distinctions among these subgroups results in findings that are unreliable and invalid.

Several Hispanic researchers have also questioned the generalizability of results with Black and White clients to the
Hispanic subgroups (Brand, Ruiz, and Padilla, 1974; Acosta and Sheehan, 1976). Their recommendations for further research on specific cultural variables have been supported by others (Gilsdorf, 1974; Walton, 1977; Christensen, 1977; Ruiz and Padilla, 1977; Gordon and Grantham, 1979).

The present study responds to earlier research recommendations for further refinement and delineation of a minority group by focusing on one racial-ethnic subgroup, Puerto Ricans. The study also responds to the recommendation for "further empirical studies employing ethnically meaningful designs" (Brand, Ruiz and Padilla, 1974, p. 884) through the use of an instrument specifically designed for Puerto Rican university students.

Another significant issue in the study of racial-ethnic groups is the absence of an integrated conceptual framework which might be used for examining aspects of the cross-cultural counseling relationship. In an effort to achieve a greater understanding of the life experiences of Puerto Rican university students, Sue's (1981) theory of a world view will serve as a conceptual framework for this study.

Sue (1981) speaks of the need for understanding a minority client's world view. He defines world view as a person's perception of his/her relationship to the world (nature, institutions, other people). This world view is highly correlated with a person's cultural upbringing and life experiences. World views are formed by an individual's attitudes, values, opinions, and concepts and it may influence how that person thinks, makes decisions, behaves, and defines events. Other significant interactional elements of a world
view are economic and social class, religion, and sex (Sue, 1981).
Sue's model of world views and identity development among Third World
groups is consistent with formulations by Hall, Cross, and Freedle
(1972), and Jackson (1975); they believe that cultural identity for
American minorities is closely correlated to racism and oppression.

The life experiences of most Puerto Ricans in the United States
are correlated with an impoverished social-economic status and an
inferior educational attainment. The problems are exacerbated by
language barriers, class, and cultural differences. These factors
undoubtedly contribute to the real or imagined impediments that exist
in a counseling relationship and may thus preclude greater use of
needed counseling services. History, social, and economic class are
three of several characteristics that distinguished racial-ethnic
minorities from members of the majority culture. These
characteristics are "interactional components of a world view" and
they "may affect how we think, make decisions, behave, and define
events" (Sue, 1981, p. 73). A brief consideration of these
characteristics as they relate to the life experiences of Puerto
Ricans is in order.

Puerto Ricans make up two million of the total population of the
United States, and they are predominantly metropolitan dwellers.
Puerto Ricans are a very young population with a median age of 22
years. The educational attainment of Puerto Ricans has not reached
the level of non-Hispanics; 55 percent of the Puerto Rican population
is a high school graduate compared to 88 percent for the non-Hispanic
adult. Puerto Ricans had the lowest median family income of all
Hispanic groups in 1982: $11,000, compared to a median income of $24,000 for non-Hispanic families. The smaller number of family members who could work and the lower educational attainment among Puerto Rican families are some of the factors that contribute to their indigent socio-economic status (The Census Bureau, 1983). The disproportionate number of Hispanics, and Puerto Ricans in particular, who are unemployed and living below the poverty level attests to the needs of this student population.

Another characteristic of Puerto Ricans which is not true of other immigrant groups is their high degree of mobility between the U.S. mainland and their place of origin. This migration and an increasing reverse-migration allows Puerto Ricans to live in two worlds. An assessment of this unique experience was made by a Puerto Rican writer who said:

This is really a schizophrenic society. Puerto Ricans have two languages, two citizenships, two basic philosophies of life, two flags, two anthems, two loyalties. It is very hard for human beings to deal with all this ambivalence (Rene Marques quoted in Wagenheim, 1975, p. 219).

There are a number of factors that account for the migration and reverse-migration dynamic, but the economic state of the mainland is a major factor in this phenomenon. An important point about this migration pattern is the uprooting which occurs and which confounds the sense of social solidarity and cultural identity.

A consideration of social class characteristics is important because it provides a frame of reference for understanding the kinds of problems facing a Puerto Rican student population. Hollingshead and Redlich (1958) documented the differential quality of treatment
that was provided to different socio-economic groups. A study by Lorion (1973) on the relationship of socio-economic status and traditional treatment approaches found a trend in the establishment of separate and unequal services for various social groups. Giordano (1976) attributes the limited impact of the mental health movement to its failure to understand the vast ethnic diversity of American communities. Racial-ethnic and cultural differences are part of this diversity, but these differences have often been overlooked or misunderstood.

The melting pot concept does not deny the racial and ethnic diversity of the people of the United States. The concept however was only applicable to immigrants who were committed to assimilation and whose social and cultural identities and allegiances were to the host society. The term lost favor in the sixties because it did not reflect an accurate view of a pluralistic American society. Ethnicity has been receiving more attention in recent years, not as a reaction to the melting pot theory, but rather as a reassertion of the basic role it plays in defining a sense of identity.

The multidimensional nature of the acculturation process for Puerto Ricans is best understood through an integration of the factors which shape this experience. The impact of migration and reverse-migration on cultural identity implies at a minimum that cultural values and attitudes will experience conflict and change. An indigent socio-economic situation and an inferior educational attainment contribute to economic and cultural isolation. Problems in the educational system and a poor academic preparation contribute
to a greater insecurity about success in college.

This situation presents a special challenge to educators, and to counselors in particular who are entrusted with the task of helping students acquire the personal and academic skills that will improve their lives. Research by Kleiber (1974), Vasquez (1975), Ruiz and Padilla (1977), Christensen (1977), and Torres (1980) indicates that despite the greater need of Puerto Rican students for counseling services, such services are rarely used.

A number of factors account for this underutilization. Among these are students' perception of isolation or alienation within the college/university setting and a sense that faculty, administration or counseling personnel understand little about their unique problems. Coupled with this is a lack of confidence in their ability to overcome a disadvantaged background that has left them ill prepared for the future (Torres, 1980). Torres examined an educational program at Northeastern Illinois University that evolved in response to the concerns of the Puerto Rican students at the university. Torres interviewed persons who were students during the 1971-76 years and one student expressed what many others felt:

Latino students... walked into the Counseling Center... the type of atmosphere that I remember was racism and resentment, a negative response.... The Counseling Department was non-existent as far as the Puerto Rican was concerned... we are talking about a certain population that had very little preparation, either at the home or the individual himself to begin... the new experience in higher education... So we are coming with that handicap from the start... (p. 65).

The Torres reference is an appropriate example because the subjects in the present study are also Puerto Rican students at
Northeastern Illinois University. One major difference between the 1971-76 period and the 1982-83 period has been the establishment of Proyecto Pa'lante, the educational program that was implemented in response to the personal and academic needs expressed by the Puerto Rican student population (Torres, 1980). While the program encountered some difficulties in its developmental stages its success may be reflected in the fact that in comparison to other state universities in Illinois, Northeastern has a greater proportion of Puerto Rican students.

Recommendations from the Vail Conference on Clinical Psychology affirmed the relevance of culture in counseling and psychotherapy. One recommendation raised the knowledge of the client's cultural background to an ethical imperative. Counseling without cultural sensitivity, knowledge, or awareness was not just problematic, it was considered unethical (Korman, 1974). One implication of these recommendations is that counselors must gain a greater understanding of the role of culture if they are to be effective and ethical practitioners. A counselor's ability to counsel effectively with Puerto Rican students is advanced by a knowledge of their cultural characteristics and individual world view. The factors that determine what preferences they may have for counselor help is one small step in that direction.

**Purpose of the Study**

The purpose of this study is to investigate the preferences of Puerto Rican university students for a counselor of the same ethnicity and gender. This study examines the role of ethnic identification,
sex, and the type of problem being experienced to the counselor preferences for two groups of Puerto Rican university students. The counselor preference literature recognizes the need for a better understanding of the cross-cultural issues in counseling. This literature calls for further exploration of the factors that determine the counselor choices of the various racial-ethnic groups. Ethnicity, gender, and type of problem appear to be the most consistent determinants of counselor choice.

The study seeks answers to the following specific questions: Is ethnic identification related to counselor choice for each of three problem types? Is gender related to counselor choice for each of three problem types? Which is the better predictor of counselor choice for each of three problem types: ethnic identification or gender?

Hypotheses

The research hypotheses of the present study are the following:

1. There are no significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated Puerto Rican students for each of three problem types.

2. There are no significant differences between the counselor choices of female and male Puerto Rican students for each of three problem types.

3. There are no significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated females for each of three problem types.

4. There are no significant differences between the counselor
choices of acculturated and non-acculturated males for each of three problem types.

5. There are no significant differences among the counselor choices of four gender and acculturation groups for each of three problem types.

Definitions of Terms

Ethnic identification is defined by Ruiz, Padilla, and Alvarez (1978) as "that part of the self which includes values, attitudes, and preferences that comprise cultural group membership" (p. 16).

Traditional Puerto Rican family beliefs as defined by Maldonado-Sierra, Fernandez-Marina, and Trent (1960) would include the following common features:

- the unquestioned and absolute obedience to the father; the necessary and absolute self-sacrifice of the mother to the needs of her husband and children; the assumption of the indubitable, biological, and natural superiority of the male within the culture; the expectation of superlative femininity, including home-making, maternity, mothering, etc.; the double standard of sexual morality; the segregation of the sexes; and the like... (p. 237).

These beliefs are measured by the Traditional Family Belief Scale (Maldonado-Sierra, et al, 1960).

Acculturation includes the adoption of the language, beliefs, norms, values, and behavior patterns of the dominant culture, but does not necessarily include institutional participation (Gordon, 1964, pp. 70-71).

Acculturated for purposes of this study will refer to those individuals whose ethnic identification is closer to the dominant culture. Acculturated individuals thus represent persons who move
away from or reject traditional Puerto Rican family beliefs, and who adopt the language, beliefs, etc. of the dominant culture.

*Non-acculturated* refers to those individuals whose ethnic identification adheres to traditional Puerto Rican family beliefs.

*Acculturated* and non-acculturated are operational terms representing opposite ends of the continuum which measures degrees of ethnic identification. These reference points indicate a general orientation and are not reflective of a permanent condition.

**Significance of the Study**

The extensive research on client preferences for counselor help has been chiefly with White and Black subjects. The research with White and Black subjects has sought to understand the needs and attitudes of these client groups in an effort to make counseling services more responsive to their needs. The necessity of understanding the cultural values, attitudes, and behavioral characteristics of other racial-ethnic groups has been broadly articulated by many in the helping professions. But the recognition of this necessity has not resulted in any appreciable number of research studies. Indeed, the counselor preference research with other racial-ethnic groups has been limited to less than five studies per group. This study would contribute to the counseling literature by providing new information about a group that has not been the focus of the research on counselor preference. Puerto Rican college/university students are not a new group in institutions of higher education, and research with this racial-ethnic group would respond to a longstanding need in this area.
An understanding of the cultural differences of other racial-ethnic groups would establish an empirical base for developing counseling methods, concepts, and counseling services that are more relevant for these groups. The literature indicates that ethnic minorities are less likely to make use of counseling services (Torres, 1980) and are more likely to drop out (Sattler, 1977). Sue (1977) attributes this underutilization of services to the predominance of a White counseling profession and to the existence of cultural barriers when the counselor and client are ethnically different.

A review of the research on ethnic identification and preference has indicated a preference for the majority-group member by both majority and minority group subjects (Brand, Ruiz, and Padilla, 1974). However, the wide range of subjects, methodologies, and measurement devices has limited the generalizability of these studies. In those few cases where racial-ethnic subgroups were included, the failure to refine and delineate within the subgroup raised questions about the reliability and validity of these studies (Agostini, 1976). The limited research on the counselor preferences of other racial-ethnic groups (Hispanics, Asian American, Native American) has revealed the existence of subgroups and other culturally specific characteristics which influence their preferences for a type of counselor.

Ethnic identity is a fundamental aspect of these subgroups and the degree to which an individual identifies with the cultural values, beliefs, and attitudes of his/her specific ethnic group varies from person to person. These intra-ethnic differences have rarely been examined, and except for Vasquez (1975) no other researcher has
studied its relationship to the counseling relationship, or to the counselor preferences of Puerto Rican students. Vasquez found that students who knew a counselor's background when given a choice, preferred help from a counselor of the same ethnic background and with a similar degree of ethnic orientation.

A more recent study with another racial-ethnic group has demonstrated the significance of ethnic identification in the preference for counselor race and sex. In a study with Mexican American college students, Sanchez and Atkinson (1983) found that preference for counselor ethnicity and willingness to self disclose were related to cultural commitment. Subjects strongly committed to Mexican American culture expressed the greatest preference for an ethnically similar counselor, and the least willingness to self disclose.

Evidence for the significance of ethnic identification and the existence of within-group differences has been demonstrated in the Vasquez (1975), and Sanchez and Atkinson (1983) studies. Results indicate that ethnic identification/cultural commitment is significantly related to preference for counselor ethnicity and sex.

The present study contributes significantly to the counseling literature in the following ways. This study examines the relationship of ethnic identification, rather than ethnic group membership, to the counselor preferences of Puerto Rican students. Furthermore, it examines the relationship of within-group differences to these counselor choices. Additionally, this study investigates the counselor preferences of a different racial-ethnic group and adds a
new perspective to the White/Black focus of the existent literature. Another significant contribution is in the use of an ethnically meaningful measurement of cultural differences. The use of such an instrument responds directly to the recommendations of previous researchers.

The second major area of investigation in the present study concerns itself with the much contested issue of same sex pairing in the counseling relationship. Researchers and practitioners have posited strong arguments both pro and con on the question of female counselors for female clients. A more appropriate question might be: When is a female counselor more appropriate for which female client with what type of problem? The early counselor preference literature focused on race or sex variables and results indicated a preference for counselors of a similar race or gender. The research produced inconsistent findings however, and in an effort to understand the dynamics of these inconsistencies, a few researchers have examined the relationship of problem type (educational or personal) to counselor preference (Fuller, 1964; Briley, 1977; Thompson and Cimbolic, 1978; Webster and Fretz, 1978; Thomas, 1980).

The third major area of investigation in the present study is thus concerned with the type of problem that the student may be experiencing and its relationship to the preference for counselor help. Research with Native American students (Littrell and Littrell, 1982; Haviland, Horswill, O'Connell and Dynneson, 1983) and Black students (Briley, 1977) indicated male and female students preferred same sex counselors for help with different types of problems.
This research indicates that Black male and female students have specific counselor preferences for different types of problems (Briley, 1977), or they prefer their parents for help with emotional problems (Webster and Fretz, 1978). Asian males and females on the other hand may prefer a relative for help with emotional problems (Webster and Fretz, 1978). Native American students prefer female counselors for academic concerns, but for problems of a personal nature, male and female students prefer a counselor of the same gender (Littrell and Littrell, 1982). Same gender preference on the part of the Native American female reflects a strong traditional pattern. The pattern of same-sex discussion, interaction, and support is a tradition among Indian women (Medicine, 1978). Among Hispanics, Mexican American females are more willing than males to seek professional counseling (Sanchez and Atkinson, 1983), and Puerto Rican females in comparison to males, express a strong rejection of traditional family values and beliefs (Vasquez, 1975). In all of these cases cultural factors have influenced students' preferences for help sources.

The literature about the preferences of clients for a type of counselor is extensive and replete with investigations of race and gender variables. The early literature took a narrow view of client preferences for a counselor. The research for the most part concerned itself with two questions: preference for whom? or preference for what? This unidimensional approach was considered inadequate by later researchers who took a multidimensional approach to the study of helper preference (Gordon and Grantham, 1979; Thompson and Cimbolic,
The latter research took a broader view of the characteristics of client preferences. A major limitation of this literature however is in its dichotomous White/Black perspective. The cultural characteristics of other racial-ethnic groups and their relationship to preferences for counselor help has had very little attention.

The very limited research that is available on other minority groups indicates that culture and ethnicity have a significant influence on the counseling relationship and more specifically on client preferences for a counselor. An understanding of these cultural and ethnic factors is crucial to counseling personnel who work with persons from a different culture. The success of a counseling relationship may depend upon a better understanding of the basic dynamics of these critical factors.

The discussion in Chapter I about the socio-economic and educational characteristics of Puerto Ricans demonstrates the need for counseling personnel to know and understand the life experiences of this racial-ethnic group. The need for culturally relevant counseling has been broadly articulated (Agostini, 1976; Attneave, 1972; Christensen, 1977; Haviland, Horswill, O’Connell and Dynneson, 1983; Littrell and Littrell, 1982; Marsella and Pederson, 1983; Padilla, 1980; Pedersen, 1978; Pedersen, Lonner, and Dragnus, 1976; Ruiz and Padilla, 1977; Sanchez and Atkinson, 1983; Sue and Kirk, 1972; Sue and Kirk, 1973; Sue and Sue, 1977; Sue, 1981; Torres, 1983; Vasquez,
The present study contributes to the counseling literature by examining the counselor preferences of one racial-ethnic group that has had very little attention: Puerto Ricans. This study is also significant for its contributions to the field of cross-cultural counseling. It responds to the need for an examination of cultural variables in the counseling relationship. The primary significance of the present study is in the examination of ethnic identity and its relationship to counselor preference for two groups of Puerto Rican students. The accounting and analysis of the more subtle differences that exist within a specific cultural group is another significant contribution.

Additionally, the present study investigates the relationship of the gender variable to the preference for a counselor. The examination of the gender variable in the present study is significant for two reasons. First, this study examines the preferences of Puerto Rican students for both male and female counselors. All the counselors in the Vasquez (1975) study were males thus precluding an investigation of the preferences for a female counselor. Additionally any differences between male and female students for a female counselor were also negated. The present study examines male and female preferences for same and opposite sex counselors. Secondly, this study examines the relationship of gender and ethnic identity to preference for a counselor. This examination is significant because it explores the effects of client gender and ethnic identity to the preference for a counselor of the same or opposite gender and ethnic
background.

Finally, the relationship of problem type to the preference for a counselor is explored. An examination of the variable of problem type is significant because it responds to the recommendation for a more complex analysis to the question of client preference. This study takes a multidimensional approach to the narrow question of preference for whom? or preference for what? through an investigation of the relationship of ethnic identity, gender, and type of problem to the counselor preferences of two groups of Puerto Rican students. The more appropriate question in this case is: Which counselor (male or female, Anglo or Puerto Rican) is more appropriate for which Puerto Rican student (male or female, acculturated or non-acculturated) for what type of problem (academic-vocational, personal-health-psychological, family-social)?

Limitations of the Study

The following limitations are imposed in the present study:

1. The results of this study may not be generalized to all Puerto Rican students since the unavailability of an accurate ethnic indicator on registration forms does not permit a total count of Puerto Rican students nor a random selection from this group. The investigation would require replications in similar universities to control for interaction effects of participants' biases and the variables under study.

2. A second limitation is related to the potential bias of the volunteer sample, or the Hawthorne effect. No treatment per se is involved in this investigation but the subjects' knowledge that they
are involved in a study and perhaps the focus of "special attention" may introduce an additional bias.

3. A third limitation may be the presence of a favorable bias towards the experimenter who was proudly introduced as an alumna by a number of her former professors.

4. A fourth limitation involves a bias resulting from the acknowledgement of the experimenter's own ethnic background (Puerto Rican) to the question raised by both Puerto Rican and non-Puerto Rican students alike. The experimenter does not presume either a favorable or unfavorable bias on the part of the students for the experimenter's ethnicity.

However, the knowledge of the experimenter's own ethnic background coupled with the perception of academic success that may be construed from working towards a doctoral degree may potentially introduce a "prestige" effect for these students and a favorable alignment with the experimenter. This prestige effect may also have been neutralized by the presence of two other experimenters who were not doctoral degree candidates. No attempt has been made to measure for a differential effect.

The aforementioned limitations represent the major limitations of the present study and thus may result in findings that are not generalizable to all Puerto Rican university students.

Summary

Chapter I began with a review of the literature on factors that determine client preferences for a counselor. The significance of cultural variations for Puerto Rican and other ethnic groups was noted
and the ethnicity factor was promptly identified as one of these key variations. A brief review of the major counselor preference studies and a discussion of the limitations of their generalizability to other ethnic groups followed.

A discussion of specific characteristics which differentiate and delineate Puerto Ricans from other groups provided a background for the study. The discussion of historical, socio-economic, and educational characteristics served to establish the tremendous need of Puerto Rican students for counseling services. The paucity of research studies with Puerto Ricans was cited as further evidence of the need to examine this specific ethnic subgroup.

The purpose of the study was stated with a brief discussion of the variables under investigation. The research hypotheses and a definition of the terms in the study followed. The significance of the study was discussed in terms of the contributions that it makes to the counselor preference literature through an investigation of the counselor preferences of a new client group. A key point of the review was a recognition of the multidisciplinary and cross-cultural approach that characterizes this research. The responses of the present study to earlier research recommendations were enumerated.

And finally, the discussion about the limitations and organization of the study gave closure to Chapter I.

**Organization of the Study**

Chapter I has presented an introduction, an overview of the specific literature under investigation, a statement about the purpose, the hypotheses, a definition of terms, and the significance
of the study. Chapter II presents a review of the related literature on client preferences for a counselor and looks at three major areas of research: counselor and client's racial-ethnic similarity, gender similarity, and the type of problem.

The methodology, the instruments, the procedures used in securing student participation, the collection of data and the analysis of this data are discussed in Chapter III. Chapter IV presents a description of the subjects from an analysis of data, a discussion about the statistical procedures used for analysis, and the results of the analysis. The fifth and final chapter presents a summary of the problem, hypotheses, findings, as well as some conclusions and recommendations for future research.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

The review of the literature related to this study is presented in three sections: counselor-client racial and ethnic similarity and preference for a counselor; counselor-client gender similarity and preference for a counselor; and type of problem and preference for a counselor. Since the subjects in the present study are university students, the focus of the literature review is on studies in a university or college setting.

Counselor Client Racial Ethnic Similarity

And Preference for a Counselor

The research on preferences, either of client or counselor, has come a long way since the time when an examination of these factors was considered a "taboo topic" (Faberow, 1963). Rosen's (1967) review of the client preference literature found no conclusive interpretations; however, he was convinced that clients have implicit and explicit ideas about the characteristics which they would like in a counselor. These preferences may include counselor's race and sex and "they might determine to a significant degree whether or not they seek counseling" (p. 787).

Another finding indicated that "...students are generally averse to discussing personal-social as compared with educational-vocational, problems with high school and university counselors" (p. 788).
Rosen's recommendations for future research include "client's... cultural background as related to these preferences" (p. 788) and more studies on the bases and impact of these attitudes and preferences.

The importance of understanding racial and ethnic factors and how these may facilitate or impede the counseling process has been studied by Attneave (1972), Carkhuff and Pierce (1967), Ruiz and Padilla (1977), Sue (1981), Vontress (1971), and Sue and Sue (1977). These researchers indicate greater communication breakdowns when counselor and client do not share a similar racial or ethnic background.

The literature has indicated that counselors who differ from their clients by virtue of culture, race, social class or sex role are more likely to encounter difficulty communicating empathy, rapport, genuine caring, and assistance (Maslin and Davis, 1975; Vasquez, 1975; Pedersen, 1976; Pedersen, 1978). It thus appears that the success of counseling is dependent upon effective communication and interpersonal interactions and these in turn are dependent upon a better understanding of the cultural dynamics of clients (Pedersen, 1976; Padilla, 1980; Franco and Le Vine, 1980; Furlong, Atkinson, and Casas, 1979).

Research supporting the existence of cultural barriers conclude that subjects indicated a greater preference for counselors with a similar racial/ethnic background (Atkinson, Maruyama, and Matsui, 1978; Banks, Berenson, and Carkhuff, 1967; Grantham, 1973; Wolkon, Moriwaki, and Williams, 1973). Subjects also showed greater self-exploration with (Carkhuff and Pierce, 1967), and felt better understood by (Bryson and Cody, 1973) counselors of a similar
racial/ethnic background.

Research conducted during the 60's on client preferences for counselor help focused on race of client and counselor. Findings from this early research were often contradictory, and an understanding of the racial factor in preference for a counselor was still beyond reach. A major flaw in most of this research was in the definition of race. The traditional method for describing persons of African descent was inadequate and did not recognize intragroup differences among this client group. Cross (1971) and Vontress (1971) were among the first to articulate these differences. Consequently, the stage for a new look at the racial factor was set in motion.

The review of the literature will begin with a study utilizing the traditional term "African descent" and proceed with a discussion of its refinement. The discussion about the flaw in the early research, specifically as it pertains to a majority imposed definition of minority group membership, is significant because this pattern will repeat itself in the research with Hispanic, Native American and Asian-American groups.

A review of the client preference literature with Black clients will illustrate the developmental stages of this research. The research on the counselor preferences of Puerto Rican students is still at the embryonic stage but its development need not be prolonged nor delayed if subsequent research is mindful of these learnings.

Kirschner and Jackson (1972) studied counselor preferences of both Black and White student nurses and found no preference for race of counselor. However, a portion of the African descent sample, those
referring to themselves as Afro-Americans, did indicate a preference for same race counselor to a greater degree than those who designated themselves as Black, Negro, or Colored. Both Vontress (1971) and Kirchner and Jackson (1972) suggested that a common flaw of the research on the race variable was the assumption of no difference in perceptions or values among persons of African descent. Vontress (1971) argued that client racial self-designation, or awareness as Black, Negro, or Colored, would significantly influence the counseling process with a White counselor. These intragroup differences have also been studied by Cross (1971) who identified five discernible psychological stages of Black racial self-awareness, from the perception of Negro to the more liberated one of Blacks. Vontress (1971) argued that client racial self-designation as Black, Negro, or Colored played an important role in the counseling process.

Subsequently, Jackson and Kirschner (1973) examined client's level of racial self-awareness and found a significant difference in the counselor preferences of self-designated "Black and Afro-American groups" and "Colored Negro groups". Their study indicated that earlier researchers had failed to account for the client's racial consciousness. This difference also appears to give support to Vontress' argument that Black people are not a homogeneous group but rather that with regards to race, intragroup differences exist and depend upon how each segment perceives itself, its sense of disenfranchisement, and its relation to Whites in society.

Wolkon, Moriwaki, and Williams' (1973) findings on the race-ethnicity and social class factors in the orientation toward
psychotherapy support the work of earlier researchers (Phillips, 1960; Banks et al, 1967) indicating that Black clients prefer Black counselors. Blacks also expressed greater dissatisfaction with treatment than Whites. The subjects in the Wolkon, Moriwaki, and Williams study were 69 female college students divided into three subgroups: Black middle class, Black lower class, and White middle class. These findings are particularly important because the study controlled for race and social class, factors which have been recognized by many researchers as the two most significant variables.

Gordon and Grantham (1979) studied the helper preferences of four groups of disadvantaged students and found a slight preference in all disadvantaged groups for a helper of the same sex, same age, and same race, but more importantly, for a helper of the same social class background. Gordon and Grantham found no significant association between racial self-designation and helper preference thus contradicting the Jackson and Kirschner (1973) studies. Gordon and Grantham believe these contradictory findings on the racial self-designation factor reflect a shift from what used to be a political question to what is now an empirical issue. They explained that racial self-designations among Black people cannot be used today as an accurate measure of intragroup differences or racial consciousness.

Parham and Helms (1981) went a step further and distinguished between racial identity and racial self-designation. They attribute the discrepancy between the Jackson and Kirschner's (1973) and Gordon and Grantham's (1979) results to a failure to distinguish between
racial identity and racial self-designation and the assumption that one could be inferred from the other.

Parham and Helms (1981) studied the influence of Black students' racial identity attitudes on preferences for counselor's race and found that racial attitudes accounted for a significant percentage of the variance related to preferences for counselor's race. This study used Cross's (1971) racial identity model to categorize students into one of four stages (pre-encounter, encounter, immersion-emersion and internalization). These stages ranged from a pre-encounter stage which is pro-White anti-Black to pro-Black attitudes which are not necessarily anti-White. Pre-encounter attitudes were not strongly correlated with a preference for White counselors and a non-acceptance of Black counselors. The other three attitude categories accounted for varying degrees of preference for Black counselors and a rejection of White counselors.

Unlike previous investigators (Jackson and Kirschner, 1973; Gordon and Grantham, 1979), Parham and Helms found no association between racial self-designation and preference for either Black or White counselors. This lack of support for counselor preference vis a vis racial self-designation points to the importance of distinguishing between racial self-designation and racial identity. The former refers simply to racial group membership and the latter to the person's beliefs or attitudes about his or her own race. The authors suggest that racial identity attitudes may vary across college campuses, and as measured in this study would range from a pro-White anti-Black to a pro-Black preference for counselor race.
The literature which has been reviewed thus far has been with Black and White students, or with Black students only and their preferences for counselor race. The early research produced inconsistent results. An analysis of this research indicates that race per se was an insufficient categorization and that a distinction between race and racial identity was necessary. The greater differentiation and refinement of the racial identity factor indicated that Black students preferred Black counselors. The research with Black and Latino subgroups has shown a similar development.

Backner (1970) studied, over a three year period, the attitudes and opinions of college students (Black, Puerto Rican, and White) on the issue of similarity of ethnic background between counselor and student. Backner's samplings were carried out as separate projects and each with its own purpose, sampling methodology, and different reliability and validity measures. However, the findings from all three samplings indicated that similarity of ethnic background was not a significant consideration. He found that students who said they felt better working with an ethnically similar counselor were students who were already seeing a counselor whose ethnic background was similar to their own. The finding may also indicate that irrespective of choice, students will choose counselors on the basis of familiarity or experience with a counselor. In cases where the choice was for an ethnically dissimilar counselor, Backner explained that the preference appeared to be a reflection of the student's feeling for the counselor as a person, rather than as a White person.

A comprehensive review of the literature on ethnic identification
and preference was conducted by Brand, Ruiz, and Padilla (1974). Their review of the literature indicated a preference for majority-group members by both majority and minority-group subjects. They reviewed the literature by the major methodologies employed in the ethnic preference research and noted the range of methodology, control and sample populations in this research. Their review indicated that the study of ethnic preference had been oversimplified and they recommended caution in the interpretation of this data.

Brand, et al called for further refinement of research instruments, systematic selection of experimental ethnic variables and comparison across measurement devices which might then begin to identify patterns of ethnic identification and preference. They recommended a more careful analysis of the ethnicity construct, its range, self and other identification, stated preferences and actual interaction with other ethnicities. The Brand et al study reviewed 230 references and only one of them included a study with a Puerto Rican subject population. This bears evidence to the need for research with other ethnic groups, and with Puerto Ricans in particular.

In an investigation on the influences of race, sex, and skin pigmentation on the preferences of students for potential counselors, Olivarez (1975) found no significant differences on student preferences relative to counselor race, sex and counselor skin pigmentation across three different grade levels. Relative to counselor race, White students preferred White counselors, Black students preferred Black counselors, but Chicano students did not
prefer Chicano counselors. The Chicano counselor was the Chicano student's third choice, after favoring a White counselor first and a black counselor second.

In another study with a Hispanic subgroup, Acosta and Sheehan (1976) examined preferences of college students for Mexican-American and Anglo American psychotherapists. Results showed Mexican-Americans to have less trust in an expert therapist of their own ethnicity; the reverse was true for the Anglo Americans. Both Mexican-Americans and Anglo Americans attributed greater skill, understanding, trustworthiness, and liking to Anglo American therapists than to the Mexican-American non-professional. The authors explained the lower trust level of the Mexican-American counselor as a reflection of the lack of public credibility that exists wherever minority professionals are under represented.

Olivarez (1975) and Acosta and Sheehan (1976) did not examine culture specific dimensions of the Chicano or Mexican-American group, nor the intra-group differences that might exist for the Chicano and the Mexican-American group. The generalizability of their studies is thus limited by the absence of this examination.

The literature is not consistent. Agostini's (1976) examination of ethnic variables in preference for psychotherapists indicated that subjects' preference for ethnically similar therapists cannot be made without qualifications. In the Agostini study with undergraduate students the only ethnic group that showed a strong preference for ethnically similar therapists was the Black group. This greater preference on the part of Black subjects was attributed to the growing
black awareness of the civil rights movement and to an increased Black identity.

The finding in the Agostini study that Latins are a less homogeneous ethnic group than Blacks is examined from a number of perspectives ranging from less ethnic unity to the perception that an Anglo counselor might offer services of better quality. A fundamental weakness in this study relative to the Latin group was the failure to examine intra-group differences among the various Latin subgroups. Agostini also recognized that clustering people on the basis of similarity of language was not productive in determining main effects of ethnic preference for psychotherapists.

The importance of examining intra-group differences is clearly articulated by Kleiber (1974) in his study of academic achievement and aspects of acculturation among male Puerto Rican college students.

Kleiber found a significant and negative correlation between the espousal of traditional Puerto Rican family beliefs and all three achievement criteria. Significant relationships were found with the use of an instrument that measured traditional Puerto Rican family beliefs. One important finding was related to the inability of some instruments previously used in acculturation studies to measure differences within one sample of students. Kleiber concludes that they may be more useful in measuring differences between cultural and class groups.

Kleiber recommends further investigation of the acculturation process and of its "... relevance for understanding and identifying specific adjustment problems of selected minority groups within
American society" (p. 118). He also recommends that counselors and student personnel administrators acquire a "thorough knowledge of the acculturation process of college life" and "of both traditional and modern value and belief systems, their dynamics and potential areas of conflict" (p. 131).

Agostini's (1976) and Kleiber's (1974) recommendation for further refinement and delineation of intra-group differences has been supported by others. Padilla (1980) developed a model of acculturation for measuring cultural awareness and ethnic loyalty of a large sample of Mexican Americans. Cultural awareness was composed of respondent's cultural heritage and his/her spouse and parents' cultural heritage, language preference and use, cultural identification and preference, and social behavior orientation. Ethnic loyalty consisted of cultural pride and affiliation, perceived discrimination, and social behavior orientation. It is important to note that Padilla's typology of five acculturative types was developed with and for a Mexican-American population.

Szapocznik and Kurtines (1980) discussed the acculturation, biculturalism, and adjustment of Cuban Americans through the use of an acculturation/biculturation model. This model views acculturation as a multidimensional process. The acculturation part of the model looks at intergenerational differences in acculturation within Cuban immigrant families. The biculturalism part of the Szapocznik and Kurtines' model measures biculturalism and cultural involvement. Two sub-scales were used for measuring these dimensions, one measured the degree of involvement with the host, Anglo-American culture, and the
other measured the degree of involvement in the culture of origin, in this case, Cuban. The age and sex of the individual and the length of exposure to the host culture played key roles in this analysis.

The Kleiber (1974), Padilla (1980), and Szapocznik and Kurtines (1980) studies present models for measuring acculturation and all four look at sex, age, length of exposure to host culture, and preference for language usage. The most significant aspect of these studies was not the similarity of variables but rather the empirical delineation and differentiation within each of the three subgroups. All authors have called attention to the multidimensional characteristics of the acculturation process and have emphasized the need for further research which will analyze the role and relationship of these and other variables.

Summary

A summary of the preceding literature review on racial and ethnic variables in the preferences of clients for counselors has demonstrated the development of this research. The research evolved from the simple race question to a better defined racial self-designation, and finally, to the more complex racial identity issue. The research with Black and Latino subgroups showed a similar development. A major limitation of studies with Latino subgroups was the failure to delineate and differentiate among the various subgroups. Moreover, as with Black students, the failure to account for differences in racial-identity and ethnic identity resulted in tentative conclusions and contradictory reports.

The latter part of this literature review includes studies which
elucidate the methodology and measurement issues related to the ethnicity factor. And finally, three studies with examples of models for measuring ethnic identification were presented for each of the three Hispanic subgroups. The review of these studies served the additional purpose of demonstrating the need for empirical delineation and differentiation of the three groups and for the measurement of intra-group differences within each subgroup.

Counselor Client Gender Similarity and Preference for a Counselor

One of the earliest studies of preference for counselors was by Koile and Bird (1956) who studied preferences of freshman students. They found that male freshman preferred same sex counselors for a greater number of problems and likewise, freshman women preferred same gender counselor for more problems than they preferred a man. The study also indicated that in comparison to men, women were more willing to consult a man for a greater proportion of problems. Men also indicated a preference more often than did women. In a later study with college students, Mendelsohn and Geller (1963) investigated the counselor sex preferences of college students and with duration of counseling as a criterion concluded that gender similarity had little or no effect on the length of counseling for college students.

Barnes (1970) studied preferences for counselor sex, race, and cultural background of high school students. Students responded to videotaped counseling sessions depicting counselors of different sexes, races, and ethnic background and results showed Black students preferring Black male counselors. Backner (1970) studied counselor preferences of SEEK students and found that sex of counselor was not
an important concern for these special college program students.

Jackson (1975) investigated the expectations and perceptions of Black college students towards Black and White counselors and reported that: 1) Black students preferred Black counselors, 2) student's academic classification made a difference in how students expected to behave with Black and White counselors, and 3) the interaction of sex of student, counselor type and academic classification appeared as a significant source of variation on selected student attitudes and behaviors.

Cathcart-Barker's (1976) study supported previous research indicating the significance of the race and sex variables in the client-counselor relationship. She found that relative to counselor sex, female counselors consistently receive more favorable ratings than male counselors, and that relative to race, the Black female counselor was the most favored counselor.

Dietrich (1977) examined the effects of a counselor's race, sex and body language on Black clients' preferences. He concluded that while counselor's race and sex may be a significant factor in the counselor preferences of Black clients, the counselor's body language may be a more powerful variable than sex in the counseling dyad.

Appropriate sex pairing in the counseling relationship continues to be an area of concern and controversy. Many observations have led to recommendations that same sex pairing is especially desirable with female subjects in order to provide the necessary facilitative conditions for personal growth (Carter, 1971; Chesler, 1972).

Tanney and Birk (1978) looked at the question of women counselors
for women clients and in their review of the literature found that sex of therapist is no longer the main independent variable. Race, age and experience level are the interactive therapist variables which are now being evaluated. The authors recommend that female clients' perceptions and preferences for sex of counselor take more careful monitoring. They also noted a growing demand among women clients for women counselors and therapists.

Feldstein (1979) studied effects of client sex and counselor sex and sex role in a counseling analogue format. Results indicated that male subjects expressed greater satisfaction with the counseling process than female subjects. Male subjects also indicated a higher degree of satisfaction and counselor regard with feminine counselors than with masculine counselors, irrespective of counselor sex. In contrast, female subjects showed greater satisfaction and counselor regard with masculine counselors than with feminine counselors, regardless of counselor sex.

Results also showed males shared more personal information with feminine female counselors and least personal information with masculine female counselors. Female subjects shared more personal information with feminine male counselors, and least personal information with masculine male counselors. The findings from the Feldstein study indicated that counselor sex role and subject sex had a more significant impact on subjects' perceptions than the biological gender of the counselor. The authors conclude that the complexity of the counselor-client pairing is not a simple matter of same-sex pairing in counseling.
Highlen and Russell (1980) studied the effects of counselor gender and counselor and client sex role on the counselor preferences of females. Eighty-four university women rated a set of three male or female counselor descriptions representing feminine, masculine, and androgynous sex roles for counselor preference and willingness to disclose. Results showed that counselor ratings were independent of counselor gender or subject sex role. Counselor sex role affected ratings with greater ratings for both androgynous and feminine counselors than for the masculine counselor.

Separate analysis showed incongruent androgynous and undifferentiated female subjects expressing a greater preference for androgynous and feminine sex-typed counselors. The opposite effect was present for feminine females with congruent feminine subjects giving higher ratings to both counselor types (androgynous and feminine sex-typed). The authors discussed their findings in terms of androgyny and its implications for future research on females' counselor preference.

Highlen and Russell's findings support Feldstein's (1979) indicating that for a White subject population the role of sex in the counseling relationship appears to be in transition. Sex role behavior or androgyny appears to be taking a more significant role.

As with the earlier review on counselor-client racial and ethnic similarity and preference for a counselor, the literature on counselor-client gender similarity illustrates the development of this research. The studies reviewed to this point have been with White students, Black students, or a combination of these. This research
has indicated that while gender is a significant determinant of client choice for a counselor with both Black and White students, other variables may play an equal or more significant role. This was particularly the case in studies where race and racial identity was not a measurement issue.

The research on the preferences of White students for counselor sex is more extensive and at a different level. The women's movement has in great part influenced the nature and the direction of the research on client preference for counselor/therapist gender. The question is no longer male versus female, but rather, male, female, or androgynous.

The literature on counselor-client gender similarity with Black and Latino students indicates that cultural background is more significant than race in determining preferences for a counselor. Given that difference, a differential development of the gender preference appears to be in place for each of the three groups. The significance of the ethnicity factor will be established.

In one of the few studies with a Latino group on client preference for counselor gender, Gilsdorf (1974) studied ethnic and sex variables in the counselor preferences of community junior college students. Students viewed slides of counselors representative of the racial and sexual membership of Mexican-American, Black and White groups. Results showed 1) that all three groups, when provided with a choice preferred a counselor of the same ethnicity, 2) that males and females when given a choice preferred the same sex counselor, and 3) that of both sexes, the female counselor was most often selected.
Brand, Ruiz, and Padilla (1974) reviewed the literature on ethnic identification and preference and noted that an important variable may be overlooked if sexual variation is not carefully examined. They stated: "Further research is needed to indicate whether sex, like ethnicity, is a particularly significant variable in ethnic studies in which high threat is aroused and higher personal disclosure is required" (p. 870).

Olivarez's (1975) investigation on the influence of race, sex and skin pigmentation on student preferences for potential counselors found: 1) no significant differences on student preferences relative to counselor race, sex, and skin pigmentation across the three different grade levels, and 2) a significant difference among the three groups where Black and White students each preferred the same race counselors, but Chicano students did not prefer Chicano counselors, and 3) relative to counselor sex, students preferred the same sex counselor.

In a study with Puerto Rican college students, Vasquez (1975) examined expressed ethnic orientation and its relationship to student-counselor rapport and found preference for ethnic similarity. Age and sex were found to be significant factors showing that females made counselor choices that were positively related to positive counselor ratings on the rapport scale. In the case of the male subjects rapport was not positively associated with preference for a counselor. Results also indicated a stronger rejection of both traditional family values and of the traditional male authority figure by female subjects.
Vasquez thinks the rejection of traditional patterns by traditional female subjects may also represent a rejection of the male figure that symbolizes the negative elements of the traditional role expectations. He finds this psychological and anthropological interpretation limited and insufficient for interpreting the opposite result: female subjects with a mainland orientation gave higher ratings to the traditional counselor. Vasquez attributes this result to the impact of the political aspect of the ethnic identity process.

In an investigation on the perception of cultural similarity as a dimension of client choice for a counselor, Walton (1977) studied four different ethnic groups, Anglo, Black, Mexican American/Chicano and Native American/Indian. Her findings revealed that ethnic similarity, more than any other variable, influenced subject's selection of counselors. This was particularly true for the Mexican American/Chicano and Native American/Indian subgroups. Relative to sex of client and counselor, males and females preferred counselors of the same sex as themselves. Other findings revealed that the preferences for ethnically similar counselors increased with income, and that minority counselors were generally preferred by all subjects.

A more recent study by Gordon and Grantham (1979) looked at helper preference in disadvantaged students. Their study explored the effects of race, racial self-designation, sex and previous counseling experience on the preferences of disadvantaged students for a helper of the same race, sex, age and social class background. Gordon and Grantham's results indicated a slight preference for all disadvantaged groups for a helper of the same sex, age and race but a more definite
preference for a helper of the same social class background. The disadvantaged students represented in the Gordon and Grantham study were Black, Puerto Rican, White and Other. One of the more serious limitations of this study in terms of research design was the fluctuation of ANOVA sample size as a function of how many groups resulted from a particular classification variable. The other limitation was the possibility of a Type I error. The authors recommend a conservative interpretation of the results and a multidimensional approach to future studies of helper preference.

Summary

The literature on counselor-client gender similarity and preference for counselor has been presented in two parts. The first part looked at studies with Black, White, and Black/White student combinations. Findings from early studies indicate that gender played a significant role but that appears to be changing as other variables (e.g. counselor's body language, and experience) take on a more significant role. With regards to White students, the advent of the women's movement appears to have influenced the issue of gender in the client-counselor relationship. As indicated earlier, the role of gender in the counseling relationship is in transition. The more significant role in the eighties is that of sex role behavior or androgyny.

The second part of the literature review included studies with Black, White, and Latino groups. Findings indicated preferences along same sex lines in studies not measuring ethnic identification. In the only study including male and female subjects and measuring ethnic
identification findings revealed complex interactions. A psychological and anthropological interpretation of the complex interaction between gender preference and ethnic identification was found insufficient in explaining the dynamics of the acculturation process. For Latino subjects, and for Puerto Rican students in particular, the political aspect of ethnicity may have a significant impact on their preferences for a counselor.

The fact that only one study could be found which examined the relationship of ethnic identification to the preferences of male and female students for a counselor of the same sex bears evidence to the need for further research in this area.

Problem Types and Preference for a Counselor

In a study of influences of counselor and client sex on client expressions of feeling, Fuller (1963) found more feeling in counseling sessions for clients who preferred male counselors. Fuller (1964) again examined male and female preferences for counselor sex, whether preferences varied with presenting problem (vocational or personal), and whether preferences changed after counseling. Results of this study showed that males preferred male counselors to a greater degree than females preferred female counselors for both vocational and personal problems. Additionally, males expressed a preference more often for a personal than a vocational problem.

Boulware and Holmes (1970) studied preferences for therapists and related expectancies of 60 male and 60 female undergraduate students. Their findings showed that older males were the preferred therapists in all cases. The exception to this were females who had personal
problems; they preferred older female therapists. Preferences were also related to therapists' attributes, i.e. understanding and experience, rather than similarity to student.

Smith (1974) studied preferences of university students for, attitudes toward, and perceptions of counselors and counseling services. Results indicated that a) a majority of students preferred a peer for help with a social problem, b) but least preferred a peer counselor for help with a vocational problem. Students preferred fellow students as helpers only for concerns that did not require substantial professional expertise. Relative to sex, students preferred same sex counselor for concerns of a personal-social nature.

Briley (1977) investigated the relationship between race, sex, type of problem and interpersonal trust in determining ethnic-racial preference for a counselor. He examined the counselor choices of four groups of students for ten major problem categories. Briley found significant differences between males and females and their preferred counselors for personality and personal-psychological problems, for social problems, and for sex and marriage problems. He found no significant differences in the counselor preferences of male and female students for academic, personal-social, social-psychological, social-physical, home and family, physical, and financial problems. Relative to sex of counselor and clients, findings revealed that male students in both samples (Black and White) preferred a male counselor on far more problems than they preferred a female counselor; and female students preferred a female counselor on a greater percentage of problems.
Thompson and Cimbolic (1978) examined Black students' counselor preference and attitudes toward counseling center use. Effects of counselor preference, sex of client, sex of counselor, race of counselor, and type of problem on counseling center use were analyzed. Results showed that Black clients preferred same race counselors and that the likelihood of taking a problem to the counseling center increased as counselor preference increased. Other findings revealed client and counselor sex, as well as type of problem to have no effect on potential counseling center use.

In those few cases where other non-Black minority groups have been included results always showed a need for further research and refinement of measurement and methodological approaches. In one study with Asian American, Black, and White subjects, Webster and Fretz (1978) examined the preferences of college students for help-giving sources for two problem types (educational/vocational and emotional problems). Results showed no significant differences for rankings of help sources under the two problem types for the group as a whole or for any sex or ethnic subgrouping. All students assigned high ratings to parents and relatives but low ratings to psychotherapist, health service, and the community mental health service. The distinctly low preferences that students expressed for using residence hall counselors, community mental health, the health center and private psychotherapists even for emotional problems support findings from earlier studies (Armstrong, 1969; Snyder, Hill, Derksen, 1972).

One other interesting note in the Webster and Fretz study was the finding that both Black and White students ranked parents as their
most preferred source of help for emotional problems in contrast to both Asian males and females who ranked relatives (non-parents) as most preferred help source for this problem type. This finding for the Asian American group supports the conclusions of Sue and Sue (1974) that seeking professional help for personal problems is shameful in the Asian cultural context. Webster and Fretz note that as various cultural/racial groups continue to attend college and change reference groups, a greater degree of acculturation into the American value system will take place. They see a more positive attitude and greater use of counseling services as one benefit of the acculturation process.

In another study in a college setting Mayo (1980) examined students' preferences and expectancies for counselor age, race, and sex and how these influence counselor choice for specific concerns. The subjects (30 Black and White students from two different universities) were asked to indicate counselor preference for personal or vocational concerns from photographs of Black/White and young/old counselors. Results showed client age and both preferred and expected counselor age to be independent; the same was not true for race. Client sex and expected counselor sex were independent, however the sex of the client and the preferred sex of the counselor were dependent upon specific concerns.

Student sex role identity and problem type and their effects on seeking counseling and preference for counselor sex was the purpose of a study by Voit (1980). This is one of the early studies on how sex role attitudes and behaviors differentially influence feelings about
seeking professional help and who seeks whom for what type of concern. Results of the Voit study indicated (1) significant main effects of sex role identity on help seeking behavior, (2) significant main effect between problem type and the likelihood of seeking help, (3) preference for counselor sex was significantly influenced by the type of problem. Sex role identity had no bearing on sex preference. No interaction effects were found between sex role identity and problem type on either likelihood of seeking counseling or sex preference.

In the Voit study the likelihood of seeking help was influenced by the student's sex role identity and the nature of his/her problem. Students with a feminine sex role tended to seek professional help for academic-vocational or suicide concerns. Students who did not seek help had a masculine sex role identity and tended to have problems of a personal nature. As in other studies students with academic-vocational problems preferred male counselors and those with personal problems preferred a female counselor. These preferences were independent of sex role identity.

The numbers and the composition of the university student body have changed in the last 25 years. While there is a large Black presence and a growing number of other racial-ethnic groups (Hispanics, Asian-American, Native American) in colleges and universities, the student body remains predominately White. A greater range of socio-economic groups, and more recently, older adults and the displaced homemaker returning for personal and/or career development make up this diverse student body. The research in the counselor preference literature appears to be undergoing a similar evolvement.
The older adult has become the newest arrival on the college campus and thus the new client in the research on the preferred counselor characteristics of this student group.

Thomas (1980) studied counselor age, race, and sex preferences of older clients for the type of problem discussed. The author found that older clients preferred like-age counselors for psychotherapeutic aid. Certain racial biases of this age group were noted. Matters related to health problems, physical ailments, or emotional worries were not a preferred topic of discussion with opposite sex counselors. Matching the client’s preference became more difficult when dealing with all three variables (age, race, sex) instead of one of the three alone.

In a similar study Gole (1981) examined the preferred counselor characteristics, expressed counseling needs, and the counseling perceptions of the older adult university students. Results indicated that elderly students viewed counselors as appropriate helpers for minor life concerns and as best able to provide educational and vocational assistance. Primary usage of counselors was for educational concerns; since little stigma was associated, counseling was perceived as appropriate for the elderly. Preferred counselor sex and age were not significant but counselor age became more important than sex for personal concerns in comparison to educational and vocational concerns.

Counselor gender, per se, is no longer believed to have a major bearing on the counseling relationship. Trust in or preference for a counselor is a function of the client’s perception or judgment of the
suitability of the counselor's sex for specific problems or concerns.

The question on the suitability of the counselor's sex is what Lee, Hallberg, Jones, and Haase (1980) examined in their study on preference for counselor gender and perceived credibility in relation to type of client concern. Students responded to four videotaped interviews of a male and female counselor interacting with a client on one each of a vocational and child-rearing concern. Results showed a strong correlation between counselor gender preference and client concern but no significant difference in the perceived credibility of the counselor regardless of sex and of the two problem types. While no significant differences occurred for males and females in perceived counselor credibility a clear preference for counselor gender was evident. Both male and female clients preferred the male counselor for the vocational concern, but preferred the female counselor for the child-rearing concern.

The Lee et al results are similar to Fuller's (1964), Boulware and Holmes' (1970), and Mezzano's (1971) indicating client adherence to traditional sex roles, or the assumption that men are more knowledgeable about career/vocational concerns and women's expertise is limited to domestic and child-rearing concerns. This client adherence to traditional sex roles may reflect broader societal norms and stereotypes which are perhaps more pervasive and more resistant to change. Research by Tanney and Birk (1978), Feldstein (1979), and Highlen and Russell (1980) indicates that traditional sex roles are being questioned.

The degree to which this questioning of traditional role is
taking place among other racial-ethnic groups is still a matter of inquiry. The counseling literature with Hispanic, Asian American, and Native American populations is scarce and given that paucity generalizations about what changes may be occurring with traditional male and female roles become suspect. It appears however that for these three groups particular cultural norms and values remain in place which may maintain traditional roles. The stage where an individual and a group are in relation to the broad acculturation process may influence what is perceived as a problem and who may be the best source of help for that problem.

In one of the few studies with a racial-ethnic group Littrell and Littrell (1982) examined American Indian and Caucasian student preferences for counselors. The variables in this study were student race and sex and counselor dress and sex. Students were asked to rate their preferences for discussing personal, academic, and vocational concerns with a counselor.

Results indicated that Indians' and Caucasians' preferences for counselors differed on the basis of counselor attire. Indian students preferred counselors in fashionable, contemporary attire for discussing all three concerns and Caucasian students preferred the young, casual, and comfortably dressed counselor regardless of the type of concern. Indian females more strongly preferred a female counselor than did the male Indians. Female rather than male counselors were preferred by Caucasian females for academic and vocational concerns. Male students showed a greater preference for male over female counselors.
One note which may speak to the maintenance of some cultural norms was the finding that female Indians had an aversion to discussing personal concerns with a male counselor. The authors note that age is valued differently in the two cultures. In an Indian culture age is equated with knowledge and in a Caucasian cultural context age similarity is perceived as an indicator of ease of rapport, or as knowledge about the student's world. Littrell and Littrell also note the strong traditional pattern of same-sex discussion, interaction, and support among Indian women and they recommend further exploration of this strong same sex preference.

Summary

The literature on client preferences for counselor race, sex, and problem type has indicated a differential evolvement along racial and ethnic lines.

For White students this research has evolved from a male versus female, to male or female for specific problem types, to the current question of sex role: male, female, or androgynous. For Black students the evolvement has been from a simple race question to the more highly developed racial-identity construct.

For Latino students the evolvement is still in its very early stages. What is known about this group is limited to a few studies with tentative conclusions and contradictory results. The most important conclusion that can be drawn from all of the studies involving a Latino group is the measurement issue. The studies demonstrate the need for a more comprehensive instrument that would measure the multifaceted nature of the ethnicity phenomenon.
The literature on client preferences for counselors has indicated that students, and racial-ethnic minorities in particular, have preferences for whom they will seek help from on specific problems. The research also indicates that male and female students with different kinds of concerns differ in their preference for help. All of these variables determine client preferences for a counselor and they may also determine who will or will not seek counseling. These preferences may also be a function of the various cultural beliefs and values and the stage where a racial-ethnic group may be in the whole acculturation process.

The limited research on the counselor preferences of Puerto Rican university students indicates that Puerto Rican students have certain cultural beliefs and values which may influence who is perceived as a source of help, and what is perceived as a problem. The current study responds to the need for further research in the area of client preferences for a counselor. Specifically, this study examines the role of client gender and ethnicity variables in determining preferences of Puerto Rican students for similar counselor gender and ethnicity characteristics for three problem types.
CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Introduction

This study examines counselor preferences of Puerto Rican university students by determining: (1) how ethnic identification influences their choice for a counselor of the same ethnicity, (2) whether Puerto Rican females and males prefer same sex counselors, (3) whether Puerto Rican females and Puerto Rican males prefer same sex counselor for different kinds of problems, and (4) whether ethnic identification influences choice of Puerto Rican females and males for a counselor of the same ethnicity and sex for different kinds of problems.

Student preferences for counselor ethnicity and sex are determined by the Counselor Preference Checklist (See Appendix A, p. 170). This scale was modified by this researcher for use with a Puerto Rican population from one developed by Briley (1977) for use with Black and White students. Students' ethnic identification is determined by a score above or below the mean on the Traditional Family Belief Scale (See Appendix B, p. 179). This scale, first used with a Puerto Rican college population in 1960, has also been modified by this researcher to delete vague items and to include current family issues. The TFBS has been used by other researchers to measure ethnic orientation or the degree to which a Puerto Rican adheres to or moves away from a traditional Latin American belief system.
Information about students' age, sex, place of birth, educational background and other demographic information is collected through the Demographics Data Sheet. This instrument was developed by the researcher (See Appendix C, p. 184).

Subjects

The subjects in this study consist of 156 Puerto Rican undergraduate students at Northeastern Illinois University, enrolled for the Fall 1982 and Winter 1983 academic trimesters. The 156 students in this study may not represent the overall population at Northeastern Illinois University. Registration forms at the university do not list separate categories for Hispanic subgroups thus prohibiting a computer check of their actual numbers and/or their proportion to the rest of the student body. Given the limitation about the actual number of Puerto Rican students enrolled at the university and the desire to conduct the study in a classroom setting the decision was made to contact faculty directly.

Permission and assistance in contacting faculty for purposes of identifying Puerto Rican students at Northeastern were obtained through Dr. Angelina Pedroso, Assistant Professor and Chairperson of the Faculty Senate. Initial contact with faculty was made by letter. This was followed by a telephone contact to discuss scope and purpose of the study and to make arrangements for visiting the classroom of those agreeing to participate. Faculty were identified by Dr. Pedroso and this researcher and were chosen on the basis of who would have Puerto Rican students in class. Faculty in the Spanish and Sociology Departments, administrators, and counselors from the two minority
educational programs were also identified and contacted.

The Puerto Rican students in this study were volunteers and received no academic or financial benefits for their participation.

Institutional Setting

The university's primary focus is the preparation of teachers. It serves predominately a student population ranging from lower to middle income; they are first generation college students residing in the north or northwest part of the city of Chicago (Torres, 1983). A large majority of the Puerto Rican students comes from financially depressed homes.

Instrumentation

Counselor Preference Checklist

After a review of literature focusing on the various measurement tools for client preferences for a counselor, Briley's (1977) Counselor Preference Checklist was chosen as the most appropriate for this study (see Appendix C, p. 184). This instrument measures client preference for a counselor on the basis of problem type, counselor race and sex.

Briley's instrument contains ten problem areas, but for purposes of this study, the problem areas were modified and reduced to three general areas of student concerns. These areas are: (1) Academic/Vocational, (2) Personal/Health/Psychological, and (3) Family/Social. The problems listed under each category accordingly reflect the nature of the problem. The first 20 problems deal with Academic/Vocational concerns, the second 20 list concerns of a Personal, Health or Psychological nature, and the third category,
Family and Social, lists those student concerns that deal with family matters and with the social group with which the student is in contact both in school and away from school.

The Briley Checklist was modified to delete concerns which were not appropriate for a Puerto Rican student population and to include those concerns which are more relevant and culturally representative.

Three psychologists (two Puerto Rican and one Mexican American) were asked to sort 90 student problems developed by the experimenter into one of three categories (Academic/Vocational, Personal/Health/Psychological, and Family/Social). These judges were also asked to assess cultural relevance and appropriateness of problem type for a Puerto Rican university student population. Items which were vague or which overlapped between two categories were revised. Sixty items, 20 for each category, were selected and revised. This resulted in 100% inter-judge agreement.

Each of the 60 problems on the checklist is accompanied by a choice for counselor race, gender, and no preference. Students are asked to imagine that they are faced with each of the problems listed. They are then asked: "If given a choice of a counselor for each problem, which counselor would you prefer to talk to about that particular problem?" Students then place a check mark for the counselor with whom they wish to talk about each problem. The instrument is available in Spanish and in cases where a student preferred the Spanish version, oral instructions are also provided in Spanish.
Traditional Family Belief Scale (TFBS)

This scale, chosen to determine ethnic orientation of Puerto Rican students, was first developed by a Mexican psychiatrist, Diaz-Guerrero (1955), for use with a Mexican population. It was modified by two Puerto Rican psychiatrists and one educator for use with a Puerto Rican, university freshmen population (Maldonado-Sierra, Trent, and Fernandez-Marina, 1960). Vasquez (1975) used the TFBS with Puerto Rican students in the minority education program at four colleges of the City University of New York, and Kleiber (1974) utilized the TFBS with Puerto Rican students at the Bronx Community College of the City University of New York.

The TFBS used by Vasquez (1975) was modified for the present study. The modification involved the addition of a number of sex role related items (see Appendix Ea, Eb, p. 190). These included statements about responsibility for child-rearing, division of domestic labor, career and educational expectations. Reliability for the TFBS was established utilizing a measure of internal consistency, coefficient alpha, developed by Cronbach (1951). Reliability was established at .94. A split half reliability of .81 was obtained by Maldonado-Sierra, Trent, and Fernandez-Marina (1960), and an alpha coefficient of .87 was obtained by Klieber (1974) for this instrument.

The TFBS (see Appendix B, p. 179) measures the degree to which an individual adheres to Latin American traditional values and family beliefs. A low score on this instrument is an indicator of an individual's rejection or movement away from these traditional beliefs. Conversely, a high score on this instrument is an indicator
of individual adherence to or maintenance of traditional values and family beliefs. A total score above or below the mean determines the subjects' general orientation to traditional island or non-traditional mainland beliefs and values. Thus, the mean separates subjects into an island ethnic orientation or non-acculturated group, and a mainland or acculturated group. Separate mean scores were established by this and previous researchers for males and females. In the present study mean scores for males was -.014 and mean scores for females was -.741.

Permission to use the TFBS was obtained from Mrs. R. Fernandez-Marina, widow of Dr. Ramon Fernandez-Marina, in a personal note (see Appendix D, p. 188).

**Demographic Data Sheet**

A demographic data sheet (See Appendix C, p. 184) was developed by this investigator to collect pertinent background information on the student population, such as age, sex, country where most of elementary and secondary education was received, student's major, sex and ethnic background of counselor seen at the university, and parents' place of birth and level of education.

**Data Collection**

Survey instruments were administered to Puerto Rican students in classes identified by professors who agreed to participate in this study. Surveys were also administered to students in two of the university's minority educational programs (Centro de Recursos Educativos, an evening school program, and Proyecto Pa'lante, a full-time special services minority program).

Since a large number of Puerto Rican students takes Spanish or
some other course in one of the other educational programs, this "captive audience" setting was determined the most appropriate for the research. Additionally, in response to the need for sensitivity to the sociopolitical sophistication of the Puerto Rican students at Northeastern, and to their legitimate concerns about the purpose and immediate benefits to this student body, both Dr. Pedroso and this investigator decided upon the classroom setting as the most appropriate setting for this investigation.

The survey instruments were distributed by three experimenters randomly assigned to the various classes. All three experimenters had a written set of instructions which were given to all the students at the time that they participated in the survey. Additional instructions appeared on the TFBS and the Counselor Preference Checklist. The Demographics Data Sheet is straightforward and self-explanatory so no additional instructions were necessary beyond those which were provided orally at the introduction stage. The written set of instructions insured consistency of message, and it also assured that students understood the completely voluntary nature of their participation.

Each subject received a packet containing the TFBS, the Counselor Preference Checklist and the Demographic Data Sheet. The instruments were distributed in a sealed envelope. Once students completed the survey instruments they placed the completed surveys in the envelope and returned it to the experimenter. This procedure served two purposes: (1) it assured students of confidentiality because no one else saw their responses during the collection process, and (2) it
assured the experimenter an accurate collection of each student's survey responses.

All instruments were made available in Spanish to those students who preferred the Spanish edition. This bilingual approach has been recommended by other researchers (Vasquez, 1975; Ruiz and Padilla, 1977). Eighty-five Spanish edition surveys were requested by the subjects under investigation. This fact may be used as one indicator of the ethnic identification factor in this counselor preference study.

**Statistical Analysis**

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Second Edition (SPSSx Users Guide, 1983) was used for all statistical analysis. Contingency tables (crosstabulation) are used to depict the relationship between the dependent variable (counselor choice) and the independent variables (level of acculturation and student gender). Actual cell frequencies were computed and presented along with row and total percentage for each cell.

The chi square statistic was utilized to test all hypotheses and to determine the existence of any significant differences in preferences for a counselor. Counselor preference was the dependent variable. A chi square was computed on each hypothesis for client gender and ethnicity and counselor choice for each of three problem types. The problem types were: Academic-Vocational, Personal-Health-Psychological, and Family-Social. Observed frequencies and percentages were compared and shown on two way tables.

The preference for a counselor on the basis of student gender,
ethnicity, and problem type was further scrutinized by using an item-by-item analysis for each of 20 student concerns. The chi square statistic was used again to determine significant differences for choice of counselor for each of 20 student concerns in each of the three categories. Items which were determined to be highly significant and which contributed the most to a significant chi square for each of the three problem types will also be presented. The .01 level of significance was used to test all hypotheses.

**Summary**

This study used a sample of 156 Puerto Rican students from Northeastern Illinois University. A Counselor Preference Checklist was administered to determine students' preference for a counselor for three problem types: Academic-Vocational, Personal-Health-Psychological, and Family-Social. A second instrument (Traditional Family Belief Scale) was administered to measure student ethnic identification. The mean score was used to separate students into one of two ethnic identity groups: acculturated and non-acculturated. Separate mean scores were used for male and female students. The third instrument (Demographic Data Sheet) collects pertinent student characteristics (i.e. age, sex, birthplace, etc.).

This study examines the preferences of Puerto Rican university students for counselor ethnicity and gender. The study seeks to determine how student ethnic identification and gender influence their choices for a counselor for three problem types. Interaction effects of student gender and ethnicity and counselor preference for each problem type are examined. The chi square statistic was used to test
all hypotheses.

The method of acquiring student participation, a description of the instruments and the data collection, and a discussion of the statistical analysis were presented in Chapter III.
CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

Chapter IV is divided into two parts, descriptive and statistical. Part I presents descriptive information about the student sample in this study (See Tables 1 through 20). This information is derived from the Demographics Data Sheet, one of three instruments used in the study. The descriptive data give a general picture of the various student characteristics, i.e. age, sex, country where most of student's elementary and secondary education took place, student's major, sex, and ethnic background of counselor and the matter or client concern for seeing a counselor. Background information about the parents' place of birth and level of education was also included. Finally, one question asked the student to indicate what person, if any, had had the most influence on his/her beliefs, values, and attitudes.

The second part of Chapter IV presents the findings obtained through the statistical procedures described in Chapter III, pp. 57-58. A Counselor Preference Checklist was used to determine the counselor choices of 156 Puerto Rican university students. This instrument lists 60 problems which may be of concern to university students. The 60 problems are divided into groups of 20 each for three general categories: Academic-Vocational, Personal-Health-
psychological, and Family-Social. The category defines the nature of the problem. The first set of 20 statements (1 through 20) listed problems of an academic-vocational nature. The second set of statements (21 through 40) listed problems of a personal-health-psychological nature, and the last 20 statements (41 through 60) listed problems of a family-social nature.

The Counselor Preference Checklist asked students to indicate their preference for counselor race and gender for specific problems in each of the three categories of problem types. A comparison of student responses on the Counselor Preference Checklist was made to determine for significant differences in the counselor preferences of Puerto Rican students. Students were assigned to one of two groups, male or female.

A Traditional Family Belief Scale measured a student's level of ethnic identification. Ethnic identification was defined as the degree to which a student adheres to or moves away from traditional Latin American beliefs and attitudes. Students whose beliefs and attitudes are congruent with traditional Latin American beliefs and attitudes are considered, for purposes of the present study, non-acculturated. Conversely, students who reject or move away from traditional Latin American beliefs are considered acculturated. Students were assigned to an acculturated or non-acculturated group on the basis of their scores on the Traditional Family Belief Scale. Separate mean scores were established for males and females; mean score for males was -.014 and mean score for females was -.741.

Five hypotheses were tested to check for significant differences
between two levels of ethnic identification (acculturated and non-acculturated), gender (male and female), and three types of problems (academic-vocational, personal-health-psychological, and family-social) in preferences for a counselor. A comparison of student responses on the Counselor Preference Checklist was made for each group. Students were asked to indicate which counselor they prefer to talk to about each problem. They were given five counselor choices for each problem: Anglo Male, Anglo Female, Puerto Rican Male and Puerto Rican Female, and No Preference.

The second part of Chapter IV begins with a brief look at the preferences of all Puerto Rican students for a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background for each of three problem types. A frequency distribution is used for each of the three problem types. A chi-square statistic is used for analyzing the preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated Puerto Rican students for a counselor of the same gender and ethnicity for each of three problem types. The same statistical technique is used for examining the preferences of female and male Puerto Rican students for a counselor of the same gender and ethnicity for each of three problem types.

An item analysis for each of 20 student concerns in three problem categories will also be presented. A statistical analysis of each item will reveal which of the 20 items or statements on the Counselor Preference Checklist contributed the most to a significant chi-square value for each problem type. The chi-square technique with a .01 level of significance was used to test each of the five hypotheses. The chi-square technique and the .01 level of significance were also
used for each item analysis.

**Part I Descriptive Data**

Table 1 shows the distribution for student gender and indicates that from a total sample of 156 students, 108 or 69.2% were females. The male student group was made up of 48 or 30.8% of the total sample.

Table 1

**Distribution for Student Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>69.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>30.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 2 shows the birthplace for the student sample: from a total sample of 156 students, 93 or 59.6% were born in Puerto Rico. The remainder, 63 students or 40.4% were born in the United States.

Table 2

**Distribution for Students' Place of Birth**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Place of Birth</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>93</td>
<td>59.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>40.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 presents the age breakdown for the student sample in five age categories. The sample size is 156 students, but eleven students
either missed the question or chose not to answer it.

In Category A the students’ age ranged from 18 to 21 years of age; this age group represented 55.1% of the total student sample. Category B shows a student age distribution ranging from 22 to 25 years of age; Category B represents 19.2 of the student sample. Age-wise the majority of the students fell into Categories A and B representing 74.3% of the total student sample.

Category C shows a student age distribution ranging from 26 to 29 years of age; this group comprised 10.9% of the total student sample. In Category D, the students’ age ranged from 30 to 33 representing 7.1% of the total student sample. Category E shows one 46 year old student, or less than 1% of the total student sample. The last line shows seven missing cases, or 7.1% of a sample of 156 students.

Students in this study were asked to indicate where they had received all or most of their elementary education. Table 4 shows the sample to be closely divided between those who received all or most of their elementary education in Puerto Rico, 52.6% and those who received most of their education in the United States, 45.5%.
### Table 3

**Distribution for Students' Age**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Age</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Age Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. 18</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>23.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>19</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>21</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. 22</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>23</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>24</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. 26</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>27</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>28</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>29</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. 30</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>31</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>32</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>33</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E. 41</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mean Age = 21.9
Table 4

Country Where Most of Elementary Education was Received

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Elementary Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>52.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>45.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Three students did not provide information or they gave information which could not be placed in either category.

Students were asked the same question about secondary education. Table 5 shows that a smaller percentage of students, 39.1% received all or most of their high school education in Puerto Rico. A larger percentage of students received most of their high school education in the United States, 60.3%. One student did not answer the question related to high school; this missing value represented .6% of the total.
### Table 5

**Country Where Most of High School Education was Received**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>High School Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>39.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>United States</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>60.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>156</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All students (156) answered the question related to their year in school, but two students gave responses that could not be coded into a specific college year. Table 6 shows the breakdown for college year.

A little over half of the sample, 59.0% were Freshmen. The rest was made up of Sophomores, 19.9%; Junior, 12.8%; and Seniors, 7.1%.

### Table 6

**Student Year at the University**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Student Year</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Freshmen</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>59.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sophomore</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>156</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Students were asked to indicate whether they had decided on a major. Table 7 shows that a small percentage are undecided on a major, 20.5%; a majority of the students, 78.8% has decided on a major.

Table 7
Student's Decision on a Major

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Decided on Major</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>122</td>
<td>78.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students were also asked to indicate their major. Frequencies and percentages for major as indicated in Table 8 show a fairly equal distribution across the four major categories with a) 19.8% in the area of applied sciences; b) 17.9% in the health related and natural science area; c) 21.3% in the behavioral sciences; and d) 19.3% in the humanities area; 34 students (21.8%) did not indicate a major.

Students were asked if they had seen a counselor at the university. Table 9 shows that a small percentage, 16.0% (25 students), had not seen a counselor at the university, but a majority (129) of students, 82.7%, had seen a counselor. Two students did not answer the question; these two missing responses represented 1.3% of the total.
Table 8

Distribution for Students' Major Field of Study

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Major</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
<th>Percent by Major Category</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Business Administration</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer Science</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mathematics</td>
<td>(31)</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>19.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Health Field</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Natural Science</td>
<td>(28)</td>
<td>14.7</td>
<td>17.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Law and Criminal</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Justice</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Political Science</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Psychology</td>
<td>(33)</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td>21.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Social Science</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Education</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Humanities</td>
<td>(30)</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>19.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>(34)</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>21.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Students were then asked to indicate the matter for seeing a counselor. The nature of the student's concern fell into: a) Vocational or Academic matter, b) Personal, Health or Psychological matter, and c) Family or Social matter, or a combination of these.

Table 10 indicates that a majority of students (109), or 69.9%, saw a counselor for a Vocational/Academic matter. This finding supports earlier research which showed a general student aversion for discussing problems of a personal or psychological nature (Johnson, 1977; Gelso, Birk, Utz, and Silver, 1977). In addition almost 20% of
the sample did not respond to the reason for seeing a counselor. Although 16% of the sample did not see a counselor, some of those who saw a counselor did not respond.

Table 9

Number of Students Who Have and Have Not Seen a Counselor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Seen a Counselor</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>16.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>129</td>
<td>82.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 10

Reason for Seeing a Counselor

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nature of the Problem</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vocational/Academic</td>
<td>109</td>
<td>69.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational/Family</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocational/Personal</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personal/Health/ Psychological</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family/Social</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All Reasons</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 11 shows that more than half of the students (83), 53.2%, saw a male counselor for these types of problems.

**Table 11**

**Distribution for Counselor's Gender**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counselor Gender</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>53.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male/Female</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The other values in this table include the frequency of mixed responses, that is, students who had seen both a male and female counselor, 11.5%, and the frequency of no responses, 12.8%.

Table 12 shows that over half of the students, 57.1%, saw a Hispanic counselor. A small percentage, 11.5%, saw an Anglo counselor and an even smaller percentage, 3.8%, saw a counselor who was neither Anglo nor Hispanic. The last line on Table 12 shows missing values for a total of 43 students. This value includes students who did not answer the question.
Table 12

Distribution for Counselor's Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counselor's Ethnicity</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anglo</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>11.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Hispanic</td>
<td>89</td>
<td>57.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>27.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The students were asked to indicate the highest grade of education attained by each parent. Table 13 shows where the higher percentages fell for father's education.

Table 13 shows that a little over a third, 35.3%, of the students' fathers had six or less years of school. The reason for the higher percentage here is accounted for by the established mid-point in the educational system of the public schools in Puerto Rico. The sixth grade is a transition point from the primary to the upper grades. A small percentage, 19.9%, had from one to four years of high school, and 12.2% were high school graduates. Percentages decreased at the higher education levels: 5.8% were college graduates. Sixteen students did not have or perhaps chose not to give this information.
Table 13

Father's Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education Level</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary: 1 thru 6</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>35.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary: 7 thru 8</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School: 1 thru 4</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Graduate</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>12.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College: 1 thru 4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>3.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Graduate</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional (M.D.)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>10.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>156</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 14 indicates that less than half, 41.7%, of the students' mothers had six or less years of school. Twenty-one percent had from one to four years of high school, and 12.9% were high school graduates. These two percentages show a slightly higher level of education for the mothers in comparison to fathers; however, the reverse was true for college graduates: 5.8% of fathers had graduated from college in comparison to 2.6% of the mothers. No mothers were represented in the professional or post college group and two students did not respond to the question about their mother's education.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mother's Education</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Primary: 1 thru 6</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>41.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary: 7 thru 8</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>14.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School: 1 thru 4</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>20.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High School Graduate</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College: 1 thru 4</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>7.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College Graduate</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>2.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The small percentages of college graduates among parents of this study group indicate that most of these students are the first generation to attend college. Thus, there is an indication that there are special needs and challenges for this group of students since they lack the traditional support systems that are in place for the individual who may be a second or third generation college student.

The students were also asked to identify each of their parent's ethnicity. Table 15 shows that 96.8% of the fathers were Puerto Rican, 1.3% were not Puerto Rican. Ninety-seven percent of the mothers were Puerto Rican, 1.9% were not Puerto Rican. Two students did not answer the question related to their mother's ethnicity.
### Table 15

#### Parents' Ethnicity

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father Not Puerto Rican</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father Puerto Rican</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>96.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Mother Not Puerto Rican</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother Puerto Rican</td>
<td>151</td>
<td>96.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The parents' birthplace is illustrated in Table 16.

A very large percentage, 94.2%, of the students' parents were born in Puerto Rico. This contrasts sharply with the students' birthplace: 59.6% of the students were born in Puerto Rico and 40.4% were born in the United States.
Table 16

Parents' Birthplace

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Father: United States</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rico</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>93.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Mother: United States | 1         | .6      |
| Puerto Rico          | 146       | 93.6    |
| Missing              | 9         | 5.8     |
|                | 156       | 100.0   |

The final question on the instrument which gathered descriptive information asked the student: When you consider all those persons with whom you have had significant interaction, who among these has had the most influence on your beliefs, values, and attitudes? Students were given the option of placing an X in a box if they did not recognize an influential person.

The largest percentage, 20.5%, indicates that no one person was recognized as the most influential. In those cases where a most influential person was recognized, that person was the mother, 17.3%, followed closely by parents (mother and father), 16.7%. The multiple category which included family and some non-family person(s) came in third, 9.6%. Family came in fourth place, 8.3% as the most
influential person(s). Counselor ranked close to the end at 1.3%. It appears that if these students had to recognize a person or persons who were the most influential in their lives, that special honor was assigned to the mother alone or to both parents. The same was not true for the father alone who ranked much lower on the scale.

This finding is supported by the Fernandez-Marina, Maldonado-Sierra, and Trent's (1958) study of basic themes in Puerto Rican family values. One central theme of traditional Latin American values is the role of the mother as the family affectional figure. One of their findings indicated that "...the males placed the father far below the mother in terms of love and affection" (p. 179). The prevalence of this value has been observed by Christensen (1979) who noted that "No holiday except Christmas exceeds Mother's Day in its frenzy of gift giving and honoring of the female role in Puerto Rico" (p. 58).
Table 17

Most Influential Person

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Influential Person</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No One</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>20.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>17.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parents</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>16.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multiple *1</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Family *2</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other *3</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spouse</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sister</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselor</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grandmother</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>9.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>156</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1 Multiple included family and non-family persons, i.e. friend.
*2 Family included any combination of parent, sibling and other relative.
*3 Other referred to any person who was neither a family member nor relative, and who was not specifically referred to by any of the other categories listed above.
Summary

In summary, the student characteristics showed that females (68.6%) made up more than half of this student group. More than half (59.6%) of the students was born in Puerto Rico and a majority (74.3%) was between the ages of 18 and 25, with a mean age of 21.9. A little over half (52.6) had received most or all of their elementary education in Puerto Rico. This percentage had reversed by high school where more than half (60.3%) had received all or most of their high school education in the United States.

With regards to their college education, a little over half (59.0%) was freshmen, and 19.9% were sophomores; they represented a majority of the student sample. A majority (78.2%) of these students had decided on a major. Major areas of study for this student group were fairly equally distributed across applied sciences (19.8%), natural sciences (17.9%), behavioral sciences (21.3%) and humanities (19.3%). Thirty-four students (21.8%) had not declared a major.

A majority of the students (82.7%) had seen a counselor at the university, and the matter about which a counselor was most often seen was Vocational/Academic. A little over half of these counselors was Hispanic. Other background information indicates that the majority of these students is the first generation to attend college. With very small exceptions both the father and the mother are Puerto Rican. The final question seeking demographic data asked the student to identify the most influential person in his/her life. Many students did not recognize any one person but among those students who did, the mother was recognized as the most influential.
Part II Analysis of Findings

Descriptive information about the student group as a whole and its preferences for a counselor of the same ethnicity and gender is presented in a frequency distribution for each problem type. A chi-square statistic is used to further examine the counselor preferences of this student group. All five research hypotheses in the present study are stated in the null form and tested at the .01 level of significance.

An analysis of the counselor preferences of the total student group indicated no preferences for a counselor for an academic-vocational problem but a greater preference for a Puerto Rican female counselor for both personal-health-psychological and family-social problems.

Tables 18, 19, and 20 present frequency distributions for counselor choice for each of three problem types for all students. Table 18 indicates that a little over a third of all students (34.9%) expressed no preference for counselor choice for an academic-vocational problem but a very small percentage (6.7%) expressed a preference for either an Anglo male or Anglo female counselor. However, more than half, 56.7%, preferred a Puerto Rican counselor, male or female.

The counselor choices of all students for a personal-health-psychological problem (Table 19) showed a tie between the Puerto Rican female counselor (34.7%) and the no preference category (34.7%). A very small percentage (3.8%) preferred an Anglo male or an Anglo female for a personal-health-psychological problem.
Table 18

Frequency Distributions for Counselor Choice for an Academic-Vocational Problem by all Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counselor Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anglo Male</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglo Female</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican Male</td>
<td>942</td>
<td>30.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican Female</td>
<td>826</td>
<td>26.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Preference</td>
<td>1089</td>
<td>34.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing Cases</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>1.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The counselor choices of all students for a family-social problem (Table 20) showed that the Puerto Rican female counselor was the most preferred, (36.4%). The no preference category was the second choice for all students for this problem type (30.9%). The preference for a Puerto Rican female counselor appears to increase as the nature of the problem becomes more personal and more related to cultural values. The preference for a Puerto Rican female counselor has support in the earlier finding (Table 17) which recognized the mother as the person who had had the most influence on the beliefs, values, and attitudes of the student. This finding gives support to the existence of a superior devotion to the mother, a family belief that is characteristic of traditional Latin American culture (Diaz-Guerrero,
Table 19

Frequency Distribution for Counselor Choice for a Personal-Health-Psychological Problem by all Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counselor Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anglo Male</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglo Female</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican Male</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>22.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican Female</td>
<td>1084</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Preference</td>
<td>1084</td>
<td>34.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing Cases</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>4.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>3120</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Additional support for the perception of the female as the more understanding and helpful counselor was found by Christensen (1973) in a study of the guidance system in the public schools of Puerto Rico.

He found that

...over 90 percent of the female students preferred a female counselor but, contrary to the anticipated result, fully 43 percent of the male students had the same preference. Apparently the female is perceived as more helpful and nurturing (p. 57).

Hypothesis 1

There are no significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated Puerto Rican students for each of three problem types.
Table 20

Frequency Distribution for Counselor Choice for a Family-Social Problem by all Students

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counselor Type</th>
<th>Frequency</th>
<th>Percent</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Anglo Male</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Anglo Female</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>2.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican Male</td>
<td>697</td>
<td>22.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Puerto Rican Female</td>
<td>1137</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Preference</td>
<td>965</td>
<td>30.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Missing Cases</td>
<td>196</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>3120</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
An analysis of student responses on the Counselor Preference Checklist revealed significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated Puerto Rican students for all three problem types.

Table 21

Counselor Choice for an Academic-Vocational Problem by Ethnic Identification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Anglo Male</th>
<th>Anglo Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acculturated</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>433</td>
<td>494</td>
<td>738</td>
<td>1756</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.8</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>28.1</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>57.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>24.1</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 119.65458 df = 4 Significance = 0.0000

The critical value of chi-square for a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom is 13.28. The calculated chi-square values for each of the three problem categories are: 119.65 for academic-vocational, 87.02 for personal-health-psychological, and
167.23 for family-social. The calculated values of chi-square for each of the three problem types exceeded the critical value of the theoretical chi-square (13.28); the null hypothesis was therefore rejected for all three problem types (Tables 21, 22, 23).

A comparison of student responses on the academic-vocational problem type indicated that non-acculturated students chose the Puerto Rican male counselor (38.9%) as their most preferred source of help for this type of problem (Table 21).

Acculturated students on the other hand selected the no preference category (42.0%) indicating no specific preference for counselor gender or ethnic background for help with an academic-vocational problem. The difference in counselor choice between the acculturated student and the non-acculturated student may be due to the former's greater familiarity with a mainstream, non-Hispanic environment. Acculturated students as defined in the present study would include those persons whose beliefs, attitudes and values have moved away from traditional Latin American beliefs; these persons have become more "Americanized" (Fernandez-Marina, et al, 1958). An acculturated person would accordingly find equal or greater comfort with mainstream culture and with non-Hispanics. The non-acculturated student on the other hand identifies with traditional Latin American beliefs and may thus prefer to interact with a Puerto Rican counselor. In preferring the Puerto Rican male counselor to any counselor, non-acculturated students may be reflecting another aspect of their ethnic orientation. Traditionally, Latino males are afforded a superior status and greater authority than Latino females;
non-acculturated students may be indicating preferences that are congruent with traditional beliefs and attitudes.

An item analysis of the academic-vocational problem type on the Counselor Preference Checklist indicates which items contributed the most to a significant chi-square. The items which contributed the least to a significant chi-square are also shown. Each item is numbered and stated as it appeared on the Counselor Preference Checklist. The following list represents in rank order, from highest to lowest, those items which contributed the most to a significant chi-square for an academic-vocational problem. The computed chi-square and significance level for each item is given in parenthesis.

CPC 1 Unable to concentrate on studies. (Chi Square = 15.65, p =< .01)

CPC 5 Difficulty understanding the registration process. (Chi Square = 14.71, p =< .01)

CPC 11 Difficulty with the writing of term papers. (Chi Square = 13.87, p =< .01)

CPC 13 Having problems with a professor. (Chi Square = 13.29, p =< .01)

The computed chi-squared exceeded the critical chi-square value of 13.28 for a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom. The null hypothesis is therefore rejected with each of these items. Five other items were significant at the .05 level of significance. Items #1, 5, 11, and 13 made the greatest contribution to a significant chi-square indicating an important difference to acculturated and non-acculturated students in terms of who they would prefer for help with an academic-vocational problem.
The items that contributed the least to a significant chi square value for an academic-vocational problem were:

CPC 18 Need tutoring in some subject area. (Chi Square = 2.76)
CPC 14 Not knowing how to use the library. (Chi Square = 4.16)

These two and nine other items did not make a significant difference in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated students. Since the nature of the problem in all 20 items is the same, academic-vocational, any conclusion about what makes the difference is open to interpretation. One possible explanation may be that for both acculturated and non-acculturated students the problem associated with those 11 items are sufficiently generic to be equally difficult for both groups. The problem would therefore not affect a particular preference for a counselor.

An analysis of student responses on the Counselor Preference Checklist revealed significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated Puerto Rican students for a problem of a personal-health-psychological nature (Table 22). The critical value of chi-square is 13.28 for a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom. The obtained chi square value of 87.02 exceeds this theoretical value; the null hypothesis is therefore rejected.

Acculturated students again selected the no preference category (40.6%) as their first choice for counselor help with a personal-health-psychological problem (Table 22). In selecting the no preference category acculturated students are reflecting their willingness to discuss problems of a personal-health-psychological
nature with either an Anglo or Puerto Rican counselor. However it is important to note that the Puerto Rican female counselor (38.3%) was a close second choice for this acculturated group of students.

Table 22

Counselor Choice for a Personal-Health-Psychological Problem by Ethnic Identification

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Angel Male</th>
<th>Angel Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acculturated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>319</td>
<td>662</td>
<td>701</td>
<td>1727</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>38.3</td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>57.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>.8</td>
<td>10.7</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Acculturated</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>380</td>
<td>422</td>
<td>383</td>
<td>1258</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>33.5</td>
<td>30.4</td>
<td>42.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td>14.1</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>699</td>
<td>1084</td>
<td>1084</td>
<td>2985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 87.02071, df = 4, Significance = 0.0000

Non-acculturated students still preferred a Puerto Rican counselor but this time they selected a Puerto Rican female counselor (33.5%) as their first choice for help with a personal-health-psychological problem (Table 22). The unacculturated students' second choice for help showed an almost equal distribution.
between the no preference category (30.4%) and the Puerto Rican male counselor (30.2%). The switch by the non-acculturated group from a Puerto Rican male counselor to a Puerto Rican female counselor suggests that problems of a personal-health-psychological content, unlike problems of an academic-vocational nature, are more closely related to ethnic orientation. For non-acculturated students the selection of a Puerto Rican female counselor as their preferred source of help for a personal-health-psychological problem may be indicative of greater congruence or alignment with Latin American cultural beliefs. One principle theme of Latin American culture is the role of the mother as the central affectional figure. She is perceived as more understanding, nurturant and thus better able to handle these types of problems (Diaz-Guerrero, 1952, Fernandez-Marina, et al, 1958, Torres-Matrullo, 1980). The preference for a Puerto Rican female counselor may be an extension of this role.

An item analysis of the personal-health-psychological problem on the Counselor Preference Checklist shows which items contributed the most to a significant chi square. Only one item out of 20 was significant at a .01 significance level. One other item was significant at p < .05. The items and their chi square values were:

CPC 36 Feeling sick or in poor health. (Chi Square = 14.80, p < .01)

CPC 40 Difficulty defining your service commitments to the community. (Chi Square = 12.55, p < .05)

These two items alone made a significant contribution to the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated Puerto Rican students. The finding about CPC 36 is consistent with the
traditional role of the female as caretaker and nurturer. Non-acculturated students may be more likely than acculturated students to respond to this traditional cultural belief. In the case of CPC 40 the item has contributed to a significant chi square ($p < .05$), however the direction of this contribution is not apparent. It is not clear for which group, acculturated or non-acculturated, this item makes a difference in choosing a counselor. The other 18 items were not significant in determining differences between the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated Puerto Rican students. The two items which contributed the least to a significant chi square for a personal-health-psychological problem were:

CPC 35 Becoming sexually involved with boyfriend/girlfriend. (Chi Square = 1.24)

CPC 32 Too shy to ask for dates. (Chi Square = 3.31)

The inability of 18 items to indicate a significant difference between the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated students may be due to the equal difficulty that is experienced by both groups with each of the items in this category. In such a case neither group's counselor preference would be significantly affected.
An analysis of the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated students for a family-social problem revealed significant differences between the responses of these two groups (Table 23). The obtained chi square value of 167.23 for the family-social problem type exceeded the theoretical value of chi square (13.28) for a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom; the null hypothesis is therefore rejected. Acculturated students differ from the non-acculturated in their preferences for...
counselor help with a family-social problem (Table 23).

Acculturated students selected the Puerto Rican female counselor (41.8%) as their first choice for help with a family-social problem; the no preference category (39.1%) was a very close second choice. Non-acculturated students were likewise closely divided in their choices for counselor help. Their first choice for help with a family-social problem was the Puerto Rican female counselor (35.0%). The Puerto Rican male counselor (34.2%) was a very close second choice for this group of non-acculturated students. Non-acculturated students have consistently preferred the Puerto Rican counselor.

An item analysis of the family-social problem has identified the items from the Counselor Preference Checklist that contributed the most to a significant chi-square; those items and their computed chi-square values and significance levels were:

CPC 58 Arguments with parents over your career goals. (Chi Square = 25.42, p < .01)

CPC 60 Illness of family or friend worries you. (Chi Square = 21.20, p < .01)

CPC 44 Having too few social activities. (Chi Square = 16.58, p < .01)

CPC 51 Worrying about the sacrifices that parents make. (Chi Square = 16.49, p < .01)

CPC 59 Friends make many demands of your time. (Chi Square = 16.40, p < .01)

CPC 57 Arguments with parents about how you spend your money. (Chi Square = 15.83, p < .01)

CPC 45 Difficulty making friends. (Chi Square = 14.21, p < .01)

CPC 56 Arguments with parents about living away from home. (Chi Square = 14.04, p < .01)
CPC 55 Parents do not understand your needs. (Chi Square = 14.01, p < .01)

These findings support the work of earlier researchers demonstrating that while most cultural beliefs and attitudes undergo re-evaluation and varying degrees of change, other beliefs such as those about the family, remain relatively stable over years of cultural diffusion and through more than one generation (Fernandez-Marina et al, 1958; Torres-Matruillo, 1980).

Summary

An analysis of all the findings on the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated students for the three problem types revealed one consistent pattern: the counselor choices of acculturated students were between the no preference category and the Puerto Rican female counselor, while the counselor choices of the non-acculturated group were between the Puerto Rican male and the Puerto Rican female counselor. Non-acculturated students consistently chose a counselor of the same ethnic background; their variation was along gender lines.

In choosing a counselor for help with problems of an academic-vocational matter non-acculturated students preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for 38.9% of the problems (Table 21), but for matters of a personal-health-psychological nature, the Puerto Rican female counselor (33.5%) was preferred over the Puerto Rican male counselor (30.2%, Table 22). The content of the personal-health-psychological problems suggest an intimacy that may not be characteristic of academic-vocational problems. The likelihood of discussing matters of
greater intimacy are enhanced by a relationship that offers the potential for greater understanding and security. The traditional perception of the female as the affectional figure may have influenced this preference.

Non-acculturated students preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for academic-vocational (Table 21) problems. However, in the case of personal-health-psychological (Table 22) and family-social problems (Table 23), the Puerto Rican female counselor was the first choice for this group of students. This preference for the female counselor suggests some carry over from these traditional family beliefs.

The pattern indicated that acculturated students often showed no preference for counselor gender or ethnic background, but non-acculturated students consistently preferred the counselor of the same ethnic background for all three problem types. The variation between acculturated and non-acculturated students around the selection of the Puerto Rican female counselor as a first choice for specific problem types has been attributed to an alignment along cultural lines. In other words, students made choices congruent with cultural attitudes and beliefs, and by extension chose those counselors who were perceived as the best source of help for these problems.

Hypothesis 2

There are no significant differences between the counselor choices of female and male Puerto Rican students for each of three problem types.

An analysis of student responses on the Counselor Preference
Checklist indicated that male and female Puerto Rican students differed significantly in their choices for a counselor for each of three problem types (Tables 24, 25, 26).

The computed chi-square values of 89.27, 181.93, and 245.81 for the three problem types exceeded the theoretical chi-square value of 13.28 with a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom. The null hypothesis was rejected for the academic-vocational, personal-health-psychological, and family-social problem types.

Table 24

Counselor Choice for an Academic-Vocational Problem by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counselor Choice</th>
<th>Anglo</th>
<th>Anglo</th>
<th>Puerto</th>
<th>Puerto</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Subjects</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td>Male</td>
<td>Female</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>589</td>
<td>654</td>
<td>766</td>
<td>2121</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>30.8</td>
<td>36.1</td>
<td>69.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>19.2</td>
<td>21.3</td>
<td>25.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>30.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>11.5</td>
<td>5.6</td>
<td>10.5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>98</td>
<td>942</td>
<td>826</td>
<td>1089</td>
<td>3066</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.6</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>30.7</td>
<td>26.9</td>
<td>35.5</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 89.27195  df = 4  Significance = 0.0000

A comparison of student responses on the academic-vocational
problem type (Table 24) indicated that female students expressed no preference (36.1%) for a first choice and selected the Puerto Rican female counselor (30.8%) as a second choice. Male students did the reverse; they preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor, 37.4%, as their first choice and the no preference category, 34.2% as their second choice. Male students appear to prefer a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background, but the close showing of the no preference selection suggests that this initial preference is only slightly greater. Male students expressed a stronger preference for a counselor of the same gender. Only 18.2% of the male students would see a Puerto Rican female counselor, whereas 27.8% of the female students would see a Puerto Rican male counselor for an academic-vocational problem.

An item analysis of the counselor preferences of female and male Puerto Rican students for an academic-vocational problem indicated which items made the greatest contribution to a significant chi-square. Those items and their respective chi-square values were:

CPC 1 Unable to concentrate on studies. (Chi Square = 20.61, p < .01)

CPC 10 Lack of an appropriate place to study. (Chi Square = 15.95, p < .01)

An analysis of student responses on the Counselor Preference Checklist revealed significant differences between female and male Puerto Rican students and their choices for help with a personal-health-psychological problem (Table 25). Female students preferred a Puerto Rican female counselor (42.6%) for help with problems of a personal-health-psychological nature. The counselor choices of male
students were distributed differently: 39.1% indicated no preference, but 34.0% said they would prefer a Puerto Rican male counselor for help with this type of problem.

Table 25

Counselor Choice for a Personal-Health-Psychological Problem by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Anglo Male</th>
<th>Anglo Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Females</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>384</td>
<td>878</td>
<td>722</td>
<td>2059</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>69.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>1.8</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td>29.4</td>
<td>24.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Males</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>926</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>4.0</td>
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<td>34.0</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>31.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>1.2</td>
<td>.2</td>
<td>10.6</td>
<td>6.9</td>
<td>12.1</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>58</td>
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<td>699</td>
<td>1084</td>
<td>1084</td>
<td>2985</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td>23.4</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>36.3</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 181.93746   df = 4   Significance = 0.0

The gender of the counselor appears to be more important for the female student group when the nature of the problem is personal-health-psychological. The greater preference in this case differs from their closely divided preferences between the Puerto Rican female counselor and the no preference category for an academic-vocational
problem. The greater personal and psychological content of this problem type has apparently made female Puerto Rican students more selective in their choice of a counselor.

An item analysis of the counselor preferences of female and male students for a problem of a personal-health-psychological matter has indicated which items made a significant difference in these preferences. The items and their chi-square values were:

CPC 30 Feeling different. (Chi Square = 21.23, p =< .01)
CPC 28 Being overweight or underweight. (Chi Square = 18.50, p =< .01)
CPC 35 Becoming sexually involved with boyfriend/girlfriend. (Chi Square = 18.16, p =< .01)
CPC 40 Difficulty defining your service commitments to the community. (Chi Square = 17.40, p =< .01)
CPC 33 Unable to accept criticism from others. (Chi Square = 17.13, p =< .01)
CPC 26 Feeling tired and depressed. (Chi Square = 16.50, p =< .01)
CPC 32 Too shy to ask for dates. (Chi Square = 15.97, p =< .01)
CPC 34 Difficulty finding a boyfriend/girlfriend. (Chi Square = 13.61, p =< .01)

The nature of most of these items centered in personal sexuality and self-image. The greater selectivity on the part of the female student group for a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background is perhaps a reflection of both culture and gender role expectations. One gender role expectation may be that a better understanding of needs or concerns is inherently greater where gender similarity is the case. This same gender preference is consistent with traditional
Latin American beliefs regarding segregation of the sexes, and a strict definition of the proper relationship between men and women (Fernandez-Marina, Maldonado-Sierra, and Trent, 1958). These cultural beliefs define the parameters of appropriate behavior between men and women, and by extension, those topics which are appropriate for discussion. The greater psychological content of this problem type and the inclusion of concerns related to the individual's body image and sexuality appears to influence the choice for a counselor. Female students (42.6%) were more likely than male students (34.0%) to choose a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background for a personal-health-psychological problem.

These preferences appear to respond to Latin American cultural expectations. These expectations result from the segregation of the sexes, the differential evaluation of males and females, and the double standard of sexual morality. These are characteristics of a traditional Puerto Rican culture, and in particular, of lower class families (Fernandez-Marina, Maldonado-Sierra, and Trent, 1958). Christensen's (1979) study of the Puerto Rican woman made the same observations; his study noted that

(T)ypically the Puerto Rican female child encounters early restrictions in dress, conduct, freedom, language usage, and social customs.... Typically, little latitude in the feminine role is permitted, especially in regard to social and vocational behavior.... The limits of conduct are clearly marked (pp. 53-54).

Child rearing practices for the Puerto Rican family dictate greater freedom and license for male children. They are granted broader permission for such activities as staying away from home, keeping
company with the opposite sex, play activities, dress, and for adolescent males less restrictions for curfews and chaperonage (Christensen, 1975). The preference by the female student group for the Puerto Rican female counselor appears to be highly congruent with these cultural expectations.

Table 26

Counselor Choice for a Family-Social Problem by Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Anglo Male</th>
<th>Anglo Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Females</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>643</td>
<td>2010</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>68.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>32.4</td>
<td>22.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Males</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>339</td>
<td>191</td>
<td>322</td>
<td>914</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>4.5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>31.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>11.6</td>
<td>6.5</td>
<td>11.0</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
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<td>697</td>
<td>1137</td>
<td>965</td>
<td>2924</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>33.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 245.81223   df = 4   Significance = 0.0

An analysis of student responses on the Counselor Preference Checklist revealed significant differences between the counselor choices of female and male Puerto Rican students for a problem of a family-social nature (Table 26). The computed chi-square (245.81)
exceeded the critical chi-square value of 13.28 for a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom. The null hypothesis for the family-social problem is rejected.

A comparison of student responses on the family-social problem type indicated that female students preferred a Puerto Rican female counselor (47.1%), but male students preferred a Puerto Rican male counselor (37.1%), or the no preference category (35.2%). Female students were again more selective in their choice for help. Female students selected the Puerto Rican female counselor as their preferred source of help for both the personal-health-psychological and family-social problem types. The earlier discussion about the maintenance of certain traditional beliefs, particularly those related to family matters, seem to apply here also. In comparison to male students, female students may be seeking a greater sense of identification with a counselor who is of the same gender and ethnic background.

An analysis of each item on the family-social problem type identified 11 items which made a significant difference in the counselor preferences of male and female students. The 11 items and their chi square values were:

CPC 48 Feeling overwhelmed by the responsibilities at home. (Chi Square = 25.54, p < .01)

CPC 50 Parents separate or divorce. (Chi Square = 20.24, p < .01)

CPC 43 Feeling too easily influenced by friends. (Chi Square = 19.63, p < .01)

CPC 53 Having differences with parents over dating. (Chi Square = 19.17, p < .01)
CPC 49 Having problems with spouse or mate. (Chi Square = 18.94, p < .01)

CPC 46 Feeling uncomfortable in social situations. (Chi Square = 18.44, p < .01)

CPC 47 Feeling non-supported by parents. (Chi Square = 17.98, p < .01)

CPC 55 Parents do not understand your needs. (Chi Square = 17.34, p < .01)

CPC 60 Illness of family or friend worries you. (Chi Square = 15.66, p < .01)

CPC 54 Parents do not accept your friends. (Chi Square = 15.17, p < .01)

CPC 44 Having too few social activities. (Chi Square = 13.82, p < .01)

Five items specifically named the parents as the principal source of concern, and three items referred to the family or home as the area of concern. When viewed together, these eight items reflect concerns about the family as a whole. These family concerns made a significant difference in the counselor preferences of female and male Puerto Rican students.

Summary

An analysis of female and male student responses to all three problem types has indicated that with the exception of the no preference selection for the academic-vocational problems (Table 24), female students preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for both the personal-health-psychological (Table 25) and family-social problems (Table 26). The preferences of the male students were distributed differently. Male students preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for both the academic-vocational (Table 24) and
family-social problems (Table 26). The no preference category was a close second choice of the male students for these two problem types, but their first choice for problems of a personal-health-psychological nature. The preferences for female versus male counselors were explained in terms of their adherence to traditional family beliefs and child rearing practices in Puerto Rican culture.

**Hypothesis 3**

There are no significant differences in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-aculturated females for each of three problem types.

Significant differences were found between acculturated and non-aculturated female students and their preferences for counselor ethnicity and gender for the academic-vocational problems (Chi Square = 81.01, Table 27), personal-health-psychological problems (Chi Square = 26.05, Table 28), and family-social problems (Chi Square = 65.78, Table 29). The obtained chi square value for each problem category exceeded the theoretical chi square value of 13.28 with a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom. The null hypothesis was rejected for each of the three problem types.
An analysis of Table 27 shows that female students in the acculturated group chose the no preference category (42.6%) as their first choice for counselor help with an academic-vocational problem. Non-acculturated female students chose the Puerto Rican male counselor (33.8%) as their first choice, and the Puerto Rican female counselor (30.7%) as a close second choice.
were significant at .01; however six items were significant at .05. The choice for counselor help with academic-vocational problems appears to have less significance for the acculturated and non-acculturated female group than for the acculturated and non-acculturated group as a whole. Item analysis revealed no significant chi square values for academic-vocational problems for this acculturated and non-aculturated female group, but four items were significant at .01 for the acculturated and non-acculturated group.

A comparison of student responses to the personal-health-psychological problems indicated significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated females (Chi Square = 26.0, Table 28). The computed chi-square indicates that there is a difference, but the differences appear to be small because the first choice of counselor help (Puerto Rican female) is the same for these two groups of female students. Their second choice is also the same, the no preference category. None of the 20 items listed for the personal-health-psychological problems made a significant difference in the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated female students; items were not significant at $p < .01$ nor at $p < .05$. 
Table 28  
Counselor Choice for a Personal-Health-Psychological Problem  
by Ethnic Identification and Female Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Anglo Male</th>
<th>Anglo Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acculturated Females</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>199</td>
<td>521</td>
<td>460</td>
<td>1210</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td>43.1</td>
<td>38.0</td>
<td>58.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>.4</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>9.7</td>
<td>25.3</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Acculturated Females</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>357</td>
<td>262</td>
<td>849</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>42.0</td>
<td>30.9</td>
<td>41.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td>17.3</td>
<td>12.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>21</td>
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<td>722</td>
<td>2059</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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<td>18.6</td>
<td>42.6</td>
<td>35.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 26.04536  
df = 4  
Significance = 0.0000

A comparison of student responses to the family-social problems (Table 29) revealed significant differences between acculturated and non-acculturated females (Chi Square = 65.78). As with problems of a personal-health-psychological nature, acculturated and non-acculturated females both chose the Puerto Rican female counselor as their first choice for help, and the no preference category as a second choice.

An item analysis of the 20 problems listed under the family-
Table 29

Counselor Choice for a Family-Social Problem
by Ethnic Identification and Female Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Anglo Male</th>
<th>Anglo Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

Acculturated Females

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>148</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>426</td>
<td>1160</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.4</td>
<td>12.8</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>57.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>0.8</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td>27.8</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Non-Acculturated Females

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>388</td>
<td>217</td>
<td>850</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>1.1</td>
<td>3.1</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>25.5</td>
<td>42.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>10.4</td>
<td>19.3</td>
<td>10.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Column Total

<p>| | | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>358</td>
<td>946</td>
<td>643</td>
<td>2010</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td>17.8</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>32.0</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 65.78356   df = 4   Significance = 0.0000

social category showed no items to be significant at .01. Three items made a significant contribution (p < .05) to the chi-square value of a family-social problem type. Those items and their chi-square values were:

CPC 58 Arguments with parents over your career goals. (Chi Square = 10.74)

CPC 57 Arguments with parents about how you spend your money. (Chi Square = 10.00)
CPC 45 Difficulty making friends. (Chi Square = 9.79)

As indicated by the earlier findings, the greater cultural content of the personal-health-psychological and family-social problem types is apparently influencing choices along similar gender and ethnicity lines. While their preferences for counselor help may differ for problems of an academic-vocational nature, acculturated and non-acculturated female students appear to agree that problems of a personal and family nature are best understood by a counselor who is similar in gender and ethnic background.

Summary

Significant differences in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated females were found for each of the three problem types (Tables 27, 28, 29). Acculturated females expressed no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational problems. Non-acculturated females preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor (33.8%) by a small margin over the Puerto Rican female counselor (30.7%). For problems of a personal-health-psychological and family-social nature, acculturated females made the same choice as non-acculturated females; they both preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for help with these types of problems. The similarity of their counselor choices despite their differences in acculturation levels is attributed to the maintenance of some traditional cultural values and attitudes by the acculturated female group. The maintenance of some cultural values and attitudes has been noted by other researchers in their discussion of the multidimensional nature of the acculturaion process. Additional support for the result on the
same counselor choice is indicated by the findings from the item analysis. No items from any of the three problem categories were significant at \( p < .01 \) in determining a difference in the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated female students. While some items were significant at \( p < .05 \) for the academic-vocational, and family-social problems, no items were significant at \( p < .01 \) nor at \( p < .05 \) for the personal-health-psychological problems. The greater personal content as well as the more intimate nature of these problems is equally significant to the acculturated and non-acculturated female student group. The choice for the Puerto Rican female counselor was congruent with the "sexually based, dichotomous set of cultural expectations" (Fernandez-Marina, Maldonado-Sierra, and Trent, 1958). Traditional Latin American and Puerto Rican cultural expectations are characterized by the separation of the sexes, a strict differential definition of appropriate sex roles, and a double standard of sexual morality (Fernandez-Marina, Maldonado-Sierra, and Trent, 1958; Maldonado-Sierra, Trent, and Fernandez-Marina, 1960; Christensen, 1975; Torres-Matrullo, 1980). The pull of these cultural expectations appears to remain strong for female students, regardless of their acculturation levels.

**Hypothesis 4**

There are no significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated males for each of three problem types.

Significant differences were found between acculturated and non-acculturated male students and their preferences for counselor
ethnicity and gender for the academic-vocational problems (Chi Square = 69.71, Table 30), personal-health-psychological problems (Chi Square = 78.72, Table 31), and family-social problems (Chi Square = 125.80, Table 32). The critical region with four degrees of freedom for all three problem types was greater than .01; the null hypothesis was rejected with all three problem types.

An analysis of student responses on the Counselor Preference Checklist revealed significant differences between acculturated and non-acculturated males and their choices for counselor help with an academic-vocational problem (Table 30). Acculturated male students selected the no preference category (40.7%) as their source of help for this problem type. Non-acculturated male students on the other hand were very specific about their choice for help with an academic-vocational problem; they preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor (49.6%).
Table 30

Counselor Choice for an Academic-Vocational Problem
by Ethnic Identification and Male Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Anglo Male</th>
<th>Anglo Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acculturated Males</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>146</td>
<td>114</td>
<td>215</td>
<td>528</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>4.4</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>55.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>15.4</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>22.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Acculturated Males</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>207</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>108</td>
<td>417</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>49.6</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>44.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>21.9</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>11.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>353</td>
<td>172</td>
<td>323</td>
<td>945</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>3.9</td>
<td>37.4</td>
<td>18.2</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 69.70707 df = 4 Significance = 0.0000

In comparison to their counterpart, acculturated males (Table 30) are like acculturated females (Table 27) in their selection of the no preference category as a source of help for an academic-vocational problem. Acculturated males and females had no particular choice for counselor help with this problem type. Likewise, non-acculturated males were similar to non-acculturated females in their preferences for a counselor of the same ethnic background for help with
academic-vocational problems (Table 30).

An item analysis of the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated male students for an academic-vocational problem revealed no significant chi-square values at $p < .01$, but three significant items at $p < .05$. The three items from a list of 20 stated in the Counselor Preference Checklist and their chi-square values were:

- CPC 10 Lack of an appropriate place to study. (Chi Square = 12.61)
- CPC 13 Having problems with a professor. (Chi Square = 12.18)
- CPC 02 Needing more guidance on a career choice. (Chi Square = 10.32)

These three items contributed to a significant chi-square value in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated male students for problems of an academic-vocational nature.

A comparison of student responses to the personal-health-psychological problems indicated significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated males (Chi Square = 78.72, Table 31). Acculturated male students once again selected the no preference category (46.6%) indicating no particular choice for help with this problem type. The counselor choice of non-acculturated male students was the same as before; they preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor (47.7%).
Table 31

Counselor Choice for a Personal-Health-Psychological Problem
by Ethnic Identification and Male Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Anglo Male</th>
<th>Anglo Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acculturated Males</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>141</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>.6</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>27.3</td>
<td>46.6</td>
<td>55.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>15.2</td>
<td>26.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Acculturated Males</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>195</td>
<td>65</td>
<td>121</td>
<td>409</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>6.1</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>47.7</td>
<td>15.9</td>
<td>29.6</td>
<td>44.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>2.7</td>
<td>.3</td>
<td>21.1</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>13.1</td>
<td></td>
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<td>Column Total</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>315</td>
<td>206</td>
<td>362</td>
<td>926</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>.6</td>
<td>34.0</td>
<td>22.2</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 78.71718 df = 4 Significance = 0.0000

An analysis of the 20 items listed under the personal-health-psychological problem category indicated no significant items at a .01 level of significance, but one significant item at p < .05. The item that contributed the most to a significant chi-square value in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated male students was:

CPC 27 Feeling lonely. (Chi Square = 9.53)
An analysis of student responses to the family-social problems. (Table 32) showed a significant difference in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated male students (Chi Square = 125.80).

Acculturated males had no preference for a counselor (44.5%), but non-acculturated males preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor (54.4%) for help with family-social problems.

Table 32

Counselor Choice for a Family-Social Problem by Ethnic Identification and Male Gender

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Counselor Choice</th>
<th>Anglo Male</th>
<th>Anglo Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>Subjects</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acculturated Males</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>56.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>1.0</td>
<td>13.5</td>
<td>15.6</td>
<td>25.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Acculturated Males</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>43.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td>1.3</td>
<td>23.6</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td>10.1</td>
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<td>4.5</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>37.1</td>
<td>20.9</td>
<td>35.2</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 125.79821  df = 4  Significance = 0.0000

An item analysis of the 20 listed as family-social problems
revealed two items that contributed to a significant chi-square value for counselor choice in this category. The items as stated in the Counselor Preference Checklist were:

CPC 58 Arguments with parents over your career goals. (Chi Square = 19.13)

CPC 60 Illness of family member or friend worries you. (Chi Square = 15.14)

These two items were significant at p < .01 and contributed the most to a significant chi square in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated male students. Eight items were significant at p < .05.

Summary

An analysis of student responses to all three problem categories, academic-vocational (Table 30), personal-health-psychological (Table 31), and family-social (Table 32) revealed significant differences in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated male students. Acculturated male students consistently selected the no preference category for all three problem types. Non-acculturated male students were also consistent in their choice for a counselor; they however, preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for help with all three problem types.

Hypothesis 5

There are no significant differences among the counselor choices of four gender and acculturation groups for each of three problem types.

A comparison of student responses on the Counselor Preference Checklist revealed significant differences among the four gender and
acculturation groups in their preferences for counselor held with three problem types.

Table 33

Counselor Choice for an Academic-Vocational Problem by Four Gender and Acculturation Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Anglo Male</th>
<th>Anglo Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acculturated</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
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<tr>
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<td>21.6</td>
<td>40.7</td>
<td>17.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>4.8</td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>7.0</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acculturated</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
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<td>1228</td>
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<td>40.1</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.6</td>
<td>9.4</td>
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<tr>
<td>Non-Acculturated</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
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<td>13.9</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>13.6</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
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<td>.2</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>3.5</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
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<td>30.7</td>
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<td>29.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
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<td>8.9</td>
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<td>98</td>
<td>942</td>
<td>826</td>
<td>1089</td>
<td>3066</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 245.09584 df = 12 Significance = 0.0
The critical value of chi-square for a .01 level of significance and 12 degrees of freedom is 26.22. The computed chi-square value (245.10) for academic-vocational problems (Table 33) exceeded this theoretical chi-square value of 26.22; the null hypothesis was therefore rejected. The obtained chi-square value (309.51) for personal-health-psychological problems (Table 34) with 12 degrees of freedom was significant at the p < .01 level. The obtained chi-square value (462.23) for family-social problems (Table 35) with 12 degrees of freedom was also significant at a p < .01 level. The null hypothesis was similarly rejected for the personal-health-psychological and family-social problem categories.

Significant differences were found among the four gender and acculturation groups in their preferences for counselor gender and ethnicity for the academic-vocational problems (Chi Square = 245.10, Table 33). Acculturated male students expressed no preference for a counselor for 40.7 percent of the academic-vocational problems. Acculturated female students likewise expressed no preferences for a counselor for 42.6 percent of the academic-vocational problems. However, non-acculturated male and female students expressed preferences for counselors of their own ethnic background. Non-acculturated male students preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for 49.6 percent of the academic-vocational problems. Non-acculturated females made similar choices; they preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for 33.8 percent of the academic-vocational problems. The Puerto Rican female counselor (30.7%) was a close second choice for this problem type for the
non-acculturated female students. These preferences indicate that acculturated students would discuss academic-vocational problems with either an Anglo or Puerto Rican, male or female counselor. Non-acculturated students however were more selective. Non-acculturated males and females preferred a Puerto Rican counselor for help with academic-vocational problems.

An item analysis of the 20 statements listed as academic-vocational problems identified four items which made a significant difference in the counselor preferences of four gender and acculturation groups. The four items as stated in the Counselor Preference Checklist were:

CPC 01 Unable to concentrate on studies. (Chi Square = 39.09, \( p = < .01 \))

CPC 10 Lack of an appropriate place to study. (Chi Square = 33.51, \( p = < .01 \))

CPC 13 Having problems with a professor. (Chi Square = 28.19, \( p = < .01 \))

CPC 02 Needing more guidance on a career choice. (Chi Square = 27.31, \( p = < .01 \))

These four items made the greatest contribution to a significant chi-square value in the counselor preferences of four gender and acculturation groups with problems of an academic-vocational nature.
Table 34

Counselor Choice for a Personal-Health-Psychological Problem
by Four Gender and Acculturation Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Counselor Choice</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Anglo Male</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acculturated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
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<td>Acculturated</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>9</td>
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<td>.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Acculturated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Males</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
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<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>6.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Acculturated</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Females</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>12</td>
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<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
<td>.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Column Total</td>
<td>58</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi-Square = 309.51381  df = 12  Significance = 0.0
A statistical analysis of student responses to the personal-health-psychological problems revealed significant differences (Chi Square = 309.51) in the counselor preferences of four gender and acculturation groups (Table 34). Acculturated males once again expressed no preference for a counselor for 46.6 percent of the personal-health-psychological problems. Acculturated females however selected the Puerto Rican female counselor for 43.1 percent of the personal-health-psychological problems. This dissimilarity of counselor choices between acculturated males and acculturated females is attributed to the selectivity on the part of the female student group. This selectivity occurs in response to problems of a greater cultural content. The preference for a counselor of like gender and ethnic background was viewed as an identification with traditional beliefs regarding the separation of the sexes, and a strict behavioral code which defines appropriate behavior between males and females. The identification with traditional beliefs occurred despite the mainland orientation of this acculturated group of female students. This dual identification with a dominant Anglo cultural orientation and a traditional Latin American belief system reflects the fluid nature of the acculturation process. Research on Hispanics has documented this back and forth movement between the two cultures (Maldonado-Sierra, et al, 1960; Fitzpatrick, 1971; Wagenheim, 1975; Torres-Matrullo, 1980); this behavior is not an uncommon phenomenon among first and second generation Puerto Ricans.

Non-acculturated male students clearly preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for 47.7 percent of the personal-health-psychological
problems. Non-acculturated females once again selected the Puerto Rican female counselor as their preferred source of help for 42.0 percent of the personal-health-psychological problems. Non-acculturated male and female students are consistent in this preference for a counselor of the same ethnic background; this has been their preferred source of help for both academic-vocational (Table 33) and personal-health-psychological problems (Table 34). Non-acculturated male students were even more consistent; they preferred a Puerto Rican counselor of the same gender for both academic-vocational and personal-health-psychological problems.

An item analysis of the 20 student concerns listed as personal-health-psychological problems revealed five items which made a significant contribution to the chi-square value of the counselor preferences of four gender and acculturation groups. The five items were significant at $p < .01$. These five problem statements as listed in the Counselor Preference Checklist were:

- CPC 30 Feeling different. (Chi Square = 36.47)
- CPC 28 Being overweight or underweight. (Chi Square = 32.52)
- CPC 36 Feeling sick or in poor health. (Chi Square = 31.60)
- CPC 40 Difficulty defining your service commitments to community. (Chi Square = 31.23)
- CPC 33 Unable to accept criticism from others. (Chi Square = 28.13)

These five items contributed the most to a significant chi-square value in the counselor preferences of four gender and acculturation groups for problems of a personal-health-psychological nature.

Significant differences were also found among the four gender and
acculturation groups in their preferences for counselor gender and ethnicity for the family-social problems (Chi Square = 462.23, Table 35).

Acculturated male students have once again selected the no preference category for 44.5 percent of the family-social problems. Acculturated females have selected the Puerto Rican female counselor for 48.1 percent of the family-social problems. Their second choice was the no preference category. Acculturated male students have consistently selected the no preference category for all three problem types indicating that they will discuss any of these concerns with either an Anglo or Puerto Rican, and male or female counselor. Acculturated female students were like acculturated males in that they had no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational problems. This similarity with acculturated males ended however when they were asked to indicate their preference for counselor help with personal-health-psychological, and family-social problems. The preference of acculturated females for these two problem types was the Puerto Rican female counselor.

Non-acculturated male students preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for 54.4 percent of the family-social problems; non-acculturated male students have consistently chosen the Puerto Rican male counselor. Non-acculturated female students preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for 45.6 percent of the family-social problems (Table 35). Non-acculturated female students preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for both personal-health-psychological problems and, unlike non-acculturated male students, they were willing
Table 35

Counselor Choice for a Family-Social Problem
by Four Gender and Acculturation Groups

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subjects</th>
<th>Anglo Male</th>
<th>Anglo Female</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Male</th>
<th>Puerto Rican Female</th>
<th>No Preference</th>
<th>Row Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Acculturated Males</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>123</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>230</td>
<td>517</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
<td>2.3</td>
<td>1.7</td>
<td>23.8</td>
<td>27.7</td>
<td>44.5</td>
<td>17.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
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<td>.3</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>7.9</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Acculturated Females</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
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<td>148</td>
<td>558</td>
<td>426</td>
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<td>12.8</td>
<td>48.1</td>
<td>36.7</td>
<td>39.7</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
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<td>.5</td>
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<td>19.1</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>216</td>
<td>48</td>
<td>92</td>
<td>397</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
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<td>3.0</td>
<td>54.4</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>23.2</td>
<td>13.6</td>
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<tr>
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<td>.4</td>
<td>7.4</td>
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<td>3.1</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Frequency</td>
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<td>850</td>
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<tr>
<td>Row Percent</td>
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<td>3.1</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>45.6</td>
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<td>29.1</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total Percent</td>
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<td>.9</td>
<td>7.2</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>7.4</td>
<td></td>
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Chi-Square = 462.23210 df = 12 Significance = 0.0
to see a Puerto Rican counselor of the opposite gender for academic-vocational problems.

An item analysis of the family-social problems revealed 16 items which made a significant (p =< .01) contribution to the chi-square value of the counselor preferences of four gender and acculturation groups. The 16 items as stated in the Counselor Preference Checklist were:

CPC 60 Illness of family or friend worries you. (Chi Square = 44.16)

CPC 58 Arguments with parents over your career goals. (Chi Square = 43.65)

CPC 50 Parents separate or divorce. (Chi Square = 35.97)

CPC 55 Parents do not understand your needs. (Chi Square = 35.75)

CPC 48 Feeling overwhelmed by the responsibilities at home. (Chi Square = 35.47)

CPC 51 Worrying about the sacrifices parents make. (Chi Square = 35.15)

CPC 59 Friends make many demands of your time. (Chi Square = 33.60)

CPC 44 Having too few social activities. (Chi Square = 33.50)

CPC 54 Parents do not accept your friends (Chi Square = 32.39)

CPC 49 Having problems with spouse or mate. (Chi Square = 31.56)

CPC 53 Having differences with parents over dating. (Chi Square = 31.02)

CPC 47 Feeling non-supported by friends. (Chi Square = 30.38)

CPC 56 Arguments with parents about how you spend your money. (Chi Square = 30.26)

CPC 43 Feeling too easily influenced by friends. (Chi Square = 29.30)
CPC 46 Feeling uncomfortable in social situations. (Chi Square = 29.23)

CPC 45 Difficulty making friends. (Chi Square = 28.00)

These 16 items contributed the most to a significant chi-square value in the counselor preferences of four gender and acculturation groups for problems of a family-social nature. Half of these statements were about problems or concerns specifically related to their parents. The other half were concerns about their friends, their social life, and their home situation.

The greater number of significant items (16) for this problem category (family-social) suggests that matters about the family are culturally loaded. The greater cultural content of these problems is also of a level significantly different for the four gender and acculturation groups. Family concerns represent an area of culture where significant differences may prevail, and these differences apparently exist even between two groups of students from the same ethnic background. Acculturated and non-acculturated male and female students have different preferences for a counselor for a problem of a family-social nature. Acculturated male students selected the no preference category, but the acculturated female, and both of the non-acculturated male and female groups chose counselors of the same gender and ethnic background for problems of a family-social nature.

Summary

The results of the chi-square analysis of the counselor choices for the four gender and acculturation groups showed significant student preferences for counselor gender and ethnic background for
each of the three problem types.

Acculturated males and females expressed no preference for a counselor, but non-acculturated males and females preferred a counselor of the same ethnic background for academic-vocational problems (Table 33). Non-acculturated females were more likely than non-acculturated male students to see a counselor of the opposite gender.

The Puerto Rican male counselor (33.8%) was the first choice of the non-acculturated female group, and the Puerto Rican female counselor (30.7%) was a close second choice for academic-vocational problems. Non-acculturated male students chose differently however. The Puerto Rican male counselor (49.6%) was their first choice but the Puerto Rican female counselor (13.9%) was only third, after the no preference choice (25.9%).

Student preferences for counselor help with personal-health-psychological problems also showed significant differences. Acculturated male students once again expressed no preference for counselor help with personal-health-psychological problems, but acculturated females chose differently. The Puerto Rican female counselor (43.1%) was their first choice, followed by the no preference choice (38.0%).

Non-acculturated female students clearly preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor (42.0%) for personal-health-psychological problems; the no preference choice (30.9%) was a distant second choice, and the Puerto Rican male counselor was an even more distant third choice, (21.8%) for problems of this nature. Non-acculturated
male students expressed similar preferences for counselor gender and ethnic background. The Puerto Rican male counselor (47.7%) was the first choice of the non-acculturated males; they expressed no preference (29.6%) for a second choice, and preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor (15.9%) only as a very distant third choice.

Significant differences were also found in the counselor preferences of these four gender and acculturation groups for help with family-social problems (Table 35). Acculturated male students made the same choice for family-social problems as they had made for both the academic-vocational and personal-health-psychological problems: no preference. The same was not true for acculturated females; their first preference was for the Puerto Rican female counselor (48.1%), and the no preference choice (36.7%) was a possibility, but not a close second choice (Table 35).

Non-acculturated male students made the same counselor choice for family-social problems as they had made for both academic-vocational and personal-health-psychological problems: the Puerto Rican male counselor, for 54.4 percent of the family-social problems (Table 35). Their preference for the Puerto Rican male counselor has been consistent, and in the case of family-social problems, twice more likely than the no preference choice (23.2%), and four times more likely than the preference for the Puerto Rican female counselor (12.1%).

Non-acculturated females were consistent in their choice of the Puerto Rican female counselor, but not as steadfast as non-acculturated males. Non-acculturated females preferred the Puerto
Rican female counselor (45.6%) for help with family-social problems (Table 35). Acculturated females, despite their movement away from the more traditional ethnic orientation, made the same counselor choice as non-acculturated females. Acculturated and non-acculturated female students appear to agree that problems of a personal-health-psychological and family-social nature are best discussed with a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background. Non-acculturated female students preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for academic-vocational problems but the Puerto Rican female was a close second choice indicating a preference along ethnic lines. For problems of an academic-vocational nature, acculturated female students expressed no preference indicating a willingness to discuss this problem type with either an Anglo or Puerto Rican male or female counselor. Acculturated males were the only group of students who consistently expressed no preference; they were willing to discuss all three problem types with any counselor. The willingness of the acculturated males to discuss problems of varying degrees of intimacy and cultural content has been demonstrated by their consistent expression of no preference. The no preference selection reflects an "identification with the major value orientations" of the dominant Anglo culture, and potentially "the ability to develop as well as maintain a psychotherapeutic relationship" (Miranda, Andujo, Caballero, Guerrero, and Ramos, 1976, pp. 47-48) with a counselor from the majority cultural group. The finding by Miranda et al was based on their study of Mexican-American females in psychotherapy. They found that the more acculturated females stayed in therapy longer than
the less acculturated females.

Findings from the present study support the conclusions of other researchers about the multidimensional nature of the acculturation process (Vasquez, 1975; Padilla, 1980). This has been evidenced by the preference of the acculturated female students, despite their greater level of acculturation, for a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background. The acculturated female student group appears to have "a foot in more than one stage simultaneously" (Parham and Helms, 1981). The behavior may reflect a dual identification with minority and majority cultural values and is consistent with Marques' (1975) observation that "Puerto Ricans have two languages... two basic philosophies of life... two loyalties...."

The Traditional Family Belief Scale may require further modification so that various levels of the acculturation process can be measured. To date, few instruments have been developed for measuring levels of acculturation among Puerto Rican students. Additionally, a broader investigation of other factors such as social class and length of residence on the mainland need to be examined to determine who identifies with the major value orientations of the dominant culture. The socio-economic class background of this group of students was not measured, however, the university attracts a substantial number of economically impoverished Hispanic students and Puerto Ricans make up the greatest proportion of this racial-ethnic group (Torres, 1983).

Greater refinement of instruments will permit a broader examination of the relationship between levels of acculturation and
preferences for counselor gender and ethnic background. Further investigation of the effects of problem type on the counselor choices of Puerto Rican students will provide additional data for understanding the nature of these preferences.

Findings from the present study indicate that acculturated Puerto Rican male students will see either an Anglo or Puerto Rican male or female counselor, thus the question of which counselor is assigned implies no major considerations. Non-acculturated students on the other hand expressed specific preferences for a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background. The counseling profession will need to address fundamental issues in the field of cross-cultural counseling. To what end does one counsel a student from a different cultural group? Is the rejection of ethnic values and beliefs a goal of the acculturation process? More specifically, is the rejection of ethnic values and beliefs an appropriate goal for the non-acculturated student? The issue becomes even more significant for the student who may feel discriminated against by the majority cultural group.

These counseling issues raise questions for future research and for the development and refinement of counseling theories. Additionally, the findings about the counselor preferences of non-acculturated Puerto Rican students has implications for the staffing and practice of counseling.

Summary

Chapter IV was divided into two sections: Part I and II. Part I contained a description of the student characteristics of the sample under study, and Part II reported the findings from the statistical
analysis of the five research hypotheses.

Major findings from Part I indicated that more than half of the students were female (68.6%), were born in Puerto Rico (59.6%), had a mean age of 21.9 years, had received most of their elementary education in Puerto Rico (52.6%), had received most of their high school education in the United States (60.3%), and were freshmen (59.0%) at the university. A majority of the student sample was made up of freshmen and sophomores (78.9%), had declared a major (78.2%), and had seen a counselor at the university (82.7%), and a little over a half of these counselors were Hispanic (57.1%). A majority of this student sample was the first generation to attend college. When asked to identify the most influential person in his/her life, they recognized no one (20.5%), or they recognized the mother as the most influential person (17.3%), followed by parents (16.6%). The father alone ranked much lower on the scale of influential persons (6.4%). The higher ranking of the mother shows the high esteem with which the mother is regarded in both Mexican (Diaz-Guerrero, 1952) and the Puerto Rican culture (Fernandez-Marina, Maldonado-Sierra, and Trent, 1958).

Part II began with a report of the findings from a frequency distribution for each of the three problem categories. An analysis of the total responses indicated that students expressed no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational problems. An analysis of the responses for personal-health-psychological problems indicated that students were evenly divided in their preference for a Puerto Rican female counselor and the no preference response. An analysis of
the family-social problems showed a more clear preference; students preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for problems of a family-social nature. No one preferred the Anglo male or Anglo female counselor for any of the three problem types.

Major findings from the statistical analysis of each of the five research hypotheses indicated the following: The counselor preferences of the acculturated and non-acculturated students (Hypothesis 1) indicated that acculturated students expressed no preference for academic-vocational (Table 21) and personal-health-psychological problems (Table 22) but they preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for family-social problems (Table 23). Non-acculturated students preferred a counselor of the same ethnic background for all three problem types; they preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for academic-vocational problems, but the Puerto Rican female counselor for personal-health-psychological and family-social problems by a slightly greater margin.

The counselor preferences of female and male Puerto Rican students (Hypothesis 2) showed significant differences. With the exception of the no preference choice for academic-vocational problems (Table 24), female students preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for both the personal-health-psychological (Table 25) and family-social problems (Table 26). Male students preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for both the academic-vocational and family-social problems; they expressed no preference for counselor help with personal-health-psychological problems, and of the three their least likely choice for this problem type was the Puerto Rican
female counselor.

Significant differences were also found for the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated female students (Hypothesis 3). Acculturated females stated no counselor preference for academic-vocational problems, and non-acculturated females preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor by a small margin over the Puerto Rican female (Table 27). For problems of a personal-health-psychological (Table 28) and family-social nature (Table 29), acculturated and non-acculturated female students agreed on one counselor choice: the Puerto Rican female counselor. The similarity of their counselor choice for these two problem types was ascribed to the maintenance of some traditional Puerto Rican cultural values and attitudes.

Hypothesis 4 examined the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated male students. An analysis of student responses indicated that male students consistently stated no counselor preference for all three problem types (Tables 30, 31, 32). Non-acculturated male students were consistent in their preference for the Puerto Rican male counselor for help with all three problem types.

The fifth and final hypothesis examined the counselor preferences of four gender and acculturation groups. A comparison of student responses among the four groups has indicated that acculturated male students consistently expressed no preference for counselor gender or ethnicity for help with any of the three problem types. The second consistent selection was by the non-acculturated male students who clearly preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for help with all
three problem types. The non-acculturated female student group was more selective in their responses; they preferred a counselor of the same gender and ethnicity for help with personal-health-psychological and family-social problems. The acculturated female group was also selective. Their selection of the no preference category for academic-vocational problems was like that of the acculturated males. Acculturated female students became more selective when presented with problems of a personal-health-psychological, and family-social nature. Their choice for a counselor for these two problem types was similar to the choice of the non-acculturated males and females: the preference was for a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background. The greater cultural content and the more personal nature of these problems appeared to make a difference in choosing a counselor.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY

The Problem

The research about the characteristics of students who use and do not use university counseling centers is extensive for both White and Black students but almost non-existent for the Puerto Rican student. Rapid demographic changes throughout the United States indicate that Hispanics are the fastest growing population group in the country and are estimated to become the largest minority group by the year 2000. If counseling services are to become relevant for this racial-ethnic group, counselors and administrators of student services in higher education must be prepared to set new priorities for staffing and training. The high dropout rate after initial interviews by racial-ethnic minority clients and the perception that counseling services are irrelevant for their needs speak to the need for examining the counselor preferences of the Puerto Rican student.

The present study examines the preference of two groups of Puerto Rican university students for counselor help with specific problems. Student preferences for counselor gender and ethnic background for each of these problems is examined. The variables of student gender and acculturation level in relation to their preferences for counselor help with each problem type are also examined. Subjects in this study consist of 156 Puerto Rican undergraduate students at Northeastern
The counselor preference research conducted in the sixties through the mid seventies focused on Black and White students with the more recent literature focusing solely on Black students. Early studies of student preferences for a counselor focused on race of counselor and client as a major variable, and more current research has examined client race and gender, type of problem, and other specific helper characteristics in the choice of a counselor. The extensive research with Black students has demonstrated the importance of counselor race in determining preferences for a counselor. Yet very little is known about the counselor preferences of students from other racial-ethnic groups despite their presence and rapidly growing numbers in colleges and universities. The limited published research that is available with Puerto Rican, Asian American, and Native American students found significant differences in counselor choice between groups along sex and culture variables.

In those few studies where ethnic identification has been available, findings have indicated significant differences in the preferences of male and female students for counselor help with different types of problems (Sue and Kirk, 1975; LeVine and Franco, 1981). Female students in particular expressed strong preferences for same sex counselor (Littrell and Littrell, 1982; Haviland, Horswill, O'Connell and Dynneson, 1983). Moreover, the existence of intragroup differences within each of these cultural groups has not been recognized in any of the studies of counselor preference. Current research on acculturation and ethnicity has affirmed the existence of
culturally similar but ethnically distinct subgroups in Mexican American, Puerto Rican, and Cuban populations, indicating varying levels of ethnic identification and acculturation within the same ethnic group. Results from studies on acculturation and ethnicity consistently demonstrate the existence of intragroup differences within a specific racial-ethnic group, yet no measurement of intraethnic differences has been used to examine the counselor preferences of Puerto Rican students.

This study utilizes the Traditional Family Belief Scale (Maldonado-Sierra, Trent, and Fernandez-Marina, 1960) to examine the degree of ethnic identification in a group of Puerto Rican students and to provide a measurement of intraethnic differences. Separate mean scores for females and males resulted in a differentiation of students into acculturated and non-acculturated male and female groups. The relationship of ethnic identification to preferences for counselor help with specific problems is explored.

A separate instrument, the Counselor Preference Checklist (Briley, 1977), asked students to indicate their preference for counselor gender and ethnicity with different types of problems. A third instrument was used for gathering data about the characteristics of this student group.

An analysis of ethnicity, gender and problem type variables with a different racial-ethnic group will provide a broader base to the research on counselor preferences, and to the research on cultural variables in the client-counselor relationship. The existence of intraethnic differences within a racial-ethnic group has not been
examined in the research on counselor preferences. This study examines the relation of intraethnic differences to the preferences of male and female students for counselor help with different types of problems.

The Purpose

The purpose of the present study is to investigate the preferences of Puerto Rican university students for a counselor of the same ethnicity and gender. This study examines the counselor preferences of two groups of Puerto Rican university students and the relationship to ethnicity, sex, and the type of problem being experienced. The investigation is concerned with the following specific questions: Can a measure of ethnic identification differentiate varying levels of acculturation within a Puerto Rican student population? When given a choice, do Puerto Rican students with differential levels of ethnic identification prefer counselors of their own gender and ethnicity for help with different types of problems? Do female and male Puerto Rican students prefer counselors of their same gender and ethnicity for help with different types of problems? And finally, which is the better predictor of counselor choice for each of three problem types: ethnic identification or gender?

The Hypotheses

This study seeks to determine the relationship between client and counselor gender and ethnicity and the preferences of two groups of Puerto Rican students for counselor help with three problem types. To examine the effects of the aforementioned variables, the following
hypotheses were analyzed:

1. There are no significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated Puerto Rican students for each of three problem types.

2. There are no significant differences between the counselor choices of female and male Puerto Rican students for each of three problem types.

3. There are no significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated females for each of three problem types.

4. There are no significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated males for each of three problem types.

5. There are no significant differences among the counselor choices of four gender and acculturation groups for each of three problem types.

The Instruments

Three instruments were used in this study. The first major instrument, the Counselor Preference Checklist (Briley, 1977), measures client preference for a counselor on the basis of problem type, counselor ethnicity and gender. This instrument lists 60 problems in three different categories of problem types. The first 20 problems are about matters of an academic-vocational nature, the second 20 statements list problems of a personal-health-psychological nature, and the last 20 statements are about problems of a family-social nature. Students were asked to indicate their choice for a counselor
for each problem. Students were given the following five counselor choices for each problem: Anglo Male, Anglo Female, Puerto Rican Male, Puerto Rican Female, and No Preference.

The Traditional Family Belief Scale (TFBS) (Maldonado-Sierra, Trent, and Fernandez-Marina, 1960) was the second major instrument used in this study. The TFBS is a measure of ethnic identification, the degree to which a student adheres to or moves away from traditional Latin American family beliefs. This instrument was used to separate Puerto Rican students into two groups, acculturated and non-acculturated, on the basis of their score; separate mean scores were established for males and females. Students whose scores indicate a rejection of these traditional beliefs are considered acculturated for purposes of the present study. Acculturated students reflect a more "Americanized" version of family beliefs. Non-acculturated students are representative of those individuals who maintain traditional family beliefs.

The Data Demographic Sheet is the third instrument in the present study. This instrument was developed for the purpose of gathering background information on selected student characteristics. The use of the Data Demographic Sheet is limited to a discussion about these student characteristics.

The Design

A reliability score of .94 was established for the Traditional Family Belief Scale using coefficient alpha, a measure of internal consistency (Cronbach, 1951). Mean scores on the Traditional Family Belief Scale were computed separately for male and female students.
Mean scores were used to separate male and female students into acculturated and non-acculturated groups. The chi-square statistic was used to test all research hypotheses and to determine if any significant differences existed. Significant chi-squares were indicative of differences in counselor preferences. An item analysis of each student concern in all three categories of problem types was completed. A statistical analysis of each item on the Counselor Preference Checklist revealed which items contributed the most to a significant value for each problem type. The chi-square technique was also used for the analysis of items on the Counselor Preference Checklist. The .01 level of significance was used to test all research hypotheses and item analyses.

The Findings

The findings of this study were presented in two parts: Part I reviews selected student characteristics and Part II reviews findings based on statistical analysis of the students' responses to the Counselor Preference Checklist.

Descriptive data from Part I indicated that the sample of 156 students was made up of 107 females (68.6 percent) and 49 males (31.4 percent). More than half of the group (59.6 percent) was born in Puerto Rico, and over half (55.1 percent) of the group was between 18 and 21 years of age. A little over half (52.6 percent) of these students had received all or most of their elementary education in Puerto Rico. This situation had reversed by high school indicating that most or all of their high school education (60.3 percent) was completed in the United States. A majority (78.9 percent) of the
students was freshmen (59.0 percent) or sophomores (19.9 percent), and a majority (78.2 percent) of the students had selected a major. Major areas of study were fairly evenly distributed across applied sciences, health related and natural sciences, humanities, and behavioral sciences. Students were asked if they had seen a counselor at the university and the matter for which they had consulted a counselor. A majority (82.7 percent) of students had seen a counselor for an academic-vocational matter (69.9 percent). The rather small percentages of family, personal, and psychological problems indicated that students seldom use a counselor for these reasons. This finding has support in other studies which indicated a low use of counseling services for these types of problems. Students saw a male counselor (53.2 percent) more often than a female counselor (22.4 percent), and this counselor was often Hispanic (57.1 percent). The small percentages for college graduates among the parents of this student group indicates that a majority of this student sample was the first generation to attend college. The last question on the Demographic Data Sheet asked students to identify the person who had had the most influence on his/her beliefs, values, and attitudes. Students recognized no one (20.5 percent), or they recognized the mother (17.3 percent) as the most influential person. The father (6.4 percent) alone ranked much lower on the scale of influential persons. The higher ranking of the mother demonstrates the revered position of the mother in traditional Latin American culture.

Part II reports findings about the students' preferences for counselor gender and ethnicity for specific problems. Tables 18, 19,
and 20 represent frequency distributions for students' counselor choice for help with academic-vocational, personal-health-psychological, and family-social problems. When viewed as a total group, with no regard to gender or acculturation level, students appeared to have no preference for counselor gender or ethnicity in seeking help with academic-vocational problems (Table 18). Their choice for help with personal-health-psychological problems was evenly divided between the Puerto Rican female counselor (34.7 percent) and the no preference selection (34.7 percent). Students' preferred source of help for family-social problems was the Puerto Rican female counselor (36.4 percent). The slightly greater preference for the Puerto Rican female counselor for help with family-social problems may be related to the higher cultural content in this problem type and to the concomitant need for identification with an ethnically similar counselor.

A chi-square test of hypothesis #1, that there are no significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated Puerto Rican students resulted in a rejection of the null hypothesis for all three problem types. The computed chi-square value for academic-vocational problems (119.65), personal-health-psychological (87.02) and family-social (167.23) exceeded the critical value of chi-square (13.28) at a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom. Acculturated students expressed no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational (Table 21) and personal-health-psychological problems (Table 22) but a slightly greater preference for the Puerto Rican female counselor (41.8
percent) for family-social problems (Table 23). Non-acculturated students preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for academic-vocational concerns, but for problems of a personal-health-psychological and family-social nature they preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor.

An item analysis of each problem statement in the academic-vocational problem category revealed four items which made a significant difference (p < .01) in the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated students. An item analysis of the personal-health-psychological problems revealed no significant items at p < .01, but two significant items at p < .05. An item analysis of the family-social problems revealed nine items which made a significant difference (p < .01) in the counselor choices of this acculturated and non-acculturated group.

A chi-square test of hypothesis #2, that there are no significant differences between the counselor choices of female and male Puerto Rican students resulted in a rejection of the null hypothesis for all three problem types. The computed chi-square value for academic-vocational (89.27), personal-health-psychological (181.94), and family-social (245.81) problems exceeded the critical value of chi-square (13.28) for a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom. Female students expressed no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational problems (Table 24), but a preference for the Puerto Rican female counselor for both the personal-health-psychological (Table 25) and family-social problems (Table 26). Male students preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor
for help with academic-vocational problems; the no preference selection was a close second choice. Male students expressed no preference for counselor help with personal-health-psychological problems but a slightly greater preference for the Puerto Rican male counselor for problems of a family-social nature; the no preference selection was again a close second choice for male students for family-social problems.

An item analysis of each problem statement in the academic-vocational problem category showed that two items made a significant difference \((p < .01)\) in the counselor choice of male and female students. An item analysis of the problem statements in the personal-health-psychological category showed that eight items made a significant difference \((p < .01)\) in the counselor preferences of male and female students. An analysis of the family-social problems revealed 11 items which made a significant difference in the counselor preferences of male and female students.

A chi-square test of hypothesis #3, that there are no significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated female students resulted in a rejection of the null hypothesis for all three problem types. The computed chi-square value for academic-vocational \((81.01)\), personal-health-psychological \((26.05)\) and family-social problems \((65.78)\) exceeded the critical value of chi-square \((13.28)\) for a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom. Acculturated female students indicated no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational problems (Table 27), but a preference for the Puerto Rican female counselor for both personal-
health-psychological (Table 28) and family-social problems (Table 29). Non-accultuated females preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for academic-vocational problems, but they preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for personal-health-psychological and family-social problems.

An analysis of the 20 items listed as academic-vocational problems found no significant items at $p < .01$, but six items which made a significant ($p < .05$) difference in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated female students. An analysis of the 20 items listed as personal-health-psychological found no items which were significant at $p < .01$ nor at $p < .05$. An analysis of the family-social problems found no significant items at $p < .01$, but three items which made a significant difference ($p < .05$) in the counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated female students.

A chi-square test of hypothesis #4, that there are no significant differences between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated male students resulted in a rejection of the null hypothesis for all three problem types. The computed chi-square value for academic-vocational (69.71), personal-health-psychological (78.72), and family-social (125.80) problems exceeded the critical value of chi-square (13.28) for a .01 level of significance and four degrees of freedom. Acculturated male students expressed no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational (Table 30), personal-health-psychological (Table 31), and family-social problems (Table 32). Non-acculturated male students were equally consistent in
their preference for the same counselor for help with all three problem types; their preference however was for the Puerto Rican male counselor.

An item analysis of each problem statement in the academic-vocational problem category found no significant items at $p < .01$, but three items which made a significant difference ($p < .05$) in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated male students. An item analysis of the personal-health-psychological problems found no significant items at $p < .01$, and only one item which made a significant difference ($p < .05$) in the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated male students. An analysis of the family-social problems found two items which made a significant difference ($p < .01$) in the counselor choices of this acculturated and non-acculturated male group.

A chi-square test of hypothesis #5, that there are no differences among the counselor choices for four gender and acculturation groups resulted in a rejection of the null hypothesis for all three problem types. The computed chi-square value for academic-vocational (245.10), personal-health-psychological (309.51), and family-social (462.23) problems exceeded the critical region of chi-square (26.22) for a .01 level of significance and 12 degrees of freedom. Acculturated male and female students expressed no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational problems (Table 33). Non-acculturated male students preferred a counselor of their same gender and ethnic background for help with these kinds of problems. Non-acculturated female students preferred a counselor of the same
ethnic background, and the male counselor by a small margin over a
counselor of the same gender. An item analysis of the 20 statements
listed as academic-vocational problems identified four items which
made a significant difference (p < .01) in the counselor preferences
of these four gender and acculturation groups.

For problems of a personal-health-psychological nature (Table
34), acculturated male students once again expressed no preference for
counselor sex or ethnic background, but acculturated female students
preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor. Non-acculturated male
and female students preferred a counselor of their same sex and ethnic
background for help with personal-health-psychological problems. An
item analysis of the 20 statements listed as personal-health-
psychological problems identified five items which made a significant
difference (p < .01) in the counselor preferences of these four gender
and acculturation groups.

Student preferences for counselor help with family-social
problems were similarly distributed (Table 35). Acculturated male
students once again expressed no preference for counselor help, and
acculturated female students preferred the Puerto Rican female
counselor. Non-acculturated male and female students consistently
preferred a counselor of their same sex and ethnic background for help
with family-social problems.

An item analysis of the 20 problem statements listed as family-
social problems revealed 16 items which made a significant difference
(p < .01) in the counselor preferences of four gender and
acculturation groups.
Conclusions

Results from the present study indicate that counselor preferences varied for this group of Puerto Rican students and that level of acculturation was a major variable in these differences. Student gender and the type of problem experienced were also significant factors in these differences in counselor preference. From an analysis of the students' responses to the Counselor Preference Checklist the following conclusions are proposed.

The counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated students differed for problems of an academic-vocational nature. Non-acculturated students preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for help with this type of problem, but acculturated students had no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational problems. For help with personal-health-psychological problems, acculturated students still expressed no preference for counselor help, and non-acculturated students still preferred a counselor of the same ethnic background. The preference on the part of the non-acculturated student for the Puerto Rican female rather than the Puerto Rican male counselor was viewed as an extension of the cultural belief regarding the role of the mother as the central affectional figure in the family.

In the case of family-social problems, acculturated students were closely divided between the Puerto Rican female counselor, their first choice, and no preference, their second choice. The switch from the no preference selection to the Puerto Rican female counselor suggests that despite their more Americanized ways and their greater or equal
comfort with counselors who are not Hispanic, acculturated students maintain ties to some traditional beliefs. The literature indicates that where matters of family and child rearing practices are concerned traditional beliefs remain stable despite many years of Americanization (Fernandez-Marina, Maldonado-Sierra and Trent, 1958; Christensen, 1975; Fitzpatrick, 1971; Wagenheim, 1975).

The counselor preferences of male and female students differed for problems of an academic-vocational matter. Female students indicated no preference for this problem type. Male students were more closely divided in their counselor preferences; their choices were between the Puerto Rican male counselor and no preference. With problems of a personal-health-psychological nature, female students preferred a Puerto Rican female counselor, but male students expressed no preference as a first choice, or they preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor as a second choice. Male students expressed a stronger preference for a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background for problems of an academic-vocational nature, but for personal-health-psychological concerns female students expressed the stronger preference for a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background. Male students were less sure of their counselor choices for the personal-health-psychological problems. Male students were more closely divided between the no preference choice, and their second choice, the Puerto Rican male counselor. The counselor choices of female and male students for help with family-social problems shows a similar pattern.

The greater cultural content and the higher degree of intimacy
characteristic of the personal-health-psychological and family-social problems appeared to require a relationship where comfort and security could be assumed or expected in a counselor who shared the same ethnic background. The similarity of ethnic background also offered the potential for a better understanding of such intimate concerns. The greater preference for the Puerto Rican female counselor by the female student group is seen as a reflection of both cultural and gender role expectations, or the belief that a better understanding of these needs and concerns is inherently greater when client and counselor are of the same sex and ethnic background. Strict cultural beliefs regarding the parameters of proper behavior between males and females, the double standard of sexual morality, and the segregation of the sexes from a very early age retain a powerful influence over the behavior of these Puerto Rican females. These cultural beliefs may be a more significant variable than gender similarity in the counselor preferences of female students.

Significant differences were found between the counselor choices of acculturated and non-acculturated females for all three problem types. Acculturated females had no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational problems, but non-acculturated females preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor by a small margin over the Puerto Rican female counselor. Problems of a personal-health-psychological and family-social nature appeared to be of special concern to females, regardless of their level of acculturation. Acculturated and non-acculturated females made the same counselor choice; they both preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for help with problems of
a personal-health-psychological and family-social nature. The greater cultural content and the more intimate nature of these problems appeared to have a powerful and equalizing effect on counselor choice. This effect results in acculturated and non-acculturated females making the same counselor choice despite the opposite direction of their ethnic identification. Research with Puerto Ricans has indicated that traditional beliefs about family and sex-role attitudes remain stable regardless of level of acculturation (Fitzpatrick, 1971; Wagenheim, 1975; Christensen, 1975; Torres-Matrullo, 1980).

The counselor preferences of acculturated and non-acculturated male students were also significantly different. Unlike acculturated and non-acculturated females, the counselor choices of this group of males did not cut across levels of acculturation. Acculturated male students consistently expressed no preference for counselor help with all three problem types. Non-acculturated male students on the other hand clearly preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for help with all three problem types. Non-acculturated male students were particularly empathic about their preference for counselor gender: their preference for the Puerto Rican male counselor was three times more likely than the choice for the Puerto Rican female counselor with academic-vocational and personal-health-psychological problems. And with problems of a family-social nature, this same gender choice was four times more likely. Research on level of acculturation and continuation in psychotherapy has indicated that identification with the dominant culture facilitates the ability to develop and remain in a psychotherapeutic relationship (Miranda, Andujo, Caballero,
The expression of no preference by the acculturated male students demonstrates their identification with majority culture. Their willingness to discuss any of these problem types with either an Anglo or Puerto Rican male or female counselor is a further indication of their ability to communicate and establish relationships in two different cultures.

An analysis of the students' responses to the Counselor Preference Checklist revealed significant differences between the counselor preferences of four gender and acculturation groups. Acculturated males and females had no preference for counselor help with academic-vocational problems, but non-acculturated males and females preferred a counselor of the same ethnic background. Unlike non-acculturated males, who preferred a counselor of the same gender, non-acculturated female students were more amenable to seeing a counselor of the opposite gender for help with academic-vocational problems.

Student preferences for counselor help with problems of a personal-health-psychological nature were significantly different. Acculturated male students expressed no preference again, but acculturated female students made the same choice as non-acculturated females: they preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for help with personal-health-psychological problems. Non-acculturated male students clearly preferred the Puerto Rican male counselor for both academic-vocational and personal-health-psychological problems.

This same pattern repeated itself for family-social problems: Acculturated male students consistently expressed no preference, but
non-acculturated male students were very firm in their preference for the Puerto Rican male counselor. Acculturated females again made the same counselor choice as non-acculturated females; they both preferred the Puerto Rican female counselor for help with family-social problems.

The expression of no preference on the part of the acculturated male group for counselor help with any of the three problem types gives additional support to the finding about level of acculturation and the ability to develop a psychotherapeutic relationship with a counselor from the majority culture. Additionally, the preference for a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background by the non-acculturated group of students is supported by the acculturation research (Littrell and Littrell, 1982; Haviland, Horswill, O'Connell and Dynneson, 1983). Moreover, the preference for a counselor of the same gender and ethnic background by the acculturated female group, despite their greater identification with American culture, confirms the strength of traditional Latin American beliefs. This dual identification with two different cultures and the existence of intraethnic differences within one racial-ethnic group has been noted in the acculturation research.

**Recommendations**

The findings from the present study regarding the preferences of Puerto Rican students for counselor help with different types of problems indicates a need for further research in a number of important areas. The following recommendations are made in this context.
Professional Training

1. Counseling personnel and graduate students in the counseling field should have coursework and training on the culturally different client. Such coursework and training may serve to broaden the experience with culturally different clients and to develop a knowledge base about specific characteristics of racial-ethnic group.

2. Counselors must have a knowledge of class and cultural factors and their effects on the minority group experience.

3. Findings from the present study indicate that Puerto Rican students have specific preferences for counselor gender and ethnic background for different types of problems. Student's gender and acculturation level were significantly related to these counselor choices. Additionally, the existence of intra-ethnic differences indicates that Puerto Rican students cannot be treated as a culturally homogenous group. These findings have implications for the staffing and training of counseling personnel. The presence and growing number of Hispanic and other racial-ethnic minority students requires special attention by administrators. In view of these findings and the growing presence of the culturally different client, colleges and universities should plan for training and staffing that meets the special needs of this student group.

4. The results regarding the gender variable and the strong preference for same-sex counselors by three of four gender and acculturation groups imply some consideration of the staffing of counseling personnel. These results also suggest consideration of the assignment of students to counselors of preferred and non-preferred
gender and ethnic background.

5. The assignment of counselors on the basis of client preference holds particular significance for the non-acculturated client who expressed clear preferences for counselor gender and ethnic background. Since the non-acculturated client may be less able than the acculturated individual to establish and maintain a psychotherapeutic relationship with a counselor of the majority culture counseling personnel must recognize the greater academic risks and psychological stresses that are faced by this group of students.

Future Research

1. Future research should examine other indicators of ethnic identification. Time in residence in the United States, language dominance, and other indicators of ethnic identification may provide a more comprehensive measurement of ethnic identification and intra ethnic differences.

2. Future research should examine a variety of values and attitudes other than traditional family beliefs in the assessment of ethnic identification.

3. Future research should investigate further the nature and the dynamics of the acculturation process and develop more accurate research instruments. Reliance on any single measure of acculturation will increase the risk of overlooking the subtleties of the acculturation process and may result in inaccurate conclusions.

4. Future research should examine how the maintenance-and/or rejection of traditional Puerto Rican cultural beliefs facilitates or frustrates the acculturation process.
5. Future research should examine further the relationship between gender and ethnic identification to determine if significant differences exist between males and females in the acculturation process.

6. Future research should examine the dichotomy between the espousal of a more liberal, egalitarian set of beliefs and actual behavior among the acculturated student group. Student gender in such a study would be of particular interest.

7. Future research should examine the existence and nature of bicultural stress and its relationship to personality development and functioning.

8. Future research should examine how ethnic identification is related to cultural and educational adjustment problems of Puerto Rican university students.
REFERENCES


Hollingshead, A.B., & Redlich, F.C. (1958). Social-class and mental


Littrell, J.M., & Littrell, M.A. (1982). American Indian and


of Counseling Psychology, 25 (6), 570-575.


INSTRUCTIONS:

The following is a list of problems which college students often experience. Many of these problems may already be familiar to you; others may be new. Let us assume that you were experiencing each of these problems and that you wanted to talk to a counselor about them. IF GIVEN THE CHOICE OF A COUNSELOR FOR EACH PROBLEM, WHICH COUNSELOR WOULD YOU PREFER TO TALK TO ABOUT THAT PARTICULAR PROBLEM? You have five counselor choices for each problem: Anglo Male, Anglo Female, Puerto Rican Male, Puerto Rican Female, and a No Preference. A No Preference in this case means that it does not matter to you who the counselor is. A No Preference does not mean that you would not see a counselor. Please make one counselor choice for each of the problems listed. You do not need to sign your name; all your responses will be treated confidentially. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

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<tr>
<th>1. Unable to concentrate on studies.</th>
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<td>2. Needing more guidance on a career choice.</td>
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<td>3. Feeling overwhelmed with school work.</td>
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<td>4. Unable to manage time appropriately for studying.</td>
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<td>5. Difficulty understanding the registration process.</td>
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<td>6. Not knowing how to study.</td>
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<td>7. Getting bad grades.</td>
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<td>8. Difficulty with exams.</td>
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<td>10. Lack of an appropriate place to study.</td>
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<td>11. Difficulty with the writing of term papers.</td>
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12. Difficulty in a subject area.
13. Having problems with a professor.
14. Not knowing how to use the library.
15. Difficulty understanding class lectures.
16. Difficulty planning course of study.
17. Difficulty understanding the academic advisement system.
18. Need tutoring in some subject area.
20. Thinking about dropping out of school.
21. Feeling inferior to others.
22. Lack of confidence in yourself.
23. Unable to sleep well.
25. Difficulty in making decisions.
27. Feeling lonely.
28. Being overweight or underweight.
29. Unable to set a goal in life.
30. Feeling different.

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<tr>
<th>COUNSELOR CHOICES</th>
<th>ANGLO MALE</th>
<th>ANGLO FEMALE</th>
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31. Unable to develop your own way of thinking.
32. Too shy to ask for dates.
33. Unable to accept criticism from others.
34. Difficulty finding a boyfriend/girlfriend.
35. Becoming sexually involved with boyfriend/girlfriend.
36. Feeling sick or in poor health.
37. Unable to spend money wisely.
38. Feeling unattractive.
40. Difficulty defining your service commitments to the community.
41. Difficulty with a family member.
42. Feeling non-supported by parents.
43. Feeling too easily influenced by friends.
44. Having too few social activities.
45. Difficulty making friends.
46. Feeling uncomfortable in social situations.
47. Feeling non-supported by friends.
48. Feeling overwhelmed by the responsibilities at home.

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<td>ANGLO MALE</td>
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Having problems with spouse or mate.
Parents separate or divorce.
Worrying about the sacrifices that parents make.
Worrying about the economic situation at home.
Having differences with parents over dating.
Parents do not accept your friends.
Parents do not understand your needs.
Arguments with parents about living away from home.
Arguments with parents about how you spend your money.
Arguments with parents over your career goals.
Friends make many demands of your time.
Illness of family or friend worries you.

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INSTRUCCIONES:

A continuación va una lista de problemas que frecuentemente tienen los estudiantes universitarios. Muchos de estos problemas le serán conocidos, otros no. Asumiendo que usted tuviera cada uno de estos problemas y que quisiera hablar con un consejero(a), con quién hablaría usted de cada uno de estos problemas? Preferiría un Consejero Anglo, Consejera Angla, Consejero Puertorriqueño, Consejera Puertorriquena o Ninguna Preferencia? Al escoger "Ninguna Preferencia" en este caso significa que no le importaría quién sea el consejero(a). La selección "Ninguna Preferencia" no significa que usted no verá a un consejero(a). Por favor escoja un consejero(a) para cada uno de los problemas en la lista. Su firma no es necesaria, todas sus respuestas serán tratadas confidencialmente. Muchas gracias por su cooperación.

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<td>ANGLO MASCULINO</td>
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1. No poderse concentrar en los estudios.
2. Necesidad de más orientación para escoger una carrera.
3. Sentirse sobrecargado con el trabajo académico.
4. No poder usar el tiempo apropiadamente para los estudios.
5. Dificultad en entender el proceso de matriculación.
6. No saber como estudiar.
7. Sacar malas calificaciones.
8. Dificultad con los exámenes.
9. Cambiar de carrera o plan de estudio.
10. Falta de un lugar apropiado para estudiar.
11. Dificultad con alguna materia de estudio.
12. Problemas con un profesor(a).
14. No saber cómo usar los servicios de la biblioteca.
15. Dificultad en resumir una conferencia.
17. Dificultad en entender el sistema de orientación académico.
18. Necesidad de ayuda particular en una materia de estudio.
20. Considerando salirse de la universidad.
21. Sentirse inferior a los demás.
22. Falta de confianza en sí mismo.
23. No poder dormir bien.
24. Sentirse nervioso(a).
25. Dificultad en hacer decisiones.
26. Sentirse cansado(a) y deprimido(a).
27. Sentirse solo(a).
28. Tener que adelgazar o engordar.

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29. Dificultad en hacer planes para el futuro.
30. Sentirse diferente.
31. No poder desarrollar su propia manera de pensar.
32. Demasiado tímido(a) en situaciones sociales.
33. No poder aceptar críticas de otras personas.
34. Dificultad en encontrar novio(a).
35. Comenzar relaciones sexuales con el novio(a).
36. Sentirse enfermo(a) o con mala salud.
37. No saber gastar bien el dinero.
38. No sentirse atractivo(a).
39. Sentir envidia de los demás.
40. Dificultad en definir su compromiso de servicio a la comunidad.
41. Dificultad con un familiar.
42. No sentirse apoyado por sus padres.
43. Dejarse influenciar fácilmente por las amistades.
44. Tener muy pocas actividades sociales.
45. Dificultad para hacer amistades.

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<tr>
<th>Número</th>
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<td>46.</td>
<td>Sentirse incómodo en reuniones sociales.</td>
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<td>47.</td>
<td>No sentirse apoyado por amistades.</td>
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<td>48.</td>
<td>Sentirse sobrecargado con responsabilidades en el hogar.</td>
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<td>49.</td>
<td>Problemas con el esposo(a) o compañero(a).</td>
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<td>50.</td>
<td>Padres se separan o se divorcian.</td>
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<td>51.</td>
<td>Preocuparse por los sacrificios que hacen los demás.</td>
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<td>52.</td>
<td>Preocuparse por la situación económica del hogar.</td>
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<td>53.</td>
<td>Dificultad con padres sobre sus salidas sociales.</td>
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<td>54.</td>
<td>Padres no aceptan sus amistades.</td>
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<td>55.</td>
<td>Padres no comprenden sus necesidades.</td>
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<td>56.</td>
<td>Argumentos con sus padres sobre donde usted quiere vivir.</td>
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<td>57.</td>
<td>Argumentos con sus padres sobre cómo usted gasta el dinero.</td>
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<td>58.</td>
<td>Argumentos con sus padres sobre su carrera.</td>
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<td>59.</td>
<td>Amistades exigen demasiado de su tiempo.</td>
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<td>60.</td>
<td>Preocuparse por la enfermedad de algún familiar o amistad.</td>
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Página 4
APPENDIX B
INSTRUCTIONS:

This is not an examination. It is simply a list of statements. I want your opinion about these statements. Not everyone has the same opinion. I am interested in knowing your opinion or thinking on these statements. It is important that you respond to all the statements. Thank you very much for your cooperation.

If you STRONGLY AGREE with a statement ------------------------------------ Circle +2
If you AGREE SOMewhat with a statement ------------------------------------ Circle +1
If you NEITHER AGREE NOR DISAGREE with a statement ------------------ Circle 0
If you DISAGREE SOMewhat with a statement -------------------------------- Circle -1
If you STRONGLY DISAGREE with a statement -------------------------------- Circle -2

| 1. | Men are naturally superior to women | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 2. | A good wife does not neglect her home or husband because of her school or career | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 3. | All men should be tough and aggressive | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 4. | Men should have more freedom than women | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 5. | You should never question the authority of your father | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 6. | The man should be the boss in the family | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 7. | A man can have many women at a time but a woman should have only one man | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 8. | The care of the house is the woman's responsibility, not the man's | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 9. | A woman who commits adultery dishonors her family | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 10. | It is more important to respect one's father than to love him | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 11. | A good career is more important for the man than for the woman | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 12. | A woman should not involve herself in a man's world | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 13. | The husband initiates and determines the frequency of sex | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 14. | A woman should remain a virgin until she marries | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 15. | It is natural for married men to have lovers | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 16. | Sexual relations are more important to the man than to the woman | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 17. | A good wife does not go out without her husband's permission | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
18. The care of children is more the woman's responsibility than the man's.

19. It is better to be a man than to be a woman.

20. Submissive women are the best.

21. A woman should not have the same rights as a man.

22. In courtship it is the man who should take the first step.

23. Learning to do housework well is more important for women than for men.

24. A wife who respects her husband does not question his decisions.

25. All boys should have self-confidence.

26. A good wife does not work outside the home without her husband's permission.

27. When there is only enough money for one person's education, the man not the woman, should get the education.

28. Men are more intelligent than women.

29. The woman's place is in the home; the man's place is at work.

30. An important man should have more rights and privileges than an unimportant man.

31. For a man to commit adultery is no dishonor.

32. Housework is the woman's responsibility.

33. A good wife never questions the conduct of her husband.

34. A man should be a man in all situations.

35. A major dishonor for a family is to have a homosexual son.

36. In a crisis, it is the man not the woman who should take control over the situation.

37. Every boy must prove himself a man.

38. The man is always the boss in the home.

39. The stricter the parents the better the child.

40. A boy should always obey his father.
INSTRUCCIONES:

Esto no es un examen. Es simplemente una lista de declaraciones. Queremos su opinión sobre estas declaraciones. No todas las personas opinan igual sobre estas declaraciones. Estamos interesados en obtener su opinión o manera de pensar. Es importante que usted responda a todas las declaraciones. Muchas gracias por su cooperación.

Si usted está FIRMEMENTE DE ACUERDO con la declaración---------------------------------- Marque + 2
Si usted está PARCIALMENTE DE ACUERDO con la declaración----------------------------- Marque + 1
Si le es IGUAL LA DECLARACIÓN------------------------------------------------------ Marque 0
Si usted NO ESTA DE ACUERDO PARCIALMENTE con la declaración----------------------- Marque - 1
Si usted NO ESTA DE ACUERDO FIRMEMENTE con la declaración-------------------------- Marque - 2

1. Los hombres son más inteligentes que las mujeres. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
2. La buena esposa no desciende a su esposo o su casa por el estudio o su carrera. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
3. Todos los hombres deben ser fuertes y agresivos. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
4. Los hombres deben tener más libertad que las mujeres. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
5. Nunca debe dudar la palabra de su padre. +2 +1 0 -1 -3
6. El hombre debe ser el jefe de la familia. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
7. El hombre puede tener muchas mujeres a la vez, pero la mujer debe tener solamente un hombre. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
8. El cuidado de la casa es la responsabilidad de la mujer, no del hombre. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
9. La mujer que comete adulterio deshonra a su familia. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
10. Es más importante respetar que querer a su padre. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
11. Una buena carrera es más importante para el hombre que para la mujer. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
12. La mujer no debe meterse en asuntos de los hombres. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
13. El esposo inicia y determina la frecuencia de las relaciones sexuales. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
14. La mujer debe conservarse virgen hasta que se case. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
15. Tener una corteja o amantes es natural para el hombre casado. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
16. Las relaciones sexuales son más importantes para el hombre que para la mujer. +2 +1 0 -1 -2
| 17. | Una buena esposa no sale sin el permiso de su marido. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 18. | El cuidado de los niños es la responsabilidad de la mujer, no del hombre. | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 19. | Es mejor ser hombre que mujer. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 20. | Las mujeres sumisas son las mejores. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 21. | La mujer no debe tener los mismos derechos que el hombre. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 22. | Para comenzar el noviazgo el hombre debe tomar el primer paso. | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 23. | Aprender bien el trabajo de la casa es más importante para la mujer que para el hombre. | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 24. | La mujer que respeta a su marido acepta sus decisiones sin pedir explicaciones. | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 25. | Todos los muchachos (hombres) deben estar seguros de sí mismo. | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 26. | La buena esposa no debe trabajar fuera de la casa sin el permiso de su esposo. | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 27. | Cuando hay dinero solamente para los estudios de una persona, debe ser el hombre y no la mujer, el que recibe la educación. | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 28. | Por naturaleza los hombres son superiores a las mujeres. | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 29. | La mujer es de la casa y el hombre de la calle. | +3 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 30. | Un hombre de importancia debe tener más derechos y privilegios que un hombre sin importancia. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 31. | El hombre que comete adulterio no deshonra a su familia. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 32. | La limpieza de la casa es la responsabilidad de la mujer. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 33. | Una buena esposa nunca duda de la conducta de su marido. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 34. | El hombre tiene que ser hombre en cualquier lugar. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 35. | Tener un hijo homosexual es una gran deshonra para la familia. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 36. | En una crisis el hombre, no la mujer, debe tomar control sobre la situación. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 37. | Todo muchacho debe demostrar que es hombre. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 38. | El hombre es la autoridad en su casa. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 39. | Mientras más estrictos sean los padres, mejor es el hijo. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
| 40. | El niño debe siempre obedecer a su padre. | +2 | +1 | 0 | -1 | -2 |
There is very little research on the special needs and concerns of Puerto Rican college students. Your participation in this research project will fill an important need for this research and it will make a valuable contribution to the counseling field. Your responses will help counselors and educators learn more about your concerns and attitudes on different matters. It will also help them to improve services by making them more relevant to your special needs. You do not need to give your name. All of your responses will be treated confidentially. Your cooperation is greatly appreciated.

Please fill in the following information:

1. Sex: [ ] Male [ ] Female
2. Place of Birth: [ ] United States [ ] Puerto Rico

3. Age: __________

4a. Did you have all or most of your elementary education (first through eighth grade) in the United States or in Puerto Rico? [ ]

b. Did you have all or most of your high school education (first through fourth year) in the United States or in Puerto Rico? [ ]

5. Are you a [ ] Freshman [ ] Sophomore [ ] Junior [ ] Senior [ ] Other?

6a. Have you decided on a major? [ ] Yes [ ] No

b. Indicate your major

7a. Have you seen a counselor at the university? [ ] Yes [ ] No

b. For which of the following did you see a counselor? If you saw more than one counselor indicate the matter and the counselor for each.

[ ] Vocational or Academic matter
[ ] Personal, Health, or Psychological matter
[ ] Family, or Social matter

c. Was the counselor [ ] Male [ ] Female?

d. Was the counselor [ ] Anglo [ ] Puerto Rican [ ] Other?

8a. What is the highest grade of education of your father? Circle one answer.

Primary: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 High School: 1 2 3 4 Graduated

College: 1 2 3 4 Graduated Professional School: (Example Law, Medicine)

b. What is the highest grade of education of your mother? Circle one answer.

Primary: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 High School: 1 2 3 4 Graduated

College: 1 2 3 4 Graduated Professional School: (Example Law, Medicine)

9a. Is your father Puerto Rican? [ ] Yes [ ] No

b. Is your mother Puerto Rican? [ ] Yes [ ] No

c. Where was your father born? [ ] United States [ ] Puerto Rico [ ] Other

d. Where was your mother born? [ ] United States [ ] Puerto Rico [ ] Other

10. When you consider all those persons who you have had significant interaction with, who among these has had the most influence on your beliefs, values, and attitudes?

If you feel no one has had a significant influence in your life, please place an X on the box.
Existen muy pocas investigaciones sobre las preocupaciones del estudiante Puertorriqueño en la universidad. Su participación en esta investigación nos ayudará a crear mayor sensibilidad a las necesidades del estudiante Puertorriqueño, lo cual será una gran contribución al campo de la consejería. Se espera que los resultados de esta investigación darán luz a las preocupaciones y actitudes de este grupo. En esta forma esperamos mejorar los servicios de consejería. Sus respuestas se considerarán anónimas y totalmente confidencial; consecuentemente no es necesario firmar esta encuesta. Gracias por su cooperación.

Por favor llene la siguiente información:

1. Sexo: ______ Masculino ______ Femenino
2. Lugar donde nació: ______ Estados Unidos ______ Puerto Rico
3. Edad: ______
4a. Tuvo usted toda o la mayor parte de su educación primaria (primero a octavo grado) en los Estados Unidos o en Puerto Rico? ______
   b. Tuvo usted toda o la mayor parte de su educación secundaria (primer hasta cuarto año) en los Estados Unidos o en Puerto Rico? ______
5. En qué año está usted en la universidad?
   ______ Primero ______ Segundo ______ Tercero ______ Cuarto ______ Estudiante Graduado
6a. Se ha decidido usted por un campo de estudio mayor? ______ Sí ______ No
   b. Indique su campo de estudio mayor ______
7a. Ha visto a un (a) consejero (a) en esta universidad? ______ Sí ______ No
   b. Por qué motivo acudió a un (a) consejero (a)?
      ______ Un asunto Académico o Vocacional
      ______ Un asunto Psicológico, Personal o de Salud
      ______ Un asunto Familiar o Social
   c. El consejero (a) fue ______ hombre? ______ mujer?
   d. El consejero (a) fue ______ Anglo/a? ______ Hispano/a?
      ______ Otra Nacionalidad
8a. Cual es el grado de educación más alto de su padre? Marque uno.
   Primaria: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Escuela Superior: 1 2 3 4 Graduado
   Universitario: 1 2 3 4 Graduado Estudios Profesionales (Ejemplo, Leyes o Medicina)
   b. Cual es el grado de educación más alto de su madre? Marque uno.
   Primaria: 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 Escuela Superior: 1 2 3 4 Graduado
   Universitario: 1 2 3 4 Graduado Estudios Profesionales (Ejemplo, Leyes o Medicina)
9a. ¿Es su padre puertorriqueño? ____ Sí ____ No

b. ¿Es su madre puertorriqueña? ____ Sí ____ No

c. ¿Dónde nació su padre? ____ Estados Unidos ____ Puerto Rico ____ Otro País

d. ¿Dónde nació su madre? ____ Estados Unidos ____ Puerto Rico ____ Otro País

10. Cuando usted considera a todas esas personas con quienes usted ha tenido interacción significante, quién entre estas personas tuvo la mayor influencia en sus creencias, valores, y actitudes?

Si usted siente que nadie ha tenido una influencia importante en su vida, por favor indíquelo con una X en la caja .
APPENDIX D
Permission for use of the Traditional Family Belief Scale was obtained from Mrs. Fernandez-Marina in a personal note. The note shares information with this researcher about the recent death of Dr. Ramon Fernandez-Marina. In honor of his many and significant contributions to the research with a Puerto Rican population and in respect for the privacy of his family, no copy is made of Mrs. Fernandez-Marina's personal note.
APPENDIX Ea
Revision of Items in the Traditional Family Belief Scale

The statement or group of statements below are numbered and written as they appeared in the Vasquez (1974) study. Each Vasquez statement or group of statements is followed by a revised statement as used in the present study. In some cases two or three statements from the Vasquez investigation were combined into one statement for the present study. Thirteen of the thirty statements in the Vasquez study were revised, and three statements were deleted.

Vasquez statement
#7 All men should be tough and valiant.
#10 All men should be strong.
#15 Men should be aggressive.

Revised statement
#3 All men should be tough and aggressive.

Vasquez statement
#2 You should never question the word of your father.
#19 A person should always obey his father.

Revised statement
#5 You should never question the authority of your father.

Vasquez statement
#25 The place for women is in the home.

Revised statement
#29 The woman's place is in the home; the man's place is at work.

Vasquez statement
#29 Adultery is no dishonor for a man.

Revised statement
#31 For a man to commit adultery is no dishonor.

Vasquez statement
#5 All men should be complete men.
#26 A man is a man as long as he can prove it.

Revised statement
#34 A man should be a man in all situations.

Vasquez statement
#14 Men should wear the pants in the family.

Revised statement
#6 The man should be the boss in the family.
Vasquez statement

#28 The father should always be the leader in the home.

Revised statement

#38 The man is always the boss in the home.

Vasquez statement

#3 A boy should always obey his parents.
#6 A boy has no right to question his father's orders.

Revised statement

#40 A boy should always obey his father.

The following statements were added to the TFBS for the present study to include current family issues such as responsibility for child care and domestic chores:

#2 A good wife does not neglect her home or husband because of her school or career.

#7 A man can have many women at a time but a woman should have only one man.

#8 The care of the house is the woman's responsibility, not the man's.

#11 A good career is more important for the man than for the woman.

#12 A woman should not involve herself in a man's world.

#13 The husband initiates and determines the frequency of sex.

#16 Sexual relations are more important to the man than to the woman.

#17 A good wife does not go out without her husband's permission.

#18 The care of children is more the woman's responsibility than the man's.

#21 A woman should not have the same rights as a man.

#22 In courtship it is the man who should take the first step.

#23 Learning to do housework well is more important for women than for men.

#24 A wife who respects her husband does not question his decisions.

#26 A good wife does not work outside the home without her husband's permission.
When there is only enough money for one person's education the man not the woman, should get the education.

Housework is the woman's responsibility.
APPENDIX Eb
Revision de Declaraciones en el Traditional Family Belief Scale

Las declaraciones o grupos de declaraciones presentados a continuación están numeradas y escritas tal como aparecen en el estudio de Vasquez (1974). A cada declaración o grupo de declaraciones de Vasquez le sigue una revisión como se uso en el estudio presente. En algunos casos dos o tres declaraciones de Vasquez se combinaron para formar una declaración. Trece de las treinta declaraciones del estudio de Vasquez se revisaron para el estudio presente, y trece declaraciones se omitieron.

Declaración en Vasquez
#7 Todos los hombres deben ser fuertes y valientes.
#10 Todos los hombres deben ser fuertes.
#15 Los hombres deben ser agresivos.

Declaración Revisada
#3 Todos los hombres deben ser fuertes y agresivos.

Declaración en Vasquez
#2 Nunca debe dudar la palabra de su padre.
#19 Una persona debe siempre obedecer a su padre.

Declaración Revisada
#5 Nunca debe dudar la palabra de su padre.

Declaración en Vasquez
#25 El hogar es el sitio para la mujer.

Declaración Revisada
#29 La mujer es de la casa y el hombre de la calle.

Declaración en Vasquez
#29 El adulterio no es deshonra para el hombre.

Declaración Revisada
#31 El hombre que comete adulterio no deshonra a su familia.

Declaración en Vasquez
#5 Todos los hombres deben ser hombres completos.
#26 El hombre es hombre por el tiempo que pueda probarlo.

Declaración Revisada
#34 El hombre tiene que ser hombre en cualquier lugar.

Declaración en Vasquez
#14 Los hombres deben ser el jefe en la familia.

Declaración Revisada
#6 El hombre debe ser el jefe de la familia.
Declaración en Vásquez
#28 El hombre debe siempre ser el líder en el hogar.

Declaración Revisada
#38 El hombre es la autoridad en su casa.

Declaración en Vásquez
#3 El niño debe siempre obedecer a sus padres.
#6 El niño no tiene derecho de dudar las ordenes de su padre.

Declaración Revisada
#40 El niño debe siempre obedecer a su padre.

Las siguientes declaraciones se añadieron al TFBS para el estudio presente para incluir temas corrientes tales como responsabilidad para el cuidado de niños y quehaceres domésticos.

#2 La buena esposa no descuida a su esposo o su casa por el estudio o su carrera.
#7 El hombre puede tener muchas mujeres a la vez, pero la mujer debe tener solamente un hombre.
#8 El cuidado de la casa es la responsabilidad de la mujer, no la del hombre.
#11 Una buena carrera es más importante para el hombre que para la mujer.
#12 La mujer no debe meterse en asuntos de los hombres.
#13 El esposo inicia y determina la frecuencia de las relaciones sexuales.
#16 Las relaciones sexuales son más importantes para el hombre que para la mujer.
#17 Una buena esposa no sale sin el permiso de su marido.
#18 El cuidado de los niños es la responsabilidad de la mujer, no del hombre.
#21 La mujer no debe tener los mismos derechos que el hombre.
#22 Para comenzar el noviazgo el hombre debe tomar el primer paso.
#23 Aprender bien el trabajo de la casa es más importante para la mujer que para el hombre.
#24 La mujer que respeta a su marido acepta sus decisiones sin pedir explicaciones.
26 La buena esposa no debe trabajar fuera de la casa sin el permiso de su esposo.

27 Cuando hay dinero solamente para los estudios de una persona, debe ser el hombre y no la mujer, el que recibe la educación.

32 La limpieza de la casa es la responsabilidad de la mujer.
The dissertation submitted by Maria I. Reyes has been read and approved by the following committee:

Dr. John Wellington, Director
Professor, Counseling Psychology and Higher Education, Loyola

Dr. Manuel S. Silverman
Professor, Counseling Psychology and Higher Education, Loyola

Dr. Terry Williams
Assistant Professor, Counseling Psychology and Higher Education, Loyola

Dr. Rosina Gallagher
School Psychologist, Board of Education, City of Chicago

The final copies have been examined by the director of the dissertation and the signature which appears below verifies the fact that any necessary changes have been incorporated and that the dissertation is now given final approval by the Committee with reference to content and form.

The dissertation is therefore accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

November 25, 1985
Date

John Wellington, Ph.D.
Director's Signature