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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

HONG KONG FOREIGN STUDENTS: ATTITUDES TOWARD SEEKING PSYCHOLOGICAL HELP

bу

ROSA Y. IP

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH
IN PARTIAL FULFILMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE
OF MASTER OF EDUCATION

IN

COUNSELING PSYCHOLOGY
DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL PSYCHOLOGY

EDMONTON, ALBERTA SPRING, 1985

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To my father

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was fourfold: (1) to investigate Hong Kong foreign students' attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help: (2) to identify and measure an aspect of personality variation, ie. the relative open- or closed-mindedness (dogmatism) of these students, and its relationship to help-seeking attitudes; (3) to examine the relationship of their socio-economic status with attitudes toward help-seeking; and (4) to assess the effect of education on attitudes toward seeking psychological assistance.

students enrolled at the University of Alberta. The Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (Fischer & Turner, 1970) and Dogmatism Scale (Rokeach, 1960) were utilized to measure the subjects' help-seeking attitudes and relative open/closed-mindedness. The raw scores of these two scales were treated statistically to determine the presence of significant differences.

The findings indicated that there was a significant inverse correlation between the subjects help-seeking attitudes and open-mindedness/dogmatism. Socio-economic status was found to have no effect on help-seeking attitudes, but a significant effect was observed on open-mindedness/dogmatism. Also, education was found to have no effect on attitudes toward seeking psychological help.

Implications and suggestions for further research emphasized the need for continued investigation amongst foreign student groups, so that policies could be implemented in the future to provide a more satisfying experience for international students.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to express sincere thanks to Dr. John Paterson, supervisor of this thesis, for his ongoing support, encouragement and guidance.

Appreciation is also expressed to the following persons:

Dr. E.E. Fox and Dr. K.L. Ward, committee members, for their time, interest and insightful comments.

Ray, for his patience and understanding.

The staff and members of the Chinese Students'
Association at the University of Alberta for their
assistance and co-operation; and especially to the Hong
Kong students who participated, making this study
possible.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

The relationship between culture and mental health has roused increased attention and controversy in recent years. Despite methodological difficulties, researchers continue to work toward understanding mental health at the cultural, social or personality level. Relatively few conclusions have been reached since systematic studies on various levels are sparse. Research attempts to integrate these levels have been also minimal and inconclusive (Marsella & Pedersen, 1981; Pedersen, 1976; Sundberg, 1981).

Marsella, Kinzie & Gordon (1973), Sue & Sue (1974),
Tanaka-Matsumi & Marsella (1976) indicate that most mental
health services are culture bound. Their studies suggest
that psychological mindedness and help-seeking attitudes
are closely bound to one's cultural conditioning. They
assume that ethnic minorities will less likely approach
counselors, as they are often resistant to psychological
help (Kaneshige, 1973; Sue & Kirk, 1975).

Since counseling has increasingly become an intercultural enterprise, these generalizations hardly assuage
counselors who want to work with culturally different
people. A number of studies venture beyond the culture
bound theory, and point to additional variables which may
affect one's attitude toward help-seeking (Dohrenwend,

1

1973; Draguns, 1981; Raskin, Crook & Herman, 1975).

The controversial findings usually arise when individual variations within subcultural groups in regard to their personality differences, social class, and educational levels have not been taken into account. Smith (1969) indicates that there are cultural, social as well as educational based differences in attitudes. Also, these attitudes are often subject to modification. The nature of modification will depend in part upon receipt of new information, integration with new reference groups, type of social contact, and rewarding experiences with the object of the attitude (Berelson & Steiner, 1964; Fischer & Cohen, 1972; Rosenberg, 1956).

Rokeach (1960) identifies personality as "an organization of beliefs or expectancies having a definable and measurable structure" (p. 7). A person is open-minded or dogmatic depending on the extent to which his belief system is open or closed. In relating this to the concept of attitudinal change, Rokeach (1960) postulates that highly dogmatic individuals do not approach new experiences or change readily, whereas open-minded individuals are more flexible and receptive to new ideas. Kemp (1960), following this line of thinking, hypothesizes that open-minded individuals respond more favorably to the counseling situation than dogmatic individuals.

Another variable which may affect one's attitude toward counseling is social class. Conclusions stated in

earlier research (Derogatis, Yevzeroff & Wittelsberger, 1975; Heitler, 1976; Jones, 1974; Terestman, Miller & Weber, 1974) indicate that lower class people generally hold negative attitudes toward help-seeking. They are less often accepted for dynamically oriented therapy, and are reported to have higher dropout rates.

Finally, educational level has been hypothesized as a contributing factor toward counseling attitudes. Berelson & Steiner (1964) suggest that young people are amenable to attitude change. They will shift away from class and race anchored beliefs as they become more educated. Fischer & Cohen (1972) further indicate that orientation to professional help will become more positive as one's education increases. Thus the discrepancies between people of different class and ethnic origins are hypothesized to diminish with advanced education.

Background to the Study

Since Oriental and Occidental cultures are often termed "high contrast cultures" (Sundberg, 1976), various studies have suggested that Oriental values in the western context will create adjustment problems for Chinese students in North America (Arkoff, Thaver & Elkind, 1966; Chien, 1973; Sue & Kirk, 1972; Sue & Sue, 1972). These students are usually described as "emotionally withdrawn and verbally inhibited" (Sue & Sue, 1974, p. 426), and as a group tend to underutilize mental health facilities. Sue & Kirk (1975) hypothesi: ? that this low utility of counsel-

ing services indicates cultural elements which inhibit professional help-seeking, since admitting psychological problems will bring "shame and disgrace to their family name" (p. 84).

with socioeconomic, educational and personality differences, and can obscure important sources of individual variation. The foregoing description of the Chinese students has been generalized to include almost everyone of Chinese descent. Yet, it is obvious that there will be variations in experience and subjectivity even between individuals within a subcultural group.

Sundberg (1981) proposes that in a pluralistic society, an individual's degree of integration and contact with the majority culture will affect his adjustment and attitude toward mental health. Szapocznik, Scopetta & Kurtines (1981, cited in Sundberg, 1981) indicate that irrespective of culture and ethnicity, one's behavioral and attitudinal changes will be linear functions of the amount of time one spends in the host country. Fischer & Turner (1970) suggest that social status, economic and psychological factors will influence a person's attitude toward mental health services. Thus there will be marked differences in attitudes even amongst members who come from a similar cultural/ethnic background.

In view of the various groups of Chinese students in North America (from China, Hong Kong, Malaysia, Taiwan etc.,

and American— or Canadian—born Chinese) and their length of stay in a western context, it would seem presumptuous to generalize all of them as having common attitudes and similar characteristics. Previous studies tend to group Chinese students along with other international students of similar physiognomy, and incorporate loose definitions of Oriental or Asian students (Perkins, Perkins, Gugliel—mino & Reiff, 1977). These serve to confound the data, and systematic research amongst various groups seems limited.

The primary intent of this thesis, therefore, is to study a group of Chinese students, the Hong Kong students at the University of Alberta, and to explore their attitudes toward mental health services at the socioeconomic, educational and personality levels. Various selected variables are also examined as possible correlates.

Through this study, it is hoped that some insight and understanding can be gained about this particular group. Significance of the Study

The number of foreign students enrolled in Canadian universities has risen steadily in the past decade. In the academic year 1981-82, there were over 60,000 students coming from different countries (Ampendices A & B), with Hong Kong as the top contributor of foreign undergraduate students in Canada (Appendix A). At the University of

^{*}NOTE: The term "foreign student" refers to both landed immigrant and visa status students (Statistics Canada).

Alberta (1983-84), Hong Kong students have also been the dominant foreign student group in terms of numbers, representing roughly 27 percent of the total international student body (Appendix C).

Hong Kong students' large undergraduate enrollment, their competitive educational background, western influence in their upbringing, and future political uncertainty have made them a unique group worthy of independent study. Although there has been considerable foreign student research in the past, the majority of these studies were conducted in American settings (Schuh, 1977; Perkins, Perkins, Guglielmino & Reiff, 1977). More Canadian-based studies are needed to verify previous research, as the composition of foreign student groups attracted to Canada may vary markedly from the United States.

Since enrollments of Hong Kong students at the Univsity of Alberta and other Canadian universities are still
increasing, additional information about this group is
needed. To find out about the attitudes of Hong Kong
students toward psychological services is a necessary and
important first step in understanding/meeting their needs
in case of crisis. Through this, remedial and possibly
preventive measures can be undertaken to help these
students.

Purpose of the Study

The present research is designed to study a sample of Hong Kong undergraduate and graduate students at the Uni-

versity of Alberta. There is a fourfold purpose pertaining to the thesis: first, to investigate these students' attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help; second, to identify and measure an aspect of personality variation, ie. the relative open— or closed—mindedness (dogmatism) of these students, and its relationship to help—seeking attitudes; third, to examine the relationship of their socio—economic status with attitudes toward help—seeking; and fourth, to assess the effect of educational level on attitudes toward psychological assistance.

Since personal characteristics are assumed to affect an individual's attitude toward professional help, the subjects' sex, religion, academic discipline, length of stay in Canada, social contact, and previous counseling experiences are also examined as possible correlates.

To accomplish the purposes of this study, the Fischer & Turner Scale (1970) and Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale (1960) are used. The Fischer & Turner Scale (1970) is employed to measure one's attitudes toward seeking professional psychological help; whereas Rokeach's Dogmatism Scale (1960) is used to measure one's relative open-mindedness and dogmatism. Previous studies have found that open-mindedness/dogmatism relates strongly to personality traits and adjustment levels, including one's responsiveness to counseling (Kemp, 1960; Norman, 1966). Thus the Dogmatism Scale is explored in relation to Fischer & Turner's Scale (1970) of help-seeking attitudes. Since both scales have

not been used amongst Hong Kong students before, their usefulness as potential research instruments in a cross-cultural context is explored. Moreover, the appropriateness of using questionnaires as a research method amongst this group is also examined.

Limitations & Delimitations

Limitations

- 1. The test instruments used in this study are Fischer & Turner's (1970) Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale and Rokeach's (1960) Dogmatism Scale. No attempt has been made to re-establish the validity and reliability of these scales. The statistical data provided by previous users of these instruments are accepted at face value.
- 2. In spite of bilingualism, the respondents are assumed to have a uniform interpretation of the questionnaires.
- 3. Since the research is conducted on a voluntary and self-administered basis, the empirical data obtained would represent the opinions of a proportion of Hong Kong foreign students on campus. No control or comparative groups are established. Therefore the findings from this research cannot be generalized beyond this scope.

Delimitations

Due to time and other restrictions, the study is confined to a sample of Hong Kong-born Chinese undergraduate and graduate students studying at the University of

Ø

Alberta.

Definition of Terms

The following definitions have been adopted for the purposes of this study:

Open-mindedness. Rokeach (1960, p. 57) defines open-mindedness as:

...the extent to which the person can receive, evaluate and act on relevant information received from the outside on its own intrinsic merits, unencumbered by irrelevant factors in the situation arising from within the person or from the outside.

Dogmatism. Rokeach (1954, p. 194) defines dogmatism as:

...a relatively closed cognitive organization of beliefs and disbeliefs about reality... which...provides a framework for patterns of intolerance and qualified tolerance toward others.

Attitude. Rokeach (1968, p. 112) defines attitude in the following manner:

An attitude is a relatively enduring organization of beliefs around an object or situation predisposing one to respond in some preferential manner.

Belief. Rokeach (1968, p. 113) defines belief as:

A belief is any simple proposition, conscious or unconscious, inferred from what a person says or does, capable of being preceded by the phrase "I believe that...." The content of a belief may describe the object of belief as true or false, correct or incorrect; evaluate it as good or bad; or advocate a certain course of action or a certain state of existence as desirable or undesirable.

Organization of the Thesis

Following the introduction in Chapter I, a review of

the theories of attitudes toward seeking psychological help and open-mindedness/dogmatism. Chapter III constitutes a description of Hong Kong foreign students in North America. In Chapter IV the research design, sample description, instrumentation, procedures, and statistical tests used are outlined. The results of data collection and analysis are presented in Chapter V. Finally, a summary of findings and implications for further research are presented in Chapter VI.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

I. ATTITUDES TOWARD SEEKING PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL HELP

Background

Relatively few research studies had been conducted on one's attitude toward seeking psychological help. A person might view help-seeking behavior as a sign of personal weakness, whereas another might approach a counselor/psychiatrist willingly with expectations for change (Fisch-turner, 1970). Brammer & Shostrom (1968) hypothesized that one's decision to seek professional help rested on a variety of attitudinal factors. These included beliefs about the nature of mental health, stigma surrounding psychiatric care, confidence in psychotherapeutic treatment, interpersonal openness, and recognition of need for help etc. The study of related attitudinal and personality dimensions would therefore prove useful in understanding one's help-getting behavior.

Studies during the 1950s showed a strong correlation between socioeconomic status and help-seeking orientations. Redlich, Hollingshead & Bellis (1955) indicated that lower-class people were less psychologically minded when compared to upper-class people. Even when professional help was available at low cost, working-class people were more apt to terminate therapy prematurely (Imber, Nash & Stone, 1955). Lower-class people were generally described

as having value conflicts with the higher status counselor/
psychiatrist (Brill & Storrow, 1960). A study by Carkhuff
& Pierce (1967) indicated that both socioeconomic status
and ethnicity would affect one's attitude toward seeking
psychological help. Wolkon, Moriwaki & Williams (1973)
discovered that race-ethnicity was not related to helpseeking orientations, but social class was.

The impact of education on attitudes toward helpseeking was also explored. Gurin, Veroff & Feld (1960) conducted a survey and found a positive correlation between educational levels and actual use of professional services for psychological problems. Hochreich & Rotter (1970) discovered that newer students were less trusting of professional agencies, showed more skeptical attitudes and less interpersonal trust than the more advanced students. In examining possible demographic correlates of attitudes toward seeking professional help, Fischer & Cohen (1972) found that help-seeking attitudes of college juniors/seniors were more favorable than either college freshmen/sophomores or high school subjects, and college freshmen/sophomores held more positive attitudes than high school students. Moreover, the effects on help-seeking attitudes noted for education were independent of the subjects' age.

The differences between men's and women's attitudes toward professional help were demonstrated in various studies. Phillips & Segal (1969) showed that with the same

amount of physical and psychiatric symptoms, women were more inclined to seek professional assistance than men. Jourard & Lasakow (1958) found that females had the tendency to self-disclose more freely than males, and self-disclosure was generally regarded as a critical fact-or in seeking psychological help. These findings corresponded with the sex difference in Fischer & Cohen's (1972) study, which discovered that women held more favorable attitudes to help-seeking than men.

Research literature also indicated that fear of being stigmatized might influence a person from getting professional help. Farina, Allen & Saul (1968) thought that the stigmatized person himself might behave suspiciously on the belief that others attributed a psychiatric history to him. Fischer & Turner (1970) pointed out that individuals treated in mental hospitals might be more vulnerable to denigration than those counseled by clergymen or physicians for similar problems. However, seeking support for personal problems itself did not seem to be threatening.

The correspondence of help-seeking orientations to other variables such as religion, students' academic discipline, and previous counseling experience had been also examined. With regards to religion, Fischer & Cohen (1972) found that Jewish subjects tended to express more favorable attitudes toward help-seeking than Protestants and Catholics, but the difference did not reach significance at the .05 level. Fischer & Cohen (1972) also found

in their study that social science students significantly held more positive attitudes than humanities, hard science or applied program majors. As far as counseling experience was concerned, Fischer & Turner (1970) discovered that subjects who had actually sought or received psychotherapeutic aid scored significantly higher (at the .001 level for males, and .0001 level for females) than subjects who had no previous professional contact.

Measurement

Undoubtedly, there were numerous social, educational, interpersonal, and personality components which affected an individual's decision to seek psychological help. However, attempts to integrate these various factors in the measurement of help-seeking attitudes were rather limited.

Most earlier studies were geared specifically to the public's concept toward mental hospitals and psychiatric treatment (Fischer & Turner, 1970; Reznikoff, Brady & Zeller, 1959). Nunnally (1961) examined public attitudes toward mental health professionals through questionnaires and semantic differential ratings. Fischer (1971) studied the relationship between humanitarian attitudes and beliefs about mental patients, on one hand, and intentions to volunteer for a companionship program for mental hospital patients, on the other. The findings showed that attitude-intention correlations were greatest for subjects with neutral beliefs, and weakest for subjects with benign

beliefs. Fischer (1971) hypothesized that a personality factor (probably authoritarianism), not beliefs about patients, moderated variations in the attitude-intention relationship. The results suggested that predictions from attitudes could be sharpened by taking into account personality factors.

Fischer & Turner (1970) took into account the various components, and attempted to identify an attitudinal and personality domain which applied to one's tendency to seek professional aid. The assumption was that such attitudinal and personality differences would underlie actual helpseeking, thus it would be useful to explore their relationships with other explanatory variables. A summated rating (likert) attitude scale was constructed and standardized; the correspondence between scale scores and other related variables were examined; and the item responses were factor analysed. The development and standardization of the Fischer & Turner's (1970) Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale would be further discussed in a later chapter.

Correlates of Help-Seeking Attitudes

Fischer & Turner (1970) hypothesized that certain personality variables would have a significant relation—ship to help—seeking attitudes, which helped to account for variance in the measure. The variables selected for empirical tests were limited to existing personality scales, and they were chosen in terms of their behavioral

referents as discussed in psychological literature.

Fischer & Turner (1970) assumed that positive helpseeking attitudes would contain some variance attributable
to need for social approval, or "social desirability". The
Marlowe-Crowne Social Desirability Scale (Crowne & Marlowe,
1964) was used and administered to two samples in Fischer
& Turner's research. Nevertheless, the results showed that
the tendency for subjects to respond in a socially desirable manner did not correspond with the attitude scores.

Highly authoritarian subjects were expected to hold negative attitudes toward seeking professional help.

Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson & Sanford (1950) described authoritarians as submissive, hypocritical and rigid. These characteristics seemed contrary to the personality of the help-oriented individual. Fischer & Turner's (1970) research supported this hypothesis, and authoritarianism as indexed by the California F Scale was found to relate inversely to help-seeking attitudes.

Rotter (1967) referred interpersonal trust as "an' expectancy held by an individual or a group that the word, promise, verbal or written statement of another individual or group can be relied upon" (p. 65). Fischer & Turner (1970) suggested that trust in professionals and social institutions was fundamental to the attitudes toward seeking help. The Rotter's (1967) Scale of Interpersonal Trust was used, and findings showed that there was a positive correlation between interpersonal trust and help-seeking

attitude scores.

The Internal-External Control Scale designed by
Rotter (1966) exemplified internal versus external control
of reinforcement in one's life. The "external" individuals
would regard outside forces, authorities etc. as chief
determinants of their fate; whereas "internal" individuals
believed that they could make meaningful changes in their
own lives. Fischer & Turner (1970) presumed that positive
help-seeking orientations would score toward the internal
pole of the internal-external dimension, since "to believe
in getting help is to accept some control of one's life"
(p. 85) The findings supported these assumptions, and
"external" subjects were found to express more negative
help-seeking attitudes than "internal" subjects.

II. DOGMATISM & OPEN-MINDEDNESS Background & Theory

The concept of dogmatism and its antithesis, openmindedness, had undergone various changes. Several terms
had been used with similar inferences and connotations.

Earliest studies in this area were focused on rigidity,
which referred to the inability to change habits, response
sets and attitudes (Chown, 1959). An example of rigidity
research was Luchins' (1951) water jar test. The experimenter tried to induce a set, or a tendency to repeat a
response or pattern of responses. Subjects who had difficulty changing the set were considered more rigid than
those who switched readily.

Spearman (1927) first noted perseveration behavior in his laboratory studies and labelled it "p", or the perseveration factor. Cattell & Tiner (1949) related this to the concept of rigidity, and elaborated on two types of behavior previously categorized as perseveration. The first type was "process rigidity", the tendency to continue a familiar response in the presence of new stimulus. The second type, "structural rigidity", referred to a resistance to change even though a more rewarding response to stimulus could be made. Cattell & Tiner (1949) identified structural rigidity as a resistance to change of neural discharge paths. Its causes were hypothesized to be: a lower level of intelligence, conflicting motives and low motivation.

In the late forties and early fifties rigidity research was usually placed against the background of the whole personality. Most of these studies were done by Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswick, Levinson & Sanford (1950), and Allport (1954), which dealt with authoritarianism as manifestations of the rigid personality. Research on the authoritarian personality was launched at a time when Fascism and anti-Semitism were chief concerns for the social scientists. Adorno et al (1950) looked upon attitudes toward politics, religion, economics and society as manifestations of the whole personality:

Conventionality, rigidity, repressive denial and the ensuing breakthrough of one's weakness, fear and dependency are but other

(cont.) aspects of the same fundamental personality pattern, and they can be observed in personal life as well as in attitudes toward religion and social issues (p. 16).

The California P Scale was devised to assess authoritarian or fascist tendencies. This multidimensional scale had since been subjected to various validation studies (Christie & Jahoda, 1954), some indicating that it tapped on personality characteristics such as dominance-submission relationships, lack of insight, and rigidity.

The concept of dogmatism and open-mindedness as espoused by Rokeach (1960), however, differed from the Adorno et al (1950) studies. A major point of departure was Rokeach's (1960) concern with general intolerance rather than "right intolerance" as seen against a political setting:

...an ahistorical contentless way of thinking about intolerance, independent of the
specific group discriminated against, equally
applicable to different periods of history
and to all kinds of intolerance within a
given period of history (p. 16).

Since dogmatism and rigidity both referred to resistance to change, Rokeach (1954) defined dogmatism as representing a relatively more abstract and intellectualized form of resistance than rigidity. He asserted that "rigidity refers to a person-to-thing...relationships, dogmatism is manifested in situations involving person-to-person communication" (p. 196). Whereas "dogmatism refers to total cognitive organization of ideas and beliefs into relatively closed ideological systems, rigidity, when

genotypically conceived, refers solely to the degree of isolation between regions" (p. 196). According to Rokeach (1954), rigidity could be defined in terms of the way a person learned or solved specific problems/tasks, while dogmatism was seen as a higher order and more complexly structured form of resistance to change.

Since Rokeach (1960) viewed personality as an organization of beliefs or expectancies having a definable structure, he was concerned with showing a relationship between social attitudes and cognitive functioning. He conceived man's cognitive activities (thinking, memory and perception) as taking place within an individual who had already formed a belief system. This system represented a total framework for understanding the universe about the self, the physical and the social world. According to Rokeach (1960), the system had three major dimensions: a belief-disbelief dimension, a central-peripheral dimension, and a time-perspective dimension.

The belief-disbelief dimension was based on the assumption that a person's beliefs were organized into two interdependent parts: a belief system and a disbelief system. This system was asymmetrical and bipolar, and one could not be understood without the other. On this continuum a system was defined:

...to be closed to the extent that there is a high magnitude of rejection of all disbelief subsystems, an isolation of beliefs, a high discrepancy in degree of differentiation between belief and disbelief systems, and little differentiation within the disbelief system (p. 61).

The central-peripheral dimension was based on the assumption that the organization of personality was divided into three levels: the central, intermediate, and peripheral. The central area would represent a person's primitive beliefs, ie. those which he held of his universe and those which were unchallenged. The intermediate level would represent beliefs a person had about the nature of authority, and the people who lined up with or against his "authority". The peripheral region was the organization of beliefs and disbeliefs as his "authority" permitted him:

...the more closed a person's belief system, the more he should evaluate others according to their agreement or disagreement with his system; also, the more difficult should it be to discriminate between and separately evaluate a belief and the person holding that belief. Conversely, the more open the belief system, the less should beliefs held in common be a criterion for evaluating others, and the more should others be positively valued, regardless of their beliefs (p. 63).

Finally, with respect to the time-perspective dimension, which referred to an individual's beliefs about the past, present, and future, and the way they were related to each other:

...a narrow, future-oriented time perspective, rather than a more balanced conception of past, present, and immediate future in relation to each other, is also seen to be a defining characteristic of closed systems (p. 64).

Rokeach (1960) stated that there was "a common psychological thread" running through these three major dimensions, which gave the total belief-disbelief system a unity.

Various attributes of the three dimensions could be tied together to produce a mind which, in its totality, was described as being open or closed-minded (dogmatic). Much of Rokeach's research had been focused on setting up his Dogmatism Scale to tap the above mentioned dimensions.

Although Rokeach drew careful distinctions between the open and closed-minded people, he was also careful to emphasize that real people had systems that were neither completely open nor closed. Open-minded individuals differed from closed-minded individuals in their thinking, perception, memory, evaluations and reactions. They were generally considered more flexible, adaptive, and receptive to new ideas.

Rokeach (1960) made the final assumption that "all belief-disbelief systems served two powerful and conflicting sets of motives at the same time: the need for a cognitive framework to know and understand, and the need to ward off threatening aspects of reality" (p. 67).

According to his conception, both rational and rationalizing forces would jointly determine the extent to which a belief system was open or closed.

Correlates of Dogmatism/Open-mindedness

Although Rokeach (1960) reported that he found no correlation between dogmatism and intelligence, some studies indicated that there were possible relationships between levels of education and dogmatism. Frumkin (1960) found that as students advanced in college they became

less dogmatic, with juniors/seniors generally less dogmatic than freshmen/sophomores. Alter & White (1966) reported a 1964 study by Marcus, in which the mean scores of college freshmen, first and fourth year medical students were 146, 138, and 126 respectively. As indicated, dogmatism scores obtained by these students decreased with each additional year of education. In a study to investigate relationships between open-mindedness and accurate interpersonal perception, Sawatzky (1968) found that graduate students scored significantly lower on the Dogmatism Scale than undergraduates. In other words, results of the above studies suggested that as students' exposure to college education increased, subsequently they would become more open-minded ie. less dogmatic.

Anderson (1962) reported that intelligent children of superior socioeconomic status were significantly less dogmatic than intelligent children of inferior socioeconomic status. He suggested that the inverse relationship between socioeconomic status and dogmatism might infer that child rearing practice was a chief determinant of dogmatism.

Although Rokeach (1960) did not report sex differences in levels of dogmatism, a study by Alter & White (1966), using 1,000 males and 1,000 females as subjects, found that men scored significantly higher (at the .01 level) than women on the Dogmatism Scale. Bendig & Hountras (1959) also found that undergraduate males in psychology

scored significantly higher on the F Scale than undergraduate females.

In discussing the effects of religion on dogmatism, Rokeach (1960) predicted that "there exist certain institutionalized, hierarchically organized groups, among them the Catholic Church...which require of their members strict adherence to doctrine...such social pressures should, over time, leave their mark on the adherent's belief system - that is, his belief system should increasingly betray the defining characteristics of the closed minded" (p. 118). Rokeach's (1960) research findings supported this hypothesis, in which dogmatism scores for the Catholics were significantly higher than those of the Protestants and non-believers. The nonbelievers scored lowest on the scale, whereas the Protestants scored in between. Rokeach & Kemp (1960) also found in a later study that the Catholic group scored relatively higher on the Dogmatism Scale than other groups.

Anxiety was found to correlate significantly with dogmatism as well, which was considered by Cattell, Eber & Tatsuoka (1970) to be a second order personality variable. Those who were relatively closed-minded would manifest more anxiety than those who were open-minded (Rokeach, 1960). In a study of neuroticism and introversion-extroversion, Watson (1967) found that responses of introverted neurotics to the Doodlebug Problem (Rokeach, 1960) were highly dogmatic. Watson (1967) concluded that the

difference lay not in their ability to produce novel responses, but only in their ability to utilize these responses, thereby typifying dogmatic behavior. Gilliland, Rogers & Walsh (1979) also indicated that dogmatism, neuroticism and introversion were positively correlated in a later study.

Norman (1966) reported that the MMPI differences between high and low dogmatic subjects would reflect differences in the individual's self-esteem and general personality adjustment. Highly dogmatic subjects were found to be anxious, socially introverted and lacking in ego-strength. Goldsmith & Goldsmith (1982) replicated previous research, and indicated that a correlation did exist between low self-esteem and high dogmatism.

Vacchiano, Strauss & Schiffman (1968) examined the relationship between 58 personality scales and dogmatism to find out possible personality correlates. A personality pattern reflective of dogmatism was constructed, and it was described as:

...a need to receive support, encouragement, and understanding from others; an intolerance for understanding the feelings and motives of others; and an avoidance in changing their environment or daily routine.

The dogmatic subject lacks self-esteem, is doubtful about his own self-worth, is anxious, lacks confidence in himself, lacks either self-acceptance or self-satisfaction, is non-committal and defensive, and is dissatisfied with his behavior, his physical state, his own personal worth, and his adequacy. Personality maladjustment and instability appear to underlie dogmatism. Dogmatic subjects are low in ego

(cont.) strength, frustrated by changeable conditions, submissive and conforming, restrained, diffident, tamed, tense, impatient, and conservative and respecting of established ideas. In regard to their conservatism, the dogmatic subjects are confident in what they have been taught to believe, accept the tried and true despite inconsistencies, and are cautious and compromising in regard to new ideas, generally going along with tradition (p. 84).

This personality profile substantiated Rokeach's (1960) belief systems relating to dogmatic and non-dogmatic attitudes, and "extends the concept of dogmatism from an attitude system to a personality pattern" (Vacchiano, Strauss & Schiffman, 1968, p. 85).

III. RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN ATTITUDES TOWARD SEEKING PSY-CHOLOGICAL HELP & DOGMATISM/OPEN-MINDEDNESS

To this author's knowledge, virtually no systematic research had been conducted on the relationship between attitudes toward seeking psychological help and dogmatism/open-mindedness. Previous studies investigating the personality components of help-seeking attitudes mostly focused on authoritarianism. Fischer & Turner (1970) found that authoritarianism as indexed by the California F Scale (Adorno et al, 1950) was inversely related to help-seeking attitudes. Since the authoritarian scale measured "right intolerance", a movement to general intolerance as measured by Rokeach's (1960) Dogmatism Scale would provide further insight into one's attitude toward seeking professional help.

Rokeach (1960) stated that if an individual tried to

handle problems through identification, rationalization or denial, his thinking would become a tightly woven network of cognitive defenses. The highly dogmatic person had been described as insecure, easily threatened and cognitively defensive. They were more inclined to ignore, rationalize or reject personal problems in their attempts to deal with them. These traits were antithetical to the hypothesized personality of those who sought professional help. As Fischer & Turner (1970) indicated, to some degree the help-seeker must be open to others, to his personal problems and weaknesses, thereby actively seeking change or improvement in his own life.

Kemp (1960) conducted a study on the influence of dogmatism on counseling. He hypothesized that low dogmatics would respond more favorably in counseling situations than high dogmatics. The low dogmatics were found to reduce their number of problems after counseling; whereas the high dogmatics did not change significantly. The results showed that dogmatism would influence one's adjustment to difficulties; and in situations which required transfer of learning, the making of inferences, and the analysis or evaluation of ideas, the highly dogmatic individual seemed less likely to benefit from counseling.

Walton & Sweeney (1969), Russo, Kelz & Hudson (1964) identified dogmatism as the most promising predictor of counselor effectiveness. Presumably research had shown

that dogmatism affected counseling effectiveness, which in turn reinforced people's attitudes toward help-seeking.

Mezzano (1969) found that counselors low on dogmatism scores were rated by supervisors as the most effective.

They were generally more open, genuine and understanding in the counseling relationship. Sprinthall, Whiteley & Mosher (1966) hypothesized cognitive flexibility as a crucial factor affecting counselor competence. Their findings suggested that the more flexible the counselor, the more effective he would be in counseling.

In summary, while there was little research on the direct relationship between attitudes toward seeking psychological help and dogmatism/open-mindedness, literature had continually suggested that these two concepts were related. The main thrust of this study was to explore the possibility of establishing such a relationship. Socioeconomic status, educational level, and selected personal characteristics were also examined in relation to these two concepts. Subjects participating in this study were a group of Hong Kong-born Chinese students. The following was a description of this group as discussed in related literature.

CHAPTER III

HONG KONG FOREIGN STUDENTS

although there were considerable international student research studies in the United States, the literature on Hong Kong foreign students in North America had been rather limited (Schuh, 1977; Yee, 1980). Studies which attempted to describe and provide some insight into the problems of these students usually focused on two areas of concern: 1) their adaptation problems as foreign students, and 2) their cultural background.

Adaptation Concerns

Higginbotham (1979) described the adaptation pattern of foreign students as fluctuating with the function of time. The students experienced cultural shock when they initially encountered North American values. Then they gradually learned to adapt to the new surrounding, but had to readjust to their native culture when they finished their studies and returned home.

Alexander, Workneh, Klein & Miller's (1976) research showed that the majority of foreign students "feel vulnerable and at risk" during their temporary stay. Culha's (1974) study on perceived needs and satisfactions with a sample of University of Minnesota students revealed that foreign students held significantly lower scores on the emotional security scale when compared to American students. The Chinese and Indian students reported least satisfaction amongst all the groups. Perkins et al (1977)

found that Chinese foreign students tended to interact more frequently with their co-nationals and less with American and other foreign students. Fong & Peskin (1969) discovered that regardless of sex differences, resident students clearly outranked foreign students on aspects of psychological health as measured by the California Personality Inventory.

General research findings delineated several major adaptation concerns of the foreign students. In addition to suffering cultural shock when confronted with external issues such as differences in mannerisms and communications, these students also suffered from academic adjustments, financial problems, inadequate interpersonal relationships, racial discrimination, and status change (Alexander et al, 1976; Perkins et al, 1977).

Language mastery posed a special problem for foreign students who came from non-English-speaking countries, but Sundberg (1981) pointed out that the English language was often a problem for American students as well. Johnson (1971) urged that foreign students should be thought of as students first, since in general, many problems these students reported were similar to those of American students.

The Canadian Bureau of International Education (CBIE)
had conducted a national survey of foreign students in
Canadian tertiary educational institutions in 1977 (Neice
& Braum, 1977). Since Hong Kong students represented the

λ

majority of full-time foreign students in Canada, they were treated independently in the data. Findings suggested that besides having similar problems when compared to other foreign student groups, these students seemed to encounter more problems. Language proficiency posed a major problem amongst the Hong Kong group; and being concentrated at the undergraduate and diploma levels they had the lowest levels of financial support overall. Foreign students from the United States and other English-speaking countries reported fewer problems in adjusting to Canadian education.

The CBIE study (Neice & Braum, 1977) reported that 93% of the Hong Kong student sample had the most contact with their co-nationals. This suggested that in general these students had limited exposure to the Canadian culture. Ironically, 87% of this sample wished to remain in Canada. The future political uncertainty of Hong Kong and the perception of economic opportunity in North America might possibly explain this phenomenon.

Cultural Background

Cansdale (1969) indicated that traditional Chinese values and the Hong Kong educational system would affect the academic and social development of Hong Kong students. These aspects were examined so as to provide a better understanding of these students in the North American context.

The phenomenon of a "transitional middle class"

existed in Hong Kong, in which the upper working class aspired to middle class values with respect to living standards and educational goals for their children (Djao, 1979; Yu, 1981). For this group, one's access to a good education was equated with social mobility and economic opportunities. Since Hong Kong had only two universities, the secondary schools continued to train far more academically oriented students than the local universities could accommodate. Such keen competition led to the influx of students overseas, particularly to North America.

Enrollment of Hong Kong foreign students were reported to concentrate mainly in the science and applied areas. Mitchell (1972) found that Hong Kong students generally preferred studies related to science and technology, since they provided avenues for upward educational and occupational mobility. In North America, traditional Chinese values were also thought to exert some influence on the Chinese-American students' choice of study. Sue & Kirk (1972) suggested that these students' bilingual background, limited communication patterns and restraints of strong feelings within the family might hinder their verbal development. Academic subjects which stressed on a structured and impersonal approach, such as the sciences, were therefore preferred as compensatory means of expression.

Sue & Sue (1972) indicated that the personality traits of Chinese-American students tended to reflect

their family and cultural background:

Chinese are taught to obey parents, to respect elders, and to create a good family name by outstanding achievement in some aspect of life, for example, by academic or occupational success. Since misbehaviors (juvenile delinquency, academic failure, and mental disorders) reflect upon the entire family, an individual learns that his behavior has great significance. If he has feelings whose expression might disrupt family harmony, he is expected to restrain himself. Indeed, the Chinese culture highly values self-control and inhibition of strong feelings (p. 638).

These students seemed to place very little emphasis on self-expression, assertiveness, and individualism. They were usually described as practical in their approach to tasks, intolerant of ambiguity, and acquiecent to authority (Sue & Kirk, 1972).

Psychological measures indicated greater stress amongst the Chinese-American student group when compared to the general student population (Sue & Kirk, 1972; Sue & Sue, 1973). Arkoff, Thaver & Elkind (1966) suggested that Asian students accepted increasing willpower, avoiding morbidity, and thinking pleasant thoughts as coping techniques in times of distress, which the American students in the sample rejected as simplistic. Sue & Sue (1974) pointed out that few 'Asian American students would utilize counseling services. Since physical illnesses were more acceptable channels of expressing one's stress, they tended to exhibit more somatic complaints than psychological ones.

Summary

Review of related literature indicated that most studies focused on Hong Kong foreign students either as foreign students per se, or in the context of their Chinese cultural values. The most pervasive weakness was that the majority of these studies were conducted in American settings. In addition, the findings were often based on small or mixed samples of Asian or Oriental students, rather than Hong Kong students as a group itself. The present study would be an attempt to explore this particular group.

In view of previous research findings, the following hypotheses were formulated in this study:

Hypothesis 1. A negative correlation would be found between the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale (Fischer & Turner, 1970) and the Dogmatism Scale (Rokeach, 1960).

Hypothesis 2. Socio-economic status would have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Dogmatism.

Hypothesis 3. Education would have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Dogmatism.

Hypothesis 4. Sex differences would have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Dogmatism.

Hypothesis 5. Those who were members of a religious group would score higher on the Dogmatism Scale than non-

members.

Hypothesis 6. The subjects' academic discipline would' have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking.

Hypothesis 7. The subjects' length of stay in Canada would have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking.

Hypothesis 8. The subjects' social contact would have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Dogmatism.

Hypothesis 9. Subjects who had previous counseling experience would score higher on the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale (Fischer & Turner, 1970) than subjects who had no previous counseling experience.

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH DESIGN

I. THE SAMPLE

The sample in this study consisted of 133 Hong Kong-born Chinese students. All of these students were enrolled at the University of Alberta during the academic year 1983-84.

Three hundred questionnaires were distributed to the Hong Kong Chinese students on campus. One-hundred-and-sixty-one questionnaires were returned. Incomplete forms, obvious response sets and replies from students who were not Hong Kong-born Chinese were excluded from the final sample. Twenty-eight questionnaires were discarded, and the final sample consisted of one-hundred-and-thirty-three students.

The age range of the sample group was 18 to 36, 97 of whom were male and 36 female. One-hundred-and-nineteen of these Hong Kong-born Chinese were visa students, and four-teen of them had attained Canadian citizenship. Their length of stay in Canada ranged from 1 to 14 years. Eighty-five of these students had attended high school in Canada; twenty-six of them had either attended community colleges or universities other than University of Alberta; and twenty-two of them had never attended another school abroad.

Amongst the sample population, fifty students reported that they were Christians, and eighty-three of

them reported that they had no religion. Twenty-seven of these students were in Graduate Studies, and one-hundred-and-six were undergraduates. Of the undergraduates, sixty-three of them were Science majors, thirty of them Arts majors, and thirteen of them in Business and Commerce.

II. THE INSTRUMENTS

The instruments utilized to obtain data for this study were the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale (Fischer & Turner, 1970) and the Dogmatism Scale (Rokeach, 1960). Biographical data and questions of a demographic nature were included in the questionnaire to test the hypotheses formulated for the study. Questions not directly related to testing of the hypotheses were also included to gain additional information about the subjects.

Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale (1970)

Construction. Fischer & Turner (1970) designed the attitude items in collaboration with several clinically trained professionals. A pool of 47 preliminary statements was devised which sampled various facets of the hypothetical predisposition toward seeking psychological help. A panel of 14 psychiatrists and psychologists judged the relevance of each item to the general attitude toward help-seeking. Thirty-one items were considered highly relevant, and they were administered to 97 high school and nursing students in a agree-disagree response format.

The items were then administered again to 115 summer college students, and the item analysis procedure was repeated. Two of the items correlated poorly with total attitude scores for this group, and were consequently removed from the scale. The remaining 29 items became the final version of the Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help Scale, with 11 positively stated and 18 negatively stated items. The negative items were reversed for scoring, with high scores indicating a positive attitude toward help-seeking.

Factor Analysis. The 29 item responses of 424 college and nursing students were intercorrelated and factor analyzed. Four factors emerged as clearly defined and interpretable:

- I. Recognition of personal need for professional psychological help (8 items): Low scorers on this subscale believed that psychological difficulties would resolve themselves, while high scorers felt that they should seek psychotherapeutic aid in times of emotional crisis.
- II. Tolerance of stigma associated with psychiatric help (5 items): This concerned fear of the social stigma attached to seeking psychological treatment. Low scorers were sensitive to the stigma from treatment, whereas high scorers were free from such concerns.
- III. Interpersonal openness regarding one's problems (7 items): This contained items in which subjects could

describe themselves as interpersonally open, ie.
willingness to confide to an appropriate professional,
belief that problems should be talked about, etc. Low
scorers were individuals who were less willing to
reveal themselves, while high scorers could disclose
more readily to others.

IV. Confidence in the mental health professional (9 items): The items making up this factor reflected expressions of faith in mental health clinics and professionals being able to alleviate psychological problems.

Subscale scores were derived by summing over the items representing each factor. The internal consistency of each factored subscale was computed for a sample of 406 subjects, and reliability estimates were: Factor I, r=.67; Factor II, r=.70; Factor III, r=.62; Factor IV, r=.74. These coefficients reflected moderate consistency of response within the separately defined scales. Correlations among the four subscale scores were also calculated for the same sample of 406 subjects. The intercorrelations were fairly low, indicating that the four factors were reasonably independent.

Reliability & Validity. The internal reliability of the whole scale, computed for the standardization sample of n=212, was .86. The reliability estimate was .83 computed on a later sample of 406 subjects. Both estimates suggested good consistency of response within the scale.

Two groups of students were given the scale twice to establish test-retest reliability. Test intervals were five days and two weeks, and the reliability coefficients were r=.86, r=.89 respectively.

Although the clinician's judgments showed that the attitude itmes had good content validity, an external criterion with which to compare the scale scores was designed. A biographical information questionnaire was given with the attitude scale to 425 college and nursing school subjects. Thirty-two subjects stated that they had either previously seen or were currently seeing a mental health professional for counseling or treatment. It was expected that this group, having actually sought or received professional aid, would have higher overall attitude scores than the larger group with no professional contact. The results showed that twenty-eight of the persons who had sought help had attitude scores clearly above the median, while four had scores at or below the median. A median test comparing the 32 critical subjects with the 393 no-contact subjects was highly significantly at the .001 level. The scale thus discriminated very well on an empirical "known-group" basis.

Dogmatism Scale, Form E (1960)

The primary purpose of the Dogmatism Scale was to measure individual differences in openness or closedness of belief systems. According to the way open and closed were defined by Rokeach (1960), this scale also purported

to measure one's receptivity to new ideas, general authoritarianism and intolerance.

Construction. Rokeach's construction of the Dogmatism Scale was essentially deductive. Various defining characteristics of open and closed systems were scrutinized, and statements were constructed to tap such characteristics. Generally, statements that expressed ideas familiar to the average person in his/her everyday life were looked for. Each statement in the scale was designed to transcend specific ideological positions so as to penetrate to the formal and structural characteristics of all positions. Dogmatic individuals who adhered to diverse viewpoints such as capitalism and communism, Catholicism and anti-Catholicism should all score at one end of the continuum; whereas those who had equally diverse but undogmatic viewpoints should all score at the opposite end.

The scale began with an initial pool of 89 items which were tried out and revised by item analysis procedures on four successive revisions, each of which was designed to refine theoretical formulations and increase reliability. The best 40 items were selected from the 66 items of Form D and were compiled into the short form of the Dogmatism Scale - Form E (Rokeach, 1960).

The scale was then scored by the summated ratings method, and the subjects responded to each item statement on a 6-point continuum from strong agreement to strong disagreement. The zero point was excluded on purpose to

eliminate the possibility of neutral responses. The scale was converted for scoring purposes to a 1 to 7 scale by adding a constant of 4 to each item score. The Dogmatism scores were obtained by summing the converted item scores over all items. A high score would represent extreme dogmatism and closed-mindedness; whereas a low score would represent flexibility and open-mindedness.

Reliability & Validity. Reliability figures reported by Rokeach (1960, p. 89) ranged from .68 to .93. This was substantiated by Ehrlich's (1961) research which reported split-half and six-month test-retest reliabilities of .75 and .73 respectively. Sawatzky (1968) conducted a test-retest study with twenty subjects over a three-month period, and found a reliability coefficient of .83.

Validation studies through the "method of known-groups" were conducted by Rokeach, Gladin & Trumbo (Rokeach, 1960, pp. 101-8). In the first study, college professors selected from their graduate students those they considered to have relatively open and closed belief systems. An analysis of the results showed no difference between the two criterion groups on the Dogmatism Scale. In the second study, similar selections were made by graduate students in psychology from amongst their personal friends and acquaintances. The high dogmatic subjects in this study were reported to have scored considerably and significantly higher than the low dogmatic subjects on the Dogmatism Scale.

III. PROCEDURES

the University of Alberta was sought for the distribution of questionnaires in this study. An attempt was made to contact the subjects first by telephone to introduce them the nature and purpose of the research, and to ensure a higher return rate. The study was conducted on a voluntary basis, and completed questionnaires were collected or returned to the researcher in charge. Subjects were informed to respond anonymously to ensure confidentiality, of their responses. Those who wanted feedback were asked to contact the researcher regarding the results of the study.

Travers (1969) reported that initial return for direct-mail questionnaires was expected to show only a 20% response, but this could be increased to 30 or 40% if non-respondents were contacted personally. The final sample in this study was 133 out of 300 questionnaires that were sent out, which showed approximately 44% return rate. Lehmann & Mehrens (1979) indicated that 40 to 50% would be considered a good return for questionnaire research. Since there were 738 Hong Kong foreign students enrolled at the University of Alberta in 1983-84, the sample group would equal approximately 18% of the total Hong Kong student population on campus at that time.

IV. STATISTICAL TESTS USED

The following statistical procedures were used to

analyze the data collected from the study:

- a) Pearson Product-Moment Correlation was used to determine the degree of relation between attitudes toward
 seeking professional psychological help and dogmatism/
 open-mindedness.
- b) The t-test was used to determine significant differences of the subjects' education, sex, religion, and previous counseling experience on help-seeking attitudes and dogmatism/open-mindedness.
- c) One-way analysis of variance was used to test significant differences between and within groups in the
 subjects' help-seeking attitudes and dogmatism/openmindedness, with the variables of socio-economic status,
 academic discipline, length of stay in Canada, and type
 of social contact.

CHAPTER V

RESULTS

Introduction

Histograms of the subjects' response to the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help and Dogmatism Scales in this study were presented in Appendices D and E.

The reliability of the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale, computed for the sample of n=133, was .73. The coefficient suggested moderate consistency of response within the scale. Mean score was 103.27 (S.D. = 13.06) for these subjects. The highest score obtained was 143, and the lowest score obtained was 72.

The reliability coefficient of the Dogmatism Scale computed for this study was .84. This estimate reflected good consistency of response within the scale. Mean score was 151.38 (S.D. = 20.19) for these subjects. The highest score obtained was 206, and the lowest score obtained was 72 on this scale.

In the following, statistical data pertaining to the hypotheses of this study would be presented. Each hypothesis was re-stated. Then the statistical findings were reported, followed by statements of an appropriate conclusion of the hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1

A négative correlation would be found between the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale (Fischer & Turner, 1970) and the Dogmatism Scale (Rokeach, 1960).

Findings. A Pearson Product-Moment Correlation formula was used to obtain the correlation coefficients between the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help and Dogmatism scores for the total sample. Correlations were also computed between each of the four subscale scores of the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale and the Dogmatism Scale scores.

The results, as shown in Table I, indicated that the Dogmatism and total Attitude scores were significantly inversely related at the .Ol level. When the correlations between each of the four Attitude subscale scores and the Dogmatism scores were tested for significance, two of them proved to be significant at the .Ol level as well. These were the negative correlations between the Dogmatism scores and the subscales of the Attitude scores referred to in this study as "Tolerance of Stigma Associated with Psychiatric Help" and "Interpersonal Openness Regarding One's Froblems".

Conclusion. Help-seeking attitudes were found to have a significant negative effect on dogmatism. Open-minded subjects were found to hold more positive attitudes toward seeking psychological help than dogmatic subjects.

Hypothesis 2

Socio-economic status would have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Dogmatism.

Findings. In the estimation of class differences,

TABLE I

CORRELATIONS BETWEEN ATTITUDES TOWARD SEEKING

PSYCHOLOGICAL HELP & DOGMATISM SCORES

Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help	Dogmatism	р
Total Attitude Score	3666	.000 ^{**}
Subscale I (Recognition of need for psychotherap-eutic help)	1045	.116
Subscale II (Stigma tolerance)	4078	.000**
Subscale III ('Interpersonal openness)	3929	.000**
Subscale IV (Confidence in mental health practitioner)	1287	.070

^{*}p<.05

Blishen's (1976) scale of social class status was adapted. Blishen had constructed a scale based on the estimated income, type of occupation, and estimated level of education to classify social status. An adapted version of Blishen's social status classification was shown in Appendix F. For the purpose of this study, four classes of social status were used: 1) upper middle class; 2) middle class; 3) transitional working class; and 4) working class.

A one-way analysis of variance was employed to explore the effects of SES differences on help-seeking attitudes and dogmatism. As shown in Table II, a signifi-

^{**}p<.01

cant effect (at the .05 level) for SES was observed on the Dogmatism scores. However, the hypothesis that SES would have an impact on the Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking scores was not supported. Nevertheless, a significant effect (at the .05 level) for SES was observed on one of the Attitude subscales, ie. subscale II, "Tolerance of Stigma Associated with Psychiatric Help".

TABLE II A. MEAN DIFFERENCES BY SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS ON DOGMATISM & ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEEKING SCORES

Test	SES ⁺	N	Mean	S.D.	
Dogmatism Scale	1 2 3 4	22 55 25 30	144.22 149.76 151.12 159.56	22.06 21.12 18.43 16.61	
Attitude Scale	1 2 3 4	22 55 25 30	107.13 102.23 103.80 102.36	15.63 12.51 13.33 11.78	

SES+: l=upper middle class

2=middle class

Conclusion. Socio-economic status was found to have a significant effect on dogmatism (p < .05). Upper class subjects were found to be more open-minded than lower class subjects. However, socio-economic status was found to have no effect on the subjects' attitudes toward help-seeking.

Hypothesis 3

Education would have an impact on the measures of

³⁼transitional working class

⁴⁼working class

B. SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE, DETERMINED BY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE, OF SOCIO-ECONOMIC STATUS ON DOGMATISM &

TABLE II

ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEEKING SCORES

Testing Instruments	Source	SS	MS	F	p
Dogmatism Scale	Between Groups Within Groups	3281.19. 50483.79		2.77	.0442*
Total Attitude Score	Between Groups Within Groups	`417.57 21885.48	139.19 170.98	.81	.4883
Subscale I	Between Groups Within Groups	64.89 2942.82	21.63 22.99	•94	.4230
Subscale II	Between Groups Within Groups	176.86 2200.60	58.95 1 7. 19	3.42	.0191*
Subscale III	Between Groups Within Groups	109.12	36.37 22.92	1.58	•1959
Subscale IV	Between Groups Within Groups	66.15 3441.81	22.05 26.88	.82	.4851

^{*}df=(3, 128), p<.05

Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Dogmatism.

Findings. A t-test was used to explore the effects of educational differences on help-seeking attitudes and dogmatism. As shown in Table III, the mean score of the graduate student group was slightly lower than the undergraduate group on the Dogmatism Scale, but the difference was not big enough to be significant. Moreover, the graduate students did not score significantly different when compared to the undergraduates on the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale. The difference between the two groups, however, was significant (at the .05 level)

on subscales II and III of the Attitude Scale, ie. "Tolerance of Stigma Associated with Psychiatric Help", and "Interpersonal Openness Regarding One's Problems".

TABLE III

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE, DETERMINED BY t-TEST, OF

GRADUATE STUDENTS & UNDERGRADUATES ON DOGMATISM

& ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEEKING SCORES

Testing Instruments		Students =27)	Undergra (N=)	106)	t-value	p
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Dogmatism Scale	146.70	21.07	152.57	19.88	-1.35	.178
Total Atti- tude Score	107.37	13.43	102.22	12.81	1.84	•067
Subscale I	27.37	4.76	26.96	4.84	-0.39	.696
Subscale II	21.00	4.36	18.83	4.12	-2.40	.018*
Subscale II	I 27.07	3.78	24.45	4.90	-2.58	.011*
Subscale IV	31.92	5.96	31.97	4.96	0.04	.967

^{*}p<.05

Conclusion. Education was found to have no effect on the subjects' attitudes toward help-seeking and dogmatism. Hypothesis 4

Sex differences would have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Dogmatism.

Findings. A t-test was used to investigate the effects of sex differences on help-seeking attitudes and dogmatism. As shown in Table IV, sex differences did not have a significant impact on the Dogmatism Scale. Also, it did not

have a significant impact on the Attitude Scale, except on subscale III, "Interpersonal Openness Regarding One's Problems" (p < .01).

TABLE IV

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE, DETERMINED BY t-TEST, OF MALES

& FEMALES ON DOGMATISM & ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEEKING

Testing Instruments	Males (N=97)		Females (N=36)		t-value p	
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	·	
Dogmatism Scale	151.68	19.73	150.58	21.64	-0.28	.782
Total Attitude Score	102.53	12.66	105.25	14.04	1.07	.289
Subscale I	26.83	4.93	27.61	4.47	-0.83	-411
Subscale II	19.20	3.92	19.47	5 . 07	-0.32	-750
Subscale III	24.29	4.43	26.83	5.32	-2.77	.006
Subscale IV	32.19	4.73	31.33	6.20	0.86	- 394

^{**}p<.01

Conclusion. Sex differences was found to have no effect on the subjects' attitudes toward help-seeking and dogmatism.

Hypothesis 5

Those who were members of a religious group would score higher on the Dogmatism Scale than non-members.

Findings. A t-test was used to test the effects of religion on Dogmatism scores. As shown in Table V, those who were members of a religious group had mean score slightly higher than the non-members on the Dogmatism Scale, but the difference was not big enough to be signi-

ficant.

TABLE V

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE, DETERMINED BY t-TEST,

OF RELIGION ON DOGMATISM & ATTITUDES

TOWARD HELP-SEEKING SCORES

Testing Instruments	religious (N=5	<u>(0)</u>	Non-reli group (N=83) S.D.	t-value	p
Dogmatism Scale Attitude Scale	153.98 104.18	=	149.81 102.72		-1.15 -0.62	

Conclusion. Religion was found to have no effect on dogmatism.

Hypothesis 6

The subjects' academic discipline would have an) impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking.

Findings. A one-way analysis of variance was used to explore the effects of academic discipline on help-seeking attitudes. As shown in Table VI, the results did not support the hypothesis.

TABLE VI

A. MEAN DIFFERENCES BY ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE ON DOGMATISM
& ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEKKING SCORES

Test	Academic Discipline	N	Mean	S.D.
Dogmatism Scale	1	30	152.63	22.30
	2	63	152.63	19.85
	3	13	152.15	14.92
	4	27	146.70	21.07
Attitude Scale	1	30	101.33	15.06
	2	63	102.85	11.74
	3	13	101.23	13.07
	4	27	107.37	13.43

Academic Discipline : 1=Arts 3=Business & Commerce 2=Science 4=Graduate Studies

B. SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE, DETERMINED BY ANALYSIS OF
VARIANCE, OF ACADEMIC DISCIPLINE ON DOGMATISM
& ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEEKING SCORES

Instruments	Source	SS	MS	F	þ
Dogmatism Scale	Between Groups Within Groups	744.55 53078.89	248.18 411.46	.60	.6141
Attitude Scale	Between Groups Within Groups	631.27 21876.98		1.24	.2977

df=(3, 129).

Conclusion. Academic discipline was found to have no effect on the subjects' help-seeking attitudes.

Hypothesis 7 ...

The subjects' length of stay in Canada would have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking.

Findings. A one-way analysis of variance was used to explore the effects of the subjects' length of stay in Canada on help-seeking attitudes. As shown in Table VII, the results did not support the hypothesis.

TABLE VII

A. MEAN DIFFERENCES BY SUBJECTS! LENGTH OF STAY IN CANADA

ON DOGMATISM & ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEEKING SCORES

Test	Length of Stay in Canada	N	Mean	S.D.
Dogmatism Scale	1	96	152.26	20.06
	2	19	147.10	22.50
	3	6	151.50	21.41
Attitude Scale	1	96	103.45	13.95
	2	19	102.47	10.21
	3	6	104.16	13.34

Length of Stay in Canada⁺: l=l-5 yrs. 2=6-10 yrs. 3=ll-14 yrs.

TABLE VII

B. SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE, DETERMINED BY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE, OF SUBJECTS' LENGTH OF STAY IN CANADA ON

DOGMATISM & ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEEKING SCORES

Testing Instruments	Source	SS	MS	F	р
Dogmatism Scale	Between Groups Within Groups 4	421.55 9665.77	210.77 420.89	• 50	.6073
Attitude Scale	Between Groups Within Groups 2	19.70 1267.40	9.85 180.23	•05	.9468
af=(2, 118)				 ,-	

Conclusion. The subjects' length of stay in Canada was found to have no effect on their help-seeking attitudes. Hypothesis 8

The subjects' social contact would have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Dogmatism.

Findings. A one-way analysis of variance was used to explore the effects of social contact on Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Dogmatism scores. As indicated in Table VIII, a significant effect (at the .05 level) for social contact was observed on the Dogmatism scores.

TABLE VIII

A. MEAN DIFFERENCES BY SUBJECTS' SOCIAL CONTACT ON DOGMAT-ISM & ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEEKING SCORES

Test	Type of Social- ization	N	Mean	S.D.
Dogmatism Scale		109 4 20	153.57 136.00 142.50	19.11 8.04 24.20
Attitude Scale	1 2 3	109 4 20	103.26 105.75 102.80	12.85 12.44 14.81

Type of Socialization : l= with co-nationals only

2= with Canadians

3= with both Chinese & Canadians

TABLE VIII

B. SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE, DETERMINED BY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE, OF SUBJECTS' SOCIAL CONTACT ON DOGMATISM & ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEEKING SCORES

Testing Instruments	Source	SS	MS	F	р
Dogmatism Scale	Between Groups Within Groups	3049.85 50773.58	1524.92 390.56	3.90	.0226*
Attitude Scale	Between Groups Within Groups		1 4.5 1 172 . 91	.08	•9196

*df=(2, 130), p<.05

Conclusion. Social contact was found to have a significant effect on dogmatism (p < .05). Subjects who socialized with Canadians, or both Chinese and Canadians were found to be more open-minded than subjects who only socialized with their co-nationals. However, social contact was found to have no effect on the subjects' attitudes toward help-seeking.

Hypothesis 9

Subjects who had previous counseling experience would score higher on the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale (Fischer & Turner, 1970) than subjects who had no previous counseling experience.

Findings. A t-test was used to explore the effects of previous counseling experience on Attitudes Toward Seeking Esychological Help scores. As indicated in Table IX, the results did not support the hypothesis.

TABLE IX

SIGNIFICANCE OF DIFFERENCE, DETERMINED BY t-TEST, OF

PREVIOUS COUNSELING EXPERIENCE ON DOGMATISM &

ATTITUDES TOWARD HELP-SEEKING SCORES

Testing Instruments	Ss with counseling · experience (N=31)		Ss without counseling experience (N=100)		t-value p
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	s.D.	
Dogmatism Scale	153.58	24.72	151.00	18.73	0.62 .537
Attitude Scale	102.74	13.88	103.21	12,89	-0.17 .863

Conclusion. Previous counseling experience was found to have no effect on the subjects' attitudes toward help-seeking.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSION & DISCUSSION

The major purpose of this research was to study a group of Hong Kong foreign students at this university, and to explore their attitudes toward seeking psychological help at the personality, socioeconomic and educational levels. Results of the Pearson Product-Moment Correlation Coefficient indicated that a significant inverse relation existed between dogmatism/open-mindedness. as measured by the Dogmatism Scale, and Attitudes Toward Seeking Professional Psychological Help. These findings were consistent with previous studies (Kemp, 1900; Norman, 1966), which suggested that dogmatism/open-mindedness related strongly to personality traits and adjustment levels, including one's responsiveness to help-seeking. This also supported Fischer's (1971) hypothesis that predictions from attitudes could be sharpened by taking into account personality factors.

Results of the Analysis of Variance indicated that socio-economic status had a significant effect on dogmatism. Upper class subjects were found to be less dogmatic than lower class subjects. However, socio-economic status was found to have no effect on the subjects' attitudes toward help-seeking. Yet, a significant effect for SES was observed on subscale II of the Attitude Scale, "Tolerance of Stigma Associated with Psychiatric Help". This was

consistent with previous research, which suggested that lower class people were more sensitive to the stigma attached to mental health services than upper class people (Heitler, 1976; Jones, 1974).

Results of the t-test indicated that graduate students scored slightly higher than undergraduates on the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale, but the difference was not big enough to be significant. The difference between graduate and undergraduate students, however, was significant on the Attitude subscales of "Tolerance of Stigma Associated with Psychiatric Help" and "Interpersonal Openness Regarding One's Problems". This supported Hochreich & Rotter's (1970) findings that educational levels would affect one's interpersonal trust and attitudes toward professional agencies. Results of the t-test also indicated that the mean score of the graduate student group was slightly lower than the undergraduate group on the Dogmatism Scale, nevertheless the difference was not big enough to be significant.

Various selected variables were also examined as possible correlates of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking and Dogmatism. Sex differences was found to have an impact on one of the subscales of Help-Seeking Attitudes, in "Interpersonal Openness Regarding One's Problems". This was consistent with Jourard & Lasakow's (1958) research that females had the tendency to self-disclose more freely than

males, and self-disclosure was generally regarded as a critical factor in seeking psychological help.

The subjects' social contact was found to have an impact on the measures of Dogmatism. Subjects who socialized with Canadians, or both Chinese and Canadians, were found to score lower on the Dogmatism Scale than those who socialized with their co-nationals only. This was consistent with Sundberg's (1981) assertion that in a pluralistic society, an individual's degree of integration and contact with the majority culture would affect one's attitudes and adjustment levels.

It was also predicted that the subjects' length of stay in Canada and previous counseling experience would have an impact on the measures of Attitudes Toward Help-Seeking. The findings in this research did not support both hypotheses. In the former hypothesis, it was thought that subjects who stayed longer in Canada would hold more positive attitudes toward help-seeking because of their exposure to Canadian culture. Nevertheless, the findings did not support the hypothesis, because Hong Kong foreign students on this campus seemed to have created their own subculture as a means of coping. The relatively large number of Hong Kong students here had facilitated the establishment of various Chinese clubs and associations. (eg. Chinese Students' Association, Chinese Library Association, Hong Kong Graduate Students' Association).

Since their socialization mainly centred around their conationals, the amount of time they spent in Canada became irrelevant - they would be forming a "mini-Hong Kong" wherever they went.

The latter hypothesis was based on the assumption that subjects who had previous counseling experience would score higher on the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale. Yet, the results were contrary to the hypothesis because most of the counseling experiences these students had were of an academic or financial nature. Sometimes these were forced referrals which were related to poor academic achievement. The reasons for counseling reported by the sample group in this study supported this assumption: twenty-four students reported that they went for counseling because of academic or vocational difficulties; whereas only six students reported that they went for personal concerns. Since most of them approach counseling services for academic or financial help, their conception of the nature of counseling or what it might involve might affect their attitudes toward seeking psychological help in this study.

Other concerns of this study were to examine the appropriateness of questionnaire research amongst the Hong-Kong students on campus, and the usefulness of the Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help (Fischer & Turner, 1970) and Dogmatism (Rokeach, 1960) Scales. Since the

return rate of this study was approximately 44%, and the reliability of the Attitude and Dogmatism Scales were 0.73 and 0.84 respectively, the questionnaire research format seemed to be a viable means of experimental research method amongst this group.

Implications for Further Research

This study has provided some insight into Hong Kong foreign students' attitudes toward seeking psychological help. Results of the study indicate that continued research into their help-seeking behavior at the personality, socioeconomic and educational levels would prove useful, especially for the university helping services. Further research into the improvement of campus help sources to meet the needs of these students would be also of practical value (eg. promoting international student support groups, student aid services, orientation seminars etc.)

- From a broader perspective, there are several implications for further research related to the findings of this study:
- 1) Further research in this area amongst other international student groups would be useful; also, comparative studies between Canadian and other international
 students would provide further insight into international education.
- 2) International education should be further examined.

- Conditions that would provide a more satisfying experience for international students could be explored, so that future policies could be implemented.
- 3) Longitudinal studies which examined the influence of Canadian education on international students' values, their readjustment to their home country, attitudinal change etc. all these would provide further information toward the understanding of foreign students and their problems.

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APPENDIX A

UNDERGRADUATE ENROLMENT OF FOREIGN STUDENTS IN CANADA BY PROVINCE, COUNTRY OF CITIZENSHIP AND SEX, 1981-82

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,	Newfounds	tsland uve lie-du Prince	Nova Scotia	Now Brunswick Nouveau	Quebec	Ontario	малнова
Country of citizenship	Landed smm- stu grants	Visa Landed Visa udents grants	Landed Visa Limini- grants students	anded Visa I students grants	smmi students s	nded Visa mmi students rants	Landed Visa L immi- grants
	геси	Etu immi Etu diants grants diants titu reçu titu-laires le visa de visa	grants dents tru- teres de visa	immi- Étu- grants diants reçu triu- laires de visa	grants diants a'g	rants diants reçu biu- laires de visa	grants dents (regu Mu- laires de vias
1 TOTAL NON-CANAL ENROLMENT		143 31 32	572 1,285	228 475	4,566 4,415 12	7,184 13,022	855 1,094
2 Africa 3 Egypt 4 Ghana 5 Kenya 6 Nigeria 7 South Africa 8 Tanzania 9 Other	2 - 1	9 1 2	21 96 - 2 5 - 4 9 41 1 3 9 30	5 89 1 5 1 29 - 19 1 - 2 2 34	316 1,087 48 7 7 22 3 89 19 62 4 9 1 4 234 894	447 518 26 12 34 38 32 39 59 172 116 16 75 38 105 203	39
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APPENDIX B

GRADUATE ENROLMENT OF FOREIGN STUDENTS IN CANADA BY PROVINCE, COUNTRY OF CITIZENSHIP AND SEX, 1981-82

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APPENDIX C

THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA - WINTER SESSION FULL-TIME
INTRAMURAL STUDENTS, 1983-84 - ANALYSIS BY COUNTRY OF
CITIZENSHIP, IMMIGRATION STATUS AND FACULTY

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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA - SUMMARY OF STATISTICS - ACADEMIC YEAR 1983/44

MINTER SESSION FULL-TIME INTRAMURAL STUDENTS

ANALYSIS BY COUNTRY OF CITIZENSHIP, IMMIGRATION STATUS AND FACULTY

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Faculty Abbreviations

AG Agriculture

AR Arts

BC Business and Commerce

DE Dentistry

ED • Education

EN Engineering

HE Home Economics

LA Law

LS Library Science

ME Medicine

NU Nursing

PH Pharmacy

PE Physical Education

RM Rehabilitation Medicine

SA College St. Jean

SC \ Science

GS Graduate Studies

APPENDIX D

HISTOGRAM - SUBJECTS' RESPONSE TO THE "ATTITUDES TOWARD SEEKING PROFESSIONAL PSYCHOLOGICAL HELP" SCALE

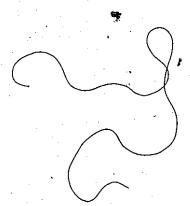
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APPENDIX E

HISTOGRAM - SUBJECTS' RESPONSE TO THE "DOGMATISM" SCALE

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APPENDIX F THE BLISHEN SCALE



THE BLISHEN SCALE

The Blishen Scale (Blishen & McRoberts, 1976) based on occupation-education-social-status:

> Over 70.00: higher professional class - doctors, dentists, lawyers, professors, engineers, executives, etc.

60.00-69.00: higher managerial class - managers, senior civil servants, accountants, teachers, etc.

50.00-59.00: intermediate class - lower professional, junior managerial, & highly skilled technical occupations.

40.00-49.00: clerical, sales, & skilled workers.

30.00-39.00: semi-skilled & semi-technical workers.

Below 30.00: non-skilled & manual workers.

Status (class) stratification:

Upper middle class: over 70.00

: from 50.00-69.00 Middle class

Transitional

: from 40.00-49.00 working class

: 39.00 & below Working class

For list of occupational classifications, see Blishen & McRoberts (1976).

APPENDIX G.

THE RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE

Part I: The Dogmatism Scale (Rokeach, 1960)

Part II: The Attitudes Toward Seeking Psychological Help Scale (Fischer & Turner, 1970)

Biographical Data

The following is a study of what the general public thinks and feels about number of important social and personal questions. The best answer to each statement below is your personal opinion. We have tried to cover many different and opposing points of view. You may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others, and perhaps uncertain about others according to how much you agree or disagree with it.

-1: I DISAGREE A LITTLE

+1: I AGREE A LITTLE

-2: I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE -3: I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

+2: I AGREE ON THE WHOLE +3: I AGREE VERY MUCH

PART I

- 1. The United States and Russia have just -3-2-1+1+2+3 about nothing in common.
- 2. The highest form of government is a -3-2-1+1+2+3 democracy and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are most intelligent
- 3. Even though freedom of speech for all* -3-2-1+1+2+3 groups is a worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary to restrict the freedom of certain political groups.
- 4. It is only natural that a person would -3-2-1+1+2+3 have a much better acquaintance with ideas he believes in than with ideas he opposes.
- 5. Man on his own is a helpless and miserable -3-2-1+1+2+3 creature.
- 6. Fundamentally, the world we live in is a -3-2-1+1+2+3 pretty lonesome place.
- 7. Most people just don't give a "damn" for -3-2-1+1+2+3 others.
- 8 I'd like it if I could find someone who -3-2-1+1+2+3 would tell me how to solve my personal problems.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 9 It is only natural for a person to be rather fearful of the future.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 10. There is so much to be done and so little time to do it in. .
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 11. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion I just can't stop.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 12. In a discussion, I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times to make sure I am being understood.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 13. In a heated discussion I generally become so absorbed in what I am going to say that I forget to listen to what the others are saying.

- -3-2-1+1+2+3 14. It is better to be a dead hero than to be a live, coward.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 15. My hardest battles are with myself.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 16. While I don't like to admit this even to myself, my secret ambition is to become a great man, like Einstein, Beethoven, or Shakespeare.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 17. The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 18. If given the chance I would do something of great benefit to the world.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 19. In the history of mankind there have probably been just a handful of really great thinkers.
- +3-2-1+1+2+3 20. There are a number of people I have come to hate because of the things they stand for.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 21 A man who does not believe in some great cause has not really lived.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 22. It is only when a person devotes himself to an ideal or cause that life becomes meaningful.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 23. Of all the different philosophies which exist in this world there is probably only one which is correct.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 24. A person who gets enthusiastic about too many causes is likely to be a pretty "wishy-washy" (weak) sort of person.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 25. To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to the betrayal of our own side.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 26. When it comes to differences of opinion in religion we must be careful not to compromise with those who believe differently from the way we do.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 27. In times like these, a person must be pretty selfish if he considers primarily his own happiness.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 28. The worst crime a person could commit is to attack publicly the people who believe in the same thing he does.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 29. In times like these it is often necessary to be more on guard against ideas put out by people or groups in one's own camp than by those in the opposing camp.

- -3-2-1+1+2+3 30. A group which tolerates too much differences of opinion among its own members cannot exist for long.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 31. There are two kinds of people in this world those who are for the truth and those who are against the truth.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 32. My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he's wrong.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 33. A person who thinks primarily of his own happiness is beneath contempt.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 34. Most of the ideas which get printed nowadays aren"t worth the paper they are printed on.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 35. In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders or experts who can be trusted.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 36. It is often desirable to reserve judgment about what's going on until one has had a chance to hear the opinions of those one respects.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 37: In the long run the best way to live is to pick friends and associates whose tastes and beliefs are the same as one's own.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 38. The present is all too often full of unhappiness. It is only the future that counts.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 39. If a man is to accomplish his mission in life it is sometimes necessary to gamble "all or nothing at all".
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 40. Unfortunately, a good many people with whom I have discussed important social and moral problems don't really understand what's going on.

PART II

- -3-2-1+1+2+3 1. Although there are clinics for people with mental troubles, I would not have much faith in them.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 2. If a good friend asked my advice about a mental problem, I might recommend that he see a psychiatrist
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 3. I would feel uneasy going to a psychiatrist because of what some people would think.

- -3-2-1+1+2+3 4. A person with a strong character can get over mental conflicts by himself, and would have little need of a psychiatrist.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 5. There are times when I have felt completely lost and would have welcomed professional advice for a personal or emotional problem.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 6. Considering the time and expense involved in psychotherapy, it would have doubtful value for a person like me.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 7. I would willingly confide intimate matters to an appropriate person if I thought it might help me or a member of my family.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 8. I would rather live with certain mental conflicts than go through the ordeal of getting psychiatric help.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 9. Emotional difficulties, like many things, tend to work out by themselves.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 10. There are certain problems which should not be discussed outside of one's immediate family.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 11. A person with a serious emotional disturbance would probably feel most secure in a good mental hospital.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 12. If I believed I was having a mental breakdown, my first inclination would be to get professional attention.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 13. Keeping one's mind on a job is a good solution for avoiding personal worries and concerns.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 14. Having been a psychiatric patient is a blot on a person's life.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 15. I would rather be advised by a close friend than by a psychologist, even for an emotional problem.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 16. A person with an emotional problem is not likely to solve it alone; he is likely to solve it with professional help.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 17. I resent a person professionally trained or not who wants to know about my spersonal difficulties.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 18. I would want to get psychiatric attention if I was worried or upset for a long period of time.

- -3-2-1+1+2+3 19. The idea of talking about problems with a psychologist strikes me as a poor way to get rid of emotional conflicts.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 20. Having been mentally ill carries with it a burden of shame.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3.21. There are experiences in my life I would not discuss with anyone.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 22. It is probably best not to know everything about oneself.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 23. If I were experiencing a serious emotional crisis at this point in my life, I would be confident that I could find relief in psychotherapy.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 24. There is something admirable in the attitude of a person who is willing to cope with his conflicts and fears without resorting to professional help.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 25. At some future time I might want to have psychological counseling.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 26. A person should work out his own problems; getting psychological counseling would be a last resort.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 27. Had I received treatment in a mental hospital, I would not feel that it ought to be "covered up".
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 28 If I thought I needed psychiatric help, I would get it no matter who knew about it.
- -3-2-1+1+2+3 29. It is difficult to talk about personal affairs with highly educated people such as doctors, teachers, and clergymen.

BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1. 2. 3. 4.	Age: Sex: Birthplace: Nationality: Religion:
5.	a) Degree sought b) Year of program: c) Faculty:
6.	How many years have you been in Canada?
7.	a) Have you ever attended another school in Canada? b) If yes, was it ahigh schoolcommunity collegeuniversity
8.	a) Father's educational level: b) Father's occupation:
9.	a) Mother's educational level: b) Mother's occupation:
10.	Estimated monthly family income (please specify currency if necessary):
11.	Are your friends mainly Canadian or Chinese?
12.	a) Are you aware of the counseling services available on campus?