

THE ATTITUDES OF COUNSELLORS TOWARDS THEIR CLIENT:  
DOES FOREIGN ACCENT MAKE A DIFFERENCE?

by

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### ABSTRACT

This research addressed the nature of mainstream counsellors' attitudes towards their culturally different clients.

This investigator conducted two separate studies in which all of the subjects were students in the Department of Counselling Psychology at The University of British Columbia. The counsellors in the first study were in the first year of the counselling program (novice) while those in the second study were in their final year (mature).

The research design was an experimental post-test only control group. Counsellors' attitudes towards their culturally different clients were investigated by presenting a client who had a foreign accent. In each study one group was exposed to a non-accented client in a counselling situation and the other group was exposed to a foreign-accented client.

A matched-guise videotape of a client presenting a counselling problem was shown to the two groups of counsellors in each study. Each counsellor in the control group viewed a non-accented client and each counsellor in the experimental group viewed the same client but with a foreign accent.

To measure the attitudes of counsellors towards their clients, a Semantic Differential Attitude Scale was constructed utilizing 50 bipolar adjectives. In addition, the counsellors responded to a written Interview

Questionnaire designed to investigate what may influence the attitudes of the counsellors, such as: similarity of beliefs; perception of the client's motivation and an awareness of cultural differences.

In both studies all counsellors rated the client in the accented and non-accented situations with an overall positive attitude on the Semantic Differential Scale. However, the counsellors exposed to the accented client, in Study One responded with a more positive intensity of attitude than the counsellors who viewed the non-accented client ( $p \leq .001$ ). The counsellors in the second study did not differ in their attitudes towards the accented or non-accented client ( $p > .05$ ).

In response to the Interview Questionnaire, the novice, beginner counsellors in Study One generally reacted to the client on a more personal level with the mainstream counsellors in the accented situation reporting more affinity towards the client. Those more mature counsellors in Study Two were less involved and attended to the external influences on the client (accented or not).

Recommendations for future counselling research are suggested in the areas of the attitudes of counsellors towards their accented clients; similarity of experience as a variable which influences the cross-cultural counselling process; and the utilization of the matched-guise videotape in training and education.

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION

This chapter addresses the background to the issue of counsellors' attitudes towards their culturally different clients. The Western-value-based counselling model is discussed in relation to barriers which may emerge in a cross-cultural setting. Difficulties which the culturally different client may experience in counselling are also presented. A discussion of the counselling relationship from the counsellors' perspective completes this chapter.

... people cannot act or interact at all in any meaningful way except through the medium of culture ... [we are part of one] ... interrelated system.  
(Hall 1982, p. 188)

### BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

A 1981 census in metro Toronto indicates that of the 2,137,395 inhabitants, 41% were born outside of Canada (Mayer 1984). Canadian figures of percentages of population by ethnic origin, published in 1961 and 1981, suggest that there has been not only an increase in the number of immigrants but also an expansion of cultural heterogeneity (see Table 1.1).

Table 1.1: Percentage of Population in Canada by Ethnic Origin

1961 population=(est) 12,000,000		1981 population=24,083,500	
Ethnic Origin		Ethnic Origin	
British	43.8	British	40.2
French	30.4	French	26.7
German	10.3	German	4.7
Dutch	12.3	Italian	3.1
Scandinavian		Ukrainian	2.2
Other European			
Other	4.2	Other	23.0

This shift is partly due to a change in earlier established immigration policies. Porter (1973) states that previous policies preferred Northern Europeans because they were considered more likely to assimilate and make good Canadians. As political and social conditions alter throughout the world, immigration and refugee policies react, to accomodate those affected, by continuing to encourage foreign migration to Canada. In addition, multiculturalism (the co-existence of ethnic groups who maintain their own ethnic identity) is encouraged. It is supported by the government on the premise that all Canadians will benefit from this approach to cultural plurality (Berry, Kalin and Taylor 1976). With this increase in cultural variation mainstream Canadians experience more contact with other ethnic groups (Westwood & Borgen 1986).

W.E. Lambert (1970) has investigated the fundamental attitudes of Canadians towards immigrants. He reports that,

although Canadians "take pride in rejecting the melting pot approach to immigration" (Lambert 1970 p. 304), they have several important concerns. The higher socio-economic status subjects in his study were "benevolent" and more "friendly" than lower income earners, who, in turn, felt "anxious, threatened and suspicious" of the immigrant particularly in relation to work and family. Lambert attributed these differences to the socio-economic situation of each group. Power and position in the community is synonymous with higher income and status. These Canadians, therefore, are able to regulate contact with the immigrant and control any negative attitudes or possible feelings of threat. On the other hand, the lower wage earner is protective of the family as well as being in direct competition for jobs. These Canadians, Lambert states, view the immigrant as "potential intruders into the ongoing social system" (p. 305) consequently assigning negative attributes, while finding "it difficult to raise their sights from competition to charity" (p. 306).

A similar situation exists in the United States where 40% of the total population have family who were born in foreign countries (Bar-Lewaw 1986). Of particular interest is the current effort to maintain English as the dominant language spoken. Historically, minimally populated ethnic groups were absorbed in the 'melting pot.' However, their population has increased over the years for numerous reasons such as, a change in the immigration and refugee policies and the illegal entry of many groups. In particular, the

Spanish-speaking culture numbered, in 1950, 4 million of a total 150 million Americans while in 1984, of 225 million, 17.5 million were Hispanics plus estimates of 3 - 12 million illegals (Bar-Lewaw 1986). Some cities in Florida utilize Spanish as the first language and English as the second.

In Canada, the status of national bilingualism is an ongoing and unresolved issue. S.I. Hayakawa (Farquharson 1986) contends that the "bilingual and bicultural societies that exist in Canada, Belgium, South Africa and Sri Lanka are proven recipes for disasters" (p. B1). Of primary importance to advocates of a monolingual society in the United States is the fear of loss of a linguistic unity of English. This attitude, cautions Bar-Lewaw (1986), could escalate into a clash resulting in segregation with language as its cause.

Societal change, of this nature, influences how the average North American feels about foreign speakers of English. Recently, foreign graduate teaching assistants (TA) in American universities have become the objects of criticism by the students they are teaching. Many students feel they are unfairly struggling to comprehend course content and the accent of the TA (Schwartz, Gibbs, Dietz, Kelly and Himmelsback 1985).

As our exposure to and contact with the ethnically different individual increases, so does our need for understanding the reactions to the differences that we see or hear. The differences between ethnically dissimilar people are emphasized by cultural factors such as skin colour,

dress, gestures, language and accent, some or none of which the other may be aware (Westwood & Borgen 1986). With 50% of minority clients not continuing counselling after the initial interview (Sue 1981a), the influencing variables are of paramount concern to the counselling profession.

#### **PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

It is within this social context that various professionals, in particular counsellors, provide services. In order to determine the influence of language on a counselling situation, counsellor attitude towards an accented client was investigated.

#### **COUNSELLING: DEFINITION, NATURE, GOALS**

The process of counselling and the culturally different client require some definition. By definition, counselling is a relationship which is characterized by warmth, understanding, permissiveness and acceptance (Pietrofesa, Splete, Hoffman and Pinto 1978). Essentially the counselling process includes increasing client self-awareness, decision-making skills and problem-solving (Egan 1982; Pietrofesa *et al.* 1978). It is a mutual endeavour which has a foundation of respect for the individual, while encouraging the client to grow emotionally, intellectually and behaviourally. It is a shared learning experience between counsellor and client. Pietrofesa *et al.* (1978) outline the long range client goals as self-exploration, self-understanding and action or

behaviour change. The therapeutic process goals are described in terms of reaching the client goals. Self-exploration is facilitated by the willingness to self-disclose, and to explore behaviours and feelings. Self-understanding is attained by being able to integrate information about the self with the acknowledgement that for personal growth to occur, change must take place. Behaviour change is achieved through learning decision-making skills and problem resolution, in effect, empowering the client. Summarized, counselling is psychological in its foundation with the ultimate goal of helping the client adjust, change or cope with their environment (Vontress 1976).

Inherent to the counselling ideal presented above, Pedersen (1977) and Copeland (1983) summarize five culture-bound values. These values are held by the dominant white culture who make up the majority of counsellors. First, is the notion of activism: activity is the modus operandi of decision-making and problem-solving. The second value is one which calls for an egalitarian and informal social system. Achievement is the third and most important motivation for action. A fourth value perceives the world as an "object to be exploited and developed for the material benefit of man" and includes an optimistic outlook for the future. The final western culture-bound value focuses on the individual whose rights and self-identity, which ultimately result in autonomy and achievement, are of utmost importance.

## THE CULTURALLY DIFFERENT CLIENT

### Definition of Terms

Before proceeding further, some terms warrant definition. Culture is defined to include commonly learned and shared experiences such as values, ancestry or language (e.g., habit, dress, accent) which are handed on from one generation to the next and maintained by a particular unified group of people (Copeland 1983; Gudykunst & Kim 1984; Rohner 1984; Triandis & Lambert 1980). Culture also has the "capacity for both gratifying and frustrating human needs" (Spiro 1972, p. 100). An ethnic group is a category of people who are socially or psychologically similar and share a common culture (Aboud & Skerry 1984). Race is generally accepted to indicate visible differences in skin pigmentation or biological similarities (Gudykunst & Kim 1984). A group of people is defined as 'minority' when the dominant group singles them out, because of physical or cultural characteristics, and they become the object of discrimination (Atkinson & Wampold 1981). Ethnicity is the degree to which an individual sees himself or herself belonging to a distinct ethnic group. Their social identity, within this group, is developed as a result of external influences which emphasized the differences between one group and another (Gumperz & Cook-Gumperz 1982). The term cross-cultural is used by anthropologists to mean the comparisons of cultures

(Gudykunst & Kim 1984) primarily in the areas of historical context, interpersonal contact or political organization and mutual nonintelligibility of language (Triandis & Lambert 1980). In counselling, the terms cross-cultural, interethnic and intercultural appear to be synonymous. For the purposes of this research those concepts are used interchangeably. Therefore, cross-cultural, interethnic or intercultural counselling is not only concerned with comparisons across cultures but also with isolating and understanding the differences. Broadly defined, cross-cultural counselling is a professional relationship which includes two or more individuals who are culturally different (Christensen 1985; Sundberg 1981) in terms of culture-bound values (Wrenn 1962), beliefs, norms, life style (Sue 1981b; Sundberg 1981) and methods of communication (Sue 1981b), such as accent.

The previous description of counselling and the intrinsic western culture-bound values is by its very nature limited to being successful with client and counsellors who are highly verbal, emotionally liberal (Sue & Sue 1977), egalitarian-thinking, involved, outwardly friendly, internally motivated (Sue 1978; Young & Marks 1985), introspective and process, rather than, goal oriented (Sue & Sue 1977). The generally accepted view is that the bulk of the minority clients in need do not seek counselling. Coupled with the fact that, of those who do seek help 50% terminate after one interview, it is not surprising that counsellors may unconsciously minimize ethnic differences in

counselling (Carney & Kahn 1984). This model of counselling and the clinical expectations of the counsellor are culturally biased in favour of the North American white dominant population. It does not take into consideration the variety of world views, values, beliefs, trends and styles of expression that members of other cultures may cherish.

Many researchers have addressed the issue of a culture-bound counselling model but some experts suggest that in order to distinguish differences, similarities must be first understood (Jahoda 1980). Developing this notion further, Triandis and Lambert (1980) express that "culture shapes the aspects of psychological functioning" (p. 4) and when the differences are ignored "... people from different cultures have difficulties communicating and relating to each other" (p. 5). They continue to suggest that, in order to understand similarities and differences, it is crucial to view the individual in a cultural context, taking into consideration the physical environment, means of supporting life, sociocultural influences, individual idiosyncrasies and patterns of social behaviour.

When encountering a counsellor from the dominant white population, in the initial interview, the culturally different client may experience some form of culture shock, which Lundstedt (1963) states is characterized by confusion, emotional and intellectual withdrawal, vulnerability, feelings of isolation and stress. Considering the counsellor is working from a North American culture-bound model of

counselling, it is not surprising that the symptoms manifested may be assessed as psychological distress, mistaking the "communication pattern for the person" (Alexander, Workneh, Klein & Miller 1976, p. 82). The culturally different client is operating from different frames of reference in several important areas which directly conflict with the North American culture-bound approach to counselling described earlier in this chapter.

The culturally, ethnically or racially different client, in addition to values, may also be different because of lower socio-economic status. Whether they attribute the causes of their economic problems to be from an internal or external focus of control, it may influence their attitude towards self-disclosure in counselling (Gibbs 1985). Cultures also differ in what they expect from the counselling experience (McDermott & Stadler 1985; Neimeyer & Gonzales 1983) which can affect rapport, empathy and client growth and change (Pedersen 1977). Padilla, Ruiz and Alvarez (1975) suggest that lower status clients prefer advice-giving from a counsellor as a more practical solution to their 'social' problems than contemplating their psychological self. In addition, Blacks and other minorities present different cognitive styles (Copeland 1983), personality structures, and ways of coping and responding which are in reaction to living in a society as members of culturally distinct groups (Block 1981). In a psychiatric setting, researchers reported that foreign students seek medical help first and psychological

assistance as a last resort (Alexander *et al.* 1976). Many agree that, other than visible differences, an outstanding difference is language: style, dialect, accent (Pedersen 1977; Westwood & Borgen 1986).

Research in the area of client-counsellor cultural similarities and effective counselling has been conflicting (Atkinson 1983; Sundberg 1981). Some report that the Black clients prefer to work with Black counsellors (Block 1981; Terrell & Terrell 1984) especially in terms of mutual trust and continuation of therapy (Hector & Fray 1985). Others have also found that client commitment to counselling is longer when counsellors and clients are racially similar (Mendelsohn & Geller 1963). In addition, some report that counsellors, whose clients have greater cultural sex role differences, experience difficulty expressing empathy, respect and general helping behaviours than those counsellors who share a similar cultural background with their client (Pedersen, Holwill & Shapiro 1978). However, Neimeyer and Gonzales (1983) propose that non-white clients experience less general contentment with the counselling experience regardless of counsellor race and that no differences were found in counselling effectiveness between Black and White counsellors.

In addition, both White and Black clients understood the colloquial language of White and Black counsellors equally as well suggesting client-counsellor racial similarities may not be important (Bryson & Cody 1973). Atkinson, Ponce and

Martinez (1984) conclude that Mexican-American clients viewed Mexican-American and White counsellors as equal in relation to credibility and attractiveness (counsellor's willingness to help). They also suggest that differences were only evident if attitude (point of view), not ethnicity, conflicted with their own. Also, Kadushin (1972) found that the race of the social worker was not as important to the client as the clinical relationship and the worker's willingness to help the client. In fact, counsellors who were perceived as sensitive to the client's cultural background have been found to surpass cultural differences in a similar way that they surpass socio-economic status, gender, and educational differences (Atkinson 1983; Pomales, Claiborn & Lafromboise 1986).

### **Western Values Which Impact the Counselling Interview**

The ethnically dissimilar participant in counselling differs considerably in terms of the five culture-bound values held by the dominant population. Pedersen (1977) and Copeland (1983) describe the contrasts. Firstly, not all cultures operate in an active way concerning decision-making and problem-solving, in fact passivity or simply "being" is valued. Secondly, the egalitarian value conflicts with one of inequality, formality and assigned roles. The third value of achievement as a motivation is not as important as heritage or preservation of the family unit in some cultures. The fourth value views the world not as an object to be

conquered, but something with which to live in harmony and be mastered by. This value is complimented with a fatalistic outlook for the future. The last Western value concerns the emphasis on the individual and autonomy, which is contradictory to many other cultures which believe in the totality of the group experience. This group experience guarantees a cultural identity and depends on external rather than internal sources for purpose and direction of meaning in life.

... if viewed only in the context of ... universality, a person loses individuality ... if [only] in the context of individuality, the person loses a sense of connectedness with humanity; if viewed only in the context of group membership, an individual is stereotyped. (Larson 1982, p. 844).

#### **THE MAINSTREAM COUNSELLOR AND THE COUNSELLING RELATIONSHIP**

Communication difficulties in interethnic encounters centre on the differences in language and cultural knowledge (Gumperz 1982; Jupp, Roberts & Cook-Gumperz 1982). There are several barriers which Barna (1970) cites as affecting the intercultural counselling process: language differences, non-verbal behaviour, stereotypes and a high level of anxiety experienced in an interethnic context. In addition, both client and counsellor undergo culture shock as each experiences confusion, uncertainty about the expectations of each other, doubt regarding what to do with the 'strange cues' they are receiving and not to mention direct

involvement in a relationship with someone from another 'world.'

The counsellor's cultural attitudes, biases and stereotypes can inhibit the counselling process by: blocking and reducing empathy, ignoring important historical information about the client, unconsciously approaching taboo subjects and misunderstanding the client's language (Vontress 1969). Alexander *et al.* (1976) comment that therapists have an inherent bias that the "common ground of similarity ... is the only path to understanding." These researchers feel that this is a misconception and cultural differences must be addressed or the client may experience, in therapy, the same misunderstanding he or she experiences in the dominant society's culture.

At the opposite end of the continuum, the White counsellor may make several 'errors' when encountering a racially different client. First, the White majority counsellor experiences the "illusion of colour blindness" (Block 1981; Larson 1982) minimizing cultural and racial differences (Carney & Kahn 1984). They also make an assumption, especially where Black Americans are concerned, that all of a Black's person's problems stem from being Black in a White dominated society (Block 1981). The White counsellor, feeling guilty (Kadushin 1972) about the culturally underprivileged, attempts to make amends by making therapy as effortless as possible for the client (Block 1981; Cooper 1973). Special compensations are made and as a result

progress in therapy is slow. Vontress (in Block 1981) has termed this as the "great white father syndrome" in counselling, where the counsellor feels they are omnipotent and mean nothing but good for and will take care of the client. These 'errors' cloud the client's desires, feelings and behaviours while actually inhibiting effective counselling. The "white guilt" or "countertransference phenomenon," when working with minority cultures, function to inappropriately consolidate clinical and political issues which ultimately deprives the client of the potential for growth and change (Cooper 1973). An overemphasis on the racial or cultural aspects of the client may distort real psychological problems (Cooper 1973; Kadushin 1972; Kagan 1964).

Cultural encapsulation is a concept which may be used to describe the counsellor who works with clients from culturally dissimilar backgrounds and refuses to adapt their counselling style or approach to take cultural influences into account (Pedersen 1977). As a protection against ambiguity in life, people "surround themselves with a cocoon of pretend reality" (Wren 1962, p. 446) based on experiences within their own culture. Other cultures are not generally recognized as 'real' and are regarded only in terms of how they relate to themselves (Pedersen 1977). Kagan (1964) proposes three dimensions to the culturally encapsulated counsellor. First is the tendency to stereotype ethnically different clients. The second dimension concerns the

stereotypic assumptions which are not based on fact. When these assumptions are challenged, the counsellor becomes defensive, exhibiting a need for self-preservation (Pedersen 1977). Finally, both Kagan and Pedersen suggest that the counsellor by training is technique-oriented and that serves to perpetuate the cultural encapsulation.

### **Language: The Key Variable in the Counselling Relationship**

As mentioned previously, an outstanding and immediately noticeable characteristic of the culturally dissimilar client is language. The research in counselling and client foreign accent is virtually non-existent. Most of the investigations have focused on Black English and accented speech and reactions to these by the general population. These studies will be discussed at length in Chapter Two. Most cross-cultural counselling research has reviewed the problem of racial differences between white, middle-class English speaking counsellors and Black or Hispanic clients (Atkinson 1983; Sundberg 1981). It is curious that accented speech has been ignored in counselling and yet language is important in a communicative relationship. Sundberg (1981) has called for a look beyond the visible differences, between client and counsellor, to investigate client's dialect, stating that the style of language used is of utmost importance in the counselling relationship (Sundberg 1976). Language is especially important when the culture-bound counselling model encourages a favourable bias towards the highly verbal

client. Counselling is a "process of interaction and communication ..." and on the basis of language alone, the client may be viewed as "... uncooperative, sullen, negative, non-verbal or repressed" (Sue & Sue 1977, p. 422). Leong (1986), in an extensive review of the counselling research with Asian-Americans, states that the major barrier to effective counselling is language and a lack of understanding, by the counsellor, of broken, accented English. He suggests that the use of dialects or non-standard English interrupts the flow of conversation and results in the counsellor forming a negative attitude. Leong's review was, however, of a visibly different culture. It is the interest of this researcher to investigate the role of accented English, without the variable of race, on the attitudes of counsellors. The main research question posed then, is this: Is there a difference in attitude between mainstream counsellors towards their clients who have no accent and those whose clients speak with a foreign accent?

## SUMMARY

By way of summarizing this chapter, an illustration of an interethnic meeting, from the counsellor's perspective is presented (developed from Christensen: 1985).

The counsellor, a white middle-class female, welcomes her client, noticing the way he looks. She responds to herself noting that he looks 'different' and wonders if he were born here, or if he were an immigrant or foreigner. She remembers her unemployed cousin's comment that "all the foreigners are taking the jobs." She sympathizes with her cousin but

wonders if all the people from poorer countries should have an equal opportunity to seek a "better life in Canada." She begins to feel sorry for her client and angry at her cousin and guilty she has "so much." The counsellor decides her client needs to know that not all of the population wants immigrants to feel unaccepted. The counsellor decides she will bend over backwards to ensure her client is treated equally and fairly as she "goes easy on him." She makes an assumption that life was probably very difficult in the 'old country' and he didn't have enough money to finish high school. She is jarred back to the counselling setting as she hears an accented "hello" and feels anxious wondering if she will be able to, not only communicate effectively, but understand him.

## CHAPTER TWO

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Introduction

To understand the context in which the research question is posed in Chapter One, some key areas need to be examined. This chapter reviews theory and research areas central to the research question of counsellor attitude towards their accented client. Outlined in this section are Attribution Theory and Attitude and Language Attitude Theory. In addition, the role of attitude and emotion are briefly presented. Language and communication are discussed as an introduction to the research reviewed on dialect, race and accent which ultimately influence the mainstream counsellor's attitude towards their minority client.

#### ATTRIBUTION THEORY

An overview of Attribution Theory cannot be ignored and is given as an introduction to the measurement of counsellor attitude, upon which this research is based.

Attribution theory states that people assign certain characteristics to others as explanations for their behaviour. Through this assignment process, an attempt is made to determine the causes of another's behaviour and to

understand their traits and motives. The behaviour is first observed, then an inference about the possession of certain traits, motives, and intentions is drawn.

Inferences are made based on the individual's life experiences, world views, beliefs, values, attitudes, and from any other existing information observed. Attributions offer a foundation for explaining the cause of and for predicting behaviour. The individual attributes the causes of behaviour as either external or internal, focusing on three different factors while making a decision. Kelley and Michela (1980) describes these factors as:

- a) consensus: do others react similarly in the same situation?
- b) consistency: does the individual react similarly in the same situation?
- c) distinctiveness: does the individual react in the same way to different stimuli?

Kelly and Michela continue to suggest that people attribute internal causes (individual traits and motives) if there is low consensus/high consistency/low distinctiveness. External causes (other source) are attributed if there exists a high consensus/high consistency/high distinctiveness relationship. Based on this premise, people are able to give meaning and understanding to present events and in addition, are able to predict future behaviour when similar circumstances and conditions exist.

Success in forming accurate attributions is, in part, due to close observation of actions which produce what Jones and Davis (1965) term "noncommon effects." The tendency, when this effect is present, is to focus on the unusual patterns of behaviour which are not familiar or encouraged by a given culture or society. With this view in mind, accent could be designated as a noncommon effect, given that it is an unusual behaviour when compared to mainstream Standard English, in Canada.

In a multicultural society, such as Canada, the inhabitants are increasingly encountering members of ethnic groups with which they are not affiliated. They are continually placed in situations which demand alterations to their previously held knowledge of what is occurring. The impression of another person is influenced by these preconceived notions, which are based on values, social contexts, culture and emotional factors (Forgas 1985).

To understand the fluctuation of events, people make causal attributions to explain the behaviour, motives and traits of others (Tajfel 1969). These attributions when made in an interethnic context, are the result of three cognitive processes, outlined by Tajfel (1969). The first process is a categorization of the other person, which elicits stereotypes. Although stereotypes have achieved the distinction of being 'bad' they serve an important function necessary for "thinking and communication" (Gudykunst & Kim 1984, p. 27). These stereotypes introduce "simplicity and

order where there is complexity and nearly random variation" (Gudykunst & Kim 1984, p. 82). They also assist the individual in sorting and remembering details when he or she is confronted with an excess of information (McCauley, Sitz & Segal 1980). Stereotypes assist in coping with the "fuzzy differences" between groups but interestingly, even when the categorization process is erroneous, people manage to fit the general context of the situation into the stereotype. Stereotyping interferes with the conversion of information received (Wampold, Casas & Atkinson 1981) as the ethnically different person is viewed as a "deviant" from the dominant culture rather than a "legitimate member" of another (Pedersen 1977). There is an "emotional investment" in maintaining the differences between groups. Lopez and Cheek (1977) suggest part of that investment includes reducing and controlling the expression of anxiety.

The second cognitive process Tajfel describes in making causal attributions is the assimilation of social information about the attitudes of other groups. People learn the evaluations and preferences of the "other group" compared to their own. Tajfel suggests that people balance between identification with their own culture and acquiring a knowledge of ethnic differences and interpreting how these relate to their particular society. The final cognitive process helps people cope with the everchanging situations to explain the ethnically different person's behaviour. Tajfel concludes that the purpose behind our search for coherence is

two-fold: a desire for consistency in coping skills and the maintenance of cultural identity and self-image.

In a cross-cultural counselling situation, where most often the counsellor is from the mainstream, dominant culture, attributions are particularly important. The attributes the counsellor applies to the culturally different client influence the effectiveness of the counselling process (Young & Marks 1985). Of significance here, is the fact that, in the initial interview where first impressions are formed, the counsellor is using the attributions to interpret and give meaning to the client's problem. When communicating with strangers, people often explain their behaviour in terms of cultural or ethnic stereotyping (Gudykunst & Kim 1984). Clearly, if the professional counsellor is presented with an accented client and makes attributions based on cultural stereotypes, the counselling relationship could be frustrating and ineffectual for both. To research the effect of the client's accent, the counsellor's attitude towards that client is investigated.

#### **ATTITUDE AND LANGUAGE ATTITUDE THEORY**

Generally speaking Attitude and Language Attitude Theory contain the same components and thus are reviewed in this thesis as one theory.

The manner in which people communicate and the effect it has on the receiver of the message influences the cycle of the communication process (Ryan, Carranza and Moffie 1977).

Part of that process is the impression of the speaker which the listener is making. As the receiver of the message is evaluating the communication an attitude towards the sender is either formed or elicited from previously held attitudes. This attitude is based on previous experiences under similar circumstances and equips the listener with a tool for interpreting, understanding and predicting the behaviour of the speaker.

Due to the fact that attitude is covert and therefore directly unobservable (Shaw & Wright 1967), the theorists task of offering a global definition of this construct has been difficult. There is, however, general agreement regarding its main characteristics (Ageheyisi & Fishman 1970; Davidson & Thomson 1980; Williams 1974; Lalljee, Brown & Ginsburg 1984; Lemon 1973; Osgood, Suci & Tannenbaum 1975; Shaw & Wright 1967; Sherif & Sherif 1970). Essentially, attitudes are learned from previous social interactions and are specific in reference to the context in which they are learned. Once attitudes are formed, they are stable and enduring and the relationship between person and object has an affective, evaluative aspect to it (favourable - infavourable; positive - negative). Attitudes are also interrelated, inasmuch as possessing similar social referents or evaluations (Shaw & Wright 1967).

There are two distinct theories regarding the nature of attitudes. The behaviourist view proposes that attitudes are directly observable behaviours which manifest themselves in

the "responses individuals make to social situations" ... they are single "behavioural response" units (Fasold 1984). The alternate, mentalist view, represents the one held by most researchers, including the author of this thesis. Expanding on the definition in the preceding paragraph, attitudes are described as the "intervening variable between the stimulus and the response to it" (Fasold 1984). Reflecting the mentalist viewpoint, attitude is comprised of three components:

- a) affective: which represents the emotional, positive and negative, therefore evaluative feelings towards the object;
- b) cognitive: which is the way the individual conceptualizes the object;
- c) behaviour: which is the consequence of the affective and cognitive components and results in the actual behaviour in response to the object.

(Agehehysi & Fishman 1970; Edwards 1982; Lemon 1973; Shaw & Wright 1967).

Shaw and Wright (1967) narrow the concept further in line with that of Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1975), by identifying a single component, which simplifies attitude as an affective, evaluative reaction, based on cognitive processes, and is the antecedent of behaviour.

Attitudes are considered to be within the realm of personality and it is essential to distinguish it from other constructs which occasionally overlap and have been substituted as meaning the same thing (Shaw & Wright 1967).

- a) belief: represents a perceived connection between an object and its characteristics (Davidson & Thomson 1980; Shaw & Wright 1967)
- b) value: degree of worth assigned to an object (Lemon 1973; Shaw & Wright 1967; Wren 1962)
- c) opinion: conscious, specific verbalized responses of an attitude (Lemon 1973; Shaw & Wright 1967)
- d) habit: strong tendency to act but does not contain affective or evaluative component (Shaw & Wright 1967)
- e) trait: stable and consistent way of responding which distinguishes one individual from the next but is nonspecific and general (Shaw & Wright 1967).

Nigel Lemon (1973) has outlined four functions of attitudes which are considered to generally represent the view held by the majority of theorists. Summarizing these categories, as follows, attitudes provide:

- a) a utilitarian adaptive function: social adjustment which facilitates relationships, positive attitude fulfills the individual's need while a negative one frustrates or blocks fulfillment (e.g., holding certain attitudes facilitates identification with certain groups).
- b) an ego-defensive or externalization function: attitudes, serving this function, are in response to inner conflicts, based on motivation (e.g., the need for achievement).
- c) a value expressive function: includes a basic assumption that the individual has a need to express the self; this function is the quality of the expressiveness of an individual attitude which in effect asserts own identity resulting in satisfaction and perpetuation of the attitude.

- d) a knowledge function and appraisal of object: in order to understand the world, the individual needs frames of reference or standards; attitudes helps define that.

The last suggested function of attitude is especially relevant to an interethnic exchange. When confronted with someone who speaks accented English, in order to give meaning and understanding in an individual cultural context, a judgment process occurs (Williams 1976). The repertoire of attitudes is tapped and a stereotype is released. The stereotype balances the perceived characteristics towards the object and the final evaluation. The characteristics perceived may include a social comparison of similar or dissimilar traits (Stiff 1986). When involved in an encounter with someone who speaks with an accent, an obvious difference in perceived characteristics is the way language is spoken. In fact, people are more aware of the way they are responding when communicating with someone who is ethnically different than if the person were similar (Gudykunst & Kim 1984).

#### **ATTITUDE AND EMOTION**

It is suggested that many people experience some discomfort when involved in interethnic communication (Gumperz 1982; Gumperz & Cook-Gumperz 1982). In a counselling situation, the emotional state of counsellors influences the counselling process and effectiveness (Schauer, Seymour & Green 1985). In a recent study Rungta

(1987) suggests that upon hearing a foreign accented client the counsellor might be more anxious than if the client were non-accented. Some authors have concluded that emotion is a precursor to thought and action (Izard 1979) and several believe that during the affective state, an individual is goal-oriented (Sebastian, Ryan, Keogh & Schmidt 1980; Shaw & Wright 1967) and that if those goals are blocked, the frustration and anxiety, which may result are manifested in the form of a negative evaluation of the speaker (Gumperz 1982; Sebastian, Ryan, Keogh & Schmidt 1980; Shaw & Wright 1967).

Language is used to 'woo' others, to seduce them, to impress them and to help them ... language is the primary instrument of interpersonal progress.  
(Berger & Bradac 1982, p. 75)

## **LANGUAGE AND COMMUNICATION**

A person's social identity and ethnic group membership is recognized through language (Bourhis, Giles & Lambert 1975; Chaika 1982; Clement 1980; Fraser 1973; Gumperz & Cook-Gumperz 1982; Honey, 1984; Jupp, Roberts & Cook-Gumperz 1982; Kalin and Rayko 1980; Katz and Braly 1949; McKirnan & Hamayan 1980; McKirnan, Smith & Hamayan 1983; Palmer 1973; Ryan 1973; Taylor 1980). One study has shown that medical doctors use their patient's accent to identify socio-economic status, assess linguistic skills and communication ability, personality, behaviour, level of emotionality and it also influences diagnostic decisions (Fielding & Evered 1980).

Several studies have shown that listeners also use speech cues to evaluate the personality, education and intelligence of the speaker (Jupp, Roberts & Cook-Gumperz 1982; Schefflen 1979; Williams 1976). These evaluations and assignments of the speaker to a stereotyped ethnic group facilitates the maintenance of previously held attitudes.

Language is fundamental to social behaviour. People are able to distinguish one group from another by ascribing certain characteristics which, if negative, result in discrimination and prejudice (Lambert 1980; McKirnan & Hamayan 1980). Language is maintained in all aspects of society: law, religion, government, education, family, etc. (Chaika 1982). Listeners hear language in "terms of patterns" (of sounds) with which they are already familiar and unconsciously conform to language rules they have learned (Chaika 1982). In interethnic communication, where at least one of the participants does not conform to the same language rules, variations in patterns of speaking affect the listeners attitudes (Williams 1976) and may result in the assigning of negative attributes (Chaika 1982; McKirnan, Smith & Hamayan 1983). Jupp, Roberts and Cook-Gumperz (1982) state that labeling individuals with negative characteristics "firmly places the responsibility for any breakdown ... in communications, on the minority group" (p. 242). These researchers and others (McKirnan, Smith & Hamayan 1983) conclude that discrimination and prejudice is more linguistically, than racially, based and that it may inhibit

or facilitate social distance. To illustrate how language influences our social interactions Howard Giles (Giles & Powesland 1975) from his research in Britain, has shown that, despite the stability of adult speech characteristics, people accommodate their speech style (regional or standard received pronunciation) with the purpose in mind of increasing or reducing social distance. As an illustration, he suggests the reader imagine the variety of ways in which a university professor in his office would speak to a janitor if he were: a) alone; b) with a peer colleague; c) with a senior administration member; with an undergraduate student; or e) with another maintenance man. In fact, when attempting to link attitudes with the prediction of how someone will behave, it is generally assumed that behaviour is mediated by the attitudes which are held.

#### **LANGUAGE AND PERSONALITY**

The research is scant in the area of counsellor attitudes towards foreign accented clients. The studies that follow, in this review, involve subjects selected from the general population.

In reiterating that our cultural affiliation is exposed by the way we speak a language and that it is a precursor to stereotyping ethnic group affiliation (Chaika 1982; Cooper & Fishman 1974; Fasold 1984), many researchers have attempted to isolate the stereotypic personality characteristics solicited by verbal language cues. Scherer (1972) and

earlier investigators have stressed the importance of this research stating that unless the social aspects of speech are isolated from the personality aspects, there may be mutual listener-speaker misunderstanding and the respondent may make incorrect judgments (Allport & Cantril 1934; Sapir 1927).

In Allport and Cantril's (1934) pioneer radio studies, several important discoveries were made. Firstly, voice does release correct information concerning "inner and outer" personality characteristics. They also found that there is a certain uniformity of opinion regarding the personality of radio speakers, even if it is inaccurate. In addition, there appears to be some preconception of voice type matched to personality features (i.e., stereotyped attitudes). Finally, inner personality traits seem to be rated more consistently and correctly than outer, physical traits (as an indicator of personality). These findings have become part of a foundation of considerations when researching the judgments of personality (attitudes) from voice, which are discussed in the next section.

They spell it v-i-n-c-i and pronounce it vinchy;  
foreigners always spell better than they pronounce.

(Mark Twain: *Innocents Abroad*)

## DIALECT, RACE AND ACCENT

The review of the literature at this point has demonstrated that individuals, in intercultural dialogue,

possess preconceptions and biases about the culturally different speaker's communication skills (Westwood & Borgen 1986). These skills include aspects of language such as rules and proficiency, as well as variables which might influence the process of mutual understanding such as dialect and accent. Effective communication disintegrates when the message received is garbled by an accent or dialect with which the listener is unfamiliar. Understanding is impaired, confusion is established and to make sense of the experience the listener reacts with a negative attitude. The importance of research in this area, especially counselling, cannot be over-emphasized. Particularly in Canada, where the foreign speaking immigrant may shed part of their culture through the process of assimilation, while learning to communicate with the 'dominant language,' the new Canadian will undoubtedly speak with an accent (Ryan, Carranza & Moffie 1977).

The manner in which the respondent evaluates the speaker may depend in part, how culturally similar to the listener, the speaker is perceived to be. Those who are viewed as outwardly similar are evaluated in a more positive way (McKirnan *et al.* 1983), while those who 'sound different' are treated in a skeptical way (Jupp, Roberts & Cook-Gumperz 1982) and assumed to be unfriendly (Fraser 1973). This is partly due to the fact that speech styles which wander from the standard form of pronunciation are typically viewed as less desirable (Edwards 1982). In addition, social biases which occur in response to hearing nonstandard speech,

include lack of cooperation, restrictive employment and educational opportunities (Edwards 1982; Giles & Powesland 1975).

In their review article, Brown, Strong and Rencher (1975) describe Wallace Lambert's landmark studies, conducted in Montreal in the late 1950s and early 1960s. These reviewers describe the matched guise technique, which Lambert and his colleagues originated. The bilingual subjects, in Lambert's studies, listened to audiotaped passages read by the same fluent bilingual (French-English) speaker, first in one language, then in the next. The purpose of matching the "guise" was to measure the influence of speech and to ensure the subjects were responding to language alone when asked to evaluate the personality characteristics of the speakers. They measured direction and intensity of attitude with a semantic differential instrument composed of bipolar (positive and negative) adjectives. Lambert and his researchers found that English-Canadian subjects rated the English-speaking guise as more intelligent, taller, better-looking, more dependable, kinder, more ambitious and having more character than the French-speaking guise. Similarly, the French Canadian subjects rated the French-speaking guise as kinder and more religious than the English-speaking guise but, rated the English guise as more intelligent, dependable, likeable and as having more character than the French guise. The French Canadians' evaluations of the French guise was lower than the English

Canadians' rating of the same. This was interpreted by Lambert, Hodgson, Gardner and Fillenbaum (1960) to be a "minority group reaction," which is characterized by devaluing their own ethnic group.

Most accent attitude studies in the United States have concentrated on the effects of spoken Black English versus White English. Typically, the design involves using an audiotaped matched guise technique. Most often the results indicate that Black and White listeners rate the White standard guise as being more competent and intelligent (Bishop 1979; Buck 1968; Tucker & Lambert 1969).

Tucker and Lambert (1969) while investigating reactions to various regional dialects in the United States, found that network television broadcasters who spoke a 'regionless' more standard speech were rated more favourably, while Mississippi speakers were rated least favourable.

Ellen Bouchard Ryan and associates have conducted a number of studies investigating the listener's evaluative reactions to Spanish accented American-English. Ryan (1973, p. 60) demonstrated that Spanish-speaking Mexican Americans "suffer alienation and discrimination because of their accented speech and experience negative bias in their pursuit of educational and occupational success." Similarly, Alberto Rey (1977) reports that heavily accented Cuban speakers were rated least employable, by actual employers, for all job categories when compared to mildly accented White and medium accented Black-American English speakers. It was found in

one study that degree of accent influenced the evaluation of the speakers. The stronger Spanish-accented English is more negatively stereotyped than standard English and mild Spanish-accented English (Ryan, Carranza & Moffie 1977). This was also found by Brennan and Brennan (1981), especially on the dimension of group solidarity.

In another study, Sebastian, Ryan, Keogh and Schmidt (1980) induced negative affect arousal in judges, by introducing a noise or no noise interference situation, on audiotaped Spanish-accented English and standard English guises. The Spanish-accented guise was rated as having "lower intelligence, less trustworthy, less successful, lower status, and social class, less similar in attitudes; less desirable as partners ... and less friendly" (p. 203). These investigators explain the results may be due, in part, to the association of negative affect arousal with the accented speaker, resulting in the unfavourable evaluation.

In a related study with Mexican-American bilingual adolescents, Carranza and Ryan (1975) found that some "accent loyalty" was present when the Spanish language was rated higher for use at home than English which was preferred in school. Carranza and Ryan describe the two different contexts of language use as: status, which means situations involving high culture (dominant), the influence and upward mobility associated with standard speech and solidarity, which involves friendship, intimacy and membership with the lower status ethnic group.

As previously mentioned, the way a person speaks indicates their ethnic origin and social status to the listener. For the speaker, dialect and accent have a "motivational component" inasmuch as declaring membership to the social group to which they desire to belong (Brown, Strong & Rencher 1975). In some bilingual or multilingual countries, such as Peru and India, often fluency in both languages means opportunity. An individual learns to communicate in the more prestigious language in order to reach the desired goals of education, employment, or simply progressing from rural to urban dwelling, which may facilitate a better lifestyle (Apte 1970; Wölck 1973).

Although Edward T. Hall (1976) states that "90% of communication is nonverbal and largely unconscious" and it is "... important to develop an awareness of ... the conscious ... element of speech." This author suggests that people pay more attention to what is said and interpret it more readily because of the comparative accessibility of the spoken word. During this process of linguistic interpretation, the listener pays attention to and makes judgments about speech rate, hesitation, grammatical aspects, and pronunciation while comparing the speaker as ultimately similar or different to themselves (Palmer 1973).

Howard Giles (1970) suggests that hearing accents not only elicits pinpointing speaker status and personality characteristics but, in addition, a) the listener experiences an aesthetic dimension of pleasantness or unpleasantness;

b) a communicative comfort or discomfort level in verbal interaction; and c) rates the amount of prestige value inherent in the accent. In a review article, Giles and Powesland (1975) stated that historically people, in Britain, who were interested in rising above their social class would alter their accent to be more in line with the standard way of speaking; "pronunciation became, therefore, a marker of position in society" (p. 26). The standard, or received pronunciation (RP), certain foreign accents, and Scottish and Irish accents, were considered first class, while the British regional accents which were rated second and third were the accents from large industrial towns. Within Britain regional accents which deviated the least from the standard propnunciation were considered more prestigious and more favourable than broader accents.

Giles and Powesland continue to summarize that although there doesn't appear to be any 'correct' way of speaking in the United States, accent prestige may be ranked according to ethnic minorities such as Black and Mexican-American. They conclude their review by stating that, in Canada, French Canadians regard their own speech as socially less desirable than European French, but on the other hand, are reluctant to accept it is better than French Canadian.

Giles and his colleagues have conducted extensive research in Britain investigating evaluative reactions to accented speakers. In a study to determine if listeners could perceive differences between mild or broad accent and

how these distinctions would be rated, Giles (1972a) found that listeners were able to distinguish between mild and broad regional accents. All subjects, even those from the same region, rated the aesthetic, comfort and prestige values of the broader accent less favourable than the milder version. Giles (1972b) reported that RP speakers were stereotyped as having more intelligence and self-confidence (competence) but less personal integrity and kind-heartedness or humour (social attractiveness) when compared to non-standard accents. The results of two studies on persuasiveness and accented speech (Giles 1973a; Giles & Powesland 1975) indicated that the quality of the argument presented was evaluated by all listeners more positively when spoken by an RP speaker than speakers with regional accents. However, where actual attitude change towards the topic was involved, listeners were more easily persuaded by someone with whom they felt was more culturally similar to themselves (accent loyalty).

Giles, Baker & Fielding (1975) criticize the use of vocal stimulation only in research, arguing that it may be too artificial and limiting. In their 1975 study, these investigators used a matched guise technique in which the speaker was face-to-face with the listener. They attempted to determine actual stereotyped attitudinal behaviour towards the speaker by using the respondents' written communication length as an indication of that behaviour. Their findings were consistent with most previous research: the RP speaker

was rated more intelligent and subjects wrote more (indicating a desire to interact) about the RP speaker than the regional accented speaker.

In related British studies, accent loyalty was reported between London and Yorkshire accents (Strongman & Woosley 1967) and, although both Scottish and English regional accented listeners rated the Scottish accent lower on many prestige scales, the listeners were loyal to their region with regards to social attractiveness (Cheyne 1970).

In Canada, Wallace Lambert's matched guise technique continues to be used to investigate listener attitudes towards accents. In a study comparing Jewish accented English and standard Canadian English, Anisfeld, Bogo and Lambert (1962) reported that Gentile listeners rated the accented guise lower on all traits while the Jewish listeners rated the accented guise as more humorous, entertaining, and kind. They were also able to indentify the accent as ethnically Jewish more often than the Gentiles. Once again, accent loyalty on dimensions of social attractiveness and group solidarity appears to be present.

In addition, to the above, familiar situations in Canada, United States and Britain, is the circumstance where a national of a country encounters someone with a foreign accent. Although the situations where the dominant English speaking person hears a French Canadian, Spanish or regional accent require some adjustment and filtering of information, these situations are the norm in these countries and

therefore more familiar than when a foreign accent is encountered. Therefore it is no surprise that the studies reported here indicate an unequivocal negative bias towards foreign accented speakers on several characteristics. For example, Britishers it was reported, viewed minority speakers of English as inefficient workers who make excuses about their work performance and speak incorrect English (Mishra 1982). When considered for job suitability, discrimination was shown to favour English Canadians over foreign accented speakers and that the foreign accented job candidates were suitable for only the lower status jobs (Kalin & Rayko 1978; Kalin & Rayko 1980; Kalin, Rayko & Love 1980). American listeners rated foreign accented speakers (Italian, Eastern European and Norwegian) lower than American English accented speakers on all dimensions of socio-intellectual status, aesthetic quality and dynamism (Mulac, Hanley & Prigge 1974). In a related study, Palmer (1973) reported that as soon as the foreign speaker of English deviates from the accepted standard, phonologically or grammatically, they are negatively evaluated. Frederick Williams (1973, p. 126) supports this notion by stating that "people employ stereotyped sets of attitudes as anchor points for their evaluations of whatever is presented to them as a sample of a person's speech." Essentially people respond in an overall way rather than taking the individual characteristics into consideration.

## SUMMARY

Clearly, the review of literature on language, communication, attitude and accent reveals that upon hearing verbal communication which deviates from the standard pronunciation, a negative stereotype is elicited from the listeners attitude repertoire. The listener develops an impression of the speaker as he or she attributes various characteristics based on the elicited stereotypical attitude. The purpose of this stereotype is a "short cut to understanding others, relied upon disproven, but sometimes yielding to subsequent information ..." (Delia 1972, p. 286) such as perceived similar beliefs, attitudes, values and status.

From a counselling perspective, as outlined in Chapter One, this type of negative attitude can be detrimental to the therapeutic process. The research undertaken here investigates the attitudes of counsellors towards their accented client. It is anticipated that the results will enhance the existing research, inspire further investigation and offer some explanation as to why people react with negative attitudes towards the culturally different individual.

## CHAPTER THREE

### INSTRUMENTATION AND APPARATUS

#### ATTITUDE MEASUREMENT: The Semantic Differential

It is generally accepted that attitudes are learned and are relatively enduring predispositions to react in an evaluative manner. Most who consider attitude a "latent psychological variable" (Agheyisi & Fishman 1970) suggest its structure has three components: cognitive (beliefs about), affective (feelings about), and behavioural (actions towards the attitude object). As such, attitudes may be described as "tendencies of approach or avoidance" or as "favourable or unfavourable" reactions (Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum 1970).

Attitudes may not only have a direction of evaluation (positive or negative) but also an intensity of feeling, which originates from a neutral zone on a bipolar continuum of affect. This notion of an extension which is composed of a point of origin, with both direction and intensity, enables the researcher to quantify the affective measurement of attitudes (Osgood *et al.* 1970).

Also pertinent to scale construction are the characteristics which make up the affective nature of attitude measurement. These include the extremity of favourable and unfavourable, the intensity of the feeling of

the respondent and the degree to which the respondent feels involved (i.e., object relevance) with the attitude object (Lemon 1973; Shaw & Wright 1967). The semantic differential adequately measures the direction and intensity of attitude. With the added flexibility of selecting adjectives suitable to the particular needs of a study, this instrument becomes relevant to most study participants.

This technique for the measurement of attitude was chosen due to its extensive use and development in cross-cultural research. This research presented concepts which resulted in adjective pairs that appear to have universality of meaning across cultures (Tanaka, Oyama & Osgood 1969). Repeatedly, three dimensions of meaning emerged: evaluation (good or bad), potency (powerful or powerless) and activity (fast or slow) (Kumata & Schramm 1969; Lemon 1973; Osgood 1969). In addition, when compared to more traditional attitude scales of measurement the evaluative component appears to correlate more highly than the potency or activity dimension (Lemon 1973; Osgood *et al.* 1970). However, several researchers (Heise 1970; Lemon 1973; Osgood *et al.* 1970) caution that all of the dimensions (EPA) should be taken into consideration when analyzing the attitude towards the object. Therefore all of the semantic differential dimensions (i.e., the composite test mean score) of EPA were considered to represent the counsellors' attitudes.

There are several advantages in using the semantic differential over other standardized instruments. The bipolar adjectives are "simple and economical" and can be used with adults, children or people from other cultures (Heise 1970). In addition, the experimenter is able to construct the scale selecting adjectives which are suitable and relevant to a particular research and its population. Finally, the semantic differential may be disguised in its purpose. This is essential when measuring attitudes such as in the present study investigating counsellor attitudes towards foreign accented clients. In reviewing other attitude questionnaires, testing for prejudice and bias, this researcher found for the most part, what was available referred to attitudes towards Jews, Blacks and Russians though such direct questions as, "Would you live next door to one?" or "Would you let your daughter marry one?" This investigator considered this method of measurement not relevant to the counselling population especially in terms of their attitudes towards the foreign accented client.

### **Reliability**

Test-retest reliability studies for random error have been extensively conducted by Osgood and his researchers (1970). They have reported high coefficients ranging from .87 to .93. The semantic differential is considered to be a stable and reliable instrument even when the sample size is small (Heise 1970). Tests for internal consistency of the

subscales of evaluation, potency and activity appear to be less rigorous although Lemon (1973) suggests they are still acceptable, reporting split-half reliabilities from .70 to .76 for evaluation, .56 to .75 for potency and from .58 to .66 for activity.

### Validity

When measuring attitudes, Osgood *et al.* (1970) state that the evaluative dimension of the scale has "reasonable face validity." In addition they report that when this dimension was compared with the more traditional Thurstone and Guttman-type scales, it correlated highly as a measure of attitude, .74 - .82, respectively (Shaw & Wright 1967). Osgood *et al.* (1970) concluded that "in essence, whatever the Thurstone and Guttman scales measure, the evaluative factor measures as well" (p. 230). Lemon (1973, p. 109) concurs with this assertion stating that based upon thorough testing, the semantic differential "satisfies the criteria of a reliable and valid instrument" in measuring attitude. He adds, however, that in attempting to test the predictive and concurrent validity, the sometimes low correlations between the semantic differential and traditional scales could be due to either's relevance of the attitude object to the respondents.

Lemon cautions that even though he regards the semantic differential as a reliable and valid instrument, it is operating within the boundaries of a single evaluative

component, and should be used in conjunction with at least one other instrument in order to tap the "complex and multi-faceted" concept of attitude.

### **Attitude and the Prediction of Behaviour**

Depending upon the situation and outside influences, a person may not behave according to what they are actually feeling. It is a difficult task therefore to infer behaviour strictly from a self-report measure (Fasold 1984) even though some suggest that most peoples' reactions correspond to their attitudinal disposition (Baron & Byrne 1977). Several researchers state that attitudes should not be viewed as causes or predictors of behaviour but as "communicative acts" which imply the evaluations (Lalljee, Brown and Ginsburg 1984). Others consider that the single function of the measurement is to measure attitudes towards objects and it naturally follows that inferences regarding behaviour towards that same object will be made (Lemon 1973). Osgood and his colleagues (1970) state that attitudes contribute to understanding the meaning of the attitude object to a person and that this contribution is limited in the accurate prediction of behaviour. They describe attitude as the dominant "part of the intervening state which mediates between situations and behaviour" (Osgood *et al.* 1970, p. 233). Wiggins and Fishbein (1969) recommends prudence in suggesting a causal relationship between attitude and behaviour, cautioning that "behaviour toward a given object

is a function of many variables, of which attitude ... is only one" (p. 100).

### Scale Construction

Based on a review of the language and attitude studies using the audiotaped matched guise technique and semantic differential instrument, fifty bipolar adjective pairs were selected for this research investigating counsellor attitudes towards accented clients. When the sample size in research is too small to provide an accurate factor analysis of the data, Heise (1970) recommends choosing the adjectives from published factor analytic work stating the pairs selected would be representative of each of the EPA dimensions. This was the case in the present investigation.

Essentially the evaluative dimension reflects the persons "good-bad or pleasant-unpleasant reaction to the stimulus"; the potency dimension represents a judgement of the "strength of the stimulus" while the activity dimension indicates the "perceived dynamic qualities" of the speaker (Shuy & Williams 1973). Based on guidelines established by Osgood and his colleagues the scales were constructed with a higher loading (28 items) on the evaluative component generally because it is considered most representative of the affective characteristic of attitude (Fasold 1984; Heise 1970; Lemon 1973; Osgood *et al.* 1970; Shaw & Wright 1967). The other factors of potency (11 items) and activity (11 items) were included to obscure the intent of the

instrument and b) to complete the information regarding the counsellor's overall attitudes.

Depending on the focus of the study some factor analyses have produced adjective clusters often paralleling but sometimes different from the EPA composition. In Canada, Lambert (1967) found that bilingual (French-English) listeners rated audiotaped bilingual speakers on three distinct personality categories: competence (intelligence; self-confidence), personal integrity (reliability, kindness) and social attractiveness (sociability; sense of humor; better-looking). Using the same matched guise design and personality categories, Giles (1971), in Britain, had listeners rate speakers of regional dialects and standard pronunciation. He reported that regional accented listeners demonstrated "accent loyalty" in the social attractiveness and personal integrity categories but rated "standard pronunciation speakers as more competent. Carranza and Ryan (1975) and Brennan and Brennan (1981), in their work with Spanish-Americans in addition to EPA, refer to more culture-specific dynamics, such as status-seeking (educated-uneeducated; intelligent-ignorant; successful-unsuccessful; wealthy-poor) and solidarity-stressing (friendly-unfriendly; good-bad; kind-cruel; trustworthy-untrustworthy). Brown, Strong and Rencher (1975) described their categories of bipolar pairs in terms of speaker benevolence (kindness, tolerance) and competence (strength, confidence) which are similar to evaluation and potency. Zahn and Hopper (1985),

conducting research on language attitudes, developed the Speech Evaluation Instrument. This contained a three factor model of speaker evaluation: superiority (intellect, competence, social status, speaking competency), attractiveness (social attractiveness, solidarity, trustworthiness, benevolence) and dynamism (speaker's social power, activity level and self-presentation).

For the present research, the final 50-item scale constructed was composed of adjectives chosen from previous factor analytic studies which produced categories typical of the EPA dimensions. Most characteristics were selected from a pool of adjectives which were the product of Osgood and his colleagues' thesaurus research (Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum 1975). Other adjectives were chosen from studies cited earlier which had investigated attitudes towards culturally different or accented speakers.

The concept chosen for the counsellors in this research was the "Evaluation of the Client's Characteristics." The study participants were asked to put an X on each scale of bipolar adjectives to indicate both the direction (positive-negative) and intensity (neutral to extreme) of their feeling towards the client they had just viewed on videotape. The bipolar adjectives were placed at each end of a bipolar continuum indicating extreme opposites of a particular client characteristic. To prevent response bias or order effects the sequence and polarity of the scales was randomized throughout. For the purposes of numerical analysis, each

adjective pair was assigned the numerical value from one for positive evaluation to seven for negative evaluation (four representing the neutral point).

In constructing the semantic differential Heise (1970) ascertains "actual qualifiers" such as "very," "quite" and "slightly" affect the way in which study participants rate the attitude object. He considers these qualifiers enable the subjects to make finer discriminations in their responses than if there were no guidelines. Below is a representation of the qualifiers used for this research.

			neutral				
			or				
very	quite	only	not at	only	quite	very	
closely	closely	slightly	all	slightly	closely	closely	
related	related	related	related	related	related	related	

good ———:————:————:————:————:————:————:———— bad

See Appendix C for the complete instructions and accompanying Semantic Differential administered to the participants in both studies.

#### INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

A post hoc interview questionnaire was designed to elicit counsellors' unbiased and genuine reactions to the client. The questions reflected general attitudinal dispositions towards the culturally different individual some of which were not completely covered in the semantic differential and others which were designed to support it.

These dispositions included the counsellors' perceived similarity or dissimilarity between them and the client (affiliation), a willingness to engage in and enjoyment of future participation with the client (involvement); counsellors' awareness of cultural differences between them and the client (cultural influences on the counselling process); and the counsellors' perception of the client's motivation to help himself or herself (clinical judgement). In addition, an open-ended "other comments" questions was included.

#### DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

In order to obtain a representative sample of mainstream counsellors, study participants were not included in the analysis who were considered "culturally sensitive." The demographic data provided the criteria for the definition of the "mainstream counsellor" in the domain of familial cultural influences. Such questions asked the birthplace of both mother and father and their age on arrival in Canada, if applicable. Evidence supports the notion that if immigrating before 18 years of age, individuals generally lose their foreign accent and effectively adopt the culture of the host country, but beyond that age, the immigrants' culture remains a dominant influence over his or her life (Seliger, Krashin and Ladefoged 1975).

In addition, the counsellor's birthplace was queried. The goal of the demographic sheet was to gather enough

information about the subjects to determine whether they fit the criteria established to be considered as "pure" mainstream counsellors.

#### **APPARATUS: The Matched Guise Videotapes**

In its purest form, the matched-guise technique requires the same perfectly bilingual person to read exactly the same passage in one language, then the other. It is considered that this method of research "elicits responses which expose the listeners more private reactions" (Lambert, Frankel and Tucker 1966) and stereotyped attitudes (Tucker & Lambert 1969) towards the speaker. In essence, listeners are reacting to only the voice characteristics and speech styles of the audiotaped speaker who sounds similar or different to them.

In order for this study's participants to experience as close to a real counselling situation as possible, a videotape of a client presenting a problem was more relevant than an audiotape of the same. A real client, as the stimulus, was avoided because of experimental control problems which might have arisen regarding the individual's appearance, behaviour, fatigue and instability of presentation from one subject to the next.

Related literature suggests that the matched-guise, in its attempts to elicit reactions only to speech by controlling content, may inadvertently elicit listeners' reactions to reading style (Fasold 1984; Giles & Bourhis 1973; Lee 1971). To standardize the presentation used in

this research, it was necessary to hold the content constant. Ryan (1973) contends that reading a prepared script is essential to control for variations in syntax, vocabulary and grammar. Brown *et al.* (1975) add that "holding content constant" puts the emphasis on quantifying the listeners' reactions, which are peculiar to the vocal characteristics of the speaker. Others support this notion, especially in research which investigates reactions to accented speakers, simply because deviations from the standard grammatical speech may encourage responses to that and not to accent (Giles & Bourhis 1973). Therefore, the actor accompanied his content-relevant monologue with suitable facial expressions and appropriate phonological characteristics. In effect, he attempted to mimic spontaneous, natural speech.

Before proceeding further, accent, dialect and foreign accents need to be defined so it is clear to the reader exactly what the counsellors heard. There does not appear to be a definite global definition of accent. Often dialect and accent are used interchangeably. It is essential to clarify these two terms and later present a working definition of accent for this study. Essentially, for native speakers of English, accents are considered to be "patterns of pronunciation" which include the usage of particular vowels or consonant sounds, rhythmic, intonational and prosodic features (Wells 1982) plus certain phonological, phonetic (Giles and Bourhis 1973), syntactic and lexical characteristics of speech (Berger 1968; Wells 1982). Accents

are "deviations from the expected or familiar" (Berger 1968) standard pronunciation (Bezooijen and Hout 1985; Giles 1970). Accent has also been described by J.C. Wells (1982, p. 1) as "characteristic of an individual belonging to some geographic region or social class ... it may be typical of the speaker's sex, age group or level of education." Black English, in the United States, has been investigated in terms of how it is different from the standard pronunciation with relation to pitch, rhythm and intonation (Hansell and Ajirotutu 1982).

Dialect has been defined as prepresenting part of the speaker's "learned cultural pattern" (Brown *et al.* 1975) reflecting variations in vocabulary, syntax, phonology which are typical of certain ethnic or minority groups within the larger community (Berger and Bradac 1982; Berger 1968; Chaika 1982; Danesi 1985). Generally, dialect is a variation of the standard or revealed pronunciation occurring at "most linguistic levels" (Giles 1970; Giles and Bourhis 1973).

A foreign accent is generally considered to be the result of the situation where speakers from a different ethnolinguistic background attempt to speak the dominant language (Danesi 1985). It is the product of interference from the speaker's native language (Rey 1977) especially in terms of phonological (Ryan 1973; Chaika 1982; Kess 1976; Giles and Bourhis 1973), phonetic (Wells 1982), syntactical and lexical (Kess 1976) features of speech. In addition, foreign accented individuals' speech reflects differences,

from the standard, in prosodic characteristics such as, melody, tempo, rhythm and pause (Mulac, Hanley and Prigge 1974).

Therefore, for the purpose of this research a refined operational definition of foreign accent is taken to include both phonological (pronunciation) and Prosodic variation in speech which are typically found in non-native speakers of English. Prosodic variation includes intonation, changes in volume, stress (pitch, loudness, duration), vowel length, phrasing, pausing, acceleration and deceleration and overall shifts in speech register (Gumperz 1982).

In composing this accent and manner of presentation, several language variables were considered important as they elicit attributions which are evaluative in a social and psychological sense. Berger and Bradac (1982) outline three areas of concern. Firstly, the semantic and syntactic components of language, which include words which are familiar and not taboo; the words used which reflect the immediacy and intensity of the speaker's feelings; the level of vocabulary usage; use and the use of good or bad grammar. In order to control for these language variables, content was controlled as the actor spoke in a manner utilizing words which: were common and not colloquial in nature; expressed appropriate rather than dysfunctional disturbed words of emotion; had an average rather than advanced or impoverished vocabulary; and used correct grammar. Paralinguistic and phonological features, which Berger and Bradac suggest elicit

stereotypes or psychological categorizations, are pitch, intonation, volume, rate of speech and phonetic variation. To control for these language variables, the actor mimicked the non-accented standard speech with the only variation being an Eastern European accent. When viewed, the paralinguistic and phonological variables were relatively equal on both tapes, as was the case with the semantic and syntactic features of language.

Both the accented and non-accented videotapes in each study matched. In order to accomplish this, each of the fourteen segments of the client presenting his problem was recorded separately: the non-accented version, then the accented. Later the segments were split and edited into two separate, fourteen segment videotapes: one accented and non-accented. The videotapes were reviewed and the accents were rated as authentic while the content, speech style, speech characteristics, emotionality and non-verbal behavior were judged as essentially the same for each tape (accented and non-accented) within each study. The tapes in the first study were 26 minutes long. This included a brief two minute demonstration, given by this researcher, of what to expect and what the participants were expected to do. In addition, the actual response time of 30 seconds was edited on to the videotapes to illustrate how much time the subject had to make a counselling response. This is discussed in detail in the following chapter. The total videotape running time for the second study was 20 minutes with the same format as in

Study One. The next chapter presents the methodology and procedures designed for this investigation of counsellor attitudes towards their accented client.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### METHODOLOGY

#### INTRODUCTION

This research investigated the attitudes of dominant-culture counsellors towards a foreign-accented client. The review of literature (Chapter Two) suggested that majority individuals attribute stereotypic characteristics when they hear an accented speaker. These stereotypes can prolong a negative attitude towards the foreign accented individual.

To investigate the difference between majority counsellor attitudes towards the accented or non-accented client, this researcher designed then conducted two studies in the department of Counselling Psychology at The University of British Columbia, during March and April, 1986. The results of the first study were contrary to the literature reported, which revealed that people have negative attitudes towards the culturally different individual. This investigator, therefore, conducted a second study to confirm or deny the results of the first.

This chapter describes the research questions, the design, the pilot study, the population and the sample, the apparatus and procedures, the instrumentation, the hypotheses, and the statistical analyses for each of the two

separate investigations. In addition, the production of the 'matched-guise' videotapes of the client presenting his counselling problem is included in the Apparatus and Procedures section. For a detailed description of the rationale and development of the instruments used, the reader is referred to Chapter Three.

### RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Both studies address four research questions:

- a) Is there a difference in attitude between mainstream counsellors towards their clients who have no accent and those whose clients speak with a foreign accent?
- b) Do counsellors differ in their expression of affinity towards the accented or non-accented client?
- c) Do counsellors with accented versus non-accented clients differ in their perception of the client's motivation to help him or herself?
- d) Do the counsellors, in the accented client situation, comment on culture as possibly influencing the counselling process?

### DESIGN

The research design was an experimental, post-test only control group with matching for certain variables (discussed later). For each study, this writer investigated the research questions by comparing two groups of counselling psychology students. Separately, each member of the first group viewed a videotape of a non-accented client presenting

a counselling problem. Conversely, each subject in the second group viewed a videotape of the same client speaking with a foreign accent.

The principal question of the mainstream counsellor's attitude was measured by a Semantic Differential Attitude Scale, developed by this researcher. An Interview Questionnaire addressed the remaining three research questions.

#### **PILOT STUDY**

To test the experimental procedure and relevance of the measures employed, a pilot study was run with six subjects from an undergraduate counselling psychology course who had volunteered to participate. Based on their comments, adjustments were made to verbal and written instructions for the videotape presentation and semantic differential, respectively. Alterations were made to some questionnaire items in order to make them clearer to understand.

#### **POPULATION AND SAMPLE**

The population under investigation was that of counsellors from the dominant mainstream culture. An operational definition of the mainstream counsellor is one who is described as from the majority culture, racially, ethnically and linguistically. Basically, this characterizes someone who is Caucasian, speaks English with an accent indigenous to North America (principally Canadian), and who

had parents who spoke with speech styles typical of North America. This set of defining criteria was established to provide a link between the previous studies reviewed in the literature, which investigated the attitudes of the mainstream population at large, and the counselling population. These strict guidelines for subject inclusion were established to ensure that the samples in this research would be representative of the general population of mainstream counsellors.

For the first study, this author drew the subjects from the population of counselling psychology students who were in the first year of the Master's level program. All of these subjects met the prerequisite admission requirement of three years previous experience in counselling-related activities. All were currently enrolled in a theory and experientially-based counsellor skills training course (CNPS 578). Briefly described, this course is designed to present a theoretical base for skills acquisition. The students learn the practical application of these skills as part of their training requires that they experience being both a client and counsellor with their fellow classmates. Their sessions, which are audio and videotaped, are reviewed both privately and in the classroom situation. Therefore this group of students at this point in their training, in addition to learning counselling techniques, is familiar and relatively comfortable with being audiotaped and viewing videotapes of clients.

This researcher conducted the investigation during second term (March, 1986), in order to ensure the samples would be comparatively homogeneous regarding skills acquisition, competence, and comfort level.

For the second study, this investigator drew the subjects from a pool of counselling psychology students who had completed their second year and all coursework required in the program. They were, then, at a considerably higher and more mature level of skills acquisition, competence and comfort level. Essentially, the samples differed in three ways: method of subject selection, level of counsellor-in-training education and clinical experience. In addition the matched-guise video, of a client with an accent, was re-recorded for the second study with a stronger, more pronounced accent than the first. Due to the major differences between the two samples in each study, generalizability of the results to the counselling profession at large, may be limited. This is addressed later in the final chapter of the thesis.

#### **SAMPLE: SELECTION AND RANDOM ASSIGNMENT**

##### **STUDY ONE**

Of the 40 students enrolled in five sections of the counsellor skills training course, 30 participated. Two weeks prior to the research, the course instructors called for volunteers to participate in a study during class time

and without credit. The purpose of the study, they were told, was to norm typical counsellor responses in a training situation. The following week the instructors reminded the students of the forthcoming activity. Two weeks later this researcher entered the class and described the study, stating that participants would be viewing, alone in a closed, unmonitored room, a 26 minute video of a client presenting a counselling problem; that they would be asked to make counselling responses which they felt appropriate; and that these reactions would be audiotaped for the purpose of norming typical counsellor responses. As the class had been informed the week before, those who indicated they did not wish to participate were free to do an alternate non-credit assignment, volunteers who signed a consent form (see Appendix A) took part in the study.

The class members were randomly assigned to either an experimental or control group, then the subjects were matched across each group for sex, level of skill, previous formalized cross-cultural training, ethnicity, and accent. The class instructors, who performed the assignment and matching, were not aware of which group would view the accented tape. Of the 30 participants in the study, the class instructor switched only one subject from the initial random assignment.

### **Sample Characteristics: Study One**

The sample comprised 14 counsellors (7 male and 7 female) in the "non-accented" group and 16 counsellors (4 male and 12 female) in the "accented" group. Six subjects in the non-accented group who were either accented, a member of a visible minority, or who had one or both parents who were accented and therefore "culturally sensitive," did not fit the criteria established as "mainstream counsellor." Their data were not included in the major findings of this research. Two subjects in the accented group, who fell into the category of culturally sensitive, were also excluded from the major analysis.

As a result, 8 counsellors (3 male and 5 female), ranging from 25 to 41 years of age (mean = 32.50 years), represented the "pure" mainstream counsellors in the non-accented situation. Fourteen counsellors (4 male and 10 female), ranging from 24 to 45 years of age (mean = 33.15 years), represented the pure mainstream counsellors in the accented situation. The major analysis of the study included the data from these two groups.

### **STUDY TWO**

This researcher contacted counselling students who had completed their second year in the program, all required coursework and practicum experiences. The telephone

solicitation was random and from a published department telephone list. In addition, a notice was placed on the department bulletin board requesting participation, and instructors made similar announcements to classes in session. The telephone call, which included a brief standardized description of the research project, was the only contact the subjects had with the researcher prior to participation. Eighty-three percent (28) of those who had agreed to take part, participated. This investigator randomly assigned the counsellors to either the non-accented or accented group, then matched the subjects across the two groups for sex, ethnicity and previous exposure to a formalized cross-cultural counselling course. Information regarding counsellor skill was not accessible and therefore the subjects were not matched on this variable. Two subjects were moved from the accented to the non-accented group.

#### **Sample Characteristics: Study Two**

In the second study the sample consisted of 12 counsellors (3 male and 9 female) in the "non-accented" group and 17 counsellors (5 male and 12 female) in the "accented" group. Five from the non-accented group and seven from the accented group did not fit the definition of "pure" mainstream counsellor, outlined above in Study One, and their data were not included in the major analysis. In addition, one participant did not fill out the attitude questionnaire correctly and this researcher eliminated that counsellor from all analysis.

The final sample in the second study, therefore, comprised 6 subjects (1 male and 5 female) from 26 to 45 years of age (mean = 36.30 years) in the non-accented group, while 9 subjects (4 male and 5 female) from 29 to 49 years of age (mean = 38.00 years) made up the accented group. Table 4.1 illustrates the sample characteristics representing the "pure" mainstream counsellor population investigated in the two studies.

Table 4.1: Sample Characteristics for Both Studies

Characteristic	Study One		Study Two	
	Non-Accented	Accented	Non-Accented	Accented
M:F ratio	3:5	4:10	1:5	4:5
Mean age	32.50	33.15	36.30	38.00

## APPARATUS

### Modified Matched-Guise Videotape: Study One

This researcher hired a male professional actor to portray the client. His character was moderately depressed, in his mid-thirties, married, with teenaged children and unemployed. The actor developed the 14-segment script which was relevant to his own personal experience (see Appendix B). He was not fluently bilingual but had previously studied Eastern European languages.

The client faced the camera and his head and shoulders were visible to the counsellors. He wore a conservative shirt and casual jacket, presenting the image of an "average" Canadian.

In the first study, two videotapes were made with exactly the same dialogue, one without an accent and the other with a moderately strong Eastern European accent. To present an authentic foreign accent, the actor had listened to an audiotape of a man speaking with a strong Eastern European accent. As intended, there was no difficulty in understanding the content of the actor's subsequent recorded speech.

In keeping with the operational definition of foreign accented speech, prosodic variations (intonation, volume, stress) and phonological features (pronunciation) were exaggerated on the accented tape. General characteristics which are typical of language, such as semantics and syntax, were held constant to ensure that the only difference between the recorded speech was the accent. For example, on the non-accented videotape, the actor spoke in a clipped manner with equal stress on each syllable. He elongated some vowels only when he wished to make a point. For the accented videotape, the actor slurred his words, with less pronunciation of each syllable. He elongated vowels more often than in the non-accented guise but with inconsistent emphasis. Below is an excerpt with elongated, drawn-out vowels underlined.

Example: non-accented speech:

... things aren't so great right now. My life, my family, everything seems to be falling apart ...

accented speech:

... things aren't so great right now. My life, my family, everything seems to be falling apart ...

This investigator attempted to control for the performer's change in emotionality, non-verbal behaviour, pitch, intonation and stress, which may have altered from recording 20 minutes of accented to 20 minutes of non-accented speech. To control for this, the actor recorded each segment twice: once the non-accented, then immediately after, the accented guise. The tapes were later edited into two separate and complete client presentations: one accented, one non-accented. Each edited version was 26 minutes long which included a two-minute demonstration.

In an effort to present continuity and relevance in a simulated client-counsellor encounter, each of the fourteen statements depicting the client's problem picked-up where the previous statement had ended.

### **Modified Matched-Guise Videotape: Study Two**

The accented and non-accented client was videotaped in exactly the same manner as in the first study. The only difference was that the actor altered his accent from a moderate, intelligible Eastern European one to a stronger (stress and pronunciation), less understandable one. In

addition, the actor reduced the intensity of emotion which resulted in a faster paced delivery of the script. The running time in each of the two finished tapes, in the second study, was 20 minutes in total.

For both studies, the subjects were asked to make counselling responses at certain intervals. These intervals, edited onto the videotapes, were signalled by a low pitch beep at the beginning of thirty seconds and a slightly higher pitch beep which indicated the end of thirty seconds. To simulate the presence of the client, the actor's image (the same one for each interval) was edited to appear on the screen rather than having the participants respond to a black television monitor. An additional signal to alert the subjects to the end of 30 seconds included the client image (presenting problem) fading down to the client interval (30 second response time) and fading up to the client picking up where he had left off in the previous segment.

## **PROCEDURE**

### **Study One and Study Two**

Individually, each subject was taken by this investigator into a small counselling room in the Education Clinic at U.B.C. This room was set up with a video television playback and tape recorder. To ensure the anonymity of the participants' measurement scores, this researcher asked each counsellor to pick a random number from

a hat which was then recorded on each of the instruments. Then this writer told each person he or she would be watching a 26 minute videotape of a client presenting a problem in an initial interview and at the beginning of the video was a demonstration of what to expect. Each participant received the following set of standardized instructions:

You will be viewing a videotape of a client presenting a problem in the initial interview. There are fourteen segments which are signalled by a beep at the beginning and a beep at the end of thirty seconds. During this time, you are asked to make a counselling response. What I want you to be aware of is that I have attempted to simulate a real client presenting a problem. With this in mind I would like you to respond to the client as you would if this situation were real.

The subjects were reminded the responses would be audiotaped. This investigator presented the two minute video demonstration (the writer was the client) of two segments of a counselling problem. The demonstration illustrated the sequence of events with beeps, the client image and an example of the length of 30 seconds. After the introduction and explanation, this researcher encouraged questions regarding the procedure to follow. No one had difficulty with the demonstration or understanding what they were expected to do. This investigator started the videotape and tape recorder, instructing the subject not to stop either of the machines until finished and not to say anything about the experience after he or she left the counselling room. When finished, each person was told to report to the testing room to complete the questionnaires.

Once in the testing room, another researcher met the subjects and instructed them that there were four pen and paper forms to respond to and that it would require approximately fifteen minutes of their time. They were reminded not to talk in the room or discuss the experience with anyone. This stipulation ensured a confidential and unique experience for each participant.

As part of a concurrent study (Rungta 1987), the other researcher first administered Spielberger's State-Trait Anxiety Inventory, then the Client Evaluation Semantic Differential (Appendix C), then the Interview Questionnaire (Appendix D). A Demographic Information sheet (Appendix E) was the last form to be filled out. The other investigator gave standardized instructions for each instrument and paid careful attention to make certain all participants understood what they were to do. Upon completion of the measures, the researcher thanked each person for their participation and presented each one with a selection of gourmet cookies and sweets.

#### **INSTRUMENTATION**

This writer measured the principal question of counsellor attitude with a semantic differential scale, constructed in accordance with Osgood's guidelines (Osgood, Suci, and Tannenbaum, 1975). Essentially, this instrument taps the affective component of attitude by asking the respondents to make evaluative judgements about a "concept"

(the attitude object). They rate the attitude object by indicating the direction and intensity of their feeling on a positive-negative continuum of "concept relevant" bipolar adjectives. For the purpose of statistical analysis, this researcher constructed the 7-point bipolar adjective scale with the positive end of the continuum assigned a value of one and the negative end assigned seven. The point of origin represented a value of four. The minimum (most positive) overall score on the 50-item scale was  $50 \times 1 = 50$ , with the maximum (most negative) score being  $50 \times 7 = 350$ . The point of origin or neutral position had a value of  $50 \times 4 = 200$ . The 28-item Evaluative (E) dimension ranged from 28 (most positive) to 196 (most negative) with 112 as the (neutral) midpoint. Activity (A) and Potency (P), each consisted of 11 items and ranged from 11 (most positive) to 77 (most negative) with 44 as the (neutral) midpoint.

The remaining research questions concerning the counsellor's perception of client motivation, the counsellor's feeling of affiliation with the client and the counsellor's expressed awareness of cultural influences on the counselling process were investigated by the Interview Questionnaire.

## **HYPOTHESIS AND STATISTICAL ANALYSIS**

### **Hypothesis**

There are no statistically significant differences, in attitude towards the client, between counsellors, who viewed a videotape of a non-accented, Standard English speaking client and counsellors who viewed a videotape of an Eastern European accented client.

### **Statistical Analysis**

In each study, to test for between-group (non-accented vs. accented) differences in mainstream counsellor attitudes towards clients, this researcher conducted a t-test of the group mean semantic differential scores (50 items). In addition, this writer subjected the mean scores of each bipolar adjective pairs to a t-test to establish which descriptors were statistically significant, and thereby offer further insight into between-group differences.

This investigation also examined between group differences for each study by utilizing a t-test of the means for the total group scores on the Evaluation (E), Potency (P) and Activity (A) dimensions of the semantic differential. The objective was to investigate the strength and relevance of the Evaluation dimension as a "true" indicator of the counsellor's attitude.

Because of experimental control issues such as the method of sample selection, level of participant education

and skill, and the stronger-accented videotape in Study Two, the second study was not a true replication of the first. Therefore, the semantic differential data from the two studies were not combined for the the main analysis.

#### **VALIDITY AND RELIABILITY: THE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL**

This writer found, in a review of related literature, that the task of establishing the validity of any attitude scale is a challenging one. For the most part, predictive and construct validity have been touched upon, but not emphasized, in attitude research. This may be partially due to the experimenter's particular research objectives. However, Shaw and Wright (1967) report, in their critique of attitude measurement, that validation of the scales is predominantly in the form of content and concurrent validity.

An item analysis, to determine the internal consistency of the constructed semantic differential scale for all counsellor subjects ( $n=58$ ), produced a reliability estimate of 0.92 for the composite test. The reliability of each subscale (EPA) was estimated for these counsellors and the estimates resulted in  $E=0.88$ ,  $P=0.73$  and  $A=0.73$ . In addition, this investigator conducted an item analysis for the mainstream counsellors ( $n=37$ ) and similar estimates of reliability were found. Table 4.2 describes the analysis in greater detail.

Table 4.2: Hoyt's Reliability Estimates for the Semantic Differential

Semantic Differential Dimension	Total Sample (n=58)	Mainstream Sample (n=37)
Evaluation (28 items)	0.88	0.87
Potency (11 items)	0.73	0.73
Activity (11 items)	0.73	0.73
Composite Attitude Scale (50 items)	0.92*	0.92*
Cronbach's alpha	0.81	0.81

### Interview Questionnaire Analysis

To address the research questions regarding the counsellor's perception of client motivation, the counsellor's expressed affiliation to the client, and the counsellor's awareness of cultural influences on the counselling process, this writer examined the questionnaire data for recurrent themes or content.

Frequency counts and the assignment of positive, negative and neutral values to statements or ideas quantified this data. For example, motivation was scored yes(+) or no(-).

### SUMMARY

This chapter has described the method of investigating the general research question of mainstream counsellors' attitudes towards foreign accented clients. This researcher

conducted two studies at the University of British Columbia during March and April 1986. The total final representative sample of mainstream counsellors consisted of 37 counselling psychology students. Their participation in this research involved viewing videotapes of a client who presented a counselling problem and making counselling responses during designated appropriate pauses in the presentation. One group saw a foreign-accented client while the other group viewed a non-accented client. After viewing and making counselling responses, which were audiotaped, the participants (unknowingly) indicated their attitude towards the client by responding to a Semantic Differential Attitude Scale and an Interview Questionnaire. This author conducted several statistical analyses on both instruments and their results are reported in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### RESULTS

#### INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the statistical analyses of the data collected from the two studies. The findings pertinent to the hypothesis are reported first, followed by the analyses relevant to each of the research questions. A brief summary completes this chapter.

Primarily, the two studies investigated the differences between the attitudes of mainstream counsellors towards clients who spoke accented or non-accented English. The general consensus is that attitudes are composed of affective (evaluation), cognitive (knowledge), and behavioural (overt action) components (Ageheysi and Fishman 1970). In attitudinal studies, the affective component is most often measured with the feeling towards the attitude object representing an evaluative judgement (positive-negative). The instrument designed to measure the evaluative judgement in this research was a semantic differential composed of 50 bipolar adjectives. These bipolar adjectives related to the clients' personality characteristics. The response to the "polar terms" indicated the direction of the attitude (positive or negative) while the intensity of the

respondents' attitudes was measured by the distance from the point of origin (neutral zone). The degree of intensity was qualified by the descriptors: "only," "quite" and "very closely related." The equal loading of the scales was 1 (positive attitude) to 7 (negative attitude) with 4 representing the "neutral" or "not at all related" point of origin. The Evaluative dimension (E), said to best measure the affective component of attitude, consisted of 28 adjective pairs, while Potency (P) and Activity (A), which were included to enhance the overall picture of attitude, comprised 11 pairs each.

As the second study was not a true replication of the first, the results of the analyses are reported separately. All subjects reported in the analyses represent the 'pure' mainstream counsellor population unless otherwise specified. For clearer presentation of data, the groups are symbolically represented as follows:

STUDY 1	GROUP I	(NA <sub>1</sub> )	= non-accented client
	GROUP II	(A <sub>1</sub> )	= mildly accented client
STUDY 2	GROUP III	(NA <sub>2</sub> )	= non-accented client
	GROUP IV	(A <sub>2</sub> )	= stronger accented client

## HYPOTHESIS

There are no statistically significant differences, in attitude towards the client, between counsellors who viewed a videotape of a non-accented, standard English speaking client and counsellors who viewed a videotape of an accented Eastern European speaking client.

This researcher tested the hypothesis by measuring the counsellors' attitude towards their client with a Semantic Differential Attitude Scale and an Interview Questionnaire.

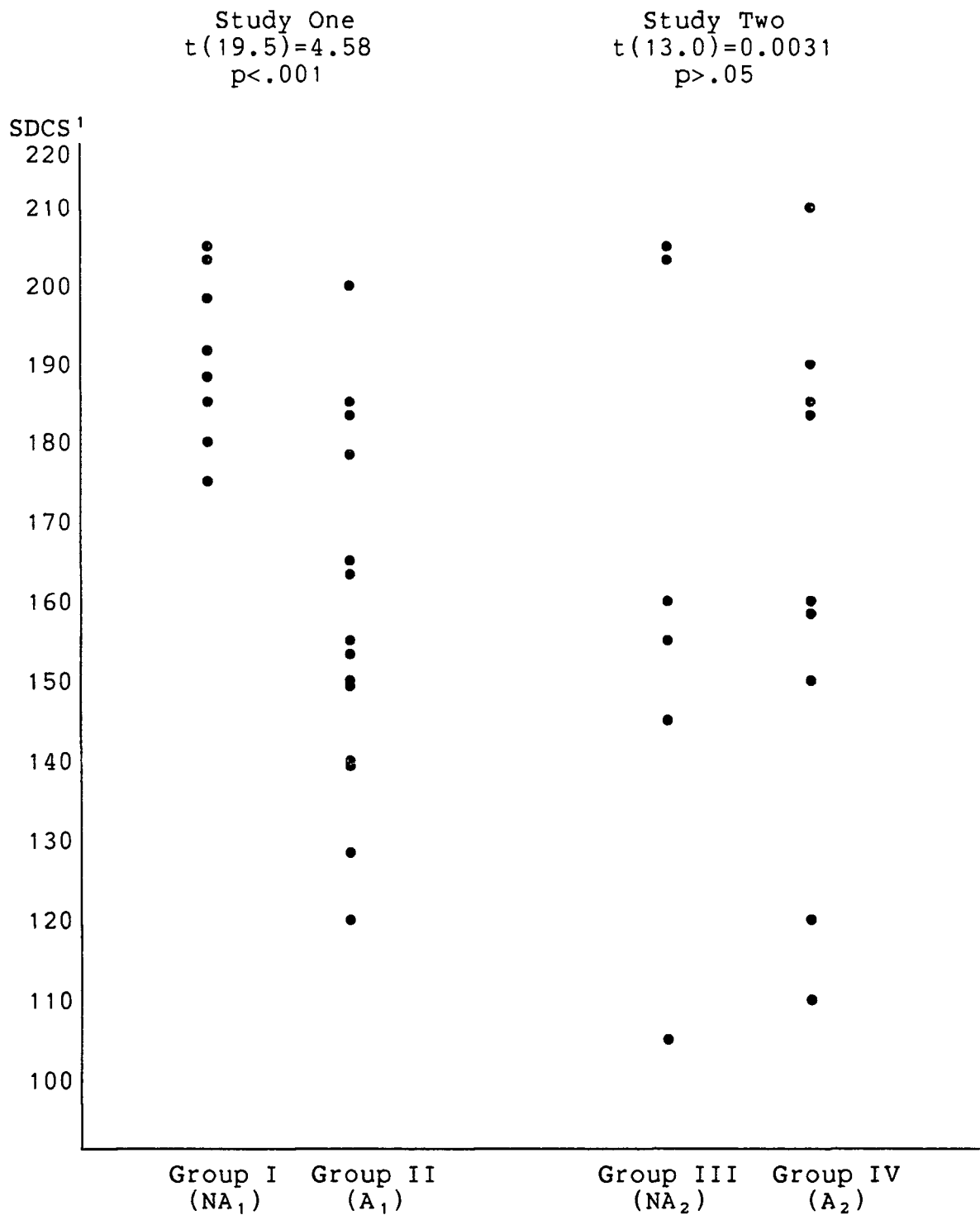
### **General Attitude Towards Client**

#### Study One

Group I ( $NA_1$ ) who viewed the non-accented client, ( $n=8$ ) had a Semantic Differential Attitude mean score of 190.75. The scores ranged from 175 to 205 with a standard deviation of 10.63. Group II ( $A_1$ ), who viewed the moderately accented client ( $n=14$ ) had a mean attitude score of 158.07 while the scores ranged from 121 to 200 with a standard deviation of 22.70. The difference between the mean scores for the two groups was 32.68, or about 1.7 times the standard deviation. This difference was statistically significant at the 99 percent confidence level ( $t(19.5)=4.58$ ,  $p \leq .001$ ).

#### Study Two

Group III ( $NA_2$ ) who viewed the non-accented client ( $n=6$ ) had a mean attitude score of 163.17. The scores ranged from 107 to 205 with a standard deviation for the group, of 37.19. Group IV ( $A_2$ ), who viewed the stronger accented client, had a mean of 163.11 while the scores ranged from 110 to 209 with a standard deviation of 32.34. The differences between the mean attitude scores for these two groups of counsellors was 0.06, or approximately 0.002 times the pooled standard deviation. This difference was not statistically significant ( $p=.998$ ). Figure 5.1 graphs this information for both studies while Table 5.1 presents the statistical results.



<sup>1</sup>Semantic Differential Composite Score

Figure 5.1: Total Individual Attitude Scores for Mainstream Counsellors

Table 5.1: Mean Attitude Scores for Pure Mainstream Counsellors from the 50-Item Semantic Differential

	Study One <sup>1</sup>		Study Two <sup>2</sup>	
	Nonaccented (n=8)	Accented (n=14)	Nonaccented (n=6)	Accented (n=9)
Min/Max Score	175-205	121-200	107-205	110-209
Mean	190.75	158.07	163.17	163.11
Std Dev	10.63	22.70	37.19	32.34

<sup>1</sup>t(19.5)=4.580, p<.001

<sup>2</sup>t(13.0)=0.003, p>.05

Table 5.2: Mean Attitude Scores for the Culturally Sensitive Counsellor from the 50-Item Semantic Differential

	Study One <sup>1</sup>		Study Two <sup>2</sup>	
	Nonaccented (n=6)	Accented (n=2)	Nonaccented (n=5)	Accented (n=8)
Mean	187.17	139.50	175.40	177.38
Std Dev	11.55	30.41	25.96	35.48

<sup>1</sup>t(6.0)=3.58, p≤.05

<sup>2</sup>t(11.0)=-0.11, p>.05

Of supplemental interest, at this point, are the results of the statistical analyses done on the "culturally sensitive" counsellors who were not included in the major analyses. This researcher conducted t-tests of the mean scores on the semantic differential to test for differences in the attitude between the two groups, in each study. The results were slightly more extreme, but paralleled those of the mainstream counsellors, in both studies. These results did not change the findings of the central analyses and Table 5.2 summarizes this information. Caution must be used when interpreting the "culturally sensitive" results due to the small sample sizes as the differences may be due to chance.

#### **SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL: Client Characteristics**

To test for the statistical significance of differences between groups, in the adjective pairs, this investigator performed a t-test of the mean scores of each scale item for each study. Alpha was set at .05 and only those adjective pairs which produced this significance are reported here. They are presented according to the semantic differential dimensions of Evaluation (E), Activity (A), and Potency (P). Table 5.3 presents the complete list of bipolar adjectives constructed for use in this investigation of counsellor attitude towards their client. This table also presents the results of the t-test for significant differences in the adjective pairs between the groups.

Table 5.3: Summary of t-tests for Differences in the Attitude Scale Items (Mainstream) for Client Characteristics

Trait	Study One		t	Study Two		t
	Mean			Mean		
	Group I NA <sup>1</sup> (n=8)	Group II A <sub>1</sub> (n=14)		Group III NA <sup>2</sup> (n=6)	Group IV A <sub>2</sub> (n=9)	
<b>EVALUATIVE DIMENSION</b>						
trustworthy-unfaithful	2.75	2.00	2.75	1.50	1.50	0.42
optimistic-pessimistic	6.00	4.57	2.49*	6.00	4.33	0.10
competent-incompetent	3.88	2.71	2.15*	3.33	2.78	0.63
intelligent-unintelligent	3.13	2.57	1.47	2.17	2.44	-0.72
kind-cruel	2.38	1.86	1.32	2.00	1.56	0.75
altruistic-egotistic	3.85	3.50	0.71	3.50	4.22	-0.68
graceful-awkward	4.88	4.29	1.09	4.83	4.44	0.51
sensitive-insensitive	1.88	1.86	0.08	1.83	1.89	-0.12
friendly-unfriendly	2.75	2.36	1.03	2.17	2.22	-0.13
happy-sad	6.75	6.07	2.17*	6.83	6.00	1.77
sociable-unsociable	3.38	2.93	1.17	3.17	2.67	0.99
honest-dishonest	2.88	1.86	2.38*	1.50	1.89	-0.83
successful-unsuccessful	5.25	4.00	2.60*	4.00	3.89	0.11
sincere-insincere	2.50	1.36	2.58*	1.83	1.33	1.15
grateful-ungrateful	3.25	3.43	-0.34	3.17	2.44	1.49
capable-incapable	3.50	2.36	2.51*	2.17	1.89	0.79
clean-dirty	2.38	1.64	1.47	1.83	2.00	-0.26
unselfish-selfish	3.50	2.43	1.99	3.17	1.89	1.61
polite-rude	2.25	1.86	0.76	1.83	2.11	-0.49
refined-vulgar	3.25	2.71	1.20	2.17	3.11	-2.07
interesting-boring	3.00	2.71	0.49	2.83	2.89	-0.07
educated-uneducated	3.00	3.35	-0.78	2.83	4.22	-1.43
cooperative-uncooperative	2.25	2.71	-1.05	1.83	2.22	-0.76
knowledgeable-ignorant	3.50	2.57	3.56*	3.00	3.11	-0.14
careful-sloppy	3.63	2.57	2.72**	2.33	2.56	-0.31
pleasing-displeasing	3.00	2.71	0.63	2.67	3.00	-0.58
comfortable-uncomfortable	5.38	4.71	1.07	5.16	5.11	0.06
skilled-unskilled	3.38	3.14	0.40	2.33	4.00	-2.47*
optimistic-pessimistic	6.00	4.57	2.49*	6.00	4.33	0.10

\*p<.05

\*\*p<.01

Table 5.3 continued

Trait	Study One		t	Study Two		t
	Mean			Mean		
	Group I NA <sup>1</sup> (n=8)	Group II A <sub>1</sub> (n=14)		Group III NA <sup>2</sup> (n=6)	Group IV A <sub>2</sub> (n=9)	
<b>ACTIVITY DIMENSION</b>						
expressive-unexpressive	1.86	1.50	1.50	1.67	1.33	1.25
energetic-lethargic	4.50	3.93	0.95	4.00	3.78	0.22
involved-withdrawn	3.25	2.93	0.54	3.67	3.11	0.52
controlled-emotional	6.00	5.64	0.88	5.00	5.56	-0.61
industrious-lazy	3.25	1.93	4.19***	2.00	2.33	-0.57
active-passive	4.88	2.71	3.98***	3.67	3.56	0.11
adaptive-rigid	4.25	3.29	1.46	3.50	4.00	-0.52
motivated-unmotivated	3.13	2.57	0.95	2.17	3.11	-1.24
calm-excitable	4.63	5.00	-0.65	4.17	5.89	-2.65*
quick-slow	4.50	4.07	1.20	3.50	4.00	-0.77
peaceful-hostile	4.00	3.99	0.10	3.50	4.00	-0.82
<b>POTENCY DIMENSION</b>						
leader-follower	5.25	3.86	2.05*	4.50	3.89	0.55
strong-weak	3.63	2.79	1.98	3.67	3.22	0.43
dominant-submissive	4.75	3.64	2.25*	4.17	3.56	0.69
masculine-feminine	4.13	2.64	3.34**	2.83	2.33	0.89
tough-fragile	4.50	3.43	1.34	5.17	4.22	0.89
deep-shallow	2.88	2.21	1.99	3.00	2.67	0.49
humorous-serious	5.25	4.71	0.76	4.83	4.67	0.19
precise-vague	4.38	3.14	2.37*	3.50	3.33	0.19
aggressive-defensive	4.63	4.14	1.32	4.50	4.00	0.82
confident-unsure	5.88	5.50	0.88	5.33	5.56	-0.26
self-unalike-self-alike	3.75	3.64	0.20	2.83	3.44	-0.75

\*p&lt;.05

\*\*p&lt;.01

\*\*\*p&lt;.001

### Study One

These bipolar adjectives were significant at  $p \leq 0.05$ . The more conservative pairs ( $p \leq .01$ ) are designated with an asterisk.

E	A	P
*optimistic-pessimistic	*industrious-lazy	leader-follower
competent-incompetent	*active-passive	dominant-submissive
happy-sad		*masculine-feminine
honest-dishonest		precise-vague
successful-unsuccessful		
sincere-insincere		
capable-incapable		
knowledgeable-ignorant		
careful-sloppy		

When compared to Group I ( $NA_1$ ), Group II ( $A_1$ ) responded with more overall positive intensity on all but four of the scale items. The differences between  $NA_1$  and  $A_1$  on these scale items were not statistically significant and may have been due to chance.

### Study Two

Two bipolar adjective pairs produced  $p \leq .05$  significance: skilled-unskilled (E) and calm-excitable (A). The Group IV ( $A_2$ ) item scores, in both cases, had less positive intensity than those of Group III ( $NA_2$ ). Although these were statistically significant, the results may again be due to chance.

Group IV ( $A_2$ ) scored in the positive direction of attitude towards the client but responded with less positive intensity on 24 items (48%) than Group III ( $NA_2$ ). Even though only two were statistically significant ( $p \leq .05$ ), the

considerably higher number of traits rated with less positive intensity cannot be assumed to be due to chance as in Study One. Table 5.4 presents the means and standard deviations for each dimension (EAP) with the t-test for between-group differences also reported.

#### **EVIDENCE CONCERNING THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS: Interview Questionnaire**

The questionnaire constructed for the purpose of providing insight into the research questions proved inadequate and difficult to score. The variety of responses and small sample sizes in each group produced a complex set of data. On the surface, however, there appears to be a major difference in the clinical approach toward the accented client between the two studies. The beginning and less experienced counsellors tended to respond on a personal, internally focused level while the more experienced counsellors in the second study reacted in a more distant and removed manner. These findings are discussed further in Chapter VI.

The following data from the Interview Questionnaire are presented as they relate to each research question. Essentially, there was no difference between the groups in their responses to whether they enjoyed working with the client. This was true in both studies. Only one subject (NA<sub>1</sub>) reported he (or she) would refer the client to another counsellor.

Table 5.4: Mean Ratings for the Dimensions: Evaluation, Potency and Activity for Mainstream Counsellors

	Study One		Study Two	
	Nonaccented	Accented	Nonaccented	Accented
<b>EVALUATION</b> (28 items)				
Mean of Item	3.48	2.89	2.93	2.91
Mean	97.50	80.86	82.00	81.55
Std Dev	9.29	12.72	22.39	14.50
T-test	t(20.0)=3.23, p≤.01		t(13.0)=0.047, p>.05	
<b>POTENCY</b> (11 items)				
Mean of Item	4.45	3.61	4.03	3.72
Mean	49.00	39.71	44.33	40.89
Std Dev	5.90	6.45	10.17	8.48
T-test	t(20.0)=3.34, p≤.01		t(13.0)=0.71, p>.05	
<b>ACTIVITY</b> (11 items)				
Mean of Item	4.02	3.41	3.35	3.70
Mean	44.25	37.50	36.83	40.67
Std Dev	4.64	5.96	5.78	11.96
T-test	t(20.0)=2.78, p≤.01		t(13.0)=-0.72, p>.05	

In response to the question asking for "additional comments," 12 of the 22 subjects (55%) in Study One remarked on the artificiality of the experimental situation and 12 of the 15 subjects (80%) in Study Two mentioned it. Table 5.5 indicates the percentage of counsellors in both studies (accented situation) who commented on culture. In addition, it also presents the percentage of counsellors who attended to artificiality. It appears that the difference between the number of counsellors who attended to the artificial condition in the accented and nonaccented situations, in both studies is significant. However, when statistically tested it was not significant at  $p \leq .05$  ( $\chi^2(1df) = 1.35$ ).

Table 5.5: Percentage of Subjects Who Attended to the Experimental Condition and Client Ethnicity

Nature of Comment	Study One		Study Two	
	Nonaccented	Accented	Nonaccented	Accented
Artificiality	62	42	83	67
Culture	n/a	43	n/a	78

Of the participants in Study One who viewed the accented video, 43% of Group II ( $A_1$ ) mentioned culture as an important variable to consider in the counselling process, while 78% of Group IV ( $A_2$ ) described its relevance. Again when tested no

statistical significance was found at  $p \leq .05$  ( $\chi^2(1df) = 2.70$ ). It is interesting to note, however, that Rungta (1987) reported that when those mainstream and culturally sensitive counsellors who mentioned culture were included in the analysis significance reached  $p \leq .02$ . It is possible the non-significant results found in this analysis, were due to the relatively small "pure" mainstream sample sizes in each group.

### **Difference in Attitudes**

In response to the question asking counsellors to describe outstanding client characteristics, the general categories which emerged were: personal integrity, attractiveness, emotionality, sense of power, cooperativeness, and family influences. These were rated positively or negatively, then tallied for each group. Some respondents made combined positive, negative and neutral statements. Although this increased the complexity of the analyses and the subsequent interpretation, all combinations were tallied because they represented the counsellors' attitude. In Study One, Group I ( $NA_1$ ) subjects responded with 9 positive, 2 neutral (family influences) and 11 negative statements while Group II ( $A_1$ ) responded with 11 positive, no neutral and 9 negative descriptions. In Study Two Group III ( $NA_2$ ) scored 3 positive, no neutral and 13 negative while Group IV ( $A_2$ ) made 6 positive, 4 neutral and 10 negative statements. The categories were difficult to

quantify as they were not closely aligned with the EPA dimensions on the Semantic Differential. Table 5.6 (Study One) and Table 5.7 (Study Two) summarize this data.

The original intention of this research was to compare the statistically significant Semantic Differential adjective pairs with the client characteristics described in the questionnaire. Judging from the variety of responses generated by the "client characteristic" question it was apparent the bipolar adjectives were well disguised in their purpose. They had either no influence on the respondents' reaction to the questionnaire item or conversely were not adequately complex as descriptors for this counselling population. As a result, a statistical comparison between the constructed Semantic Differential Attitude Scale and this item on the Interview Questionnaire was not possible.

Table 5.6: Study One: Traits Used to Describe Client Characteristics

Positive Traits	Example	Frequency	
		Group I (NA <sub>1</sub> )	Group II (A <sub>1</sub> )
Personal Integrity	Honesty; sincerity; warmth; pride	4	8
Attractiveness	Powerful eye contact; facial expressions; engrossed by his speech; neat appearance	5	3
<b>Neutral Traits</b>			
Family Influences	Family closer	2	nil
<b>Negative Traits</b>			
Emotionality	Severely depressed; intense emotion & despair; crying; distress; suicidal	9	2
Sense of Power	Lack of control; unable to recognize own resources; lack of self-confidence; need for external approval	2	3
Cooperativeness	Hostility; stubborn; annoyance	nil	4

Table 5.7: Study Two: Traits Used to Describe Client Characteristics

Positive Traits	Example	Frequency	
		Group III (NA <sub>2</sub> )	Group IV (A <sub>2</sub> )
Personal Integrity	Honesty; Pride; strong sense of personal responsibility	1	4
Optimism (general)	Faith; ability to see positive side; Sense of humour	2	1
<b>Neutral Traits</b>			
Optimism re Family Influence	Powerful connection with family; love for family	nil	4
<b>Negative Traits</b>			
Attractiveness	Overweight; blobby	2	nil
Emotionality	Sadness; despondency	3	nil
Sense of Power	Self blaming; out of control; hopelessness; self blaming; failure; hopelessness; victim; poor me	8	8
Cooperativeness	Difficult to ask for outside help; rigid	nil	2

### Counsellor's Affinity Towards the Client

In Study One, generally most counsellors identified with the client in having experienced unemployment, depression, loss of control, and frustration. However, Group II ( $A_1$ ) described their identification on a more personal level. In Study Two, those in Group IV ( $A_2$ ) identified more with the client's depression and loss of control than with unemployment while the responses of Group III ( $NA_2$ ) were all different. See Tables 5.8 (Study One) and 5.9 (Study Two) for a summary of this information.

Table 5.8: Study One: Counsellor's Affinity Towards the Client

Category of Identification	Nonaccented <sup>1</sup>		Accented <sup>2</sup>	
	External(E)/ Internal(I) Influences (+/- rating)	Frequency	External/ Internal (+/-)	Frequency
Positive family support	E+	2	E+	2
Unemployment	E-	2	E-	5
Depression, loss of control	I-	5	I-	5
Anger, frustration	nil	nil	I-	5
Optimism	nil	nil	I+	1

<sup>1</sup>Group I ( $NA_1$ ): one subject reported no identification with client

<sup>2</sup>Group II ( $A_1$ ): no subjects reported any cultural, ethnic or belief similarity with client

Table 5.9: Study Two: Counsellor's Affinity Towards the Client

Category of Identification	Nonaccented <sup>1</sup>		Accented <sup>2</sup>	
	External(E)/ Internal(I) Influences (+/- rating)	Frequency	External/ Internal (+/-)	Frequency
Family pressures	E-	1	E-	1
Unemployment	E-	2	E-	3
Depression, loss of control	I-	1	I-	7
Anger, frustration	I-	1	nil	nil

<sup>1</sup>Group III (NA<sub>2</sub>): two subjects reported no identification with client

<sup>2</sup>Group IV (A<sub>2</sub>) : one subject reported no identification with client

### Client Motivation

In both studies all of the counsellors felt that the client was motivated to help himself and Table 5.10 presents this information. Those who made a conditional response in Study One (NA<sub>1</sub>=1, A<sub>1</sub>=3) focused on treatment strategies which would aid the client to regain his sense of self-worth (internal influences). In Study Two the conditional responses again emphasized treatment strategies but of immediate concern were concrete practical solutions such as job-finding skills.

Table 5.10: Counsellor Perception of Client Motivation

Study One				Study Two			
Nonaccented		Accented		Nonaccented		Accented	
Yes	Yes+Cond <sub>1</sub>	Yes	Yes+Cond	Yes	Yes+Cond	Yes	Yes+Cond
6	1	11	3	4	2	7	2

<sup>1</sup>Yes + Condition:

Group I (NA<sub>1</sub>) : theme: overcome feeling of hopelessness  
 Group II (A<sub>1</sub>) : needs to work through grief and resentment,  
                   regain control, get emotions out  
 Group III (NA<sub>2</sub>): needs concrete plans; practical  
                   solutions  
 Group IV (A<sub>2</sub>) : needs skills development; group experience  
                   re finding job

## SUMMARY

In the first study, this researcher found a significant difference in attitude between the mainstream counsellors who were in the non-accented client situation and those who were presented with the accented client. Group II (A<sub>1</sub>) counsellors who viewed the mildly accented client rated him with more positive intensity on the Semantic Differential Attitude Scale than those in Group I (NA<sub>1</sub>) who viewed the non-accented client ( $p < .001$ ). Overall, their combined responses reflected a positive attitude towards the client. The counsellors exposed to the accented client situation rated all but 4% of the client characteristics with more positive intensity of attitude.

In the second study, this researcher found no significant difference in attitude between the two groups

( $NA_2$  and  $A_2$ ) of mainstream counsellors ( $p \geq .05$ ). Again, all respondents evaluated the client (non-accented and stronger accent) with a favourable attitude. However, the counsellors exposed to the accented client ( $A_2$  group) rated the client characteristics with less positive intensity than did Group III ( $NA_2$ ), on 48% of the scale items.

In reaction to the questionnaire, the counsellors in Study One generally responded in a personalized manner while those in Study Two described the client with less personal involvement on their part. All but one subject in both studies wanted to continue to work with the client and all of the counsellors felt the client was motivated to help himself.

The main difference in responses to the Interview Questionnaire was not significant between the two groups (nonaccented versus accented) but more between the two studies: beginner counsellors with a mild accented client compared to more experienced counsellors with a stronger accented client. The difference appeared to be highlighted by an emphasis on internal (novice counsellors) versus external (mature counsellors) influences. The findings from the statistical treatment of the data are interpreted in the next chapter.

## CHAPTER SIX

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a summary of the rationale for conducting this research investigating counsellors' attitudes towards accented clients. In addition, the methodology and its limitations for both studies are discussed. In separate sections the results of each study are interpreted in relation to the hypothesis and research questions. Recommendations for future research in the field of counselling conclude this chapter.

### SUMMARY OF THE PROBLEM

The literature review in Chapters 1 and 2 reveals that the fundamental attitudes of mainstream Canadians towards their ethnic counterparts is influenced by their differences in culture and language. Although the exact number in Canada has not been reported, it is assumed that the majority of counsellors belong to the dominant culture group. Sue (1981) states that over 50% of minority clients become discouraged and discontinue counselling after one session with a mainstream counsellor. The question of cultural and language differences, therefore, becomes increasingly important.

Vontress (1969) states that the counsellors' cultural biases and stereotypes negatively influence the counselling

process particularly by blocking empathy. Most researchers call for counsellors to address cultural and language differences to prevent the same misunderstanding in therapy the ethnically different client already experiences in the dominant culture's society (Alexander, Workneh and Miller 1976).

Language is the key variable in the counselling relationship. Its importance is emphasized in the cross-cultural counselling situation. This research attempted to go beyond the obvious visible racial differences between the counsellor and his or her client and sought to investigate the attitudes of mainstream counsellors towards their foreign accented client.

## **METHODOLOGY AND LIMITATIONS**

### Design

To investigate the attitudes of counsellors towards their foreign accented clients, a post-test only control group design was chosen. This design was chosen for practical reasons. Simply, the representative sample of counselling psychology students was not available for a pre and post-test situation.

Two separate studies were conducted. For both studies, half of the counsellors viewed a videotape of a non-accented client presenting a 14-segment counselling problem. The other half of the counsellors viewed the same client delivering the same script, but speaking with a Middle

European accent, which was stronger in the second study. The counsellors were asked to make counselling responses at designated pauses. They had been told the purpose of the research was to norm typical counsellor responses. After viewing and responding to the videotape of the client, each counsellor judged the client's personality characteristics on a 50-item Semantic Differential Attitude Scale constructed for this research. In addition, they responded to an Interview Questionnaire which was directed at variables which might influence their attitude towards the accented client.

#### Sample Characteristics

Two major differences between the characteristics of the participants and the accent of the client, in each study, were considered limitations of this research in terms of data analysis. The first limitation concerns the method of selection, level of education and experience. Because the participants in the first study volunteered, took part during class time and were novice counsellors, their data could not be compared to the more experienced counsellors in the second study who were contacted by phone and participated on their own time. The other limitation is that the subjects in the second study were exposed to a client with a stronger, less intelligible accent.

Another sample characteristic which influenced the data analysis involves the samples' homogeneity. In both studies, to provide a representative sample of "pure" mainstream

counsellors, a number of subjects were eliminated because of their 'cultural sensitivity.' In the first study 26% of the subjects were considered culturally sensitive and therefore not included in the major analysis and 41% were excluded from the second study for the same reason. Because such a large ratio in both groups were culturally sensitive one cannot help but wonder if, in Canada at least, the predominance of the white mainstream counsellor is diminishing. In fact, further research might do well to include all subjects (with cultural variables known) in the major analysis reporting their differences, if any, as ancilliary findings. As the sample sizes were considerably reduced in this investigation, any findings regarding the culturally sensitive group were not interpreted in this chapter. The reader is referred to Table 5.2 and page 82 for a summary of the analysis for this group.

## **INSTRUMENTATION**

The semantic differential (SD) developed by this author to measure counsellors' attitudes towards their foreign-accented client proved to be a reliable and valid instrument. The selection of bipolar adjectives was based on language attitude studies which had used the matched-guise audiotape and the semantic differential. In addition, a number of adjective pairs were selected from a pool of adjectives based on Osgood's (1975) "landmark" Thesaurus Study.

The t-test of between-group differences for scores on each of the adjective pairs produced some significant differences. However, when the semantic differential adjectives were compared to the descriptive adjectives found in the Interview Questionnaire, there was little similarity in categories. These differences are alluded to with the possibility in mind that the semantic differential bipolar adjectives may not have been clinically oriented enough for this counselling population. The restriction of the generalizability of these findings emerges when this instrument is used because, although it has a standardized construction technique, the bipolar adjectives may be inconsistent from one study to the next.

The Interview Questionnaire and Demographic Information sheet were adequate in their purpose. However, in designing the instruments there was a concern regarding being "too direct" and "giving it all away." In retrospect, this investigator feels that perhaps future research might do well to curtail ambiguity and get more to the point.

## CONCLUSIONS

For each study the explanation of the findings is discussed in terms of the mainstream counsellor's general attitude towards the accented client. The research questions are interpreted as variables which might influence the counsellor's attitude.

### Major Hypothesis: restated

There are no statistically significant differences in attitudes towards the client, between counsellors who viewed a videotape of non-accented, Standard English speaking client, and counsellors who viewed a videotape of an Eastern-European accented client.

### STUDY ONE (NA<sub>1</sub> vs A<sub>1</sub>: Novice Counsellors)

#### General Attitude Towards the Client

In the first study there was a significant difference in attitude towards the client between those mainstream counsellors who viewed the non-accented (NA<sub>1</sub>) client videotape and those who viewed the foreign-accented (A<sub>1</sub>) client. The A<sub>1</sub> group rated the client with more positive intensity on the Semantic Differential Attitude Scale (SD) than the NA<sub>1</sub> group. The null hypothesis was rejected at the  $p \leq .001$  level of significance.

The counsellors' overall attitude towards the client, accented or not, was in the positive direction on the bipolar continuum of attitude. The significant difference in this study then, was the level of positive intensity with the A<sub>1</sub> group rating all but 4% of the client characteristics more positively than the NA<sub>1</sub> group.

The literature review revealed that people hold stereotypes, biases or prejudices about individuals who are ethnically different to themselves. These stereotypes function to assist in understanding and interpreting behaviour and they form the foundation for attitudes towards minorities. These attitudes become stable and relatively enduring and mediate or are a part of behaviour. Language is essential in the counselling process. It is also a clue to a client's cultural affiliation which in turn is a signal to the counsellor to elicit a stereotypical attitude.

In this first study, to explain the significantly greater positive attitude towards the accented client, measured by the semantic differential, several possibilities exist.

1. It is possible that this novice group of counsellors were aware of their biased attitudes towards minority clients and over-compensated by rating this accented client in an extremely favourable way.
2. Taken one step further, these counsellors, aware of biases towards minority groups that have visible differences, may have had to adjust their pre-established negative attitudes or form new ones to understand and explain the behaviour of someone, who looked the same as, but spoke differently from themselves.
3. A third interpretation of the more positive attitude of the counsellors in Study One may be that as they view themselves in a helping role they may attempt to keep

negative attitudes in abeyance in order to be effective counsellors.

4. A fourth possibility may involve the notion of the "Great White Father" syndrome (Vontress 1969). The novice counsellors may have felt they were from the privileged group of the dominant culture and may have wanted to stress their totally "unconditional positive regard" for this client.
5. A fifth explanation of the findings may suggest these counsellors felt the social pressure to respond in a desirable way, thus rating the client more favourably.
6. It may also be simply a function of the perception of differences in that the novice counsellors paid more attention to the dialogue.

#### **Research Questions: Study One**

The Interview Questionnaire was designed to provide answers to the research questions. The first question parallels the major hypothesis of no differences regarding the mainstream counsellors' attitude towards their client. The remaining research questions provide insight into the variables which may or may not influence the counsellor's attitude towards the client. Interpretation of the questionnaire findings in Study One is discussed in terms of differences between mainstream counsellors in the accented versus the non-accented situation.

### A) Difference in Attitude

Is there a difference in the attitude between mainstream counsellors towards their clients who have no accent and those counsellors whose clients speak with a foreign accent?

The novice counsellors' response to the questionnaire item asking them to describe outstanding client characteristics produced several categories: personal integrity, attractiveness, emotionality, sense of power, cooperativeness and family influences. Compared to the Semantic Differential scores, it was surprising to find that for both counsellor groups in the first study, positive, negative and neutral statements were distributed fairly equally. Differences in the number of favourable versus unfavourable responses made between the two counsellor groups in Study One showed up in the following categories: 'personal integrity' (NA<sub>1</sub>=4 vs A<sub>1</sub>=8); emotionality (NA<sub>1</sub>=9 vs A<sub>1</sub>=2) and sense of power and cooperativeness (NA<sub>1</sub>=2 vs A<sub>1</sub>=7).

A major theme which emerged from the questionnaire explaining these results appears to be that the novice counsellors, exposed to the accented situation appear to have attended to the client on a more internally focused level. They emphasized his strength of character while downplaying his obvious distress. It appears as though they viewed the client as a victim of "the system."

### B) Counsellor's Affinity Towards the Client

Do counsellors differ in their expression of affinity towards the accented or non-accented client?

Generally, most of the respondents in the first study identified with having experienced unemployment, depression, loss of control and frustration. However, those counsellors in the accented situation identified with the client on a more personal, internally focused level.

Several reasons appear to exist:

1. A possible explanation for this reaction by the novice counsellors in the accented situation may be due to a feeling of emotional closeness. Although they did not attend to the client's emotionality as much as the nonaccented group (evidenced in the first research question) their answers were more personal.
2. A second explanation challenges the notion that similarity of beliefs and values explains positive attitudes. It is suggested that something more basic is influencing attitude and that is, that similarity of experience (unemployment and depression) cuts through any cultural differences which may be evident.
3. In addition, once the similarity of experience was acknowledged by these Study One counsellors, the "unknown client" became familiar. This familiarity may have reduced the counsellor's feelings of uncertainty about the client's behaviour thereby generating a more

favourable attitude and possibly paying less attention to the difference in accent.

4. A final comment is offered to explain the novice counsellors' focus on the emotional state of the client. This may have been a product of their level of formalized training where they have been exposed to a counselling model of helping which emphasizes emotional expression.

#### C) Client Motivation

Do counsellors with accented versus non-accented clients differ in the perception of the client's motivation to help him or herself?

In Study One, there were no differences between the two groups, in that all subjects felt the client was motivated to help himself. The three counsellors in Group II (A<sub>1</sub>) who made a conditional response focused on the accented client regaining his sense of self-worth (internal influences). This may be explained as follows:

These novice counsellors may feel they have something at stake (success or failure of the counselling process) and want to ensure they perceive the client as motivated which, in turn, allows them to view the client more positively.

#### D) The Client's Ethnicity

Do counsellors in the accented client situation comment on culture as possibly influencing the counselling process?

Forty-three percent of the counsellors in the accented situation in the first study identified culture as a variable

which might influence the counselling process. When compared to comments regarding the artificiality of the study (i.e., videotaped client) it was found that 42% in Group II (A<sub>1</sub>) mentioned it (only 20% of them commented on both culture and artificiality) while 62% in Group I (NA<sub>1</sub>) remarked on the study's artificiality.

A possible explanation may be that the counsellors, in Study One, attending to culture were more involved with the client and ignored the contrived nature of the counselling session. This involvement might explain their internally focused responses on the questionnaire and their more positive attitude than was the case with the NA<sub>1</sub> group.

## STUDY TWO (NA<sub>2</sub> vs A<sub>2</sub>: Mature Counsellors)

### General Attitude Towards the Client

Unlike Study One, the second study revealed no statistically significant difference in attitude towards the accented client between the two groups of mature counsellors (NA<sub>2</sub> vs A<sub>2</sub>) and the null hypothesis was retained.

It is curious that the standard deviations, in the Semantic Differential Attitude Scale, were considerably diverse for both studies.

#### Study One

nonaccented=10.63  
accented =22.70

#### Study Two

nonaccented=37.19  
accented =32.34

None of the groups (NA<sub>1</sub>, A<sub>1</sub>, NA<sub>2</sub>, or A<sub>2</sub>) are comparable and this diversity may have been a function of the small sample sizes used to represent the "pure" mainstream counsellor.

In Study Two, the counsellors' overall attitude towards the client, accented or not, was on the positive side of the semantic differential scale. Because the findings were of no statistical significance they are interpreted in relation to the design differences between Study One and Study Two (i.e., method of sample selection, level of counsellor experience and education and intensity of accent). The small sample sizes may also account for the finding of no difference in the second study, thus the results must be interpreted cautiously. These differences are examined more closely in the following interpretations.

#### Moderate versus Stronger Accented Clients

It is possible in the first study, the novice respondents were reacting favourably to an accent which was moderate and more understandable than in the second study. However, the group mean Semantic Differential Attitude scores were similar for Study One: Group II ( $A_1$ )=158.07 and Study Two: Group IV ( $A_2$ )=163.11. While the major differences existed between Study One: Group I ( $NA_1$ )=190.75 and Study Two: Group III ( $NA_2$ )=163.17, these may be explained by addressing the differences in sample characteristics.

#### Sample Characteristics

In the first study the novice counsellors were in the first year of the Master's program and currently enrolled in a counsellor skills training course. In the second study,

however, the mature counsellors had completed their second year and all coursework required. They had achieved a considerably higher level of skills acquisition, clinical experience and confidence as a counsellor.

Several possibilities exist regarding the differences between the novice and mature counsellors' attitudes (Semantic Differential mean scores) towards the non-accented client.

1. Study One (NA<sub>1</sub>) counsellors might have been feeling inadequate in dealing with the emotional client presented on the videotape and transferred that to the client in the form of a less positive evaluation.
2. Sixty-two percent of the Study One counsellors in the nonaccented situation commented on the artificiality of the setting, while 83% of the Study Two counsellors (NA<sub>2</sub>) in the same situation mentioned it. This was considerably higher in both non-accented groups (compared to the accented situations). It is possible the artificial environment was distracting to the Group I (NA<sub>1</sub>) novice counsellors and they were not as able to utilize their skills which resulted again in a transference of a negative attitude towards the client. Group III (NA<sub>2</sub>), however, commented more often on the artificial nature of the experiment but were more positive in their Semantic Differential evaluation of the client. This difference may be related to their higher level of educational and clinical experience. Also they

may have felt distracted more by the contrived setting but more confident regarding their skills and therefore did not transfer any negative attitude to the client.

3. The novice (NA<sub>1</sub>) counsellors may have felt powerless and less confident in a non-interactional situation which resulted in a less positive attitude towards the client.

### Research Questions: Study Two

The major difference between all of the mainstream counsellors in the two studies was the mood in which they responded to the questionnaire items. Counsellors in the first study generally responded in a warm, genuine way concentrating on the client's delicate emotional state. In the second study, however, the counsellors were more confrontative and task-oriented in their responses.

#### A) Difference in Attitude

The mature counsellors in the second study appeared less involved with the client's emotional crisis and more with the task of empowering him. This was evident in the client characteristic category of "sense of power." Both accented and nonaccented groups of mature counsellors appeared to suggest this was the most important negative trait that needed work (NA<sub>2</sub>=8 and A<sub>2</sub>=8). A possible explanation for this finding is that these more experienced counsellors felt confident in their training to go beyond the empathy stage of skills to the more practical task oriented stage of the

helping process. In addition, they did not view the client as a "victim" but more as someone who has to take responsibility for change and they were confident enough to say that.

#### B) Counsellor's Affinity Towards the Client

Within the second study Group III (NA<sub>2</sub>) mature counsellors identified both with unemployment and depression while Group IV (A<sub>2</sub>) mature counsellors identified more with the depression. This identification with a similarity of experience and resulting positive attitude, yet minimal personal involvement by these counsellors, may again be explained in terms of their educational and clinical experience. They may have felt that although they shared a similar experience, they did not need to relive it with the client to be effective counsellors. Also, they may have felt more comfortable and confident with their role than the novice, internally-focused counsellors in the first study.

#### C) Client Motivation

All counsellors in Study Two viewed the client as motivated to help himself. The emphasis of their conditional responses was on implementing "plans of action" such as job-finding skills. The external focus expressed by these mature counsellors may have been a product of the confidence experienced with their skills and techniques. They were more direct in suggestions for treatment than the novice counsellors in Study One.

#### D) The Client's Ethnicity

Seventy-eight percent of the mature counsellors in the accented situation commented on culture as a variable in the counselling process. The difference between those who mentioned it in the accented situation in Study One and those who mentioned it in the same situation in Study Two (43% vs 78%) may most likely be explained by the stronger accent in Study Two. It was heavier and less intelligible than in the first study and therefore unavoidable. A second explanation may be that the novice counsellors in Study One identified culture less because they were more involved on a personal level. They may have discounted cultural differences (accent) feeling that similarity of experience was more important to the counselling process.

In summary, the differences between the two studies, in terms of general findings, may have been due to the counsellors' level of clinical experience (i.e., practicum placements). For example, in the first year of the Counselling Psychology Program, beginner counsellors practice their skills in a university run clinic which is supervised by a faculty member. The other counsellors are fellow students and the clients are self-referrals or agency referred. In most cases the counselling sessions are videotaped and then reviewed by the faculty supervisor and fellow students.

In the second year of the program, the mature counsellors having completed their clinical experience in the

first year, are placed in a practicum with an agency or organization where they are supervised by a professional counsellor. The supervision and review of their counselling interviews takes place within the agency. The mature counsellors' confidence develops rapidly as they adapt and cope with "working" in the "real world."

### RECOMMENDATIONS FOR COUNSELLING RESEARCH

Based on the results of this investigation, some recommendations are made for both counselling research and education and training.

Foremost, these two studies have connected the cross-cultural counselling field of research with that of language attitudes. Language is the primary component of the counselling process and its importance is emphasized when counsellor-client cultural differences exist. Research needs to be continued in the area of counsellor attitudes towards the accented client, particularly in multi-cultural settings such as Canada. Future research could investigate the influence of both foreign and regional accents on counsellor attitude, as the attitude of the counsellor in the initial phases of the interview is pivotal to the subsequent counselling relationship.

It is also recommended that research be conducted to establish a Semantic Differential pool of categories for personality characteristics relevant to the field of cross-cultural counselling and language attitudes. Some of

those items may be selected from the personality categories which emerged from the Interview Questionnaire. This pool of relevant characteristics might present a more standardized instrument and would enable the researcher to generalize his or her findings more readily. Also, it is suggested that the Semantic Differential be administered with at least one other measurement which might include measures of social distance, belief similarity or values.

Based on the results of these studies, the area of similarity of experience not beliefs warrants further research. It may be that similarity of experience is more readily accessible information to the counsellor and that it influences the counsellor's attitude and the counselling process more than accent.

The final two recommendations concern the education and training of counsellors, immigration workers, social workers, employers and any other trained professionals working in a job where interpersonal communication is essential. First, the matched-guise videotape could be utilized in a training situation to increase cultural sensitivity. It could be used in a campaign for public awareness of prejudice towards the culturally different simply by asking the viewer: "How do you feel about that person?"

Based on the major findings of this research, that counsellors have a generally more positive attitude towards the accented client, future investigations should consider whether these attitudes are similar outside their

professional world or whether social desirability is an influence.

In addition to further experimental studies being done, it is recommended that survey research also be conducted to gather information regarding the ethnic composition of the Canadian counselling profession. Because many of the subjects in this study were eliminated as "culturally sensitive" the notion of the "pure mainstream" counsellor needs to be addressed.

Although this study is narrow in its focus on counsellor's attitudes towards foreign accented clients, the findings, especially in Study One, challenge commonly held attitudinal expectations among professionals and the previously cited research on visible differences. Since no other study has examined accent in counselling in this manner it is hoped this research can be replicated with some refinements such as: larger sample size, more homogeneous respondents and exposing subjects to both accented and non-accented situations.

As the technology of communication advances so does our contact with people from other cultures personally and professionally as counsellors. Now more than ever, research needs to expand and investigate the challenge that culture represents to the counselling process. As Hall (1982:188) reminds us "... people cannot ... interact ... in any meaningful way except through the medium of culture ... [we are part of one] ... interrelated system."

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**APPENDIX A****CONSENT FORM**

## CONSENT FORM

**Title:** Counsellor Responses to Clients in a Training Situation.

**Researcher:** Linda Alexander

I voluntarily agree to participate in this research project which will take 35 minutes of my time. I understand that the aim of this study is to investigate counsellors' typical responses to clients in a training situation. I am aware that the study is being conducted to partially fulfill the requirements for a Master's Degree at the University of British Columbia.

I further understand that my involvement in this project requires that I complete a form requesting certain demographic information, as well as answering questions which deal with the experience. In addition I am aware that my responses to the simulated client interview will be audiotaped. I have been assured that the information collected from this study will remain confidential and not be used for evaluative purposes. I understand that on completion of the project, the audiotape will be destroyed and the remaining data remain anonymous. I am aware that I may withdraw my consent and discontinue my participation at any time without influencing my class standing in any way. I am aware that the instructors of the course at no time, present or future, will be made aware of my performance.

I have read the contents of this Consent Form and understand my participation in this project. For my part I agree to uphold the ethic of confidentiality and not discuss this project until I have been advised it has been completed.

I acknowledge receipt of this Consent Form.

---

Date

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Signature

**APPENDIX B****PREPARED SCRIPT****THE CLIENT'S PRESENTATION OF HIS PROBLEM**

## PREPARED SCRIPT

## Segment 1

I don't know if you can help me. A friend of mine said you could ... I don't know. I feel awkward and silly coming here. But I felt that I had to do something before it's too late. Things aren't so great right now. My life, my family, everything seems to be falling apart ... I feel so helpless ... I don't seem to be able to do anything to stop it from happening. I'm not a drunk. I don't do any drugs. It's just that I can't seem to do anything right anymore. Ever since I lost my job.

## Segment 2

... Well ... I've been out of work now for almost two years ... 22 months tomorrow. I've looked everywhere for a job but for some reason nobody wants to hire me. I try to think of why I can't get work. It's almost as though there's someone ... someone's making sure I don't get a job. I am not stupid. I've done all kinds of work. I've worked at all kinds of jobs. I've got experience in almost everything. Why ... is what I don't understand ... Why is this happening to me?

## Segment 3

... My friend told me that I looked depressed ... that I shouldn't do anything foolish. Of course I am depressed ... who wouldn't be ... but suicide has never entered my mind. I could never do anything like that. I have never been a coward and I am determined to see this thing right through to the end. Besides my family needs me, I could never desert them....

**Segment 4**

Things used to be so good for us. The wife and I we used to plan for the future. We scrimped ... put money into savings plans. The children's college money has been spent ... I felt like a thief taking it. But what could I do, the bills had to be paid. I didn't want to lose the house.

**Segment 5**

We started selling things ... started out with a garage sale selling items we didn't want ... just selling items that we had to sell. It's funny though ... I had a ... I used to have a stamp collection that I thought was worth thousands ... When I took it in to sell it the man laughed at me and said fifty dollars tops. Can you beat that?

**Segment 6**

My family's very supportive of me but there are some things that they just don't understand. Number one is money. They all know how to spend it ... no that isn't fair ... it isn't true. It's me. I get so frustrated I want to blame someone ... I should have seen it coming, I have no one to blame but my self. I get so angry...

**Segment 7**

I thought that being out of work was just a temporary thing so I borrowed a couple of dollars here and there. Now I don't have the courage to face them until I can pay them back. I owe everybody it seems. I tried to work some of it off. But it seems everybody's hurting they just want the money. I won't take charity, not as long as I can work that's why ... that's why I am here. I need help ... I need to get control of myself.

**Segment 8**

I am so bitter I'm angry at my previous employer for letting me go and I'm mad at the government for causing me to lose my job, and most of all I'm mad at myself for allowing this thing to happen to me.

**Segment 9**

One good thing that has come out of all of this is that we are much closer family. It was decided that hiding the problems from the kids wasn't a good idea. The other day the kids and I walked down to the freeway with some garbage bags. We collected beer bottles and pop bottles and whatever else we could find that would bring in some money. My youngest found a stone ginger beer bottle. My wife got so excited about it, she collects bottles. It was nice to see her laughing for a change.

**Segment 10**

It's difficult to think positive after so many disappointments. In fact, I have the feeling that I am doing something that deliberately prevents me from getting the job. If there was something to help me relax. I don't mean drugs, I just want to feel good about myself.

**Segment 11**

The other day I found that somebody had left a box of groceries on the porch. I suppose the neighbours meant well. It was bound to get around. But it made me feel terrible. I appreciate their generosity but it made me feel angry to know that they know that I am not able to provide for my family.

**Segment 12**

It wasn't very long ago that I felt that those people on welfare were just taking advantage of the system. I was so wrong. I can imagine how hard it must have been for them when I don't even have the courage to go myself.

**Segment 13**

My youngest son refused to go to school today. It seems all of his friends have Chex. That is some kind of a running shoe that costs eighty dollars a pair. None of the kids go to parties, they can't afford a show. They fight among themselves, start screaming at each other and that in turn starts a chain reaction. Pretty soon the wife and I get in there screaming too. We have a very tough time and I am not painting the picture with a black brush ... it really is this desperate....

**Segment 14**

Yet still out of our difficulty has come a great rallying and crazy kind of humour that has at times made the most impossible ... bearable. Without this crazy, happy family of mine I don't think I could have made it this far.

**APPENDIX C****SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL ATTITUDE SCALE**

## EVALUATION OF CLIENT CHARACTERISTICS

## DIRECTIONS

In response to the client you have just seen, mark each pair of opposite adjectives as a separate and independent judgment, on the basis of what they mean to you. Work quickly, it is your first and immediate impression that is most important. The following examples show how to rate the pairs:

			neutral or			
very	quite	only	not at	only	quite	very
closely	closely	slightly	all	slightly	closely	closely
related	related	related	related	related	related	related

1. If you feel that the client characteristic is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your check as follows:

X

fair ———:————:————:————:————:————:————: unfair

OR

X

fair ———:————:————:————:————:————:————: unfair

2. If you feel that the client characteristic is quite closely related to one end or the other of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your check as follows:

X

fair ———:————:————:————:————:————:————: unfair

OR

X

fair ———:————:————:————:————:————:————: unfair

3. If the client characteristic seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then you should check as follows:

X

fair ———:————:————:————:————:————:————: unfair

OR

X

fair ———:————:————:————:————:————:————: unfair

4. If you consider the client characteristic to be neutral on the scale, equally associated, or if the scale is completely irrelevant, then you should place your check in the middle:

X

fair ———:————:————:————:————:————:————: unfair

Now, please rate each pair of opposite adjectives as they best describe, in your own opinion, the client you have just seen. Once again, please work quickly, it is your first and immediate impression that is most important.

	very closely related	quite closely related	only slightly related	neutral or not at all related	only slightly related	quite closely related	very closely related	
expressive	:	:			:	:		unexpressive
follower	:	:			:	:		leader
trustworthy	:	:			:	:		unfaithful
pessimistic	:	:			:	:		optimistic
competent	:	:			:	:		incompetent
lethargic	:	:			:	:		energetic
unintelligent	:	:			:	:		intelligent
involved	:	:			:	:		withdrawn
weak	:	:			:	:		strong
kind	:	:			:	:		cruel
emotional	:	:			:	:		controlled
dominant	:	:			:	:		submissive
feminine	:	:			:	:		masculine
egotistic	:	:			:	:		altruistic
graceful	:	:			:	:		awkward
insensitive	:	:			:	:		sensitive
industrious	:	:			:	:		lazy
unfriendly	:	:			:	:		friendly
happy	:	:			:	:		sad
fragile	:	:			:	:		tough
shallow	:	:			:	:		deep
humorous	:	:			:	:		serious
unsociable	:	:			:	:		sociable
active	:	:			:	:		passive
adaptive	:	:			:	:		rigid



**APPENDIX D**

**INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE**

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## INTERVIEW QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Other than the client's presenting problem, what other client characteristics stood out for you the most?
2. Did you identify with this client in any way? Please explain.
3. How motivated do you think this client will be in trying to help himself?
4. Would you enjoy working with this client?  

not at all

somewhat

moderately

considerably

a great deal

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_

\_\_\_\_\_
5. If you were given a choice, would you continue to see this client in counselling or would you refer to another counsellor?
6. Do you have any other comments regarding this particular counselling experience?

## **APPENDIX E**

### **DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION**

## DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Age: \_\_\_\_\_

Sex: M \_\_\_\_\_ F \_\_\_\_\_

Place of Birth: \_\_\_\_\_

Birthplace of Parents: Mother \_\_\_\_\_  
Father \_\_\_\_\_\*If other than Canada,  
age when s/he emigrated \_\_\_\_\_

Upbringing: Rural \_\_\_\_\_ Urban \_\_\_\_\_

Cultural/Ethnic affiliation \_\_\_\_\_

## Area of Concentration (CNPS):

Family \_\_\_\_\_  
Adolescent \_\_\_\_\_  
College & Adult \_\_\_\_\_  
Elementary \_\_\_\_\_  
Women \_\_\_\_\_  
Other \_\_\_\_\_

## Clinical Experience

Number of Years: \_\_\_\_\_

Setting & Client Population: \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_