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EFFECTS OF POSTURAL SHIFTS ON COUNSELLING INTERACTION:  
AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY

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fulfilment of the requirements for the degree  
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### ABSTRACT

This study recognizes the communicational nature of helping and the importance of the process conditions of helper empathic understanding, respect, genuineness and intensity and the helpee behaviour of self-exploration. Additionally, nonverbal behaviour is regarded as a critical aspect of helping interaction and for the helper this centres on a composite of variables incorporated within the concept of attending. Recently training and practice have emphasized a skills approach with the Human Resource Development model of R.R. Carkhuff being one comprehensive model which recognizes the positive functions of process conditions and helper nonverbal attending.

The technology of the skills approach can often be over-emphasized, and this can be seen for example in the manner of prescribing a forward-lean behaviour to enhance helper attending. Although often resisted by trainees, this deliberate lean frequently becomes an aspect of the trained helper's integrated repertoire. Experienced helpers have at times reported that such a deliberate movement often in and of itself promotes heightened involvement and increased levels of communicated process conditions. The present study was designed to examine the relationship between such a postural shift and helping interaction.

Twelve trained male helpers and 12 female volunteer helpees were the subjects. Each helper met three helpees in separate sessions. The sessions began with helpers in an upright attending posture and at a signal they had one minute during which to adopt one of three designated behaviours - a prescribed forward lean; a prescribed backward lean; or a choice of any posture. These alternatives were counterbalanced within the design to control for order effects. The overall duration of the sessions was 19 minutes (nine minutes for each of the pre-signal and post-signal periods and one minute for the signal period).

Data were collected from several sources. The primary data were audiotaped segments within the sessions which were given in random order to trained raters using Carkhuff's (1969) scales of Empathic Understanding, Respect, Genuineness and helpee Self-Exploration, and Truax's (1962) scale of Intensity. For each scale the ratings were pooled into

pre-signal and post-signal scores and analysed using analysis of variance with repeated measures. Supplementary data were obtained from the helpees, the helpers and from videotapes of the sessions, focussing on similar criteria to the rating scales. These data were analysed independently.

Analyses were done in regard to postural-shift conditions for the total helper sample then for helper sub-samples based on distinctions of forward or backward postural preferences. Results from the helping interaction data revealed significant differences on levels of Intensity and Respect in relation to the backward lean movement away from the initial upright posture. An overall pattern of differences between and within the postural conditions emerged on the scales, which suggested a compensatory relationship between verbal and nonverbal behaviours. On the whole, making a forward lean was associated with decreased levels on the scales and a backward lean with increased levels. This was most evident on the Intensity and Respect scales and in particular for those helpers whose preference was to move forward. The pattern of differences was considered in relation to Argyle and Dean's theory of compensation in the maintenance of an equilibrium level of interpersonal intimacy.

There were essentially no differences, based on the various postures, in the helpees' assessments of the helpers' communications nor in the helpers' experiences of the sessions. These findings were related to the equilibrium level of the helpers' overall communication, to the perspective of participating in the sessions, and to the likelihood of the initial upright attending position being an especially powerful pre-helping behaviour.

A strong and consistent finding was that helpers whose preference when given the choice was to lean forward, communicated at higher levels on all of the scales and were regarded as more competent counsellors by their trainers than those whose preference was to move backward.

The context of the interaction is important in considering the meaning of the findings of this study. The results may represent the helpers' maintenance of a subtle balance of verbal and nonverbal communication appropriate to the experimental setting. This would

suggest a transcendence of mechanical techniques in line with the intentions of Carkhuff and others using skills methodology. The relationship between a torso lean and levels of communication on the process conditions seems more complex than has been previously considered.

## PREFACE AND ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The question that this study addresses emerged as a result of my experiences in counselling practice and then more recently in the training of counsellors. It springs from a long standing interest in nonverbal behaviour and a belief in the importance of the relationship in helping, and crystallized at the point of trying to assess the value of skills applied in intentional ways.

Over the lengthy period of the project I have benefited in a variety of ways from the assistance of a large number of people. Thanks expressed at the time often seemed somewhat inadequate and I would like to record my gratitude here to several people who have been of particular help to me. In doing so, I recognize that the list extends beyond those acknowledged and not naming people in no way diminishes my appreciation of their assistance. In particular I wish to thank:-

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## CHAPTER ONE

### INTRODUCTION - RATIONALE FOR THE STUDY

This chapter develops the overall rationale for the study and in doing so identifies the major areas of literature to be reviewed as well as the methodological framework within which the experiment was carried out. Counselling and psychotherapy are located within the context of interpersonal communication, and elaborations are made of critical counsellor and client process behaviours, and on Robert Carkhuff's Human Resource Development (HRD) helping model which is based predominantly on such behaviours. Note is made of the emphasis being given within many training programmes and in field practice to the acquisition and intentional application of behavioural skills. Recognition is given to criticisms of the skills approach and to resistances of some trainees when learning in a skills framework, particularly towards highly prescribed behaviours. Helper nonverbal attending behaviour is selected for particular examination with special emphasis on postural lean, which is recognized as having the potential for influencing interaction processes. Acknowledgement is made of the developing interest in and significance of nonverbal behaviours in helping interaction, as also in the more general field of social interaction. The arbitrary divisions being created between verbal and nonverbal communication and among the range of nonverbal behaviours are critically examined. Stress is given to the need for more integrated studies, and attention is given to various methodological issues. Finally, the purposes and features of this particular study are stated.

#### A Communications Context for Helping<sup>1</sup>

Psychotherapy and counselling are historically rooted in medicine, centring on procedures of symptom diagnosis and prescriptive treatment methodologies. More recently, however, arising from resistances to this position and developments in behavioural sciences, there have emerged approaches associated with learning theory and humanistic personal

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<sup>1</sup> In line with a trend in the literature, helping, helper and helpee will be used as generic terms for counselling, counsellor and client, and psychotherapy, therapist, and patient - unless the specific terms are necessary for more accurate meanings.

actualization beliefs. A number of differing theoretical systems have been developed (e.g. Behaviour Therapy, Client-Centred Therapy, Gestalt Therapy, Transactional Analysis), with each making a contribution to the understanding of personal growth, dysfunctioning and treatment techniques. None, however, is capable of being regarded as the single best means of helping over a broad range of problems and needs.

Since the work of Harry Stack Sullivan (1953) in the early 1950's, increasing attention, both in theorizing and empirical terms, has been given to the interpersonal relationship and communication elements of interaction between helpers and helpees (Alexander, 1957; Danziger, 1976; Scheflen, 1965b). With communication being generally accepted as in the nature of a

conventional exchange of messages between individuals in interaction... [depending] on the existence of a system of rules... [a] code that is at least in part common to both communicating partners... [and relating] specific signs or sign-systems to specific meanings

(Von Cronach & Vine, 1973, p.17)

individual psychotherapy and counselling may be regarded as a particular instance of human dyadic communication. Effective communication is essential to everyday living. Its quality provides a key to the development of dysfunctioning as well as suggesting the benefits of successful therapy, both through communication processes in the helping contact itself and through gains arising from improvements in the helpee's own communication abilities. It is even argued that the direct training of helpees in human relations skills is a preferred mode of treatment (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976).

### Process Conditions of Helping Interaction

Attention given to the communicational features of helping, has led to widespread interest in the analysis of the content and processes occurring between helpers and helpees. Several systems of varying complexity have been developed that endeavour to identify the crucial process elements of effective interaction (e.g. Butler, Rice & Wagstaff, 1961; Lennard & Bernstein, 1960; Klein, Mathieu, Gendlin & Kiesler, 1970). Most of the systems have remained at an embryonic stage, needing elaboration and extensive refinement before they could have any

significant explanatory utility or be a basis for extensive research activity.

One system that has considerable explanatory potential and which has been the stimulus for numerous research studies was first postulated in the late 1950's by Carl Rogers (Rogers, 1957). From his own therapeutic work and observations of helping interaction and in keeping with ideas beginning to emerge in that period (e.g. Fiedler, 1950) he claimed that for effective therapy it was both necessary and sufficient for the therapist to communicate a range of attitudinal qualities. The therapist needed to be 'real' as a person (therapist congruence) and to communicate to the client 'respect' and 'liking' (therapist unconditional positive regard) and an 'understanding' of the client's experience (therapist empathy). An effect of these therapist-communicated conditions would be to enhance the client's exploration and experience of significant aspects of his being (client experiencing) leading reliably to therapeutic gains.

In contention of the extremely negative picture of the effectiveness of helping presented by Eysenck (1952), findings that the effects could be either detrimental or beneficial (Bergin, 1963) - 'for better or for worse' - and that the differences were apparently person-based and not attributable to the theoretical approach adopted by the therapist, gave impetus to examining process conditions of helping more extensively. The triad of conditions (empathy, regard, congruence) postulated as crucial by Rogers can be seen to exist at some level in any helping communication, whatever the approach being used. Indeed, as Truax and Carkhuff stated (1967), all of the various helping approaches incorporate these three process conditions within their theory. In one way or another, they all stress the importance of the helper's ability to be integrated, mature, genuine, authentic or congruent in relationship to the helpee; the ability to provide a non-threatening, trusting, safe or secure atmosphere by acceptance, non-possessive warmth, unconditional positive regard or love; and the need to be accurately empathic, to be 'with' the helpee, showing understanding and a grasp of the helpee's meanings. Similarly with regard to the helpee's goals, emphasis is usually placed within most approaches on the ongoing explorations and experiences of the self. The helpee is generally attempting to clarify and understand personal beliefs, values, motives, experiences and actions. The various helping approaches differ



mainly in the amount and kind of structure provided and the themes given emphasis.

Operationalization of these process conditions was an essential task in order to advance understanding of their nature and influence within helping, and in order to enable training programmes to focus on their development in trainees, so as to make practice more effective. In the early 1960's, scales were developed for Accurate Empathy, Unconditional Positive Regard, Genuineness, and Depth of Client Intrapersonal Exploration mainly by Charles Truax (Truax, 1961a, 1962a,b,c), a colleague of Carl Rogers. These became the measurement instruments used for a large number of empirical studies and training programmes through till the end of the 60's decade. Slightly refined scales for these dimensions, with a scale for helper Respect replacing that for Unconditional Positive Regard, have since been developed by Robert Carkhuff (Carkhuff, 1969) and these have been more widely used since that time in research and training within this process framework.

Despite criticisms questioning the claims (Meltzoff & Kornreich, 1970) research using these scales has on the whole given empirical support to Rogers' initial indications that the triad helper conditions are necessary elements in effective helping, with helpee experiencing and self-exploration being an important part of the overall process. That they are sufficient for effective outcomes, however, which was also part of his claim, has not found similar support (Carkhuff & Truax, 1967).

#### Communication Models for Helper Training and Practice

A few comprehensive communication models have been developed that seek to incorporate these essential ingredients of helping for the benefit of effective training and practice. Carl Rogers' propositions on helper qualities in communication formed the basis of his Client-Centred Therapy approach (Rogers, 1959). One contemporary model that represents an extension of the client-centred approach and which has considerable support, both from the fields of practice and research, is the Human Resource Development model of Robert Carkhuff (Carkhuff, 1969; Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977; Carkhuff and Anthony, 1979).

This model also gives primacy to the triad of helper facilitative

conditions and helpee self-exploration, but adds elements centred upon the determination and pursuit of specific, individualized helpee goals.

Extensive empirical support exists for the effectiveness of this model in a variety of helping contexts as well as in training situations (Carkhuff, 1969, 1972a; Carkhuff & Anthony, 1979). It is being used in a wide variety of training settings throughout the western world and is recognized as an important contribution to theory and practice.

### Skills Emphasis and Intentional Behaviours

The communications context of helping, the operationalization of process conditions, and also the supporting principles of learning theory have led to an accelerating movement in helper training and helping practice in the acquisition and utilization of specific behavioural skills. The micro-counselling methodology of Alan Ivey (Ivey & Authier, 1978) and similar approaches where helpers are trained on the basis of learning theory principles to acquire and use operationally defined communication skills, is becoming quite widespread. Ivey details a number of generic helping skills in his system and the HRD model of Carkhuff, which is a more comprehensive and integrated system, has the same orientation of specific skills and learning theory based training methodology.

A question needing constant attention in this skills movement is whether helping is an art or a science. The Human Resource Development approach is described by its developer as a 'human technology' (Carkhuff, 1972b). As such it seems to blend the qualities of phenomenological, client-centred humanism with the goal-centred skills technology of behaviourism. It seems there is often difficulty in maintaining that blend in practice and there is the potential within the systematized training programme materials (e.g. Carkhuff, 1972c; Carkhuff & Pierce, 1977) for technological procedures to become overriding in the hands of some trainers. This is frequently at the base of criticisms of the skills emphasis - that it is rigid and confining, and that the intentional application of skills is artificial, contrived and manipulatory. In the initial stages of training in particular, there is often a great deal of resistance by trainees towards acting in such behaviourally prescribed ways. This resistance emerges especially in response to demands to apply skills intentionally within helping interaction.

Because it is one of the first skills encountered, because it is precisely defined and intentionally prescribed, and because it deals with behaviours that are very powerful in interaction, helper nonverbal "Attending" is a skill-set within the HRD model that seems to regularly prompt very active resistance from trainees. The skill-set involves use of the nonverbal behaviours of regular eye contact, a comfortable (3-5 ft.) distance, a square and open orientation, and an intentional lean towards the helpee as the interaction progresses (Carkhuff & Pierce, 1977). The major rationale for such behaviour centres on what it conveys to the helpee. It communicates an attitude of liking as well as a high degree of involvement, attentiveness and energy. Also it enables full observation of the helpee so that significant nonverbal cues are able to be recognized.

The resistance of some trainees to attending skills is generally expressed towards what they consider to be their contrived nature, as well as the threat they claim will be experienced by helpees, especially when a lean towards them is made. Later in training, when this skill has been integrated with other acquired communicational skills, it tends to be used readily and naturally including the variations in postural lean. Further, some trainees have indicated in discussion that in situations where they might be struggling to get fully involved or where they wish to intensify their involvement, a deliberate forward lean toward the helpee 'inexplicably' seems to promote their intensified involvement. It has even been suggested in discussions with experienced helpers that such a deliberate movement forward, in and of itself, seems to promote their communication of high levels of process conditions. If this is so, then perhaps heightening attending levels conveys an important message to the helper as much as to the helpee - influencing the overall encoding of process conditions. Perhaps more emphasis than is usually the case should be given to the effects of attending on the helper or on the interaction processes.

### Nonverbal Behaviour in Helping Communication

Most attention in helping interaction analysis, as for social interaction in general, has been given to verbal components, even though nonverbal behaviours have always been acknowledged as important. It is

only relatively recently that technological advances in the form of readily available videotaping resources have made it possible to give the same intensive analysis to nonverbal behaviours as has been possible for verbal behaviours using audio-recording technology.

Of late, the vast array of gestures, head and other bodily movements, postures, facial expressions, direction of gaze, proximity and spatial positions, bodily contact, orientations and similar behaviours have emerged as major variables of study. Examination of these behaviours spreads into a variety of disciplines, with ethology, sociology, anthropology, psychology, the arts, and linguistics having developed specific interests and approaches. Three structural categories of nonverbal behaviour, cutting across the boundaries of the various disciplines and which incorporate most significant behaviours are those of kinesics (Birdwhistell, 1952, 1970), proxemics (Hall, 1959, 1963, 1966) and paralanguage (Trager, 1958); kinesics involving the study of body movement, postures and gestures; proxemics, the study of body placement; and paralanguage that of non-language sounds.

Most active efforts in the study of nonverbal communications have been applied towards developing descriptive schema and notational systems within each separate major category. Inevitably, this has promoted reductionism, with the procedures seeking to highlight boundaries and differences between verbal and nonverbal systems, and among the nonverbal structural categories. Process investigators of psychotherapy and counselling have begun to analyze the helping interaction process also in terms of these structural categories - paralinguistic units (Mahl, 1956), kinesics (Fretz, 1966a,b) and proxemics (Haase, 1970). These efforts are necessary for isolating elements and helping to understand their separate features and influences. However, there arises a need to integrate the complex phenomena of communication and to study their interactions and their combined functions.

#### Verbal and Nonverbal Systems

Some work has focussed on the interactions of verbal and nonverbal components of communication (Key, 1980) and efforts have been made to devise more functional classification groupings of nonverbal behaviour that will allow for more meaningful considerations of communication as a whole. Three major systems, in increasing order of functionality, are the

descriptive approach of Argyle (1972), the usage approach of Ekman and Friesen (1969) and the referents approach of Albert Mehrabian (1972), with the latter providing a more potentially valuable framework by attending to referents that are shared by verbal and nonverbal communication systems - i.e. evaluation, potency, responsiveness, as identified originally in the work of Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum (1957) on the dimensions of semantic space.

The behavioural delineations of the helping process conditions of accurate empathy, respect, genuineness and helpee self-exploration have almost exclusively focussed on their verbal features. The operational scales address verbal content and implicit vocal qualities with no description of observable nonverbal behaviours. However, the part which nonverbal behaviours might play in the overall communication of the conditions is gaining recognition, and some recent work concentrates on the nonverbal components of the process conditions, e.g. Haase & Tepper, (1972). Interplay of verbal and nonverbal elements is inevitable for communication and this is implicit in the numerous descriptions of the process conditions. These descriptions use terms having semantic meanings with implied nonverbal characteristics - for example, positive regard or respect referred to as being 'close'. It is at this point of verbal/nonverbal interplay that there are serious limitations in knowledge.

#### Research Characteristics of the Areas of Interest

Research in the area of nonverbal behaviour in helping has on the whole been characterized by distinct divisions between verbal and nonverbal systems as well as among the various nonverbal variables themselves. Empirical studies have most often concentrated on specific isolated variables, such as eye contact, in highly contrived contexts including the use of artificial stimuli, e.g. still-photographs (Pierce, 1970). For the sake of scientific rigour this approach may often be necessary. However, considerable practical meaning is sometimes lost by such procedures. In contrast, some other studies within the field have used a descriptive case-study approach (Scheflen, 1973a), mostly involving clinical interpretations of helpee nonverbal behaviours. Unfortunately, despite efforts to ensure scientific method, the clinical approach often sacrifices rigour to meaning. The balance between the

criteria of meaning and rigour is a central dilemma in research, particularly in this field of the social sciences (Gelso, 1979; see also Carkhuff, 1969, pp.223-244).

Argyle (1972), among others, has stressed the need for more studies to be carried out in "realistic settings with clear meanings and conventions, and which contain all the main ingredients of ordinary social behaviour" (p.244). One procedure for this involves laboratory experiments that replicate real-life situations. This requires effort to achieve a fine balance between internal and external validity and this is always difficult.

Within the research on helping process conditions, one important characteristic considered necessary yet frequently lacking is to obtain data on the various perspectives involved in the interaction (Kiesler, 1971). A comprehensive picture of effects is essential. The perspectives, usually studied separately in research studies in this area, are those of judges, helpers and helpees.

#### Features of This Study

The present study endeavoured to accommodate in some degree these methodological concerns, and care was taken to obtain a workable balance between internal and external validity - between rigour and meaning. The approach used involved an analogue procedure where actual helpers interacted with helpees with a minimum of artificiality. The focus was upon verbal and nonverbal channels as they function in combination within interaction. Additionally, attempts were made to tap the various crucial perspectives - i.e. those of helpers, helpees and objective judges.

The broad research question addressed within the study was that of examining the effects of deliberate helper postural shifts (forward and backward torso lean) on helping interaction. The effects were assessed on the criteria of helper and helpee process variables. The helper variables were those of empathic understanding, respect, genuineness and intensity, the latter being an additional process condition considered particularly relevant to the nonverbal manipulations that were made. The helpee variable was self-exploration.

The significance of this study was considered to be its contribution to our understanding the effects of a powerful nonverbal behaviour in dyadic helping interaction, especially through its relationship to verbal process conditions.

## CHAPTER TWO

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Having in the Introduction set out the broad parameters of the study, this Chapter examines these in greater detail through relevant literature and research. Previous research in the two fields of interest (i.e. nonverbal communication and helping process behaviours) have been almost totally separate from one another. This experimental study considers these behaviours in combination, with very little previous work having done this. Therefore, the extensive review of literature serves also to logically develop the potential relationship between the critical variables, preliminary to an empirical examination.

Attention is given to the facilitative process conditions of helping interaction, then to the developing emphasis on skills in training and practice. Elements of nonverbal communication are examined, and, in particular, the behavioural characteristics of helper involvement through the skill-set of attending. This occurs through consideration of the variables separately and as they operate in combination. Finally, there is focus on the interaction of verbal and nonverbal behaviours as they function in helper attending and the communication of facilitative process conditions.

#### Helper Process Conditions

Over the past twenty years, one major theme of helping research has been that of specific helper qualities within interaction and their relationship to helpee behaviours within and outside sessions as therapeutic outcomes (Kiesler, 1973). The concerns of many of these studies have arisen from the client-centred postulations of Carl Rogers (1957). His triad of helper conditions - empathy, congruence and unconditional positive regard - along with helpee experiencing and self-exploration behaviour have stimulated wide-ranging and important empirical studies and theoretical formulations.

Numerous empirical studies, which have been summarized by among others Luborsky and his associates (1971), Shapiro (1976), Truax and Carkhuff (1967), and Truax and Mitchell (1971), when considered



overall, give support to the belief that helpers who are 'real' or genuine, who are accurately empathic and who communicate respect and warmth have positive therapeutic effects.

A major project centred on the University of Wisconsin in the late 1950's and early 1960's under the leadership of Rogers comprehensively studied these conditions in psychotherapy with various helpee groups. A series of interim reports emerged early in the study (Gendlin & Geist, 1962; Truax, 1963; Truax & Carkhuff, 1963) and culminated in a composite publication (Rogers, Gendlin, Kiesler & Truax, 1967). The design involved three groups, each of 16 individuals - chronic schizophrenics, acute schizophrenics and normals - who were selected in pairs, being matched for sex, age and socioeconomic status. The schizophrenics were also matched for degree of psychological disturbance. One member of each pair was randomly assigned to therapy whilst the other operated as a control. Eight therapists each treated a randomized triad composed of one person from each group. Recorded therapy sessions, sampling interviews conducted by an independent interviewer, and results from a variety of instruments used to assess change in psychological status (e.g. MMPI, Q-Sorts) and behaviours (e.g. hospitalization rates) comprised the data. Findings from this extensive project indicated little difference overall between the therapy and control group patients in average constructive personality change and no difference in subsequent hospitalization. However, when the therapy group was differentiated into those whose therapists offered high levels of empathic understanding, congruence and nonpossessive warmth and those who offered low levels, significant differences were evident both on personality and behavioural indices. The differences favoured those receiving high levels. A follow-up study revealed that these differences were maintained over a relatively lengthy period (Truax & Mitchell, 1971).

There were some serious methodological problems and weaknesses in this study, for example the actual number of subjects used and the lack of completely independent subject data (Anthony & Drasgow, 1978). However, the findings indicating a predictive relationship between the key therapeutic ingredients and outcomes were certainly evident and supportive of some earlier promising studies. Halkides (1958), for example, had determined that counselling clients rated as most successful compared with those rated as least successful had received significantly higher levels

of therapist empathy, unconditional positive regard and congruence. The Wisconsin findings supported also the pioneering work of Whitehorn and Betz (1954). In a retrospective study of seven psychiatrists whose schizophrenic patients showed an improvement rate of 75% compared with seven whose improvement rate was only 27%, they found major differences. The successful therapists were warm and attempted to understand their patients in a personal, immediate and idiosyncratic way, in contrast to the others who tended to relate in a more impersonal way focussing upon psychopathology and a more external kind of understanding. Betz (1963) in an extension of this analysis elaborated characteristics virtually matching the triad of conditions specified by Rogers.

Indications are that the findings to do with the importance of helper process conditions seem to relate to helpers in general, regardless of their training or orientation. Indeed, more recent work in this area has even suggested that facilitative process conditions are important in behaviour therapy orientations, with Vitalo (1970) showing their importance in a conditioning paradigm and Mickelson and Stevic (1971) relating them to improved information seeking behaviour. As well, they seem to hold good for a wide variety of helpees. Dickenson and Truax (1966) studied emotionally disturbed college underachievers receiving group counselling, utilizing experimental and control populations. They not only found a significant improvement in levels of academic achievement in the therapy group over the control group as a whole, but when the experimental group was differentiated on the basis of receiving high or moderate levels of helper process conditions, it was only those receiving high levels who differed significantly from the controls. This difference was quite marked.

Similar positive effects have also been determined in work with juvenile delinquents (Truax & Wargo, 1966a; Truax, Wargo & Silber, 1966), mild to severe outpatient neurotics (Truax, Wargo, Frank et al, 1966; Truax, Wargo & Carkhuff, 1966), parents of disturbed children (Carkhuff & Bierman, 1970) and a mixed variety of hospitalized patients (Pierce & Drasgow, 1969; Truax, Carkhuff & Kodman, 1965; Truax & Wargo, 1966b).

Knowing the importance of these helper conditions for positive outcomes represented a landmark in understanding for the field of helping, but also raised additional questions. One question centred on the crucial

issue of who was primarily responsible for the levels of communicated empathy, warmth and genuineness - the helper or the helpee? Evidence contained in part within the studies referred to indicated that it was the helper who primarily determined the levels. More recent experimental studies, however, suggest that both participants play a part. As part of the Wisconsin Project, several therapists saw the same set of patients (Truax, 1963). A balanced incomplete block design enabled analysis addressing the question of differing levels of conditions towards the same client group. The findings indicated that different therapists produced different levels of accurate empathy, nonpossessive warmth and congruence for the same set of patients but the patients did not evoke significantly different levels from the different therapists.

Further evidence was available through comparing sampling interview and therapy levels for patients in the Wisconsin Study (Truax, 1962d). No significant correlations were found between the therapists' and the standard interviewer's levels of empathic understanding and genuineness working with the same patients. There was a moderate relationship between their levels of nonpossessive warmth. Some other studies (Truax & Wargo, 1966c; Truax, Wargo, Frank et al, 1966; Banks, Berenson & Carkhuff, 1967) provide additional support to the belief that it is the helper who is primarily responsible for the levels of process conditions communicated.

Some later experimental studies suggest that both helpers and helpees contribute to the levels of process conditions communicated, and, as will be considered later, also to the levels of helpee self-exploration behaviours. A series of studies was undertaken that divided the helping session into three equal and distinct phases. The first and third phases involved high levels of communication and the second phase involved contrived low levels. Some of the studies involved the manipulation of helper conditions and some the manipulation of helpee behaviours as the independent variable.

Carkhuff and Alexik (1967) trained a female student helpee to explore herself at low levels in the middle twenty minutes of each of eight one-hour helping sessions with different helpers. She explored herself at high levels during the other two phases. It was found that high level helpers maintained high levels of facilitative conditions over the middle period, but that low level helpers dropped their level of conditions and

did not recover in the final period of high self-exploration. In another study using this format (Friel, Kratochvil & Carkhuff, 1968), four helpees were involved, each interacting separately with eight graduate student counsellors. None of the 32 helpers was found to be operating at high levels. During the middle phase of low self-exploration, the helpers lowered their levels of facilitative conditions and did not recover during the latter period of high exploration. From these studies, the level of process conditions communicated seems to be based on a combination of the level of self-exploration engaged in by the helpee and whether the helper functions generally at high or low levels on the process conditions.

Differences between studies involving manipulated experimental procedures and more naturalistic methods must be recognized. Any conclusive statements that helpers are responsible for the level of process conditions communicated needs to be qualified by the latter experimental studies and the issue of responsibility is still unresolved. Recognizing the reciprocal nature of interaction however, would suggest some degree of interplay between the helper and the helpee in the communication of these important qualities.

#### Other Domains of Helping

There would seem to be little question that the process conditions of empathy, genuineness, and warmth or respect are powerful factors in facilitative relationships. Their significance is evident also from the fact that they contribute to goals other than those of personality change as in therapy. They have been shown to play an important part in teacher-pupil interaction. Truax and Tatum (1966) established that the levels of empathy and warmth offered by pre-school teachers affected the performance and social adjustment of pre-school children. A relationship between the levels of teacher-offered process conditions and reading achievement scores of third grade pupils has been determined (Aspy, 1965), and between the conditions and reading achievement and truancy rates for third to fifth grade pupils (Aspy & Hadlock, 1966). These are supported by similar findings from the educational field (Aspy, 1969; Aspy & Roebuck, 1972, 1977; Hefele, 1971). Also, as will be examined more extensively later, numerous generalization studies have been completed on training in these process conditions as interpersonal skills (e.g. Pierce & Drasgow, 1969).

### Helpee Process Behaviours

Along with helper process conditions, considerable attention has been given to determining helpee process behaviours that are associated with successful helping outcomes. There seems to be some general agreement that the helpee's exploration of personally relevant experience is one such behaviour.

Research findings provide general support for a significant relationship between helpee self-exploration and a variety of outcome indices. Truax and Carkhuff (1964a) from ratings of tape recorded therapy sessions with schizophrenic patients, found that those patients who were high in self-exploration showed significantly greater personality change than patients who were relatively low in this behaviour. This held for both a final outcome criterion (based on a number of psychological tests including a blind analysis of the Rorschach Test and percentage of time in hospital) and for a number of more specific measures such as MMPI items. The overall analysis indicated that patients who engaged in high levels of self-exploration showed an average improvement one standard deviation beyond that of other patients. Additional support for its relationship to successful outcomes was obtained by Truax, Wargo and Carkhuff (1966) working with 80 outpatients receiving time limited group therapy. A related group therapy study by Truax and Wargo (1966b) with 160 hospitalized patients obtained a similar finding. A study of juvenile delinquents (Truax & Wargo, 1966a) had findings that were equivocal, with some outcome criteria being significantly related to high levels of self-exploration and others being related to low levels. Helpee self-exploration must be acknowledged as an important variable in effective helping. However, the findings do not indicate a one-to-one relationship between it and the various measures of therapeutic outcome, so it does not account for all of the helpee factors related to improvement.

Findings from a Rogers and Truax study (1962), which also gave support for the link between high self-exploration and positive outcomes, suggested that both the helpee and the helper contributed to the level of helpee exploration. Different patients, when seeing the same set of therapists, tended to engage in different levels of self-exploration. However, different therapists, when seeing the same set of patients also tended to evoke different levels of patient self-exploration. Comparisons between the levels of self-exploration in therapy and those in sampling

interviews with the same patients (Rogers et al, 1967) suggested that it was primarily the patient who determined the degree of self-exploration. The fact that there is more likely to be an interaction involved, however, is indicated by findings showing a relationship between levels of empathy and warmth offered by the helper and the degree of self-exploration of the helpee (Truax & Carkhuff, 1965; Rogers & Truax, 1962; Bergin & Strupp, 1972; Kurtz & Grummon, 1972).

Experimental studies, this time involving manipulation of helper behaviours, support the idea of combined helper and helpee influence on levels of helpee self-exploration. Truax and Carkhuff (1965), using the design that called for lowered levels of communication in the middle phase of sessions, studied one helper when working with three hospitalized psychotic women. During the middle period when the helper deliberately lowered communicated levels of empathy, there was a significant drop also in the helpees' levels of self-exploration. Holder, Carkhuff and Berenson (1967) also studied one helper, involved in interaction with six female volunteer helpees. High level functioning helpees (as determined by their communication of process conditions in the role of helper in a standard interview) were not affected by the lowered levels of empathy, whereas low level helpees significantly reduced their level of self-exploration. Similar findings were obtained by Piaget, Berenson and Carkhuff (1967), with an additional finding that with helpers functioning at a moderate level, both high and low level helpees dropped their self-exploration levels in the middle period and did not recover in the final phase when the helpers returned to communicating at a more adequate level.

#### Summary and Critique of Rogerian Process Studies

A comprehensive range of studies, springing largely from the Wisconsin Project, provided a measure of empirical support for the initial theoretical propositions on the importance of helper empathy, congruence and positive regard conditions. A relationship between high levels of these conditions and positive therapeutic outcomes has been identified, and between them and high levels of helpee self-exploration behaviour. A relationship has also been identified between self-exploration levels and therapeutic outcome indices.

Enthusiasm about unravelling the key to effective helping emerged out of these studies. The implications for training and practice were and have been far reaching. A number of criticisms, however, can be made:

(i) whereas these helper conditions may indeed be necessary as claimed, they are by no means sufficient. Many of the studies cited (e.g. Truax, Wargo, Frank et al, 1966; Truax & Wargo, 1966b,c) indicated that with helpers offering similar levels of facilitative conditions helpees still varied quite considerably on outcome measures. Similarly, the relationship between helpee self-exploration and therapeutic outcomes varied across a range of indices.

Other process variables have been shown to a greater or lesser extent to be related to helpee outcomes. For example, a positive relationship has been indicated for appropriate therapist self-disclosure, spontaneity and commitment (Rausch & Bordin, 1957); intensity and intimacy (Truax, 1962g); focus on defense mechanisms (Truax, 1969a) and source of anxiety or threat (Truax, 1969b); openness, flexibility and persuasive potency (Truax, Fine et al, 1968); concreteness (Truax & Carkhuff, 1964b); and confrontation (Berenson & Mitchell, 1974).

(ii) it has been claimed that the relationship of the process conditions to therapeutic outcome has been overstated. Lambert, DeJulio and Stein (1978) claim that there are serious design limitations within the research studies and state that the positive claims from the findings are on the whole unwarranted. Gladstein (1970, 1977) in summarizing findings on empathy in relation to outcome for counselling in contrast to psychotherapy highlighted the limited basis for making any definitive claims. After assessing the evidence on the effects of process conditions, Meltzoff and Kornrieck (1970) suggested that too much was dependent on assumptions that self-exploration leads to change and that facilitative process conditions lead to heightened self-exploration. A number of studies indeed have not replicated the positive findings for process conditions in effective helping (e.g. Bergin & Jasper, 1969; Beutler, Johnson, Neville & Workman, 1972).

(iii) several criticisms have been made about methodological weaknesses to do with the rating scales utilized in the studies. Chinsky and Rappaport (1970) and Rappaport and Chinsky (1972) are critical of the discriminant validity of Truax's Accurate Empathy scale, their argument

being countered in a rejoinder by Truax (1972). They, along with others (Resnikoff, 1972; Lambert, DeJulio & Stein, 1978; Gormally & Hill, 1974) also question the reliability assessments of raters using the process condition scales.

(iv) there have also been claims that the scales are highly intercorrelated and do not measure separate conditions (Resnikoff, 1972; Mills & Zytowski, 1967). The suggestion is that they are defined partially in relationship to one another and combine to measure a global 'good therapy' condition. Muehlberg, Pierce and Drasgow (1969) in factor analysis indicated that a single major factor accounted for practically all of the observed correlations among the obtained facilitative conditions. Truax (1963) found intercorrelations of .54 for empathy and nonpossessive warmth, .49 for empathy and genuineness, and .25 for warmth and genuineness. On these figures, between six and thirty percent of the variance on the one measure is common to another.

In response to these major criticisms, it needs to be acknowledged that there are indeed several design and methodological limitations. Some of these are largely inevitable in studies within the social sciences field and for helping interaction in particular (Kiesler, 1971; Gelso, 1979). Yet from another perspective, there have been quite remarkable efforts taken to ensure adequate levels of scientific rigour. The findings have been fairly consistent (Rogers, 1975) and although a direct cause-effect relationship could not be claimed the association is very consistent. The studies not supporting the positive findings have themselves had methodological weaknesses (Corydon, Hammond et al, 1977), such as having low interrater reliabilities and often failing to differentiate helpers on the basis of high and low conditions of functioning. Additionally, the studies overall have failed adequately to differentiate the various components of helping, operating as if it were a unitary process with uniform helpers, helpees and outcomes. In the face of this position the findings are really quite supportive.

The reliability levels on the various scales in the studies have been consistently high (Truax & Mitchell, 1971). There is a great deal of evidence to show that trained raters agree remarkably well when using the various scales. Truax and Carkhuff (1967) reported 18 studies in which Pearson product-moment coefficients were computed for interrater



reliability using the empathy scale. The median coefficient of these studies was .85. Shapiro (1968) found that untrained raters using the process scales showed considerable agreement with raters who had been trained on the scales.

The fairly consistent positive relationship among the scales indicates that they indeed may not be independent factors. Some studies do, however, offer findings that suggest some independence. Garfield and Bergin (1971), Truax, Carkhuff and Kodman (1965) and Truax, Wargo, Frank et al (1966) found some negative correlations among the various scales. Also, Truax and Carkhuff (1965) were able to have a confederate helper manipulate levels of warmth and empathic understanding whilst maintaining independent levels of genuineness.

#### A Behavioural Skills Direction and the HRD Model

Whereas the initial theoretical formulations of the facilitative process conditions led to a push for the development of operational scales to aid in research of the kind just examined, the resulting positive findings were instrumental in the acceleration of ways of teaching and applying helper qualities in practice. In efforts to maximise the preparation and impact of helpers, programmes for the development of skills based on the facilitative process conditions were developed (e.g. Ivey, 1971; Gazda, 1977). It was recognized that people could be trained to communicate process conditions more effectively, this being confirmed through studies concentrating on lay helpers where their helping skills were markedly improved through systematic programmes (Carkhuff, 1969). Emphasis came to be put on the 'self as instrument' (Combs et al, 1971). The transition period of the 1960's into the 1970's became one where helping skills received prominence, and this progressed throughout the seventies decade.

A particularly comprehensive and systematic skills model for helping (Human Resource Development - HRD) has been developed by Robert Carkhuff and his associates (Carkhuff, 1969; Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977; Carkhuff & Anthony, 1979). Carkhuff was involved in the Wisconsin Project, then later began to extend beyond the initial formulations. He and his colleagues engaged in a vast programme of research, concentrating on additional helping variables that extended the model framework

(Carkhuff, 1969; Berenson & Mitchell, 1974); highlighting the training of lay and professional helpers and supervisors (Pierce, Carkhuff & Berenson, 1967); extending applications to various settings (Carkhuff, Berenson et al, 1974); and promoting the teaching of skills as treatment (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1976; Carkhuff & Bierman, 1970; Pierce & Drasgow, 1969). The HRD research work and model formulations to that time were summarized in a special issue of the *Counseling Psychologist* in 1972. Then, and in recent years, Carkhuff's work in research, training and practice has had wide-ranging influence.

As an extension of the initial Rogerian formulations additional helper behaviours of concreteness, confrontation, immediacy, deficit-goal determination, problem-solving and programme development were added (Carkhuff, 1969; Berenson & Mitchell, 1974; Carkhuff & Anthony, 1979). These and helpee behaviours of understanding and action (Carkhuff, 1969) have been incorporated into a skills based phase-progression model of helping interaction. The model is schematically presented in Figure 1.

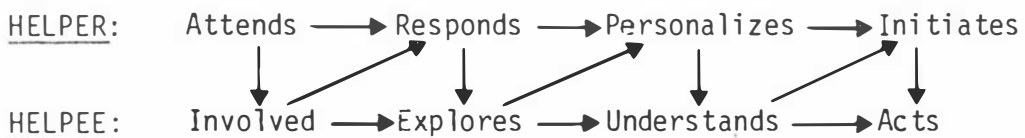


Fig. 1: Human Resource Development Helping Model

A feature of the model is the highly intentional behaviour of the helper. Using judgement based mainly on cues from the helpee but also from an internalized framework of objectives, the trained helper uses communicational skills to interact purposefully with the helpee. The helper attends to the helpee and is initially responsive to the helpee's experience, communicating accurate empathy, respect, genuineness and concreteness at minimally effective levels, thereby encouraging helpee self-exploration processes. The helper then intensifies these conditions at higher levels (apart from concreteness which for a period becomes contra-indicated), utilizes immediacy and where necessary confrontation through a personalizing phase, which centres upon a shared helper-helpee understanding of the latter's personalized deficit(s) and goal(s). The triad conditions are further intensified into a third major phase, along

with the utilization of problem solving skills and skills for the concrete development of programmes, towards initiating action on the part of the helpee to meet his or her goal(s).

Overall, there is the intentional application of various specific skills by the helper as well as an intentional heightening of intensity throughout the phase progression. The two major helping phases are those of responsiveness and initiative with the former highlighting the triad conditions and helpee self-exploration and the latter highlighting goal directed efforts based on a transition phase of personalized deficit-goal understanding. The helper-communicated triad conditions continue to operate throughout the interaction with deliberately heightened levels of intensity, which results in a blending of the two phases. At the highest levels, responsiveness is initiative, in that real empathy and respect inevitably tune in to a helpee's action needs; and initiative is responsiveness, in that effective action is based on and accompanied by highest levels of empathy, respect and genuineness. This blending is demonstrated (with brackets representing potential levels) in Figure 2.

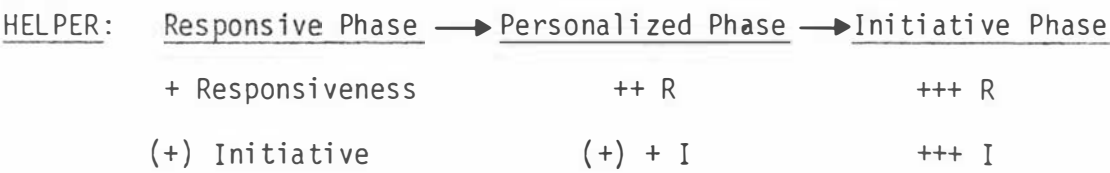


Fig. 2: Responsive/Initiative Blending in the HRD Model

Whilst the impact of skills models has been extensively researched by the various advocates and none more than Carkhuff, the approach has also attracted its share of critics. Some concentrate on the skills philosophy and others address more the rigour of the evidence offered in support of skills programmes. Within the same 1972 special issue of the Counseling Psychologist extensive criticism of Carkhuff's work was made by Resnikoff (1972). He questioned the validity and reliability of the various rating scales, Carkhuff's lack of adequate control groups, whether anything more than a single global facilitative factor was being studied, and stated that no one single study had incorporated all the elements of helper conditions, helpee self-exploration and effective

outcomes. The harshest and most avid critics of Carkhuff's work, however, are Lambert and DeJulio (1977; Lambert, DeJulio & Stein, 1978). They made a major and scathing attack on the HRD research programme, criticising piece by piece the studies and subsequent claims made by Carkhuff (1972). After addressing the range of findings presented by Carkhuff, they summarize their criticisms, saying that the HRD studies have:

failed to specify the nature of the treatment; its components seem to vary from one study to the next; control groups of a comparative type are usually missing, and, when present, have not been equivalent in expectation, motivation, contact time, leader skill or enthusiasm. Measures of process have not been collected and associated with helpee benefits. The scales used to measure gains in interpersonal skills do not have published validity data to support them. Subjects usually practice on the criterion measures employed at post-testing. The gains made have not been demonstrated to be broadly generalized or of practical significance and therefore seem to be of rather limited value (p.79).

Whilst there is justifiable concern about some of their comments, such as the lack of specified reliability data on judges in several of the late studies by Carkhuff, many of their criticisms are general concerns about research on helping and highlight the difficulties involved. One of Carkhuff's strengths in comparison to other approaches in the helping field is his extensive empirical base. Selective emphasis, inaccuracy and some obvious bias is evident in the papers by Lambert and DeJulio as they overplay legitimate questions. These features are highlighted in a comprehensive and systematic rejoinder from Anthony and Drasgow (1978). These authors restore the balance of the issues and provide a more realistic appraisal of the credibility of Carkhuff's work and contribution. Perhaps it is the appraisal by Hefele and Hurst (1972), however, that best represents a realistic appraisal of the HRD model. They have realistic criticism of aspects of the methodological procedures and fairly question some of the findings on these grounds. However, they also highlight the wide ranging utility and relevance of the model for the field in terms of training and practice and support its significance for the helping field.

An argument put forward by Lambert and DeJulio echoes a frequent criticism made towards the skills training method. With Carkhuff (1972b) voicing the opinion held by many that counselling is in a skills crisis

and the only legitimate theme for counselling [and training] is a skills acquisition theme, Lambert and DeJulio (1977) state:

it is highly doubtful...that even Rogers could have anticipated the fundamental change in emphasis from therapist attitudes to a technology of tightly shaped therapist interpersonal skills taught in a systematic training programme (p.79).

This issue centres largely on whether helping is an art or a science (technology) which is a debate of long standing (Calia, 1974). The matter is not ignored by the skills advocates. Ivey, for one, states:

we view interviewing as more complex than merely emitting discrete, canned, or mechanical behaviours at the appropriate moment. Micro-counselling simply provides the vehicle for the student to acquire necessary, discrete skills, which, once delineated and acquired, can be internalized and spontaneously emitted (p.30, 1971).

Brammer (1979) clearly regards helping as both a science and an art. Although more implied than fully stated, this is evident also within Carkhuff's work. He holds (Carkhuff, 1972b) that a training programme that is not programmatic may be more harmful than helpful because learning complex behaviours in a random or generalized way is not really possible. He, like Aspy (1972), also sees discipline as the foundation of creativity rather than being the antithesis of it, stating that "there is no spontaneity and creativity without the basic responses in one's repertoire" (Carkhuff, 1972b, p.29).

Carkhuff (1972b) also warns that a technology elicits resistance. The extent of the resistance towards skills work would to a considerable extent be dependent on the stance adopted by trainers. Experience and feedback from many trainees indicates that some trainers regard the intentional application of behavioural skills as sufficient for training and practice. This is not, however, a necessary feature of the skills method (Ivey & Authier, 1978).

### Nonverbal Communication in Helping

The attention that has recently been given to the nonverbal channel of communication in social interaction (Harper, Wiens & Matarazzo, 1978), has also been evident within the more specialized field of interpersonal helping. The stances adopted for making meaning out of experience in the wider fields have application to the more specific helping situation, but propositions and empirical findings that come directly from the former

must be treated cautiously when applied to the latter. One of the widely accepted principles of nonverbal communication study is that its real meaning can only be determined within an understanding of the specific context in which it occurs (Birdwhistell, 1970). Major differences in roles, rules, goals and other dynamics operate within the contexts of interpersonal helping. Substantive claims can only be made from studies that directly examine nonverbal communication from these defined contexts.

The fact that nonverbal behaviours are of major importance to interpersonal helping communication, is undisputed. Ekman and Friesen (1968) highlight their relevance in stating that:

- (1) nonverbal language can be considered a relationship language, sensitive to, and the primary means of, signalling changes in the quality of an ongoing relationship....
- (2) It is the primary means of expressing or communicating emotion.....
- (3) Nonverbal behaviour has special symbolic value, expressing in body language basic, perhaps unconscious, attitudes about the self or body-image....
- (4) [It serves] the metacommunicative function of providing qualifiers as to how verbal discourse should be interpreted....
- (5) Nonverbal behaviour is less affected than verbal behaviour by attempts to censor communication (p.180-181).

Gladstein (1974), following a review of the literature on nonverbal communication in psychotherapy and counselling over the period 1947-73, also stressed its importance in the total communication system. He was critical of the methodological procedures for most of the studies reviewed, and he could only find adequate support for three general findings. These were that nonverbal communication can be readily classified in the helping context (e.g. Freedman, 1972); that most is known about paralanguage (e.g. Duncan, Rice & Butler, 1968); and that paralanguage and kinesics are related to process changes and emotional states (e.g. Deutsch, 1966; Ekman & Friesen, 1968).

Most attention has been given to the nonverbal behaviours of helpees in the research. Initially, from within the psychodynamic approach, nonverbal behaviours were regarded as having an expressive function (Reich, 1945; Deutsch & Murphy, 1955). Specific behaviours (e.g. crossing

legs) were inferred to be associated with inner states and were given clinical meaning (e.g. a fear of castration). With a greater recognition of the communicative function of nonverbal behaviours (Mehrabian, 1972), more attention has been given to ongoing interaction, and accordingly the nonverbal behaviours of the helper have also come under greater scrutiny.

### Helper Nonverbal Communication

Skills models of interpersonal helping invariably give consideration to distinctive helper physical behaviours that, in combination with other communication elements, are regarded as being facilitative. Attending is a term that is often used to collectively identify such behaviours (Ivey, Normington et al, 1968; Egan, 1976). The Human Resource Development Model of Robert Carkhuff (Carkhuff, 1972c; Carkhuff & Pierce, 1977; Carkhuff & Anthony, 1979) puts considerable emphasis on the helper's skills of physical attending, with the separate behaviours being: adopting a square-on orientation to the helpee; a comfortable distance between the individuals; maintenance of eye contact; and an initial upright posture from the helper, shifting to a forward lean as the interaction progresses. Within the detailed skills approach of the HRD system, these nonverbal behaviours are broken down further into sub-skills, with squaring involving facing the helpee, assuming an erect posture with right shoulder aligned to the other's left shoulder; distance, between three to five feet; eye contact meaning regular, but not constant, eye-to-eye gazes; and leaning involving a shift of the upper body towards the helpee, with the forearms resting on the thighs just above the knees and the feet flat on the floor (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977). Egan (1976) captures the same elements in the acronym SOLER (square, open, lean, eye contact, relaxed).

For Carkhuff, such nonverbal behaviours communicate a 'hovering attentiveness', and Egan sees them as suggestive of both a physical and a psychological presence. The major function of attending, as evidenced in the literature, appears to be to signal to the helpee the helper's undivided attention, with this in turn promoting the helpee's intense involvement in the helping process. Carkhuff and Berenson (1977) claim a process of reciprocation, whereby helpees are inclined to invest themselves in the interaction to the degree that helpers are disposed to investing in them, and this is demonstrated by helpers through physical attending and other process behaviours. The potent influence of

attending behaviours in this direction is evident in a study reported by Ivey and Hinkle (1970) and Ivey (1971). Six students within a psychology seminar, at a given signal, switched from passive slouch and note taking activity to attentive postures incorporating active eye contact with the teacher. Prior to this point, the teaching style was characterized by lecturing in a monotone with few gestures and minimal attention to the students. With the change in attending behaviour of the students there was a distinctive improvement in teaching style. During this period, there was an increase in gestures and verbal rate, and lively involvement from the teacher. On a return by the students to their initial behaviour, the teacher, after belated attempts to receive continued reinforcement, reverted to his initial teaching style.

Effective attending from the helper also greatly enhances the potential for observation of the helpee's nonverbal behaviours. Emotions, attitudes and other important information about the self are communicated to a considerable extent on the nonverbal channel, and if there is any discrepancy between the messages of the verbal and nonverbal channels, it is invariably the latter which is most difficult to censor and modify (Mehrabian, 1972). It therefore becomes imperative that the helper be fully open to this source of material. Accurate empathy, undoubtedly a key to effective helping, is based upon a comprehensive perception of the helpee's experience. This experience will rarely be expressed fully and precisely by the helpee through verbal language, largely because a lack of clear personal awareness is often a feature of the helpee's underlying difficulties. Indeed, the verbal communications of the helpee can often be misleading in this regard, either through deliberate censoring or through confusion and lack of awareness. Nonverbal behaviours, both gross and subtle, are perhaps most indicative of the helpee's experience, and, along with verbal communication, they must receive the helper's fullest attentions (Carkhuff & Anthony, 1979).

### Attending

Each of the elements of attending behaviour - distance, posture (including orientation and lean), and eye contact - separately and in combination, have been central to various empirical studies on human social interaction, and also, but to a lesser extent, on interpersonal



helping. Provided the principle of regard for the specific context is applied in generalizing from any findings, an examination of the major scientific studies on these behaviours is informative.

Distance - The way in which space is utilized between communicators is an important feature of social interaction. It has been associated with human territorial behaviour, being regarded by many as governed by 'personal space' needs (Lyman & Scott, 1967; Scheflen, 1970; Vine, 1975). Leibman (1970) suggests that individuals have their own distinctive 'psychological bubble', capable of being measured, which is always with them. This semi-fixed space is seen to vary for individuals, but is also characterized by differences arising from ethnic and other subgroup membership. Implicit in this concept is a static meaning which is not able to be readily supported (Patterson, 1975). In reality there is a wide range of intra-individual variation in the use of space, dependent upon a number of factors. A more accurate notion is that of 'interpersonal space', with individuals largely adjusting the distance between themselves "according to their ethnicity, their level of intimacy, their prior relationship, their business together and available physical space and circumstances" (Scheflen, 1972, p.23).

Evidence is strong in indicating that there are cultural variations in preferred interaction distances (Baxter, 1970; Little, 1968; Willis, 1966). Arab students, for example, were found by Watson and Graves (1966) to assume closer positions relative to one another during social interaction than were North American students. From studying white North Americans, Hall (1966) distinguished four distinctive functional interaction zones. These zones were 0 - 1½ feet (intimate zone); 1½ - 4 feet (personal zone); 4 - 10 feet (social-consultative zone); and 10 feet plus (public zone). Empirical data on the use of interpersonal space has also been found to support other group differences. Gender differences were identified by Baxter (1970), in that male-female pairs assumed closest positions relative to each other, then female pairs, with furthest positions being adopted by male pairs. The same study also found significant differences related to age, with decreasing interaction distances among the subject groups of adults, adolescents and children. Status differences have also been found (Lott & Sommer, 1967) with those of equal status tending to choose closer distances than those of unequal status.

A number of encoding and decoding studies of social interaction have examined the relationship between proximity and evaluative attitudes of liking and disliking. Leipold (1963) found that individuals who expected to be evaluated positively by an individual chose a closer chair than did those who expected to be evaluated negatively. Rosenfeld (1965) similarly found that subjects sat closer to others they wanted to be friendly with than to those they did not. Subjects in a study by Little (1965) chose shorter distances between interactants as depicting a more intimate relationship, and Golding (1967) found the relationship between closer individuals was interpreted as being more accepting and responsive. Mehrabian (1969) found sitting distances varying directly in five steps from  $68\frac{1}{2}$  to 110 inches for various levels of liked-to-disliked persons. Taken overall, these findings indicate that closer proximity (within reasonably normal limits for interaction), is used to convey and is interpreted as conveying attitudes of liking towards another person.

In the context of interpersonal helping, some attention in the research has been given to the effects of interactional distance. The major studies focussing on this variable are primarily concerned with decoding processes, examining as they do the perceptions and reactions of helpees, other distinct subject groups, or trained raters. In the main, they suffer from a limitation typical of most predictive studies in this context, in that they utilize artificial conditions, with a preference for photographs or brief video excerpts to serve as the stimulus for subjects. Further, there are quite considerable differences in the variables under examination within the research. Studies by Dinges and Oetting (1972), Haase (1970), Knight and Bair (1976), Lassen (1969) and Pierce (1970), all examine the effects of interpersonal distance in a counselling dyad and all of them focus on what is decoded by their subjects. However, only two of the five studies involve actual interaction and they vary considerably in the subjects used (college students, clients, administrators, counsellors), sex combinations, instructional sets, distance conditions, and dependent variables and measures. It becomes difficult, therefore, to compare the findings and to generalize from the studies to natural helping situations.

Haase (1970) used still photographs of a male-female dyad at five different distances between 30 and 88 inches. Examination was made of

male and female subject distance preferences, with a variation in instructional set (counselling for a personal-social problem or for an academically-oriented problem). The data revealed significant differences only for the distance effect, with a linear relationship showing 30, 39 and 50 inches as most preferred; 66 inches preferred less; and 88 inches preferred least of all. A similar linear relationship was found by Lassen (1969) varying interaction distances in actual counselling contact between nine, six and three feet, and using an anxiety level measure of speech disturbance ratio. She found most disturbance occurred at nine feet, less at six and least of all at three feet.

A direct contrast to the findings of Haase (1970) was obtained by Dinges and Oetting (1972). They used almost identical independent variables, but altered the dependent measure by focussing on subject anxiety in contrast to subject preference. They believed anxiety to be a more meaningful concept for counselling interaction than that of stated preference. Their data indicated that female subjects associated all distances with greater anxiety than did male subjects, as did those subjects having a counselling set against those without any specific set beyond being in the dyad. A curvilinear relationship was identified between interaction distances and anxiety scores, with greater anxiety associated with 30 and 88 inches than for three intermediate distances (39, 50, 66 inches).

A similar curvilinear relationship was found by Knight and Bair (1976) using actual interaction between male counsellors and clients and measuring client anxiety by means of a semantic differential scale and direct behavioural observations. The distances used, however, were different, being those of 18, 30 and 48 inches. They found that the highest comfort level was at a distance of 30 inches, lower at 48, and lowest at 18 inches. Using photographs of counselling interaction, with variations of posture (backward lean, upright, forward lean) and distances (30, 39, 48, 66 inches), Pierce (1970) measured the extent to which male clients, counsellors and administrators perceived the counsellor as conveying a positive attitude towards them. No significant differences were found between the subject groups, but there were significant differences for variations in distance and posture, separately and in interaction. For the distance variations once again a curvilinear relationship was found, with ratings of positive attitudes for 39 and 48

inches being more favourable than those of 30 or 66 inches.

Major methodological differences make it difficult to draw conclusions from these studies. The findings reveal some contradictions, but inevitably these would be associated with differences in the major variables under examination, such as distance measures, postural factors, sex, and what they are seen to influence. In line with experience, findings from social interaction studies, and clinical indications, it would seem that the most likely conclusions would be those suggesting a curvilinear relationship between interaction distance and client preference and interaction distance and client levels of anxiety. For any helping interaction it is probable that an optimal range of comfort and preference would exist, with levels diminishing in a curvilinear fashion on either side of this.

Posture - The dimension of posture involves distinctions of bodily movement and position, and can also be seen to incorporate features of orientation and openness. Additionally, posture interacts with proximity with interpersonal space being altered by a postural shift of leaning forward or backward from an upright position. As a distinctive nonverbal behaviour posture has been regarded by some as indicative of emotional states (Dittman, 1962), either through being a direct physiological response to the affect state or emotional mood, or through symbolic meanings. In the latter case, posture has been utilized as a major clinical-diagnostic tool in the therapeutic work of a number of clinicians (Mahl, 1968; Deutsch, 1947, 1952; Dittman, 1962). Posture has also been found to be associated with speech and speaking interaction (Schefflen, 1963, 1965a) as well as with the communication of interpersonal attitudes (Mehrabian, 1968a).

Cultural differences in the meanings associated with various postures and in the kinds of postures most frequently used have been recognized (Hewes, 1957). However, within a specific culture widely shared meanings for a number of postures seems to exist, with Mehrabian (1968a, 1968b) in his studies, for example, finding that distinctive postures were adopted for friendly, hostile, superior and inferior attitudes and that these were perceived accordingly by others. Ekman and Friesen (1967) found that body posture conveyed less than facial expression with regard to specific emotions, and was more involved in

communicating the intensity of the emotion. They also found that stationary facial expressions and postures were more likely to convey gross affect (attitudes), whereas facial and bodily movements were more involved in the communication of specific affect (emotions). Waldron (1975) found also that posture had a significant relationship to the communication of attitudes of liking-disliking.

Forward postural leaning towards the helpee, is an aspect of helper attending behaviour that is regarded as important in helping interaction. Its significance undoubtedly lies in the fact that it involves the two potent factors of posture and proximity. Studies have shown a forward postural lean as being associated with positive attitudes toward an addressee. In an experiment by James (1932), which examined the relationship of various postures to the communication of attitudes, it was found that an approach category, characterised predominantly by a forward lean, was regarded as conveying more positive feelings than that of a contrasting withdrawal category, characterized mostly by a backward postural lean. Reece and Whitman (1962), like others, assumed in their study that a warm attitude would be communicated to a subject if the experimenter leaned forward in his chair, along with smiling, keeping hands still and having more eye contact. A forward lean has also been part of a composite of behaviours found by Argyle (1975) and Mehrabian (1972) to be associated with the communication of positive attitudes.

Orientation, too has been found to be associated with measures of liking, and to a lesser degree those of status (Argyle & Kendon, 1967; Mehrabian, 1969; Rosenfeld, 1965). In his study, James (1932) found that a more direct orientation was associated with a more positive attitude. Studies by Sommer (1967, 1969) and Cook (1970) have focussed on orientation in combination with several other factors, including the nature of the anticipated encounter, the relationship between the individuals, and fixed situational factors (positions of table and chairs). Sommer (1967) found different orientations chosen dependent upon whether conversational, cooperative, competitive or no encounter at all was anticipated. In later work (Sommer, 1969; Cook, 1970), again with these categories, it was found that 44% of the cooperative-encounter category chose a side-by-side orientation; 44% of the conversational-encounter category chose a ninety-degree angle; and 41% of the competitive-encounter category chose a directly-opposite orientation. This latter figure has been considered by some practitioners as

justification for avoiding a directly-opposite orientation for helping encounters. However, along with the contextual differences, it should be recognized that 38% of the conversational category also chose this particular orientation.

HRD attending, by virtue of its specified behaviour, presumes an openness of arms and legs, in contrast to their being closed (i.e. crossed arms or legs). Data from Machotka (1965), who gathered subjects ratings of line drawings, found that those figures having closed-arm positions were judged as cold, rejecting, shy and passive, whereas those with moderate or extreme open-arm positions were judged as warm and accepting. Speigel and Machotka (1974) found similar results, except that extreme open-arm positions were also seen negatively, being rated as immodest and exhibitionistic. Openness of posture was explicitly stated by Egan (1976) as a feature of attending behaviour, and he also makes particular reference to the importance of being relaxed. When combined with the other designated attending behaviours, this refers more to a sleep-tension continuum identified by Schlosberg (1954) rather than particular postural configurations (e.g. leaning backwards with feet up on a desk). Schlosberg found the sleep-tension conditions as being associated with the expression of emotions, and Dittman, Parloff and Boomer (1965) found body relaxation, although secondary to facial cues, also to be a significant factor in perceived levels of pleasantness-unpleasantness. A curvilinear relationship on a tension-relaxation continuum was found by Mehrabian (1969), with the extremes of the continuum being indicative of more negative feelings than was a moderate level of relaxation. With regard to distinctive postural configurations of relaxation (e.g. sideways body lean), there are indications (Goffman, 1961; Mehrabian, 1972) that these have status connotations, being more evident in the presence of a lower status addressee. These findings are suggestive of the value of not being too tense in interpersonal helping interaction, but also that the 'super cool' postures utilized by some helpers may be contra-indicated.

Specifically in the context of interpersonal helping, some study has been carried out on the various preceding postural dimensions. Scheflen (1964, 1965c, 1973) has given considerable attention to postural and kinesic behaviours in psychotherapy, with some attention also to the behaviours of the helper. Most of his work, however, has been

observational in kind with little formal data and analysis. He sees postural/kinesic behaviours of the therapist and patient being typically of a reciprocal, quasi-courting style, and also associates major postural moves on the therapist's part with definable shifts in therapeutic tactics.

The study by Pierce (1970), referred to for its proxemic distinctions, also considered the effects of posture. Counsellor, administrator and client judges all rated upright and forward lean postures as conveying a more positive attitude than a backward lean posture. In conjunction with distances, the best combinations for communicating positive attitude were found to be those of an upright posture at 39 inches and a forward lean at 48 inches. Gentner and Moughan (1977) in a study involving actual but quasi-helping interaction at a fixed distance of 48 inches, found that all of their subjects consistently rated listeners in a forward leaning position more positively than when in an upright postural position.

Some evidence in support of the findings on the positive nature of openness of limbs was obtained within the helping context by Smith-Hanen (1977). She found that counsellor postures involving crossed arms were judged as cold and less empathic, as was the case for a crossed-leg position (with the ankle of one leg on the knee of the other). This crossed leg condition did not seem to be related to closed posture, as other crossed leg positions were not rated in this way. It seems possible that the posture concerned could have links with relaxation configuration cues, being perhaps perceived more as communicating attitudes associated with a status difference.

### Eye Contact

Eye contact serves a very vital function in interaction for purposes of observation, which is vital for obtaining cues on the addressee's moment-to-moment experience. It is also important, though, as a signalling behaviour and, as such, is invaluable for the smooth regulation of interaction as well as for communicating interpersonal attitudes.

In the regulation of interaction, eye contact plays a key role in signalling cues for turn-taking in listening-speaking activities (Kendon,

1967). Steer (1972) also observed that increased gaze activity was associated with transition points in the interaction. It has been established as a potent behaviour in the signalling of affiliative and dominance-submissive attitudes. Exline (1962, 1972) and his colleagues, in their studies of eye contact behaviours reported that higher levels of eye contact between communicators was generally linked with more positive attitudes between them. It has been noted (Exline, Gray & Schuette, 1965) that when an interaction was aversive, less eye contact was evident between the communicators. Also, in a study by Exline and Winters (1965), the subjects tended to avoid eye contact with an interviewer and expressed more negative feelings towards him after he had commented unfavourably on their performance. When verbal communication was associated with more eye contact, it was decoded more favourably by the subjects (Exline & Elridge, 1967).

Studies by other researchers support the relationship between greater eye contact and more positive attitudes. Mehrabian (1972) found that a subject who was looked at most in an interaction inferred that she was more preferred. Argyle, Lefebvre and Cook (1974) found a similar positive decoding association with increases in gaze level, but only up to a certain point. Too much gazing resulted in a decrease in the level of liking, suggesting that beyond a comfortable level it has threat connotations. The principle of reciprocation, previously referred to in relation to attending behaviour as a whole, also seems to operate on the dimension of eye contact within the suggested normal limits. Argyle (1975) stated that "if A looks at B, not only does B perceive A as liking him, but he in turn likes A more" (p.233).

Notable sex differences have been determined in studies of eye contact. The Exline studies consistently found among same sexed pairs, that females generally had more eye contact with each other than did male pairs. This condition is consistent with what Mehrabian (1970) regards as greater affiliative tendencies in females.

Status differences and differences in dominance-submissive attitudes are regarded as being part of the signalling functions of eye contact, being governed largely by frequency and duration of gaze. Strongman and Champness (1968) found that more dominant individuals looked less frequently, although they broke gaze last in interactions.



Thayer (1969) found that the senders of long gazes were seen as being more dominant than senders of short glances, and Argyle, Lefebvre and Cook (1974) found that the more a person looked, the more dominant and self confident the person was judged as being. With regard to status differences, Exline and Long (1971) established that the lower status person in a communication looked most, this being in line with Efran (1968) who observed that a communicator looked more at someone of higher status than at someone of lower status. Hearn (1957) determined that eye contact with an addressee (with distance and other elements held constant), was a parabolic function of the status of that addressee. Moderate eye contact was found to be associated with very high status, maximum with moderately high status, and least eye contact with a very low status addressee.

No major studies have been undertaken on eye contact as a single variable in the context of helping interaction. It does feature frequently, however, in combination with other nonverbal behaviours (e.g. Kelly, 1971).

#### Combined Attending Variables

The preceding studies on the separate variables of attending behaviour involve quite a considerable degree of overlap, both in the categories under which they might be described (e.g. posture and distance) and in their communicative functions (e.g. interpersonal attitudes of like-dislike and status). Examining the behaviours separately is of value, but this procedure can limit understanding and explanation. Consideration must inevitably be given to logical and empirically derived combinations of the individual behaviours (Patterson, 1975). The attending behaviour complex, as a whole, has logical meaning for the dynamics of helping interaction, and similar behavioural groupings have been empirically identified in the context of social interaction.

Some empirical work utilizing combinations of variables has been done in helping contexts. La Crosse (1975) and Sobelman (1973) examined the effects of what they regarded as affiliative nonverbal behaviours - smiling, head nods, hand gestures, eye contact, shoulder orientation at zero degrees and a 20 degree forward lean. They established that this affiliative complex was perceived by clients as being more attractive and warm than contrasting behaviours.

The helper attending composite has been utilized in studies by Kelly (1971, 1972) and Genthner and Moughan (1977). Kelly varied the nonverbal behaviours of interaction distance, eye contact, openness of arms and legs, orientation and trunk lean in photographs, and had male subjects representing diverse helpee diagnostic categories rate the photographs in terms of how they considered the helpee felt about them. Results indicated that for all the disparate helpee groups, the nonverbal helper cues of closer interaction distances, eye contact, a forward trunk lean and a face-to-face body orientation were instrumental in the conveyance of positive helper attitudes. Also, it was found that the cues were related in such a way as to either enhance or detract from the overall communication of these attitudes. In an actual, but pseudo-helping encounter, Genthner and Moughan specifically studied the effects of HRD attending behaviours (a close distance - four feet; eye contact; square on; loosely clasped hands). They manipulated the helper-listener's posture between being upright or leaning forward with forearms resting on the legs above the knees. Helpee-speaker subject groups of introvert and extrovert students rated the interaction experience on a bipolar adjective scale. There were no significant differences for the separate groups or overall between the upright and forward lean postures on such descriptions as respect-disrespect, like-dislike, accept-reject, understanding-not understanding, helpful-not helpful, involved-uninvolved, and judgemental-non judgemental dimensions. Overall, the subjects rated the helper-listener in the forward position as being significantly more attentive and non-threatening than in the upright posture. In no case was the helper-listener rated more negatively in the forward posture than in the upright posture.

Alan Ivey and his associates (Ivey, 1971) have attending as one of their helper microcounselling training skills. Along with the specified nonverbal behaviours, however, they include the element of verbal following (i.e. verbally responding to the helpee's statements without introducing tangential material). In a study by Ivey, Normington and others (1968) using this notion of attending, it was found that counsellors trained in this skill were rated as being more effective by experienced counsellors than those not trained in attending.

The communication of interpersonal attitudes, both directly and indirectly, comprises a great deal of the essence of social interaction,

and as previously determined is also part of the nature of effective helping interaction. Nonverbal behaviours have this as one of their most important functions. Mehrabian (1972), from extensive reviewing of empirical data, was able to identify two distinctive behavioural groupings found to be associated with communicating attitudes of evaluation (like-dislike) on the one hand and attitudes of status or potency on the other. These two groupings were referred to by Mehrabian as immediacy and relaxation.

Mehrabian (1972) found that cues indicating postural relaxation, including "asymmetrical placement of the limbs, a sideways lean and/or reclining position by the seated communicator, and specific relaxation measures of the hands or knee" (p.11) were primarily related to status differences between a communicator and an addressee, with more relaxation when interacting with an addressee of lower status. Cues indicating postural immediacy, including "physical proximity, touching, eye contact, a forward lean rather than a reclining position and an orientation of the torso toward rather than away from the addressee" (1972, p.11) were found to communicate a more positive attitude toward the addressee. An intercorrelation of the various relaxation behaviours was identified but not so for those of immediacy. However, Mehrabian justifies the grouping of these separate behaviours into a single nonverbal immediacy dimension, in that they have a conceptual relationship governing the physical proximity between communicators and so increase the level of mutual sensory stimulation between them.

Re-analysis of a number of the studies of nonverbal behaviour in social interaction was undertaken by Mehrabian (1972), using the dimensions of relaxation and immediacy. From one of his studies (1968a) reconsideration yielded simpler relationships, with standing communicators being more immediate with liked rather than disliked addressees. A similar finding for seated communicators was found on re-analysis of Mehrabian and Friar's (1969) study, which also suggested that female communicators were generally more immediate than were male communicators. Using the immediacy concept, Mehrabian's (1968b) study involving the communication of five degrees of attitude, indicated a direct linear relationship between immediacy and liking.

Both of these composite nonverbal behavioural concepts have meaning for helpers in regard to their attending behaviour. Relaxation is

suggestive of what to avoid in preventing the communication of differential status levels, and immediacy what to utilize for the communication of attitudes of warmth and regard. HRD attending parameters allow for the positive effects of immediacy cues as well as avoiding the potential negative effects of postural relaxation cues. The immediacy cues have been ranked by Mehrabian (1972) in order of their importance for communicating liking, and in decreasing order they are touching, distance, forward lean, eye contact and orientation. The most important, touching, is a seldom used behaviour in psychotherapy or counselling and so does not feature as a specified component of helper attending. Orientation is the least important immediacy cue, having been found in empirical studies to have a positive but weak relationship to attitudes of liking (Mehrabian, 1972). Proximity in interaction incorporates both distance and forward lean, and so the significance of attending could largely be accounted for in terms of proximity and eye contact cues.

Proximity and eye contact behaviours have been shown, by Argyle and Dean (1965), to interact in the maintenance of an equilibrium level of communicated intimacy. They postulate that intimacy is associated with affiliative motives, and that it is communicated at an appropriate level by a combination of variables, most of which are nonverbal. It is seen largely as a function of eye contact and physical proximity including forward lean, but also includes such behaviours as smiling and intimacy of topic. It is evident that Argyle and Dean, like Mehrabian, Carkhuff and others, are highlighting behaviours of a process involving a direct relationship between a relatively common set of nonverbal cues and positive attitudes within an interpersonal relationship.

#### Addressee Effects

Affiliative, immediacy, intimacy or attending behaviours, inasmuch as they inevitably increase the potential level of sensory stimulation for both parties in the contact, must be regarded as potent elements of interaction. The evidence for social interaction, and to a lesser extent helping contexts, seems to indicate quite clearly that such behaviours are encoded and decoded as communicating positive attitudes of liking. The effects on the addressee, however, depend upon a variety of factors.

Middlemist, Knowles and Matter (1976) found that increased proximity of a confederate in a men's urinal resulted in delayed onset and a shorter duration of urinal flow. Closer approaches have been associated with increased galvanic skin response (GSR) (McBride, King & Jones, 1965) and also with increased self manipulative behaviours such as scratching and hand rubbing (Kleck, 1970). Efron and Cheyne (1974) found, in a forced intrusion study, no difference in the heart rate of subjects in comparison with a control group, but significantly more negative interaction behaviours like negative facial expressions. Fisher and Byrne (1975) identified more negatively rated effects from subjects with a more proximate intrusion in a library than from those intruded upon with less proximity.

The effects of eye contact on arousal in more ambiguous situations are very strong. It has been shown in different studies to be related to increased GSR (Nichols & Champness, 1971), increased heart rate (Kleinke & Pohlen, 1971) and decreased EEG activity (Gale, Lucas, Nissim & Harpham, 1972). Chapman (1975) found that children who engaged in high levels of eye contact moved their limbs more than those having low levels of eye contact, suggesting similar self manipulatory behaviours found by Kleck (1970) to be associated with greater proximity.

Patterson (1976) sees the physiological and behavioural effects of increased proximity and eye contact to be associated with arousal conditions. He believes this to be a function of a discontinuity of expectations experienced by the addressee. Increases in proximity and eye contact can be experienced as disruptive of ongoing interaction expectations, including the expectation that no interaction will take place. In some of the studies just mentioned, the nonverbal stimulus behaviour seemed to be of a transcontextual kind (Schefflen, 1972) in that it seemed in some degree to be inappropriate for the circumstances, and arousal occurred in response to this discontinuity. This notion of arousal effect has been put forward by Patterson (1976) as a likely explanation for some contradictory findings on the addressee effects of heightened immediacy or intimacy on the part of communicators.

Considerable evidence is accumulating to support the belief (Argyle & Dean, 1965) that an equilibrium process operates with regard to intimacy behaviours. This position holds that a dynamic pressure operates

between interacting individuals for maintaining a comfortable level of interpersonal intimacy. The variables of intimacy behaviour (eye contact, proximity, intimacy of topic, smiling) are seen to interact in terms of approach and avoidance forces within and between individuals. Approach forces are linked to feedback and affiliative needs and avoidance forces to a fear of being seen, of revealing inner states and of seeing rejecting responses. It is considered that a balance (equilibrium point) between the approach-avoidance tendencies will be arrived at in a given situation of interaction, this representing the optimal level for comfort and the satisfaction of needs. Any shift in one or more of the intimacy behaviours (e.g. increased or decreased proximity) will be compensated for by other intimacy behavioural changes (e.g. increased or decreased eye contact) to maintain an intimacy equilibrium.

Empirical data in support of this proposition can be found in studies showing a relationship between increased proximity and decreased eye contact (Argyle & Dean, 1965; Argyle & Ingham, 1972; Goldberg, Kiesler & Collins, 1969; Patterson, 1973; Schulz & Barefoot, 1974; Stephenson, Rutter & Dore, 1972); increased proximity with decreased body orientation (Aiello & Jones, 1971; Felipe & Sommer, 1966; Mehrabian & Diamond, 1971; Patterson, 1973; Patterson, Mullens & Romano, 1971; Pelligrini & Empey, 1970; Watson & Graves, 1966); and intimacy of questions with decreased eye contact (Carr & Dabbs, 1974; Schulz & Barefoot, 1974).

Results from other studies on these and similar dimensions have been found to be directly in opposition to the equilibrium-compensatory theory. The counter indications are that a reciprocation effect occurs, whereby increased intimacy behaviours by one party in the interaction results in an increase in intimacy behaviours from the other party. Jourard and Friedman (1970) and Breed (1972) identified this kind of response, with the former study relating touching to increased verbal self disclosure, and the latter, eye contact and forward lean to similar behaviours from the subject. Altman (1973) too, in a review paper, found that the vast majority of studies of self disclosure identified a reciprocation effect.

As well as having the two extreme positions of compensation or reciprocation, some additional studies do not give clear support to either. Aiello (1972) found a compensatory relationship between distance

and eye contact for male subjects but not for females. McDowell (1973), and Carr and Dabbs (1974), reported no difference in the amount of eye contact as a function of variations in interaction distance, and Russo (1975) found that increased proximity produced a decrease in percentage of eye contact but did not affect the mean length of eye contact, which she regarded as a better index of intimacy.

Differences among these sets of findings are accounted for by Patterson (1976) in terms of levels of arousal and the subsequent meanings given to the increased intimacy behaviours. Before any effect is likely, the stimulus must be sufficient to breach the individual's threshold level of arousal. When this occurs, Patterson suggests that a cognitive search for meaning is likely to follow based on the individual's definition of the immediate situation, its place in the overall interaction, and on past experiences with similar behaviours and settings. Depending on the meaning given, it will be channelled into either a positive or negative feeling state or emotion. If this direction is positive then reciprocation is likely to occur, whereas, if it is negative, then compensatory behaviours will operate to re-establish a comfortable equilibrium level. Findings indicating no significant effects of increased intimacy behaviours can be regarded, within this model, as not having breached the subject's threshold level of arousal.

Patterson's arousal model for the effects of intimacy or immediacy behaviours has considerable explanatory potential. Perhaps the most valuable generalization that can be suggested from the findings and the hypothesized model is the obvious importance of the definitions that individuals give to the immediate situation. It is the context that provides meaning, both for observers of any interaction and for those actually taking part. The relevance of this generalization and other indications from the arousal model, when considering the likely effects of attending behaviours within an interpersonal helping context, are that to a large extent the effects will be dependent upon the combined elements of the intensity of the attending behaviours, the arousal thresholds of the helper and the helpee, and the definitions they give to the immediate situation.

The way in which the situation is defined by helpees will inevitably be subject to a great deal of variation. Limited experience

of this kind of interaction could negatively influence their responses, in that the unknown features could heighten the potential for threat and having to be on guard. Also, previous experience with high level attending behaviour is likely to be limited or alternatively associated with more negative interactions such as with discipline (Carkhuff & Pierce, 1977). Under these conditions, not only might the arousal threshold be low, but the situation would be cathected negatively, with compensatory behaviours being most likely. However, given that the helpee, in seeking assistance is also therefore defining the situation along these lines, it is likely that there could be more toleration of the uncertainties inherent in the interaction. Additionally, the attending behaviours have been shown to have high reinforcement and anxiety desensitization value (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977), and mostly they are accompanied also by facilitative verbal process conditions, heightening the positive message. Under these circumstances, although the arousal threshold level can still be low, when breached there is perhaps more likelihood of the meaning of the experience being favourable, leading to positive affect and reciprocation behaviours.

With these kinds of variables involved, it seems inevitable that the effects of helper attending behaviour on helpees could either be compensatory or reciprocal in nature. If the former operated, then there would be shifts in behaviour in a non-immediacy direction, and these are also likely to include a reduction in self-exploration or self-disclosure behaviours. If the latter was the response, then heightened intimacy behaviours would follow, including perhaps those of increased self-exploration or self-disclosure. The real skill of effective attending would be to adjust the appropriate variables in response to the helpee's behaviour in such a way as to optimize the helpee's positive involvement in the communication process. The helper's nonverbal as well as verbal communications would enter into this. As yet though the relationship between these two channels in effective helping is largely unknown and is lacking in attention.

#### Attending Behaviours and Process Conditions

Therapeutic effectiveness has been found to be associated with the communication by helpers of particular attitudinal qualities, in conjunction with specific helpee process behaviours. Greatest emphasis



has been given to the verbal components of these qualities and behaviours. However, nonverbal behaviours are particularly powerful in communicating interpersonal attitudes, and, as well, they have considerable influence on the attitudes and ongoing behaviours of addressees or helpees. These two major communication channels, verbal and nonverbal, have mostly been explored in isolation from each other. It is important to give more consideration to how they might interact.

### An Holistic Stance

Historically, primary emphasis has been given to the mind as the major locus of experience and as the key instrument for meaningful interaction. The body has been relegated to being the servant, functioning more to relay the messages arrived at through cognitive-emotional experience. Reification of the mind concept has aided in the development of a position of psycho-physical parallelism (Sarles, 1975). Traditional psychiatry has largely been based on this dualistic notion, with the mind's psychic events being paramount, and seen often as the cause of physical diseases or bodily disorders (Freud, 1943).

Recent emphasis has been on a more holistic stance towards functioning (Dychtwald, 1977). Gestalt therapy, with its origins in gestalt psychology, is an approach that regards the organism as being much more unified. [It concentrates on processes rather than positing separate structures, such as 'the mind', which it regards as being responsible for limiting self awareness and experience. Perls (1973) regards thoughts and actions as being essentially the same, serving similar functions as the organism interacts with its environmental field.] Mental activity for Perls is merely symbolic action in place of what could be done physically, and as such becomes a time, energy and work saver for the individual. Mental activity and body activity are unified, with one or other becoming ascendant (but not separate) as the intensity of the required behaviour alters.

The organism acts with and reacts to its environment with greater or lesser intensity; as the intensity diminishes, physical behaviour turns into mental behaviour. As the intensity increases, mental behaviour turns into physical behaviour.

(1973, p.14)

As an example of this shift, Perls gives an illustration in terms of physical attack behaviours, highlighting the intensity of such actions. Without the actual attack, the individual may think or fantasize about the attack and will experience on a reduced level, similar physiological behaviours to the attack itself, e.g. an increased heart rate. The human being functions as a whole and behaviour will have both overt physical and covert mental manifestations that are very similar in function. Empirical work demonstrating such a position is sparse, but Kratochvil, Carkhuff et al (1969) have identified a close relationship between intellectual, emotional and physical functioning.

Sarles (1975) supports this shift in orientation, but goes further in positing an emphasis on the body as the primary locus of behavioural control. He argues for a 'body theory' of interaction and being, more in line with ethological positions, with bodies having the ability and propensity to interact. Language and intellect do not in themselves make us totally unique animals, says Sarles, "we must learn to account for the body's social-intellectual abilities without presuming a 'mind' a deus ex machina, as an explanatory mechanism" (1975, p.24). Findings previously outlined on the physiological arousal effects of physical proximity and eye contact would lend some support to this position. In justification, Sarles himself points out the ready miming capacities of man, the propensity for shared musical and biological rhythms, the smiling interaction work of Spitz and Wolf (1946), the reported psychic effects of jogging, and physiological exhaustion from either physical or intellectual effort. Additional weight can also be assumed from well supported approaches to functioning and treatment that focus attention on the body, such as gestalt therapy, psychodrama, biofeedback, bioenergetics, and even Rolfing massage and relaxation. Manipulation of the body and its effects on other operations of the organism have been claimed as well by Scheflen (1973a, 1975), and Lowen (1958) in a psychotherapeutic context. Scheflen points out that cramping an Italian-American, whose hand gestures in speech are characterized by wide sweeps and the use of much lateral space, into less than one square yard of room is likely to result in his falling quiet. Lowen argues that helpee characteristics are closely intertwined with typical postures and gestures and that modification of such characteristics would be enhanced through manipulation of these nonverbal behaviours.

Within the framework of helping, Sarles (1975) sees his body theory of interaction as also having meaning for the experience of empathy. The process may well be one of matching our own experiences to our observations - "our bodies could be said to be attempting in the interaction 'to get in tune' with the interactant. We then interpret our own bodies attempted representation of another's mood or emotional state" (1975, p.41). This proposition has some support in practice, with the noted psychotherapist Freda Fromm-Reichmann (1950) actually imitating the postures of her clients in order to facilitate her own intuitive inferences of the client's unverbilized feelings.

The potential does exist in Sarle's argument for maintaining a dualistic position and merely shifting the emphasis and priority onto the body rather than the mind. It does, however, represent significant movement away from the traditional stance, and when the shift includes recognition of processes over structure, a position of dynamic inter-relationship of mental and physical activity is readily accommodated. Such an orientation is also suggestive of a close interaction between verbal and nonverbal processes. As Birdwhistell (1970) claims "body motion and spoken 'language' do not constitute independent systems at the level of communication...they are interinfluencing and probably interdependent" (p.130).

#### The Interaction of Verbal and Nonverbal Behaviours

Clearly, a complex relationship does exist between verbal and nonverbal behaviours and a great deal of the way in which they interact has yet to be identified. Gains have been made in understanding the components and in determining some of the ways in which they combine (Key, 1980). The primary components can be seen in Figure 3.

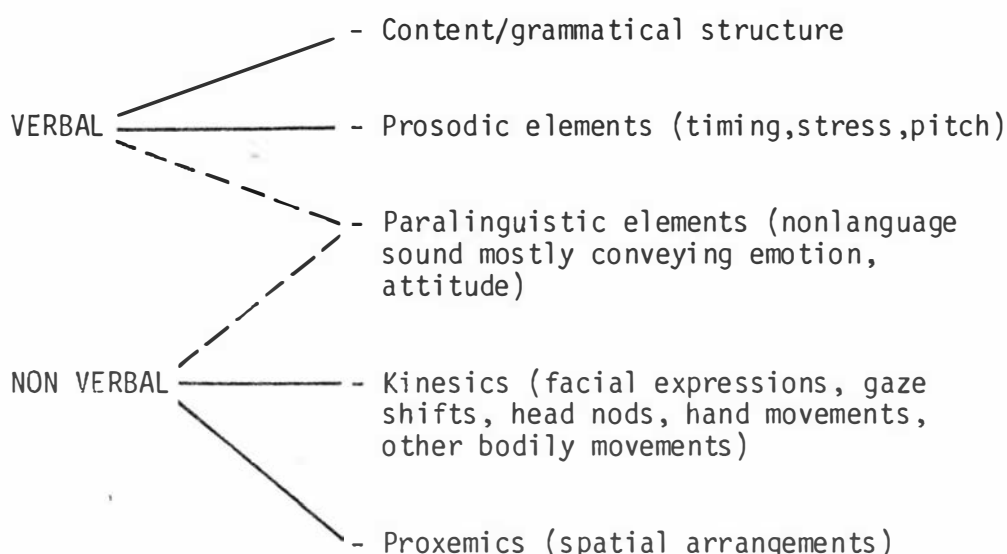


Fig. 3: Verbal/Nonverbal Components of Communication

Argyle (1975) considers nonverbal signals to be associated with speech in interactions so as to "affect the meaning of what is said, provide a simultaneous commentary by the listener, and manage the synchronizing of utterances" (p.151). A close relationship has been identified between kinesic behaviours (e.g. hand gestures, gaze shifts), prosodic elements (e.g. stress) and verbal grammatical structure (e.g. conclusion of a sentence) for turn-taking in speaking (Kendon, 1970, 1972; Meltzer et al, 1971; Duncan, 1972). Also, specific kinesic behaviours (e.g. facial expressions, forward lean, head nods) often in association with speaker grammatical structures (e.g. pauses), are part of a listener's behaviour indicating attentiveness and giving reinforcing feedback (Kendon, 1970).

Argyle (1972) believes the major functions of nonverbal behaviour in combination with an individual's speech are (i) to provide punctuation and structure, (ii) to provide emphasis (iii) to frame utterances, and (iv) to provide illustration. Dittman and Llewellyn (1969) identified some patterns in the relationship between body movements and linguistic structure, with body movements (hands and feet shifts) occurring most often at 'start' positions, or the beginning of clauses and during speech non-fluencies. Similarly, Lindenfeld (1971) within psycho-therapeutic contexts found body movements occurring more frequently in

coincidence with the syntactic structure of discourse and less frequently in violation of it. A more major structural pattern of nonverbal behaviours within discourse has been proposed by Scheflen (1973a). Regarding an individual's overall verbal and nonverbal behaviours in an interaction as a presentation, bounded by major nonverbal actions (e.g. arrival/departure), he identified two other hierarchically ordered units of interaction framed by nonverbal behaviours. The smallest unit is a point, seen as a number of syntactic sentences, framed by distinctive head and eye shifts. Then comes a position, regarded as a larger communicative unit, often incorporating several point units, framed by a postural change involving at least half of the body. Positions can be regarded as serving in speech a similar function to that of paragraphs in written communication.

Postural shifts of the kind indicative of Scheflen's position markers have also been identified by several researchers as being associated with distinctive shifts in the content of discourse or the dynamics of interaction. Kendon (1972) in his observational findings identified what he called "locution clusters" which were observable changes in the topic of conversation or in approach to the same topic. These changes were generally accompanied by changes in trunk or leg movements. Similar findings have been made by Blom and Gumperz (1972) who found postural changes and changes in spatial arrangements to be associated with 'situational shifts' - momentary changes in mutual rights and obligations between speakers accompanied by shifts in language style. Bull and Brown (1977), in an experimental study, found that more informative items in discussion (a statement in contrast to an answer or a response) were linked with greater degrees of postural change by the communicator.

In helping contexts, similar dynamics have been identified. Leonard-Dolan (1972) from films of psychotherapy found proxemic shifts occurring in relation to topic shifts, and Erickson (1975) in a counselling study found a proxemic shift as being the best indicator of a new segment in the interaction, with goal statement points - i.e. a shift from asking to telling (cf. a shift from understanding to action in the HRD model) - and uncomfortable moments, being marked mostly by a proxemic shift. Considerable attention has also been given to postural/proxemic behaviours of the therapist in psychotherapy by Scheflen (1973a, b). He suggests that therapists utilize a sequence of

postures which are associated with the progression of their tactics of intervention. The most obvious relationship identified by Scheflen between tactics and posture is the shift of the therapist from leaning backwards with arms or legs crossed to leaning forwards with arms and legs uncrossed, with this generally marking a shift from listening to interrupting, confronting, reassuring or other change in involvement. "The progressive uncrossing of extremities and movement toward the patient - with or without physical contact - are combined, and each shift is followed by increased clinical activity and lexical engagement, such as interpretation, reassurance, or instruction" (Scheflen, 1973a, p.81). Such a pattern of postures, for Scheflen, is also indicative of the way in which the participants are related to each other, centring primarily on the development of rapport.

#### Nonverbal Communication of Process Conditions

The primary helping process conditions of empathic understanding respect and genuineness, have almost exclusively been described and measured in terms of their verbal components. Although the nonverbal components have been stressed as playing a part, they have been less adequately delineated. Some studies have endeavoured to rectify this.

Shapiro (1967) found that therapist empathy, warmth and genuineness, and degree of client self-exploration, could be readily judged through silent videotapes by trained raters and that both visual cues and auditory cues of warmth and genuineness were equally good predictors of the ratings of judges using audio-video tapes. An extension study (Shapiro, Foster & Powell, 1968), using still photographs of a counsellor, found that both trained and untrained raters similarly rated counsellor empathy, warmth and genuineness, and that this was possible on photographs of the whole person or of facial expression alone. Counsellor warmth, along with the counsellor being regarded as more casual, friendly and carefree, was found by Strong, Taylor, Bratton and Loper (1971) to be associated with frequency of counsellor movement (of gestures, smiles and postural position changes).

Using brief video segments of counsellor-client interaction, which were controlled for similar levels of verbal warmth and empathy, Smith-Hanen (1977) sought to identify nonverbal elements of counsellor

warmth and empathy by comparing ratings of those seeing the counsellor in full and those seeing only the face and neck. Movements of the arms or legs had no effect on ratings of warmth or empathy, whereas various arm positions and leg positions alone and in combination did. Results indicated what factors served to lower the ratings of warmth and empathy, these being that crossed arms were regarded as being colder and less empathic, as was the legs crossed so that the ankle of one leg rested on the knee of the other. Further, the interaction effects of arms crossed, with one leg up on a chair and movement, lowered significantly the levels of warmth and empathy and even more so when these were associated with no movement. Seeing just the head and neck in conjunction with the verbal responses resulted in ratings of being colder and less empathic than when the whole body was involved. The overall conclusions from this study are that seeing the whole body in contrast to just the face and neck results in higher ratings of empathy and warmth, and that some specific postures are regarded as negatively influencing perceived levels of warmth and empathy.

Haase and Tepper (1972), manipulating the elements of nonverbal attending behaviour (eye contact, trunk lean, orientation, distance) along with levels of verbal empathy (high, medium, low) and using counsellors as judges of video excerpts of counsellor-client interactions, sought to determine the relative contributions to judged empathy of the major variables. As well, they endeavoured to establish the proportion of the total message communicated through each of the verbal and nonverbal channels. Results indicated that maintaining eye contact, forward trunk-lean, close distance and medium and high level verbal empathy all independently contributed to higher levels of judged empathy. A number of interaction effects were also evident, with the most powerful effect coming from the distinction of eye contact as against no eye contact, and trunk lean featuring in all of the significant interactions. Tepper and Haase (1978) extended these findings into perceptions of respect and genuineness conditions, again finding support for the importance of nonverbal cues. They stressed the complex combinations of verbal and nonverbal behaviours in the determination of perceived levels of process conditions. They added to their earlier study by establishing that vocal intonation and facial expression were significant contributors to the decoded messages.

A major finding from the Tepper and Haase (1978) study was that with respect to the main effects, the nonverbal components accounted for slightly more than twice as much variance in the judged level of empathy as did the verbal message; the ratio was 5:1 for respect and 23:1 for genuineness. This supports the finding by Mehrabain and Ferris (1967) who noted that facial expressions accounted for approximately one and one-half times as much variance in the communication of positive attitude as did vocal components.

The studies cited that have researched nonverbal elements of process conditions, indicate that the nonverbal channel plays a significant role in the perception of levels and that those behaviours associated with attending contribute positively to the decoded message. The studies, though, once again, rely on artificial stimuli, using either still photographs or video excerpts that have been contrived, including scripted verbal communication. In contrast, recent studies by Fretz et al (1979) and Seay and Alketruse (1979) involved actual interaction as the basis for examining the effects of verbal and nonverbal behaviours on the perception of process conditions. They found quite differing results from those more contrived studies. The former study (Fretz et al, 1979) found no differences in actual client ratings of helper attractiveness and facilitativeness for variations of eye contact, orientation, and trunk lean when using natural interaction in contrast to scripted material; the latter study (Seay & Alketruse, 1979) found a lesser emphasis on nonverbal behaviours as against verbal behaviours as the major source of variance in the judgement of facilitative conditions than for artificial studies.

The studies are not informative about the relationships between verbal and nonverbal behaviours in the natural encoding process of facilitative communication. There is little understanding about how helpers in actual interaction, seeking to be verbally facilitative, may alter their nonverbal behaviours. Nor indeed, is much known about what would be the verbal effects of deliberately adjusting nonverbal attending behaviours.

#### Nonverbal Images in Descriptions of Verbal Process Conditions

The effects of postural and proxemic cues on the communication of



interpersonal attitudes, both in encoding and decoding processes, should be noted. They appear to be particularly potent variables in social interaction for both parties, and similar potency has been evidenced in the context of helping interaction. As well as their role in the communication of attitudes, it has been suggested that they have a relationship to therapeutic manoeuvres and tactics utilized by the helper. In the HRD Model, process conditions combine with other specific behaviours into a phase progression framework, with these phases along with variations in intensity representing major tactical strategies in the helper's overall communication goals.

Although described predominantly in verbal terms, there are, in the definitions of empathic understanding, warmth/respect and genuineness, expressions that are suggestive of nonverbal dimensions in general and proxemic and postural behaviours in particular. These occur in almost all attempts to describe their qualities and are suggestive of inevitable unity in nonverbal and verbal processes. Carkhuff and Berenson (1977) describe helpers low on levels of the triad conditions as communicating in such ways as to increase distance rather than intimacy, being unable to experience people outside their own skins, being egocentric and involved with the client in a non-exposure pact.

Empathy is frequently described as a merging with the experience of the helpee, or as Fleiss (1942) states, empathy depends

essentially on his the helper's ability to put himself in the latter's [the helpee's] place, to step into his shoes, and to obtain in this way inside knowledge that is almost first hand (p.212). (My emphasis)

Rogers (1957) and Truax and Carkhuff (1967), along with many others, refer to the helper having to grasp an accurate picture of the helpee's frame of reference - getting to know him from his personal vantage point, rather than from an external objective viewpoint - communicating a message of 'I am with you'.

Positive regard, warmth or respect are considered as being intimately associated with empathic understanding (Carkhuff, 1969). Rausch and Bordin (1957) see the three most critical components of warmth as the helper's commitment, efforts to understand, and

spontaneity, and Norvas and Landfield (1963) suggest that those helpers whose warmth incorporates understanding have the greatest success. Those proxemic features implicit in empathy would then similarly apply to warmth, but, as well, Nunberg (1955) associates warmth with contact, Cameron (1963) says it is experienced by the helpee in terms of psychological closeness, and Wolpe (1958) indicates that warmth involves the helper being unreservedly at the helpee's side.

Proxemic and postural factors aligned to distance, orientation and openness, are inherent in many of the descriptions of helper genuineness. Low levels of genuineness are frequently associated with a retreat into facades or roles (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977; Truax & Carkhuff, 1967; Whitaker & Malone, 1953). It has been regarded also (Moustakas, 1959) as being associated with a direct personal encounter, a meeting on a person-to-person basis, and meeting the helpee as a whole person.

#### Intensity of Interaction

The notion of intensity of interaction is incorporated into the various levels of process conditions as well as being part of the overall movement through phases of the HRD helping model. At their highest levels, where the metaphorical images of physical closeness are greatest, empathy, warmth/respect, genuineness and helpee self-exploration are characterized by levels of high intensity. In contrast, at the lowest levels characterized by images of being distant, low levels of intensity are a feature.

The Truax Accurate Empathy scale, for example (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967), at higher levels involves intense sensitivity in grasping a helpee's deeper meanings, with an intent concentration on the moment-to-moment shifts in the helpee's experience. At lower levels, the helper is likely to be "off on his own, with his own feelings and interpretations," being scarcely aware of the helpee's 'being'. Shlien (1961), in reference to the client-centred technique of reflection which is based on empathic understanding, stated that at its best it is "a profound, intimate, empathically understanding response, requiring great skill and sensitivity and intense involvement" (p.302). Moments of high intensity of conditions would appear to be important in effective helping, with Truax (1962a) finding that the highest levels of

accurate empathy reached during a session were more predictive of outcome than were averaged levels.

It has been suggested that intensity should increase over the period of helping interaction and not be fully sought at the onset. This is specified in the HRD Model where minimal levels (level 3 on a 5-level scale) are regarded as appropriate initially, moving towards higher levels as the interaction progresses. The threat and anxiety that helpees frequently associate with personal relationships means that intensity levels must be carefully managed, especially in the early stages of a relationship where helpee commitment may be tenuous. Rather than overwhelming the helpee, minimal levels of effective relating should characterize early contact, with gradual intensification of anxiety provoking cues emerging over time. Intense empathic responses in the first session with hospitalized patients, were found by Truax and Carkhuff (1963) to be associated with premature termination of therapy. Support for the need for a progression of intensity is found in the results of a study by Cartwright and Lerner (1963), indicating that a helper's final level not initial level of empathic understanding was most related to helpee improvement.

Intensity and intimacy of the helper's focus on the helpee is recognized by Truax and Carkhuff (1967) as being closely intertwined with the conditions of empathy, warm and genuineness, as well as having bearing on levels of helpee self-exploration. Yet they also regard it as an independent aspect of the helping process. Intensity promotes helper warmth, in that with intense concentration on the helpee, the helper is regarded as neither having the time nor the energy to reflect on how the helpee's statements relate to the helper's own personal ideals, values, norms or codes of conduct. Such an engrossment is likely to prevent the emergence of evaluative thoughts and feelings and eliminate the potential conditional elements of warmth. With such intensity, there is less likelihood of the introduction of the helper's own personal need system. In the absence of these personal implications, there is less likelihood of threat to the helper and more chance of being able to maintain self congruence or genuineness in the relationship. The relationship of intensity to accurate empathy arises from the fact that the helper inevitably becomes more aware of the subtle communications of the helpee that reflect the ongoing experience. These communications

are both verbal and nonverbal - "the minute facial, postural and gestural cues that often contradict or multiply the meaning of the client's verbal communication" (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967, p.288). A high degree of intensity therefore would appear to be imperative for the encoding of high levels of accurate empathy.

As is the case with the triad of facilitative conditions themselves, the concept of intensity has a high degree of implicit closeness, both physical as well as psychological in its defining characteristics. This can be observed from the operational scale of therapist Intensity and Intimacy devised by Truax (1962f). At the lower end of the scale, the helper is seen as subdued and distant in voice and manner; there is an aloofness from feelings and a formal, conventional or reserved atmosphere - a remoteness, detachment or pulling back which makes the helper appear an outsider or a stranger; an inattentiveness or indifference which makes him appear unconcerned. The total picture gives a cool or intellectual flavour. At the higher ranges of the scale, the helper communicates an intensity in voice and manner which has a compelling personal note; there is an accentuated feeling tone with an atmosphere of deep concern and confidentiality. A heightening of atmosphere is achieved by the helper's close, almost suspended attentiveness, with his voice and manner incorporating depth, solicitous closeness and fervid concentration.

Audiotape ratings on this scale rely largely on generalized paralinguistic characteristics. Some similarity can be identified with the paralinguistic factor extracted by Duncan, Rice and Butler (1968) as being indicative of therapists' peak helping sessions. The combinations of stress, tone, pitch and fluencies for this factor provides an impression of being "serious, warm and relaxed... being especially close, concerned and warm" (p.569). This is in contrast to factors extracted for poor helping sessions where there is the impression paralinguistically of being dull, flat and uninvolved. Any observable nonverbal (kinesic or proxemic) behaviours related to communicating levels of intensity and intimacy are at this stage unknown.

A significant relationship between levels of Intensity and Intimacy and helpee improvement has been established by Truax (1962g).

Ratings were made using the Truax scale on audiotaped therapy sessions with a small population of schizophrenic patients, and outcome measures were made on a variety of psychological test, evaluation of change, and hospital discharge indices. Additionally, Truax (1962h) identified a significant relationship between Intensity and Intimacy levels and levels of helpee self-exploration. It seems evident that the helper has a major influence on the levels of intensity and intimacy offered (Truax, 1962i; 1963), but in one of these studies (Truax, 1962i) the helpee also was a significant source of influence.

#### Deliberate Manipulations of Attending Behaviour (Torso Lean)

Some reasonably certain claims can be made concerning helper nonverbal attending behaviour in general and postural/proxemic shifts in particular. In the main these concern messages that are perceived (decoded) by helpees. Very little can be stated about the effects of these variables on the helper and the kind of messages the helper might put together (encode), or on the dyadic interaction process. A trained helper, having the primary intention of being effective, is faced with compiling messages that, amongst other cues communicate crucial interpersonal attitudinal qualities. Emphasis in most circumstances (e.g. practice, research, training) has been placed on the cognitive compilation and the verbal communication of these messages, with, for example, the HRD Model emphasising, for training purposes, systematic thinking steps and verbal format outlines (Carkhuff & Pierce, 1977).

The extent to which helper nonverbal attending behaviours play a part in helper encoding of facilitative communication is uncertain. Undoubtedly eye contact aids in this, inasmuch as it provides observational material on which to base crucial elements of an understanding message. The other major variables of posture and proxemics might also play an import part, by intensifying what can be observed from a closer distance, but also perhaps in other ways. From the implicit physical distance characteristics of the process conditions and from an holistic position of unified processes, it could be argued that physical closeness, within appropriate limits, aids in the helper's experience and communication of psychological closeness. In question form - does leaning forward towards the helpee enhance the helper's experience and verbal communication of facilitative process conditions

(intensity, empathic understanding, warmth/respect, genuineness and hence helpee self-exploration)? Alternatively, is it possible to encode and verbally express facilitative messages from a backward-leaning posture away from the helpee?

To some degree this proposition is suggestive of an orienting reflex (Andrew, 1972) or perhaps a releasing mechanism (Hinde, 1972, p.313). Learned meanings associated with early nurturant experiences may be reactivated in situations defined as benign, when appropriate nonverbal behaviours are performed. The theoretical principles inherent in the James-Lange theory of emotional experience also has relevance for this consideration. James and Lange maintained that the experience of emotion was the result of people perceiving their own bodily and motor reactions, e.g. they feel their heart beating and observe themselves running away, so realize they are afraid. Schacter (1964) added to this the fact that environmental information also plays a major role - the same bodily state induced by an adrenalin injection, was experienced as euphoria or anger depending on the behaviour of the confederates in the experimental situation. Other support for this line of theory comes from Shimoda (in Argyle, 1975, p.219) who reportedly found that if a person adopted a facial expression during a period of interaction, the experienced mood changed towards that of the emotion expressed; and Bem (1967) who theorized that people perceive their attitudes by observing their behaviour - if they find themselves going to church they realize that they must be religious. In circumstances clearly defined as helping, the helper's forward postural movement, to within appropriate interactional limits, may be instrumental in experiencing warm, open and understanding attitudes, and these will be evidenced in verbally communicated messages. In similar circumstances, backward postural movement away from the helpee, may be instrumental in the experience of cold indifferent attitudes, and these will also be evidenced in verbally communicated messages, with a degree of phoniness being likely as attempts are made to enact a helping role. These communications will consequently have bearing on the level of self-exploration engaged in by the helpee. The effects of the nonverbal behaviours are likely to be most obvious with helpers trained in or capable of communicating verbal process conditions at an effective level, as the intentions and the skill capacity could play an important part in the dynamics.

### Research Aim and Hypotheses

Arising from the initial question indicated in the Introduction and elaborated from within the review of literature, it is possible to be more specific about the objective of the study and the hypotheses to be examined.

Overall research aim: To examine the relationship between helper postural shifts and the communication of facilitative process conditions and helpee process behaviours in helping interaction.

The elements of this aim can be elaborated as:

- the helper postural shifts involve deliberate shifts forward towards or backward away from the helpee
- the facilitative process conditions involve the helper qualities of empathic understanding, respect, genuineness and intensity
- the helpee process behaviour involves self-exploration
- helping interaction involves dyadic helping contact

Hypotheses: The features of the above research aim can be expressed in terms of two specific hypotheses, expressed in the null form:

- H1. That there are no differences in levels of helper empathy, respect, genuineness, or intensity, or in levels of helpee self-exploration as a function of the helper deliberately leaning forward towards the helpee.
- H2. That there are no differences in levels of helper empathy, respect, genuineness, or intensity, or in levels of helpee self-exploration as a function of the helper deliberately leaning backward away from the helpee.

These hypotheses will be examined using variations in HRD attending behaviour in relation to various process scales. Emphasis will be centred on assessments of the dependent variables made by objective raters, but will also include assessments made from the perspectives of the helpers and the helpees.

## CHAPTER THREE

### METHODOLOGY

This Chapter presents details of the research design and data analyses procedures used for the study. In addition, information is set out on the subjects (helpers and helpees), the raters, the instrumentation and apparatus utilized, and the procedures followed for the collection of data.

#### Research Design

The independent variable manipulations for the experiment involved a dimension of helper posture - namely variations in torso lean. These variations also affected levels of proximity between helpers and helpees. From an upright attending posture, the helpers were asked to make a postural shift of the following kind within the sessions:

- (i) a torso lean forward towards the helpee
- (ii) a torso lean backwards away from the helpee
- or (iii) a choice of any postural movement.

The third condition was included to provide baseline/control data for comparisons among the variations.

In order to reduce potential error variance and to overcome the limitations of a restricted helper-subject pool, the helpers were used as their own controls for the study. An identical number of helpees as there were helpers was chosen to operate within the design. The 12 helpers and 12 helpees used were randomly allocated into four sets of 3 x 3 helper-helpee combinations. Within each set, the three helpers and the three helpees were randomly allocated to a sequence of independent variable manipulations based on a latin square matrix (see Figure 4a, p.60). The scores for the four sets were later pooled for the various analyses. This design procedure meant that the helpers and the helpees experienced separately the three postural variations in three different sessions. The latin square design was used because of possible carry-over effects of one independent variable condition into another. This method serves to counterbalance any likely effects of the order of presentation (Winer, 1971), enabling analysis by collapsing across the order factor (see Figure 4b, p.60).



As well as the variations among the postural-shift conditions, each session, because it involved a beginning upright posture followed by a torso-shift, had a pre-shift and a post-shift period. Analyses examined differences among the sessions by postural-shift conditions and within the sessions also, with the pre-shift period serving as a within-session control category (see Figure 4b).

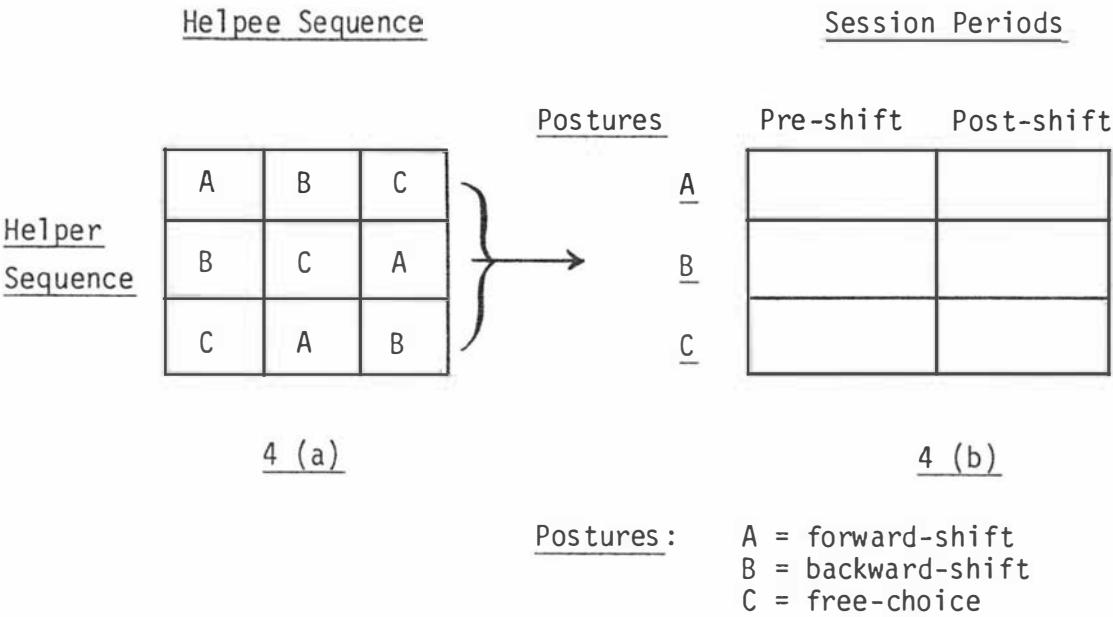


Figure 4: Independent Variable Sequence and Data Analysis Design

- (a) Latin Square Matrix for Order of Independent Variable Experience.
- (b) Factorial Design Matrix (3 x 2) for Data Analysis

The data analysis matrix involved a 3 x 2 factorial design. Both the first factor (postural-shift conditions) and the second factor (pre-shift - post-shift periods) were fixed effect factors involving repeated measures across subjects.

The dependent variables for the major analyses were those of helper process conditions which included intensity, empathy, respect, genuineness, and the helpee process behaviour of self-exploration. These were rated on standard scales (see Appendix A (i); further details given later) by judges assessing audiotaped material. The three categories of postural behaviour (A, B, C) with their pre-shift and post-shift scores,

were analyzed separately for the five process scales. This involved a series of five ( $3 \times 2$ ) analyses.<sup>1</sup>

Because the free-choice condition (C) on the whole involved postures that could be discriminated on the basis of forward shift (A) and backward shift (B) distinctions, identical analyses by postural-shift conditions were undertaken for these classifications (i.e. Choice-Forward Group - four ( $3 \times 2$ ) analyses; Choice-Backward Group - four ( $3 \times 2$ ) analyses). As well, comparisons on the scales were made between these two Groups for each of the postural-shift conditions independently (four ( $2 \times 2$ ) analyses involving Choice-Forward/Choice-Backward Groups; Pre-shift/Post-shift periods; on the four process scales).

As the scales used are regarded as interval scales (Carkhuff, 1969), with theorem-like definitions, analysis of variance was the statistical procedure utilized (Winer, 1971). The specific procedure used was appropriate for factorial designs with fixed and repeated measure factors.<sup>2</sup>

Supplementary data were also obtained from the helpees and helpers in the study. The helpees completed a semantic differential scale that tapped similar criteria to those assessed by the raters on their scales (see Appendix A (ii); further details given later). As the scale was completed for each session as a whole, no within session distinctions were made. Analysis by postural-shift conditions was made for the 30 items on the instrument. An obvious positively skewed clustering of the obtained scores led to analyses being undertaken for direction only and not magnitude. The nonparametric Sign Test was used (Siegel, 1956). Because the analyses for Choice-Group comparisons involved unrelated samples, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U procedure was necessary (Siegel, 1956).

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<sup>1</sup> As detailed later, the Genuineness scale had to be omitted from the analyses because of incomplete data. So in actuality, the analyses completed involved a series of four ( $3 \times 2$ ) procedures.

<sup>2</sup> Analyses were undertaken on Massey University's Burroughs 6700 Computer using a programme called FANOVA, which was written by Drs H. Law and R.M.D. Brown of the University of Queensland, Australia. It was placed on the Massey system by Dr Ken McFarland, Psychology Department, Massey University.

Helper data comprised rankings on a scale that was also based on the process condition criteria (see Appendix A (iii); further details given later). Comparisons were made by the helpers among the sessions on the basis of these criteria. Again, they addressed the sessions as a whole and no within session distinctions were made. The resulting rankings of the sessions were collapsed into postural-shift categories and the helpers' sets of rankings were examined for their degree of association using Kendall's nonparametric Coefficient of Concordance W (Siegel, 1956).<sup>3</sup>

### Operational Definitions of Variables

The independent variable manipulations broadly described in the preceding section can be defined in more operational terms.

Initial Posture (Pre-Shift): this beginning posture for all sessions was defined in terms of HRD (Human Resource Development) level-3 attending behaviour - feet flat on the floor; back upright; regular but not constant eye contact; direct, open and square-on orientation; and at a distance of 3 - 5 feet (determined here by seat positions).

Forward-shift (A): was defined in terms of HRD level-5 attending behaviour. From the upright position, this involved leaning the upper torso forward by resting the forearms on the thighs just above the knees (this making an angle of about 40-45 degrees and a distance to the helpee's torso of about 3 feet). All other behaviours were to be maintained as previously established.

Backward-shift (B): represented the direct opposite to the level-5 HRD posture in terms of torso lean. From the upright position, this involved leaning the upper torso backwards to meet the back of the chair. No other torso movement was to be made. The depth of the chair meant there was an angle backwards of about 40-45 degrees from the upright plane. All other behaviours were to be maintained as previously established.

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<sup>3</sup> Other statistical procedures (i.e. Pearson and Spearman correlations) were used for minor analyses for associations among scale scores and for various sets of helper effectiveness criteria. These will be elaborated later.

Free-choice (C): was entirely open to the helper's preference. From the upright beginning posture there was freedom to move in any way the helper chose.

For conditions A and B the helpers were asked to maintain the postures through till the end of the session, but for condition C they could move as they desired. Very little movement in the post-shift period was evident for condition C once an initial shift was made. The postures required for the standardized pre-shift upright posture and the two manipulated post-shift postures are shown in Appendix B (Plates 1 - 6).

The process conditions of helper intensity, empathy, respect, genuineness and the helpee process behaviour of self-exploration were the major dependent variables. Some alternative variables (e.g. overall effectiveness) were included for the supplementary data on the helper and helpee experiences. There are a variety of definitions of the process qualities and behaviours, depending on the perspective involved - e.g. helpee perspective (Barrett Lennard, 1962), objective judges perspective (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967). The operational definitions of the dependent variables for this study are largely incorporated within the instruments used for collecting the data.

### Instrumentation

Three sets of data were obtained, each involving the use of different instruments. The major data were the ratings by judges of the verbal interaction. Supplementary data were sought from the helpers and the helpees concerning their different perspectives on the helping communication.

(a) Interaction Data: Carkhuff's (1969) scales of helping process conditions were used. These are five-level scales representing modifications of the nine-level scales of Truax (1961a, 1962a, b, c). The scales that were used were those of helper Empathic Understanding, Respect, Genuineness, and helpee Self-Exploration. Charles Truax's (1962f) five-level scale of Intensity and Intimacy of interaction was also used. The scales are displayed in Appendix A (i) and represent operational definitions of the dependent variables. The scales were not substantially modified from the originals, but had variations in wording

because it was possible to identify the helpers as males (he) and the helpees as females (she). The use of these specific pronouns made for greater clarity. Whilst 5-levels describe the scale divisions, it is possible for raters to score at .5 intermediary points and judges were encouraged to make these discriminations if appropriate.

The Carkhuff scales were derived from the earlier Truax scales which had been validated in extensive process and outcome research in helping and were shown to have high interrater and intrarater reliability levels (Truax & Carkhuff, 1967; Truax & Mitchell, 1971; Carkhuff, 1969). The Truax scale was of similar genre to his other scales and reliability scores obtained from the use of this instrument were at a moderate level (Truax, 1962g).

(b) Helpee Data: a semantic differential instrument was developed of 30 items (five factors of Empathic Understanding, Warmth, Genuineness, Intensity and Overall Effectiveness, each having six items) - see Appendix A (ii). The items were developed by using those employed by Allan Ivey (1971) in his Counsellor Effectiveness Scales (25 items), and Truax's Relationship Inventory (Carkhuff & Truax, 1967) (5 items). Construction of the scale was guided by considering their meanings in relation to the major process factors. The instrument was structured with seven semantic spaces; the individual items were alternated in sequence of presentation; and the positive-negative poles were varied. The instrument sought from the helpees an assessment of their experience of the helper's performance within each of the sessions.

Ivey's two Counsellor Effectiveness Scales have been used primarily to measure helpee attitudes to helpers. The items for the original Ivey scales were selected on the basis of validity and reliability scores determined by judges in relation to effective/ineffective helper behaviours. Interrater reliability levels for the instruments have been adequate and the scales are seen as valid in their discriminations between good and bad models of helping (Ivey, 1971). Items for the semantic differential utilized here were chosen on their similarity with the scales used by judges rating the interaction data and their validity was based initially on their location in the original instruments. Additional support was based on face validity judgements by two experienced and professionally trained counsellors.

(c) Helper Data: a ranking schedule was developed that sought from helpers a ranking from 1 - 3 (most - least) on their experiences over the three helping sessions. The criteria focussed on Comfort and the process characteristics of Understanding, Warmth, Realness, and Intensity, as well as Overall Effectiveness. Provision was also made in an open-ended way for helpers to comment on their experience of the sessions (see Appendix A (iii)).

### Sample

Two groups of people comprised the subject sample for the study - the helpers and the helpees.

(i) Helpers: Twelve male counsellors, all having completed at least the first year of a two year post-graduate professional training programme for school and vocational counsellors were used as helpers. Six of them were at the end of their first year prior to moving into their internship year, and six were at the conclusion of their internship year. From the total available population of the two intake years of 15 males, 12 were involved on the basis of their availability at the times and dates scheduled for the data collection. All of the helpers had been involved in an extensive didactic/experiential programme of skills training based essentially on HRD skills and phases. The training programme that these helpers had been engaged in focussed on skills acquisition but not in an overly structured way. Emphasis was also given to self-awareness, to helper attitudes and their communication in helping, as well as to various action methods.

Trained helpers were used because they would be expected to have acquired a set of intentions appropriate to the process conditions under consideration. Any deliberate alteration to the interaction would presumably be reflected more distinctly through these process conditions.

Of the 12 helpers, nine were school counsellors and three were vocational counsellors. Their age range was between 30-42 years, with the mean age being 34 years. All were Europeans (white caucasian) and would be readily identified as middle class.

(ii) Helpees: Twelve female undergraduate students in the first year of a social work degree were involved as helpees. From a general request for female volunteers to the total first year social work student body of about 70 students, 18 female students indicated an interest. From this group, 12 were randomly selected. The age range was between 18 - 21 years, with a mean age of 19 years. All but one of the helpees were European, with the exception being part Maori. All came from readily identifiable middle class backgrounds.

The combination of male helpers and female helpees was decided on for various reasons. It was not considered possible given the sample size to include sex as an independent variable for comparative study. It was also apparent that many female helper-trainees strongly resist the attending posture being promoted, seeing it as inappropriate to their gender. They regard leaning forward with legs apart and forearms on thighs as very much a masculine style and feel extremely uncomfortable in that position. Male helpers were therefore chosen. Mehrabian (1972) indicated gender differences for immediacy behaviour related to combinations of male-female dyads, such that when male-male dyads were involved there was a heightened vigilance response on the part of the subjects suggesting a reaction to possible threat. Females were also shown to be more affiliative and so they were involved in this study as helpees to work with the male helpers.

### Procedures

Several separate procedures were involved in the selection and training of raters, the data collection, and the rating of the data.

### Raters

Selection: fifteen raters were involved initially, all of whom were similar to the helpees in that they were first year undergraduate students in the bachelor of social work programme. They were, however, in the year following the helpees' year, and did not have close contact with them. From a general request to the total first year social work student body, 21 people volunteered to assist. Following a statement to this group about the task and time requirements, 18 were prepared to continue their offer, and from this number 15 were randomly selected. The

age range was from 18 - 42 years with a modal age of 19 years. Of the 15, 12 were females and three were males; all were European and could also be broadly classified as middle class.

Training: The 15 raters were randomly grouped into five sets of three raters, with one group to rate each of the five process conditions under study. The scales were randomly assigned to the groups, then each group met separately with a trainer for one and a half hours each week over a six week period to be trained in the use of their scale. The initial session centred on developing some familiarity with the concepts of the scale and the various levels, with examples of each level being given from training tapes developed by the trainer. Subsequent sessions (two and three) involved an initial memory review of the scale, and then a series of ratings, discussions and detailed analyses of training extracts. The approach was one of semi-structured training (Rogers, et al, 1967) - each rater rating the extract then presenting their score along with reference to the appropriate scale concepts. Where large discrepancies occurred, discussion was promoted on the extract and the scale, with input also from the trainer. In sessions four, five and six, a similar procedure was followed, but at the end of the session, each rater rated a set of ten training extracts for the purpose of determining interrater reliability levels.

For sessions five and six, all reliability coefficients (Pearson  $r$ ) for the raters within the scale groups were above .60. This had been chosen as the minimum level for movement onto experimental data (Rogers et al, 1967).

### Data Collection

Setting and Apparatus: the data was collected under the conditions shown in Figure 5 (p.68).

Studio: an audio-visual studio measuring approximately 4 x 4 metres was used. It had one outside wall, but the windows were curtained to reduce noise and to prevent distractions. In the studio were two identical chairs located at a set distance of 4 feet (123cms) from each



other measured from the front of the seats. A fixed video camera was positioned in the opposite corner. Behind one of the chairs was a signal light, and there were two clip-on microphones with leads. The camera, signal light and microphone leads were fed through into an adjoining observation room (linked by a one-way screen) where the controls and recording devices were located.

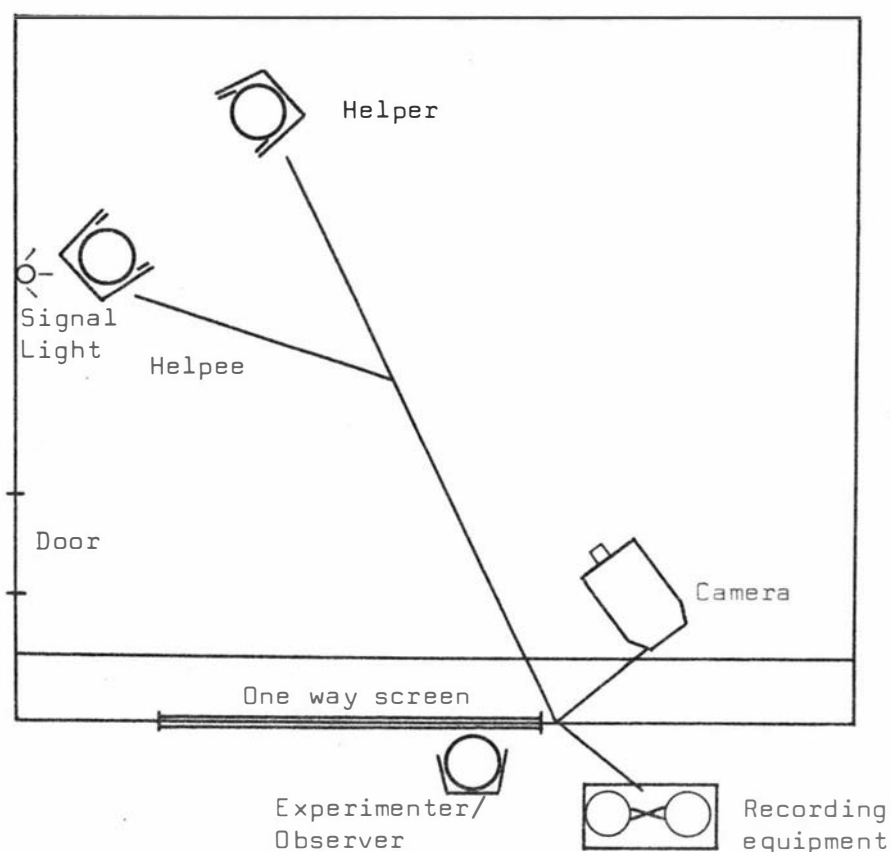


Fig. 5: Studio Lay-out For Data Collection

Video Equipment: The video camera was an ITC VF202 positioned to film the participants in profile - helpees always on their right profile and helpers on their left. The camera fed into a one inch Sony (EV3020CE) Recorder.

Microphones: two clip-on microphones (Sony ECM50P) were used, rather than a pedestal microphone. This was to prevent any obvious variations in amplification due to movements in posture and subsequent distance.

Audiotape Equipment: the microphones fed into both the video recorder and a Sony audiotape cassette-recorder using C30 tapes.

Chairs: the chairs were of easy-chair style, but were designed for office use. They had tubular steel frames and legs, with wooden arm-platforms and bases. The upholstery was of hessian material over sponge rubber. They measured 1ft.6in. (46cm) from the top of the seat to the floor and the seat itself was 1ft.8in. (51cm) in depth (from the front to the backrest), with the backrest having a slight (five degree) angle backwards.

Signal Light: a 20 watt blue light was positioned on the wall behind the helpees' chair at head height and slightly to the left of the position of where the helpee's head would be. Whilst easily visible to the helper in peripheral vision it was not able to be seen when either on or off by the helpee when sitting in the chair. The light was able to be operated from the observation room.

Data Collection Strategies: session times were arranged for helpers so that each helper had his three sessions consecutively - three half-hourly appointments. On arrival, the helpers were shown the studio setting and instructed on the basic attending postures in the chair they were to use. They were then informed about the use of the signal light, and told what postural change they were to make in their first session.

The helpers were informed that their helpees were first year university students who had volunteered to present a problem for help from a counsellor. Because the instructions to the helpers about the attending behaviour variations to some degree made it obvious what area of interest the study was pursuing (i.e. nonverbal behaviours), they were asked to try and allow their experience to occur without interference. No indication was given as to what effects were being examined. They were asked just to be as helpful as they could to the helpees (see Instructions, Appendix C).

The helpees were asked to arrive at the times related to their helper's allocated time. They were informed they would be meeting with a counsellor and were asked to present a problem they regarded as suitable for counselling assistance. They could present different problems for the three different helpers if they chose or they could

present the same problem each time.<sup>4</sup> They were informed that they were part of a study on counselling.

On arrival, the helpee was taken into the studio where the helper was waiting. An introduction of names was made and the microphones were fitted. The helpee had the camera pointed out to her and the signal light which was illuminated. She was informed that the light was to indicate to the helper when to begin and when to end the session. The experimenter then left the room and went to the adjoining room, switched on the recording equipment, switched off the signal light, and started a stopwatch. Invariably, the helper who was attending with level-3 behaviours, informed the helpee that the light had gone off so they should start and the helpee presented the problem. After nine minutes on the stopwatch, unbeknown to the helpee, the signal light was switched on for one minute exactly. During this one minute period, the helper made the appropriate postural shift. The one minute period was to enable the helper to move at a point most appropriate to him rather than as an immediate response to the stimulus light, so as to allow for any internal and communicational adjustments necessary for making a deliberate movement towards or away from the helpee. The session continued for a further nine minutes after the end of the signal period, and was brought to an end by the signal light being switched on again. The overall session time was 19 minutes.

At the end of each session, the helpee was taken to a different room, told or reminded of the need for an honest appraisal of the helper's communication, and asked to complete the semantic differential instrument. During this time, the helper had a ten minute break. At the arrival of the next helpee, the helper was reminded in private of the postural shift to be made for that session and brought together with the helpee. The sequence was then repeated as described. At the conclusion of the three sessions, the helper was asked to complete the ranking instrument and to make whatever comments he wished to make about the experience of the three sessions.

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<sup>4</sup> Problems presented were mainly to do with the experiences of university life - course problems, worry about academic abilities, communication problems with peers or staff, prospects for the future - but at times included complex family and personal difficulties. Although a few helpees presented the same basic problem to each of their three helpers, there was considerable variation in the elements examined.

Presentation of Data to Raters: at the conclusion of all the sessions, there were 36 (x 19 minute) audio-visual recordings of helping interaction. It was decided that segments of three minutes duration were appropriate for use in rating, with Bocchini, Forwell and Hart (1960) and Kiesler, Mathieu and Klein (1964) ascertaining that adequate reliability could be obtained from such periods of interaction.

A systematic sampling procedure was deemed necessary consistent with the design of the study. Accordingly, three-minute audio excerpts were taken at the following points in each session:

Pre-Shift Segments

- minutes: 2-5: i.e. after one minute of interaction, so that the identifying period of initial problem presentation would have passed
- minutes: 6-9: i.e. the period immediately prior to the signal period

Post-Shift Segments

- minutes: 10-13: i.e. the period immediately following the signal period
- minutes: 16-19: i.e. the last three minutes of interaction.

This meant that there were four extracts from each session, a total of 144 (36 x 4) three-minute segments. Once extracted, these segments were placed in random order onto cassette audiotapes - eight per side of a C60 tape with 30 seconds of silence between them. A total of nine full tapes and one side with four segments were used. An additional duplicate set of tapes was made and both sets were eventually used for rating by independent judges.

After their sixth training session, the fifteen raters were provided with tapes of the segments from the actual study. They undertook the ratings in their own time and exchanged tapes with the experimenter as they progressed. They were asked to refrain from any contact with any of the other raters about the data or the scales.

The ratings took place over a period of three months. Most of

the raters had completed in a shorter time, but two raters on the Genuineness scale had long gaps in between their tape completions and eventually they dropped out. It is not known whether this was a function of the scale or some other element in their situations. The Genuineness scale was then excluded from all other data analyses.

When all the ratings were completed, a correlational analysis (Pearson  $r$ ; Winer, 1971) was undertaken between the various raters within each of the scale groups. The scores for the two most highly correlated raters were averaged to provide an initial data base for each segment and scale. The interrater reliability coefficients for the two most highly associated raters for each of the scales on the experimental data were:

Empathic Understanding	- .74
Respect	- .63
Intensity	- .64
Self-Exploration	- .69

After the mean ratings of the two raters for each segment were determined, the two pre-signal segments (minutes 2-5 and 6-9) were combined as were the two post-signal segments (minutes 10-13 and 16-19) to give overall pre-shift period and post-shift period mean scores for each session on each scale. The scores subsequently obtained were regarded as the most representative measurements for the periods of interaction involved. These became the final data base for analyses of the interaction material.

## CHAPTER FOUR

### RESULTS - HELPING INTERACTION DATA

This Chapter presents the results of the data analyses on ratings made by the various judges trained in the use of the Truax (1962f) scale of helper Intensity and the Carkhuff (1969) scales of helper Empathic Understanding and Respect, and helpee Self-Exploration.

Analysis of the findings in relation to the three postural-shift conditions on each of the scales is reported. A second series of analyses is detailed, based on discriminations made within the total data concerning helper postural-shift preferences in the free-choice (C) condition (Choice-Forward Group; Choice-Backward Group). These two preference Groups were considered separately then in comparison with each other, examining differences for the postural-shift conditions on each of the process scales. Some interim discussion and extended analysis of particular aspects of the findings are presented. Finally, the relationships among the various rating scale scores are examined.

#### Postural-Shift Conditions/Intensity Levels

A repeated measures analysis of variance on the Intensity scale scores was undertaken to examine the overall differences among (forward-shift (A); backward-shift (B); free-choice (C)) and within (pre-shift period; post-shift period) the postural-shift conditions. The mean scores are presented in Table 1.<sup>1</sup>

Table 1: Postural-Shift Conditions/Intensity Means

Postural Shifts	Pre-shift Period	Post-shift Period	$\bar{X}$ R
Forward (A)	3.328	3.255	3.292
Backward (B)	3.198	3.484	3.341
Free-choice (C)	3.302	3.349	3.326

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<sup>1</sup> The Table of mean scores and the Anova summary Table for Intensity are shown in the text to provide an example of the data in the context of analysis. Tables for the other scales are presented in Appendix D.

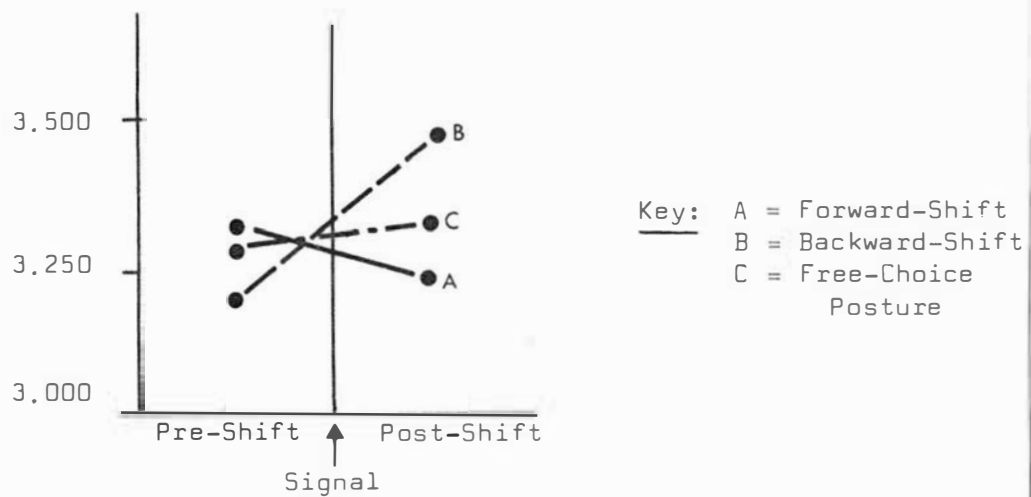


Figure 6: Postural-Shift Conditions/Intensity Levels

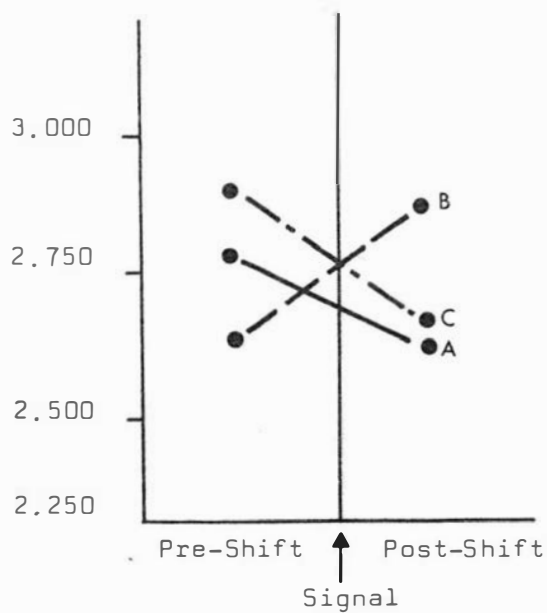


Figure 7: Postural-Shift Conditions/Empathic Understanding Levels

The Anova summary (see Table 2) revealed no overall significant differences. An interaction effect of postural-shifts  $\times$  pre-shift - post-shift periods was suggested ( $F(2,22) = 2.750$ ,  $p = .08$ ). The largest contribution to this interaction difference was contained within the backward-shift (B) condition where there was quite a marked increase from the pre-shift to the post-shift period (see Figure 6 facing page). Pair-wise individual comparisons (Appendix E, Table A) showed this effect for the backward-shift (B) condition to be significant ( $p < .05$ ). Variations in the pre-shift to post-shift levels for the other two postural-shift conditions were less marked and the forward-shift (A) condition differed in direction from the other two having a reduction in Intensity levels. The findings for the experimentally manipulated postural-shift conditions (A & B), considered separately and in comparison, were suggestive of a compensatory process operating between levels of verbally communicated Intensity and levels of nonverbal attending (see Figure 6). When a forward torso lean was made (heightened attending) there was a reduction in levels of verbally communicated Intensity and when a backward torso lean (lowered attending) was made there was an increase in Intensity.

Table 2: Anova Summary - Postural-Shift Conditions/Intensity

Source of Variance	SS	df	Ms	F-ratio	Prob. (two-tailed)
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.061	2	.031	.111	
Error for A	6.097	22	.277		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.271	1	.271	2.873	.11
Error for B	1.039	11	.094		
A $\times$ B Interaction	.804	2	.402	2.750	.08
Error for AB	3.215	22	.146		

Postural-Shift Conditions/Empathic Understanding Levels

The analysis for Empathic Understanding scores also revealed no overall significant differences (Appendix D; Table A - Means, Table B - Anova summary).

Observation of the mean scores (see Figure 7, facing page) suggested a similar compensatory process as for Intensity. This was



evident from the within session directions for the forward-shift (A) and backward-shift (B) conditions, as well as from a comparison of their relative levels in the post-shift period.

For the forward-shift condition (A) the pre-shift to post-shift direction was negative, whilst it was positive for the backward-shift condition (B). In the post-shift period, the backward-shift (B) condition had the highest level of Empathic Understanding. However, this was evident only as a trend ( $F(2,22) = 2.732$ ,  $p = .08$ ), and pair-wise comparisons did not reveal any significant individual differences. Heightened attending levels were accompanied by lowered verbally communicated Empathic Understanding and lowered attending levels were accompanied by heightened verbal Empathy, indicating a compensatory adjustment.

Of special note also was the fact that all of the mean scores for Empathic Understanding were below level 3.00, regarded as the minimal level of effectiveness on these five-level scales (Carkhuff, 1969).

#### Postural-Shift Conditions/Respect Levels

The Respect scale means and Anova summary are listed in Appendix D (Table A - Means; Table C - Anova Summary). The overall results indicated a main effect pre-shift to post-shift difference at a significant level ( $F(1,11) = 4.800$ ,  $p < .05$ ). This was due to a consistent increase of pre-shift to post-shift levels for all postural-shift conditions. Pair-wise individual comparisons (Appendix E, Table B) showed a difference at a significant level again for the backward-shift (B) condition ( $p < .05$ ).

Although different to the pattern for Intensity and Empathic Understanding in that the pre-shift to post-shift movement for the forward-shift (A) condition was positive, the backward-shift (B) condition again had the highest relative level in the experimental post-shift period with the forward-shift (A) condition being lowest (see Figure 8, facing p.76).

#### Postural-Shift Conditions/Helpee Self-Exploration Levels

Anova analysis (Appendix D, Table A - Means; Table E - Anova

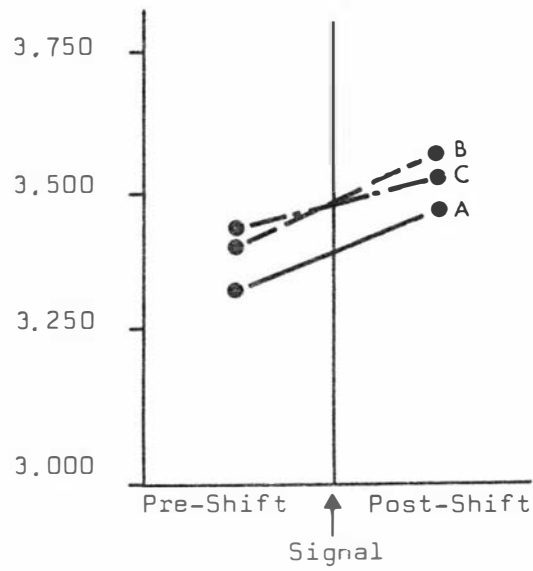


Figure 8: Postural-Shift Conditions/Respect Levels

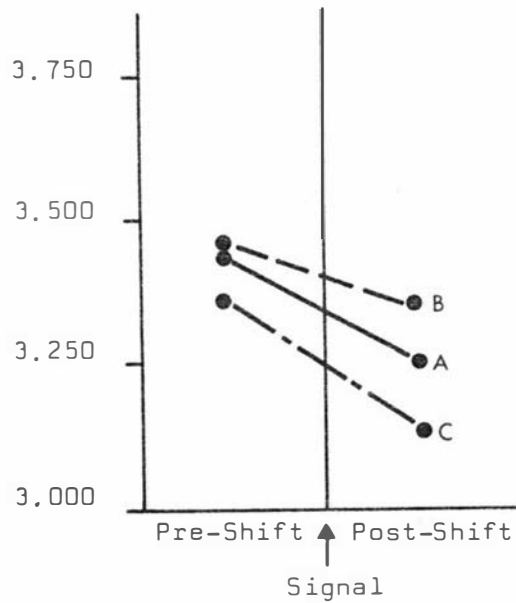


Figure 9: Postural-Shift Conditions/Helped Self-Exploration Levels

summary) revealed no overall significant differences for helpee Self-Exploration in relation to helper postural-shift variations. None of the individual pair-wise comparisons produced significant results either. Consideration of Figure 9 (facing page) shows a uniform pattern of a reduction in all three pre-shift to post-shift mean levels ( $F(1,11) = 3.049, p = .10$ ). There was also a consistent ordering of means in both the pre-shift and post-shift periods with backward-shift (B) being highest, then forward-shift (A), followed by free-choice (C).

#### Synthesis of Postural-Shift Conditions Results

The null hypotheses of no difference due to a forward torso lean is accepted on each of the scales of Intensity, Empathic Understanding, Respect and helpee Self-Exploration. Similarly, the null hypothesis due to a backward torso lean is accepted on the scales of Empathic Understanding and helpee Self-Exploration. It is rejected for the backward-shift movement on the scales of Intensity and Respect where significant differences were obtained for this condition, both of them involving an increase in levels from the pre-shift to the post-shift periods.

Whilst these were the only significant differences that emerged, they, the within-session directional patterns of the experimental shift conditions (A & B), and the ordering of means among the postural-shift conditions in the post-shift period for all scales were all suggestive of a compensatory process operating between the torso lean behaviours and the examined verbal process conditions. Looking at the within-session directions (Table 3), opposing patterns for the manipulated postures (A & B) were obtained on the scales of Intensity and Empathy. The

Table 3: Ranked Pre-Shift to Post-Shift Levels Within Postural-Shift Conditions on All Scales  
(Horizontal Plane: 1 = higher level; 2 = lower level)

#### Postural Shifts

Scales	Forward (A)			Backward (B)			Free-Choice (C)		
	Pre-shift	Post-shift		Pre-shift	Post-shift		Pre-shift	Post-shift	
<u>Helper</u>									
Intensity	1	-	2	2	-	1	2	-	1
Empathy	1	-	2	2	-	1	1	-	2
Respect	2	-	1	2	-	1	2	-	1
<u>Helpee</u>									
Self-Exploration	1	-	2	1	-	2	1	-	2

forward-shift (A) condition involved a reduction in levels within the sessions, whilst the backward-shift (B) condition involved an increase in levels. The free-choice (C) condition matched the direction for A (forward-shift) on Empathy, but matched the direction for B (backward-shift) on Intensity. This contrasting pattern for the free-choice condition could be due to this condition involving a mixture of forward and backward shift behaviours for different subjects. The pre-shift to post-shift patterns for Respect and helpee Self-Exploration were consistent for all three conditions, but, whereas for Respect they involved an increase in levels, for Self-Exploration they involved a decrease.

An examination of the relationships among the postural-shift condition means for the pre-shift and post-shift periods separately lends support to the compensatory notion (see Table 4). In each of the scales, including helpee Self-Exploration, the critical post-shift period

Table 4: Ranked Pre-Shift and Post-Shift Means Among  
Postural-Shift Conditions on All Scales  
 (Horizontal Plane: 1 = highest mean; 3 = lowest mean)

Scales	Pre-shift Means <u>Postures</u>			Post-shift Means <u>Postures</u>		
	A	B	C	A	B	C
<u>Helper</u>						
Intensity	1	3	2	3	1	2
Empathy	2	3	1	2	1	3
Respect	3	2	1	3	1	2
<u>Helpee</u>						
Self-Exploration	2	1	3	2	1	3

levels for postural-shift B (backward) were highest among the postural-shift conditions. Condition A (forward-shift) was lowest for Intensity and Respect, as was condition C (free-choice) for Empathic Understanding and helpee Self-Exploration. There was no consistent pattern for the standardized pre-shift period, with the backward-shift (B) condition being lower than the forward-shift (A) condition on Intensity and Empathy, but this was reversed on the Respect and Self-Exploration scales.

### Free-Choice (Preference) Comparisons

To this stage, condition C - that involving a free choice of posture following the signal - has been treated as a unitary factor. Yet some helpers chose to move forwards and some chose to move backwards. Five preferred the former and seven the latter. Two of the seven made only slight movements perhaps just for reasons of physical comfort. The forward movement in this free-choice category was virtually identical to the movement required for the experimental forward-shift (A). The movement backwards was uniformly different from the experimental backward-shift (B) requirements. Whereas for the experimental condition (B) it involved only a movement of the upper torso, for the choice condition it always involved shifting the whole torso by sitting further back in the chair and frequently included crossing one leg over the other below the knee. The final position was both more upright and further away than for the experimental shift (B).

As the postural-shift preferences of the helpers could be broadly classified in line with the two experimental conditions, it was decided to examine the data for the two separate groups, extending the original examination into these distinctions. The same repeated measures analysis of variance was undertaken on the data from the Choice-Forward Group (N=5) and the Choice-Backward Group (N=5) - leaving out the two helpers whose movement was very slight. These analyses were done separately in the first instance, but were followed by a comparative analysis of the two Groups on each of the postural-shift conditions on each of the scales.

### Choice-Groups/Intensity Levels

Mean score and Anova summary tables are presented in Appendix D (Tables F & H - Choice-Forward Group; Tables G & I - Choice-Backward Group).

Focussing on the Choice-Forward Group, the analysis of variance revealed a significant interaction (postural-shifts x pre-shift - post-shift periods) difference ( $F(2,8) = 5.805, p < .05$ ). Pair-wise individual comparisons of the means (Appendix E, Table C) once again showed a significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) for the backward-shift (B) condition. The pattern of a compensatory process evident for the helpers overall was more pronounced for the Choice-Forward Group helpers (see Figure 10a).

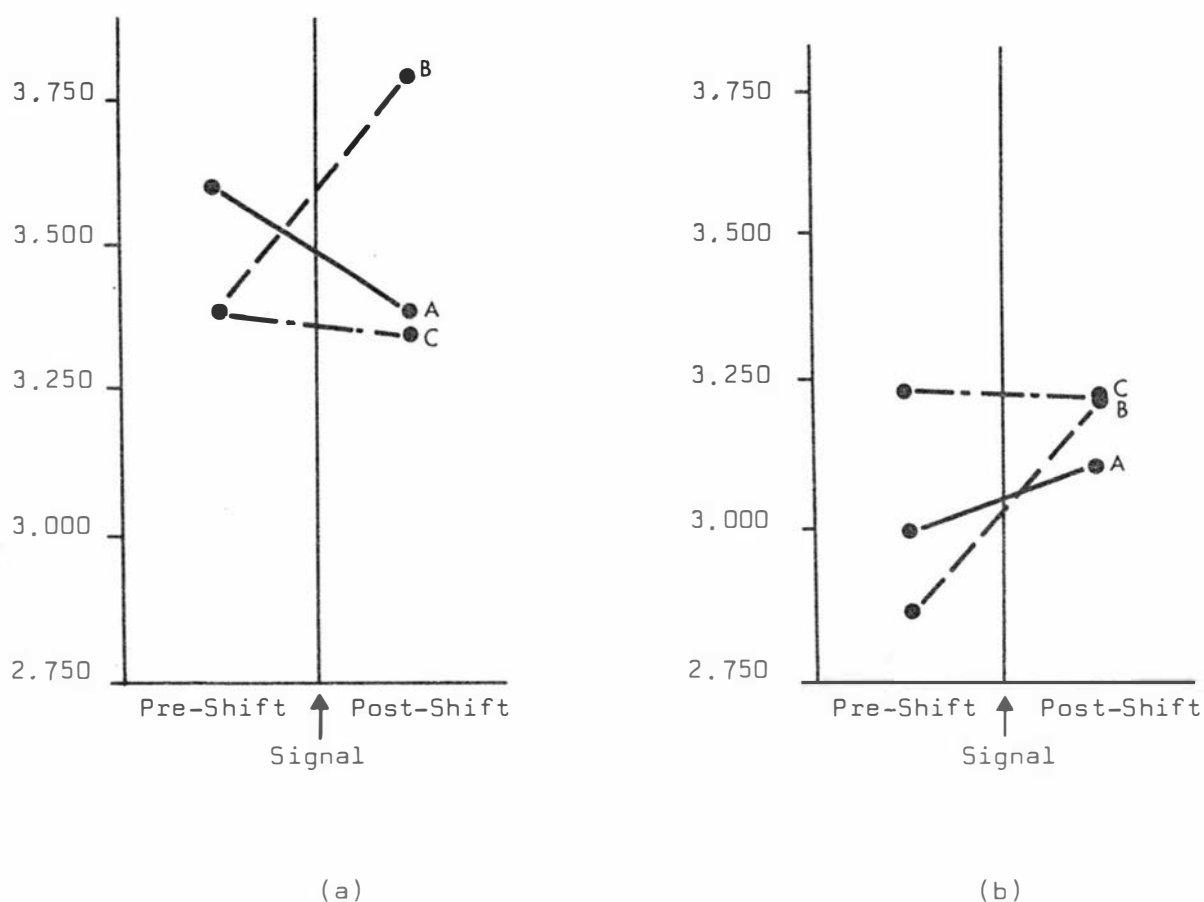


Figure 10: Choice-Groups, Postural-Shift  
Conditions/Intensity Levels

- (a) Choice-Forward Group  
(b) Choice-Backward Group

For this Group, the means for the forward-shift (A) condition decreased from the pre-shift to the post-shift period but increased markedly for the backward-shift (B) condition. Additionally, for the experimental post-shift period, the backward-shift (B) condition mean was markedly higher than for the other two conditions (A & C), which for this Group were both forward-shift movements. There was only a slight variation in the pre-shift to post-shift means for the free-choice (C) or baseline condition, which matched the direction for A and was also closest to A in the post-shift period.

The Anova summary for the Choice-Backward Group on Intensity showed a significant within-session (pre-shift - post-shift) main effect difference ( $F(1,4) = 7.807, p = .05$ ). Individual pair-wise comparisons did not determine a significant difference for any of the conditions

separately. Figure 10b reveals a similar pre-shift to post-shift positive direction for the backward-shift (B) condition and once again it exceeded the level for the manipulated forward-shift (A) condition in the experimental post-shift period. In this period it was almost identical to the free-choice (C) condition, which for this Group involved a backward shift movement. The compensatory relationship for the manipulated postural-shift behaviours was suggested again in these comparisons of the post-shift means. However, for this Group the forward-shift (A) condition also involved an increase in levels pre-shift to post-shift. There was very little difference in the pre-shift to post-shift means for the free-choice (C) or baseline condition.

An additional analysis of the findings for both Groups was undertaken, involving a comparison of the sets of data for each of the postural-shift conditions, on each of the scales. This involved for each scale a 2 x 2 analysis of variance (Choice-Forward/Choice-Backward Groups x Pre-shift/Post-shift Periods) with one fixed effect factor and one repeated measure factor.

Findings for the forward-shift (A) condition comparison on Intensity (Table 5 - Means; Appendix D, Table J - Anova Summary) revealed no main or interaction effects at a significant level. However, as shown in Figure 10a, 10b (conditions A) and Table 5, some noticeable differences occurred both between the means for the Groups and in their pre-shift to post-shift directions.

Table 5: Choice-Groups/Forward-Shift (A)/Intensity Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.625	3.400	3.513
Choice-Backward Group	3.013	3.113	3.063

The direction for the Choice-Forward Group involved a decrease in levels, whereas for the Choice-Backward Group it involved an increase. Both the pre-shift and the post-shift means for the Choice-Forward Group were higher than those for the Choice-Backward Group ( $F(1,8) = 3.706$ ,  $p = .09$ ). Individual pair-wise comparisons (Appendix E, Table D) revealed

a significant between Group difference on the pre-shift mean only ( $p < .01$ ). The combined mean for the Choice-Forward Group was 3.513 and 3.063 for the Choice-Backward Group.

For postural-shift condition B (backward), analysis comparing the two Groups (Table 6 - Means; Appendix D, Table K - Anova Summary) revealed significant main effects between Groups ( $F(1,8) = 21.149$ ,  $p < .01$ ) and within sessions ( $F(1,8) = 16.216$ ,  $p < .01$ ) differences.

Table 6: Choice-Groups/Backward-Shift (B)/Intensity Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.413	3.800	3.606
Choice-Backward Group	2.863	3.226	3.044

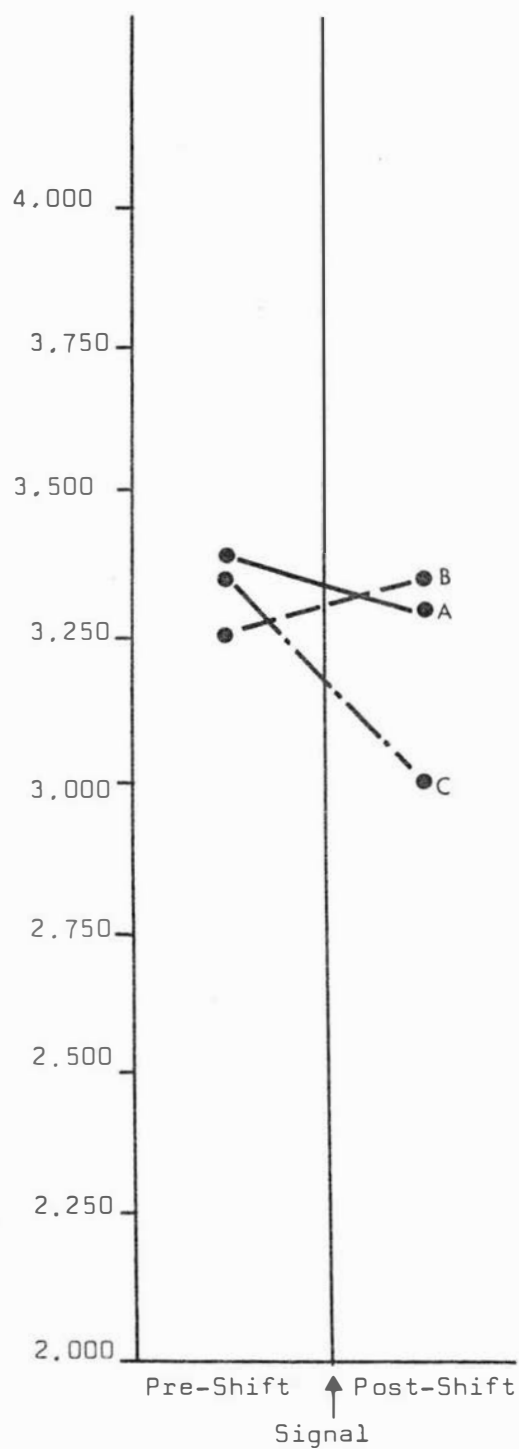
Both Groups showed quite a sizeable pre-shift to post-shift positive difference (see conditions B, Figure 10a, 10b). Individual pair-wise comparisons were significant for both Groups ( $p < .05$ ) for the within session differences (Appendix E, Table G). The differences between the means favoured the Choice-Forward Group over the Choice-Backward Group in both the pre-shift and post-shift periods (pair-wise comparisons  $p < .01$  for both periods - Appendix E, Table E). The overall Intensity mean for the Choice-Forward Group on the backward-shift (B) condition was 3.606 in contrast to 3.044 for the Choice-Backward Group.

Analysis of the data for the two Groups for postural-shift condition (C) (Table 7 - Means) was essentially a baseline comparison between a forward shift condition and a backward shift condition. There were no significant differences (Appendix D, Table L - Anova Summary).

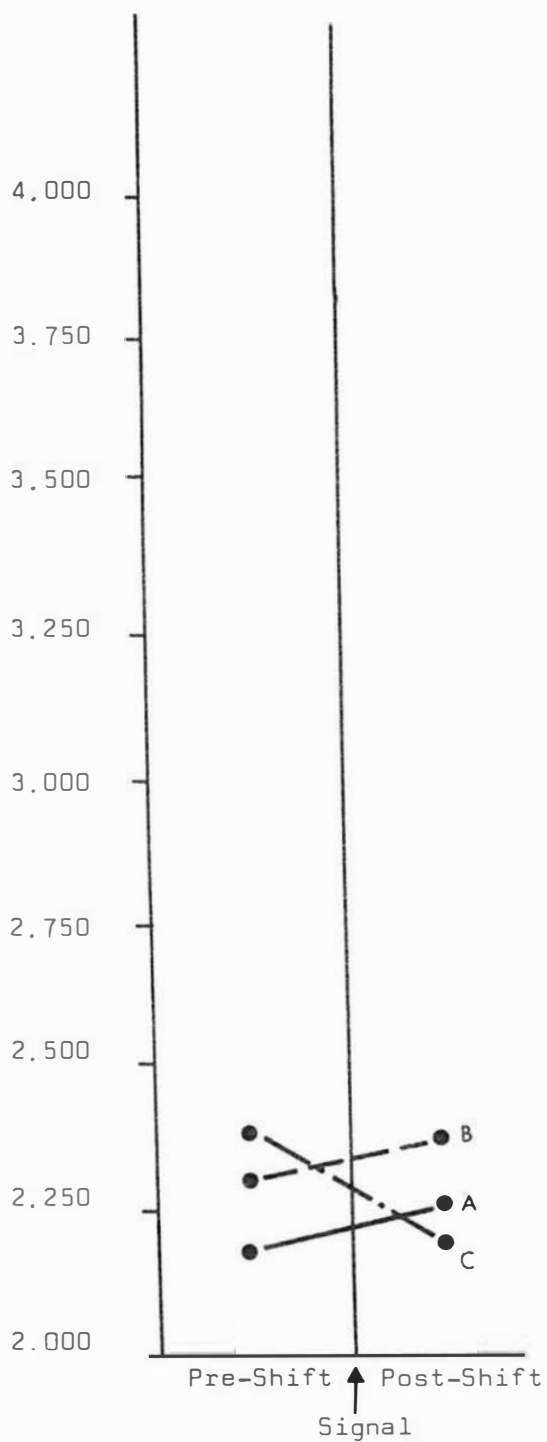
Table 7: Choice-Groups/Free-Choice (C)/Intensity Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.413	3.350	3.381
Choice-Backward Group	3.250	3.238	3.244





(a)



(b)

Figure 11: Choice-Groups/Postural-Shift Conditions/  
Empathic Understanding Levels

(a) Choice-Forward Group

(b) Choice-Backward Group

There was relatively little variation within the sessions for both Groups. Once again, the means for the Choice-Forward Group both exceeded those for the Choice-Backward Group (see conditions C, Fig.10a, 10b). Individual pair-wise comparisons did not reveal significant differences for either the between or within Group scores.

#### Choice-Groups/Empathic Understanding Levels

Mean scores for the Empathic Understanding Scale and the Anova summaries are located in Appendix D (Choice-Forward Group - Table F, Means; Table M, Anova summary; Choice-Backward Group - Table G, Means; Table N, Anova summary). In both cases there were no significant differences, either overall or in pair-wise individual comparisons.

For both Groups the compensatory process was again suggested. Looking at the pattern for the Choice-Forward Group (Figure 11a - facing page), there was a crossing over of the pre-shift and post-shift period levels for the experimental conditions A (forward) and B (backward) consistent with this process. There was a reduction in Empathy levels within the sessions for the forward-shift (A) condition and an increase for the backward-shift (B) condition. The backward-shift (B) condition had the higher mean level of the two in the experimental post-shift period. The free-choice (C) or baseline condition, which for this Group involved a forward shift had a decrease in levels from the pre-shift to post-shift periods and had the lowest of the levels in the post-shift period. For the Choice-Backward Group, condition B (backward-shift) also exceeded condition A (forward-shift) in the post-shift period (see Figure 11b - facing page), but both conditions increased over the sessions. The free-choice (C) or baseline condition also involved a decrease over the sessions and had the lowest mean of all in the post-shift period.

From the comparisons made between the two Groups on each of the postural-shift conditions, there was a uniform significant difference in all three comparisons. This involved a main effect between Groups significant difference. For the forward-shift (A) condition the means are set out in Table 8. The Anova summary (Appendix D, Table O) showed this difference ( $F(1,8) = 18.005, p < .01$ ) and individual pair-wise comparison (Table F, Appendix E) indicated that it was significant

( $p < .01$ ) for both the pre-shift and the post-shift periods. The overall session mean for the Choice-Forward Group (3.350) was considerably higher than for the Choice-Backward Group (2.225) (see conditions A, Fig.11a, 11b).

Table 8: Choice-Groups/Forward-Shift (A)/Empathic Understanding Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.400	3.300	3.350
Choice-Backward Group	2.200	2.250	2.225

The Means (Table 9) and Anova summary (Table P, Appendix D) showed a significant difference ( $F(1,8) = 36.541$ ,  $p < .001$ ) between the two Groups for the backward-shift (B) condition. Individual pair-wise comparisons (Appendix E, Table G) showed this difference to

Table 9: Choice-Groups/Backward-Shift (B)/Empathic Understanding Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.263	3.375	3.319
Choice-Backward Group	2.313	2.375	2.344

be consistent ( $p < .01$ ) for both periods of the sessions. Again, there was almost one whole level between the overall means for the two Groups (Choice-Forward Group - 3.319; Choice-Backward Group - 2.344) (see conditions B, Fig.11a, 11b).

A similar main effect between Groups difference ( $F(1,8) = 13.310$ ,  $p < .01$ ) was obtained for the free-choice (C) condition (Individual pair-wise comparison,  $p < .05$  for both periods - Appendix E, Table H). The mean scores are set out in Table 10.

Table 10: Choice-Groups/Free-Choice (C)/Empathic Understanding Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.363	3.050	3.206
Choice-Backward Group	2.413	2.225	2.319

The differences in the total means between these two Groups were maintained for these opposing nonverbal actions (i.e. forward shift vs. backward shift) - 3.206 - Choice-Forward Group; 2.319 - Choice-Backward Group (see conditions C, Fig.11a, 11b).

From these consistent findings on each of the postural-shift conditions it was evident that, irrespective of the condition (A, B or C) those whose preference was to go forward toward the helpee had markedly higher levels of Empathic Understanding (above the minimally facilitative level of 3.00 ) than those whose preference was to shift backwards away from the helpee (uniformly below the minimally facilitative level). Taken across the postural-shift conditions, the total mean level of Empathy (probably the most critical process condition) for the Choice-Forward Group was 3.291 and only 2.295 for the Choice-Backward Group.

#### Choice-Groups/Respect Levels

Respect levels for the two Groups and Anova summaries are tabled in Appendix D (Table F, Means; Table R, Anova summary - Choice-Forward Group; Table G, Means; Table S, Anova summary - Choice-Backward Group). There were no significant main nor interaction effects for either Group. Individual pair-wise comparisons however, determined a significant difference ( $p < .05$ ) for the backward-shift (B) for the Choice-Forward Group (see Appendix E, Table I).

Examining the graphed data for the Choice-Forward Group (Figure 12a, b, p.85) a consistent within-session pre-shift to post-shift increase in Respect levels for all postural-shift conditions was evident. The backward-shift (B) condition had the highest levels in both periods, followed by the other experimental condition (forward-shift (A)) then by

the baseline (free-choice (C)) forward condition. Inasmuch as the backward-shift (B), or most ineffective attending condition, had the highest mean level of Respect in the experimental post-shift period, the compensatory tendency was maintained.

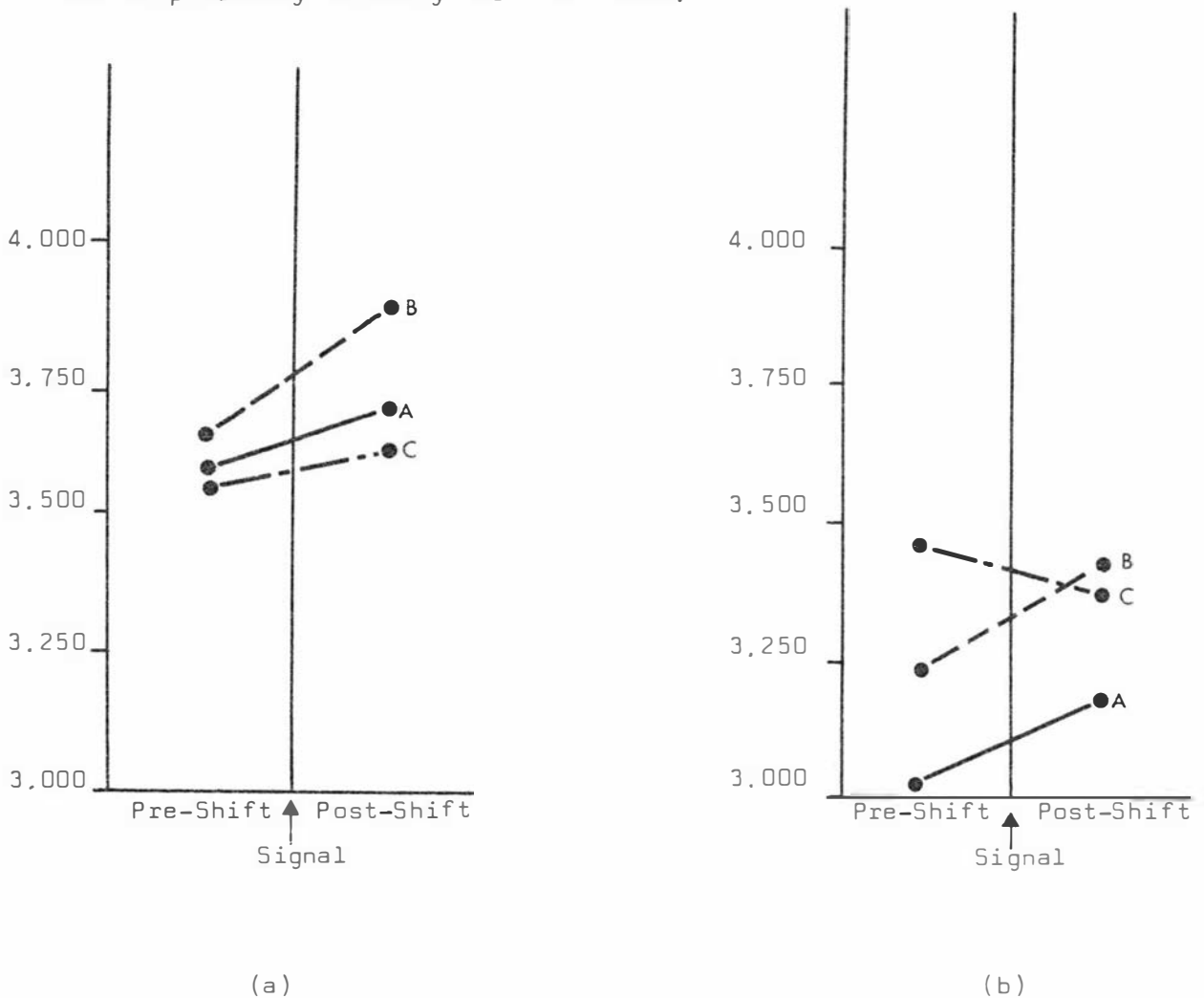


Figure 12: Choice-Groups/Postural-Shift Conditions/Respect Levels

- (a) Choice-Forward Group
- (b) Choice-Backward Group

This pattern was somewhat evident for the Choice-Backward Group as well (see Figure 12b). The directions within the sessions were the same as for the Choice-Forward Group on the experimental conditions (A & B), with the backward-shift (B) Respect levels exceeding those for the forward-shift (A) condition and being highest overall in the post-shift experimental period. The baseline (free-choice (C)) backward shift condition had the highest level in the pre-shift period and was the only condition in any of the analyses on this Respect scale to have a reduction in levels across the sessions.

As for the other scales, Anova analysis was undertaken to compare the two Groups for each of the postural-shift conditions. Analysis for the forward-shift (A) condition (Table 11, Means - Appendix D, Table T, Anova summary) revealed a significant main effect difference between the two Groups ( $F(1,8) = 9.799$ ,  $p = .01$ ) favouring the Choice-Forward Group in both periods (Individual pair-wise comparisons  $p < .01$  for both; Appendix E, Table J). The total mean for the Choice-Forward Group was 3.681 compared to 3.125 for the Choice-Backward Group (see conditions A, Fig.12a, b).

Table 11: Choice-Groups/Forward-Shift (A)/Respect Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.625	3.738	3.681
Choice-Backward Group	3.050	3.200	3.125

For the backward-shift (B) comparison (see conditions B, Fig.12a, b) there were main effects significant differences both between the Groups ( $F(1,8) = 8.160$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and within the sessions ( $F(1,8) = 9.759$ ,  $p = .01$ ) (Appendix D, Table U - Anova summary). The within session difference was sustained ( $p < .05$ ) only for the Choice-Forward Group in individual pair-wise comparisons (Appendix E, Table K), and similar pair-wise comparisons revealed individual significant differences ( $p < .01$ ) for both the pre-shift and the post-shift between Group means (see Appendix E, Table M). The mean scores are shown in Table 12, and the levels again favoured the Choice-Forward Group.

Table 12: Choice-Groups/Backward-Shift (B)/Respect Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.675	3.913	3.794
Choice-Backward Group	3.263	3.450	3.356

There were no significant differences in the comparison of the Respect level means for the free-choice (C) (baseline) condition (see conditions C, Fig.12a, b), which represented a forward-shift for the Choice-Forward Group and a backward-shift for the Choice-Backward Group (Means, Table 13; Anova summary, Appendix D, Table V). As previously

Table 13: Choice-Groups/Free-Choice (C)/Respect Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.575	3.650	3.613
Choice-Backward Group	3.463	3.388	3.425

indicated, it was only in this condition on the Respect scale that there was a contrasting within-session direction for the Groups, involving an increase in levels for the Choice-Forward Group and a decrease for the Choice-Backward Group. Individual pair-wise comparisons (Appendix E, Table L) highlighted the contrasting directions by showing a significant difference between the Groups only in the post-shift period ( $p < .05$ ).

#### Choice-Groups/Helpsee Self-Exploration Levels

The analysis of variance on this scale of helpsee behaviour did not reveal any significant differences for either Group of helpers. The means and Anova summaries for the Choice-Forward and the Choice-Backward helper Groups are presented in Appendix D (Choice-Forward - Table F, Means; Table W, Anova; Choice-Backward - Table G, Means; Table X, Anova). Individual pair-wise comparisons were also not significant in their differences.

With the Choice-Forward helper Group there was a switch in the pre-shift to post-shift period helpsee levels between the forward-shift (A) and backward-shift (B) conditions (see Figure 13a, p.88). Relative to the backward-shift (B) condition the forward-shift levels were lowest in the pre-shift period but were highest in the post-shift period. This pattern was in direct contrast to the pattern of pre-shift to post-shift means on the helper process scales. It was suggestive of a reciprocal relationship whereby heightened deliberate helper attending led to

heightened helpee Self-Exploration, whereas for the helper scales the relationship between the helper process conditions and attending behaviours was of a compensatory kind. This compensatory model was consistent with the findings in the free-choice (C) condition, which with this Group of helpers involved a forward shift, inasmuch as the heightened helper attending levels resulted in a lowering of helpee Self-Exploration levels.

The differences obtained in helpee Self-Exploration levels with the Choice-Backward Group helpers involved in the experimental postural manipulations (A & B) were also suggestive of this compensatory process (see Fig.13b). The backward-shift (B) condition had the highest level

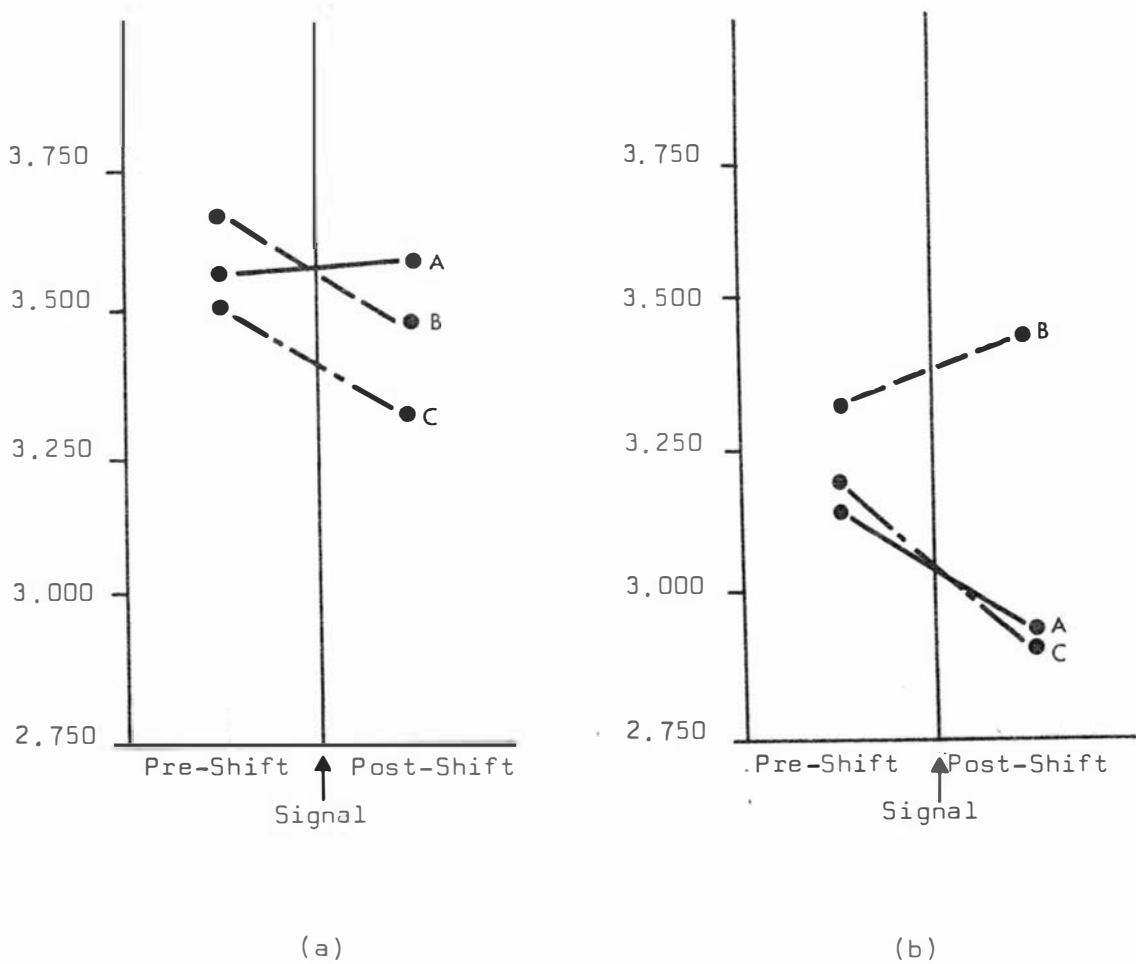


Figure 13: Choice-Groups/Postural-Shifts/Helpee Self-Exploration Levels

(a) Choice-Forward Group

(b) Choice-Backward Group



of Self-Exploration in both the pre-shift and the experimental post-shift periods and there was an increase in levels within the session when the backward-shift was made. The forward-shift (A) condition dropped in levels of Self-Exploration from the pre-shift to the post-shift period and this was matched for the free-choice (C) (baseline) condition, which for this Group involved a backward shift.

The same comparative analysis between the scores with the Choice-Forward and Choice-Backward Groups was undertaken on each of the postural-shift conditions. For the forward-shift (A) condition (Means, Table 14; Anova summary, Table Y, Appendix D; see conditions A, Fig.13a, b) there was a significant main effect difference between the two Groups. ( $F(1,8) = 7.414, p < .05$ ). Both the pre-shift and the post-shift period scores favoured the Choice-Forward Group, but individual pair-wise comparisons did not show these differences at a significant level. There was a sizeable difference in the experimental period brought about by opposing within-session directions for the two Groups - a slight increase for the Choice-Forward Group and a decrease for the Choice-Backward Group.

Table 14: Choice-Groups/Forward-Shift (A)/Helpee Self-Exploration Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.563	3.613	3.588
Choice-Backward Group	3.163	2.950	3.056

No significant differences were found for the backward-shift (B) condition comparative analysis (Table 15, Means - Table Z, Appendix D, Anova summary; see conditions B, Fig.13a, b), overall or in pair-wise comparisons.

Table 15: Choice-Groups/Backward-Shift (B)/Helpee Self-Exploration Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.688	3.488	3.588
Choice-Backward Group	3.338	3.478	3.406

The within session directions differed for the two Groups and in direct opposition to those for the forward-shift (A) condition. Here, the helpees' Self-Exploration levels pre-shift to post-shift reduced with the Choice-Forward Group and increased with the Choice-Backward Group. These opposing directions led to a convergence of mean levels in the post-shift period, only slightly favouring the helpees with the Choice-Forward Group helpers (cf. 3.488; 3.478 total means).

Again, there were no significant differences when comparing the levels for the free-choice (C) condition for the two helper Groups (Table 16, Means - Table AA, Appendix D, Anova summary; see conditions C, Fig.13a, b). No significant differences emerged with pair-wise comparisons either. This condition involved a forward shift for the Choice-Forward Group and a backward shift for the Choice-Backward Group. Both revealed a drop in helpee Self-Exploration within the sessions (pre-shift to post-shift). Once again, the levels favoured the helpees with the Choice-Forward Group helpers in both the pre-shift and post-shift periods.

Table 16: Choice-Groups/Free-Choice (C)/Helpee Self-Exploration Means

Groups	Pre-shift	Post-shift	$\bar{X}$ R
Choice-Forward Group	3.513	3.338	3.426
Choice-Backward Group	3.188	2.900	3.044

Synthesis of Choice-Group Results

The significant difference findings that were obtained from analyses of the data for the total sample of helpers were matched in the analyses for the Choice-Forward Group helpers. There was a significant increase in levels of Intensity and Respect associated with making a torso-lean backwards away from the helpees (condition B). No significant difference findings were obtained for the Choice-Backward Group helpers. The findings for this second-stage analysis by postural preference suggested that the outcomes obtained for the total sample of trained helpers in condition B were concentrated on those whose preference was to move forwards towards helpees when given the option. As previously

stated, these preferences for either a forward or a backward postural shift were associated with levels of effectiveness on the process scales. The Choice-Forward Group helpers communicated at higher levels than the Choice-Backward Group helpers on all scales in all postural-shift conditions, with several of the comparisons reaching a level of significance. Hence, the significant difference findings for condition B on Intensity and Respect can be more precisely linked to trained helpers, whose preference was to move forward and whose communication was at high levels on the process scales.

Although concentrated on the Choice-Forward Group helpers through these significant outcomes, there was evidence of similar findings, but of lesser magnitude, for the Choice-Backward Group helpers when making a deliberate torso lean away. The difference for B actually reached a significant level in the context of pair-wise analysis when comparing the two Groups on Intensity.

The findings from the two helper Groups on the various scales, of which these significant differences were a part, indicated similar compensatory patterns to those from the analyses for the total helper sample. This is best seen from the ranked pre-shift to post-shift means within the sessions and the rankings among the postural-shift condition means for the two Groups on all of the scales.

Looking firstly at the within session pattern for the Choice-Forward Group (see Table 17), all three postural-shift conditions involved an increase in Respect levels. For Empathy and Intensity, however, whilst

Table 17: Ranked Pre-Shift to Post-Shift Means, Within Postural-Shift Conditions On All Scales

Choice-Forward Group Helpers									
Scales	Forward-Shift (A)			Backward-Shift (B)			Free-Choice (forward) (C)		
	Pre-		Post	Pre-		Post	Pre-		Post
<u>Helper</u>									
Intensity	1	-	2	2	-	1	1	-	2
Empathy	1	-	2	2	-	1	1	-	2
Respect	2	-	1	2	-	1	2	-	1
<u>Helpee</u>									
Self-Exploration	2	-	1	1	-	2	1	-	2

there was an increase (pre-shift to post-shift) for the backward-shift (B) condition there was a decrease for the forward-shift condition (A). This difference was maintained in the comparison of Choice-Forward Group ranked scores among the postural-shift conditions for pre-shift and post-shift levels separately (see Table 18). The uniform outcome was for the backward-shift (B) condition to have a higher post-shift mean than the forward-shift (A) condition on all helper scales.

These findings were indicative of a compensatory process in relation to nonverbal attending levels and verbal process levels on all scales for this Choice-Forward Group. On the scales of Intensity and Respect, the free-choice (C - forward) levels in the post-shift period were closest to those for the forward-shift (A) condition, suggesting the possibility of a similar compensatory process with preferred behaviours.

Table 18: Ranked Pre-Shift and Post-Shift Means, Among Postural-Shift Conditions, On All Scales - Choice-Forward Group Helpers

Scales	Pre-Shift			Post-Shift		
	A	B	C	A	B	C
<u>Helper</u>						
Intensity	1	2.5	2.5	2	1	3
Empathy	1	3	2	2	1	3
Respect	2	1	3	2	1	3
<u>Helpee</u>						
Self-Exploration	2	1	3	1	2	3

There was a variation for the helpee Self-Exploration levels though, there being an increase from pre-shift to post-shift within session means for A (forward) but not for B (backward) nor C (choice-forward (see Table 17, p.91) - a variation maintained in the comparison among the post-shift means (see Table 18) with the highest level of Self-Exploration for the forward-shift (A) and the lowest for the free-choice (C) condition.

For the Choice-Backward Group, the within session (pre-shift to post-shift) differences for the helper scales of Intensity, Empathy and Respect (see Table 19, p.93) showed an increase in levels for the forward-shift (A) and backward-shift (B) conditions but a decrease for the baseline (C - backward) condition.

Table 19: Ranked Pre-Shift to Post-Shift Means, Within Postural-Shift Conditions On All Scales - Choice-Backward Group Helpers

Scales	Forward-Shift (A)			Backward-Shift (B)			Free-Choice (backward) (C)		
	Pre	-	Post	Pre	-	Post	Pre	-	Post
<u>Helper</u>									
Intensity	2	-	1	2	-	1	1	-	2
Empathy	2	-	1	2	-	1	1	-	2
Respect	2	-	1	2	-	1	1	-	2
<u>Helpee</u>									
Self-Exploration	1	-	2	2	-	1	1	-	2

Comparing the pre-shift and post-shift levels separately among the postural-shift conditions for these helper scales (see Table 20, p.94), the only uniform trend was for the baseline condition (free-choice (C) - backwards) to be uniformly highest in the pre-shift period. However, when just comparing the experimental conditions (A & B) in the post-shift experimental period, there was once again the uniform pattern of the backward-shift (B) levels being higher than the forward-shift (A). This was similarly suggestive of a compensatory relationship for the manipulated behaviours between the verbal and nonverbal communication dimensions for the Choice-Backward Group. On Intensity and Respect scales, the free-choice (C - backward) levels in the post-shift period were closest to the levels for the backward-shift (B) condition, suggesting that a similar compensatory process might have been operating on these variables.

For helpee Self-Exploration with the Choice-Backward Group helpers, there was a within-session (pre-shift to post-shift) increase in levels (see Table 19) for the backward-shift (B) condition, and a decrease for the other two conditions (A & C (backward)). This was maintained in the comparisons among the postural-shift conditions (see Table 20) where the backward-shift (B) condition had the highest levels of helpee Self-Exploration in both the pre-shift and the experimental post-shift periods.

Looking at within-session directions comparing the two Groups on each of the postural-shift conditions, some differences were evident (see Tables 17, p.91 & 19). The within-session (pre-shift to

Table 20: Ranked Pre-Shift and Post-Shift Means, Among Postural-Shift Conditions On All Scales - Choice-Backward Group Helpers

Scales	Pre-Shift Period Postural Shift			Post-Shift Period Postural Shift		
	A	B	C	A	B	C
<u>Helper</u>						
Intensity	2	3	1	3	2	1
Empathy	3	2	1	2	1	3
Respect	3	2	1	3	1	2
<u>Helpee</u>						
Self-Exploration	3	1	2	2	1	3

post-shift) directional pattern for the scales in the baseline (free-choice (C)) condition revealed some similarity for the two Groups. On the Intensity and Empathy scales both the Choice-Forward and the Choice-Backward Group helpers decreased their levels. On the Respect scale the direction differed with the levels for the former Group increasing and those for the latter Group decreasing. In this more natural shift condition (C) then, for the Choice-Backward Group, there was a matching of the levels of verbally communicated process conditions with the levels of attending - backward lean with lower levels. For the Choice-Forward Group there was a matching on the Respect scale (forward move - heightened levels) but a contrast (lowered levels) for the other two scales (Intensity and Respect). Helpee Self-Exploration behaviour showed a decrease for the helpers of both Groups in this condition (C).

For the backward-shift (B) condition, the pattern of within-session directions on helper scales (see Tables 17, p.91 & 19, p.93) was identical for the two Groups - all showing an increase in levels from pre-shift to post-shift periods. The consistent increase on helper scales was matched in helpee Self-Exploration with the Choice-Backward Group helpers, but was in the opposite decreasing direction with the Choice-Forward Group helpers.

For the forward-shift (A) condition, the directional pattern within the sessions (see Tables 17 & 19) was matched on the Respect scale, with both Groups showing a pre-shift to post-shift increase. On the other two helper scales (Intensity and Empathic Understanding), whereas the Choice-Forward Group's levels decreased, those for the Choice-Backward Group increased. On the Self-Exploration scale, the helpees with the Choice-Forward Group helpers increased their levels slightly, whereas those with the Choice-Backward Group helpers decreased.

The between Group comparison of means findings showed a uniform pattern for each of the scales. The mean scores were higher for the Choice-Forward Group helpers than the Choice-Backward Group helpers in all postural-shift conditions. The difference was most pronounced on the important Empathic Understanding scale. The obtained differences were such as to separate the two Groups on the basis of effectiveness/ineffectiveness criteria on the 5-level Carkhuff scale. The Choice-Backward Group did not reach a level of minimal effectiveness (i.e. level 3.00) on any of the postural-shift conditions, and the Choice-Forward Group did not fall below that level.

For the baseline (free-choice C) condition, it was only on the Empathy scale (both pre-shift and post-shift periods) and the Respect scale (post-shift period) that there were significant differences between the Groups. For the backward-shift (B) condition, significant differences were obtained for each of the helper scales but not on the helpee Self-Exploration scale. For the forward-shift (A) condition, there were significant differences between the two Groups for Empathy and Respect (pre-shift and post-shift periods), Intensity (pre-shift) and Self-Exploration (not individually significant for either period).

### Interim Discussion

Two matters emerge from the findings at this stage that need further examination and some discussion. These are, firstly, to do with the finding just presented that the Choice-Forward and Choice-Backward Groups could be distinguished on the basis of effectiveness criteria, and, secondly, with the extent to which the findings obtained on postural-shift conditions might be influenced by the order of sessions.

The comparisons between the two helper Groups on each of the postural-shift conditions for each of the scales suggested a causal relationship between a preference for a forward or a backward postural shift and effective or ineffective helping communication. The findings suggested that a preference to move forward brought about high levels of communication on all the process scales and a preference to move backwards brought about low levels of such communication. Also that helpees explored themselves at higher levels with helpers whose preference was to move forwards.

To determine the extent of this association between demonstrated preference and effectiveness levels, an extension was made beyond the parameters of this experiment. Examination was made of the relationship between levels of effectiveness from the experimental data and other indications of effectiveness - namely pre-experiment rankings of helper competence made by the helpers' trainers.

Rankings were made of the twelve helpers on three criteria:-

- (i) their highest level (Amplitude) of Empathic Understanding from this study in the baseline (free-choice (C)) condition - taking Empathy as the most crucial helper process behaviour
- (ii) their Mean level of Empathic Understanding in the same condition
- (iii) their competence as helpers based on the joint rankings of two of the helpers' trainers - this ranking being made before the study was undertaken.

Results (see Appendix F) showed that for the first two sets of rankings the top six ranks included all of the helpers who chose to shift forward in the free-choice (C) condition plus one of the helpers whose backward shift was slight and who was not included in the Choice-Group analyses - the other individual whose shift back was slight was in the bottom six ranks along with all those who chose to make a clear shift backwards. For the third ranking set (helper Trainers), there was a slight variation in that the top six ranks included four helpers who chose to move forward and the two whose movement back was very slight. The bottom six ranks included all of the helpers who were in the Choice-Backward Group and one of the five Choice-Forward Group helpers.

Spearman's nonparametric correlations ( $\rho$ ) of the various sets of ranks (Siegel, 1956) was high - .96 for the Amplitude and Mean Empathic Understanding ranks; .64 for the Amplitude and Trainer ranks; .63 for Trainers and Mean ranks. These associations gave added support to a relationship between postural-shift preference and levels of helping effectiveness. They indicated, however, that the levels of helper effectiveness demonstrated in this study were not just dependent on postural-shift preferences, being related also to general communication



abilities. The fact that postural shifts in themselves do not effect effectiveness levels was further indicated through the differences in levels of effectiveness being maintained between the two Groups of helpers irrespective of the direction of the manipulated postural shifts for the experimental conditions (A & B). It seems most likely that because the Choice-Forward Group were effective helpers they preferred to go forward when given the choice rather than that going forward actually influenced their being effective. Undoubtedly, there is a relationship between these two sets of behaviours (attending shift preference/levels of effectiveness) but it is not likely to be just a simple cause-effect relationship. Indeed, it was not known whether for the effective helpers going forward was as a result of their training, doing the 'right thing' under scrutiny, or as an actual individual preference.

The design used in this experiment counterbalanced the postural-shift conditions with session order so as to neutralize any of the potential effects of the sequence of experiencing the independent variables. Whilst the assumption could fairly be made that this counterbalancing actually occurred, an analysis of the data by session order was undertaken to determine this. The same statistical procedures ( $3 \times 2$  analyses of variance) were utilized with session order and within-session periods (pre-shift/post-shift) as repeated measures. No significant interaction effects between session order and pre-shift - post-shift factors were found on any of the scales, indicating that session order alone did not effect the within session measures and that the counterbalancing was effective.

#### Relationships Among the Process Scales

An examination of the relationships of the scales to each other was undertaken by correlating the scores using Pearson's Product-Moment ( $r$ ) procedure (Winer, 1971). The analysis was done initially on the various scale scores overall, and then separated into pre-shift and post-shift categories (see Appendix G).

Considering the overall associations for the helper scales, there was found to be a positive but quite low correlation for Intensity and Empathy ( $r = .25$ ) and for Intensity and Respect ( $r = .23$ ), with a higher

but still only moderate correlation between Empathy and Respect ( $r = .52$ ). Helper Empathy had the greatest association with the helpee behaviour scale (Self-Exploration) ( $r = .35$ ), with there being a low relationship with Self-Exploration and helper Respect ( $r = .14$ ) and virtually no association for helpee Self-Exploration and helper Intensity ( $r = .01$ ). These generally low correlations would suggest that each of the dependent measures as used in the present study were measuring different aspects of the helping interaction and not just reflecting a single global variable.

When separating the ratings into pre-shift and post-shift categories there was very little variation in the periods for Intensity and Empathy (pre-shift:  $r = .23$ ; post-shift:  $r = .28$ ) nor for Intensity and Respect ( $r = .23$ ;  $r = .21$ ). However, there was some variation in the Empathy with Respect correlations ( $r = .61$ ;  $r = .46$ ) indicating highest association in the pre-shift period. There was relatively little variation between the pre-shift and post-shift period correlations for Empathy with helpee Self-Exploration ( $r = .41$ ;  $r = .31$ ) again favouring the pre-shift period. For helper Respect with helpee Self-Exploration there was a drop over the two periods ( $r = .26$ ;  $r = .09$ ), and similarly for Intensity with Self-Exploration ( $r = .18$ ;  $r = -.11$ ) which involved a negative relationship in the post-shift period.

From these pre-shift and post-shift correlations among the helper scales and between the helper scales and the helpee scale, it was apparent that the associations among the scale scores were still relatively low. They were strongest in the pre-shift period with slightly more interscale variation in the post-shift experimental period. The most positive correlations on the scale scores overall were found between the helper scales of Empathy and Respect, and for the helper to helpee scales, between helper Empathy and helpee Self-Exploration.

## CHAPTER FIVE

### RESULTS - SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

This Chapter considers firstly the helpees' perceptions of the helpers, then the helpers' experiences of the sessions, and, finally, additional nonverbal behaviours associated with the helping interaction. Whilst the ratings of the judges were the major data for analysis in this study, some effort was made to obtain other relevant information to provide as comprehensive a perspective as possible on the various conditions. As previously indicated, data were obtained from the helpees at the conclusion of each of their three sessions by means of a semantic differential instrument; from the helpers at the conclusion of their set of three sessions by having them complete a series of rankings; and from the videotaped recordings of all of the thirty-six sessions.

For this study these data were supplementary to the judges ratings. The presentation of their results here will be done briefly, and is included because the findings were informative and in order to maintain the comprehensive perspective taken towards the variables under examination.

#### Helpee Perceptions of Helpers

Perusal of the raw data obtained from the semantic differential instrument completed by the helpees revealed a skew in the seven point scale scores. The skew was towards high levels (5-7) on most items for the sessions. Because of this clustering of the data and because of the small number of helpees involved in the study a factor analysis to verify factorial groupings and perhaps provide greater validity for the instrument was not possible. The clustering of scores also meant that an interval scale could not be assumed and so a nonparametric test for directional differences - the Sign test for related samples (Siegel, 1956) - was used. This was applied to the postural-shift conditions overall, and to the conditions differentiated in terms of Choice-Forward and Choice-Backward Group distinctions. A comparison was also made between these two Choice-Groups and, as this involved unrelated samples, the

nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test for ordered ranks was utilized (Siegel, 1956). The results indicated few significant differences from any of the analyses.

Examining the outcomes for the Sign test analysis on the postural-shift conditions overall (see Appendix H, Table A), there was only one significant difference on the items - a reduction in closeness when helpers were in the free-choice (C) condition in contrast to the backward-shift (B) condition ( $+1/-10 = p < .05$ , two-tailed). An examination of the summations of signs (Appendix H, Table A) showed some consistent directional trends - i.e. each of the six items in a factor summed in the same direction. Helpers in the backward-shift (B) condition were perceived as communicating less Respect and Genuineness than when they were in the forward-shift (A) condition, and more Intensity in the free-choice (C) condition than in either of the two experimental conditions (A & B). Other factors produced inconclusive results.

For the Choice-Forward and the Choice-Backward Groups separately, the N of five for each Group was so low that a difference of significance would be very difficult to obtain - it needed only one variation on the binomial table to alter the two-tailed probability level from .06 to .36 (Siegel, 1956). There were no uniform directional differences on any item for either Group. The tendency for the Choice-Forward Group (see Appendix H, Table B) was for the helpers in the free-choice (C-forward) condition to be perceived as clearly less Intense, Genuine and Effective, and to a lesser extent less Empathic and Respectful than when in the other two postural-shift conditions (A & B). This was in contrast to the Choice-Backward Group (see Appendix H, Table C) where the tendency, although less distinct, was for the helpers in the free-choice (C-backward) condition to be perceived more positively on all factors, except for Intensity in comparison with the forward-shift (A) condition. The only other clear tendency for this Group was a consistent reduction on Intensity items for postural-shift condition B (backward) in contrast to A (forward).

Comparisons between the Choice-Forward and the Choice-Backward Groups through an ordering of ranked scores (Mann-Whitney U) for each

of the postural-shift conditions revealed few significant differences (see Appendix H, Table D). In postural-shift condition A (forward), the Choice-Forward Group was significantly more polite ( $U = 2.5$ ,  $p < .05$ , two-tailed) and real ( $U = 3$ ,  $p < .05$ ). A trend was evident in this postural-shift (A) condition arising from the sum of ordered ranks on each item. The Choice-Forward Group scored higher on all except two (accepting; open) of the 30 items. For postural-shift condition B (backward), again there were only two significant differences between the two Groups. These favoured the Choice-Forward Group, who were perceived as significantly more strong ( $U = 3$ ,  $p < .05$ ) and confident ( $U = 2$ ,  $p < .05$ ). A similar trend was evident, with the Choice-Forward Group scoring higher on all except three items (sensitive; warm; polite). For postural-shift condition C (free-choice - forward/backward) there was only one significant difference, this time favouring the Choice-Backward Group who were perceived as more confident ( $U = 3$ ,  $p < .05$ ). The trend also favoured the Choice-Backward Group, being perceived more highly on all but five of the items (close; understanding; sympathetic; warm; competent).

From the semantic differential findings it was evident that there was little distinction among the postural-shift conditions overall. The helpees perceived the helpers similarly in each of the postural-shift conditions, with just a suggestion of more positive scores in forward-shift (A) than in the other two conditions. There was only slightly more variation in the Choice-Forward and Choice-Backward Groups separately, with the free-choice (C) condition being perceived on the whole least positively for the former Group (C - forward) and on the whole most positively for the latter Group (C - backward). In comparing the two Groups, there was again little variation of significance in the helpee scores. What differences there were favoured the Choice-Forward Group in the experimental conditions (A & B) and the Choice-Backward Group in the free-choice (C - forward/backward) condition. Although only evident as trends, it is of note that these findings were somewhat in contrast to those obtained for the judges ratings. There, for the postural-shift conditions overall it was the backward-shift (B) condition that scored most highly (at least in the important experimental period), and this was especially the case for the Choice-Forward Group. The comparisons between the two Groups favoured the Choice-Forward Group on all postural-shift conditions. Comparisons between these two sets of data are difficult to make because the semantic differential scores

related to the sessions as a whole and the judges ratings were differentiated into pre-shift and post-shift periods.

### Helper Experiences of the Sessions

On the completion of their three helping sessions, each involving a different postural-shift condition, the helpers were asked to rank order the sessions in terms of criteria consistent with the scales utilized by the objective raters and the helpees. Specifically, they were asked to state in which of the three sessions (one, two or three) they felt 'most-to-least': Intense, Understanding, Warm, Real and Effective (see Instrument, Appendix A (iii)).

An analysis of the relationship among the rankings by the helpers was undertaken using Kendall's nonparametric Coefficient of Concordance W (Siegel, 1956). This is a procedure for determining the association among various sets of rankings - there were 12 sets of three ranks on each of five criteria. The results of the analyses of session rankings collapsed into the postural-shift conditions (see Appendix I, Table A), showed that the amount of agreement among the helpers was very low - maximum  $W = .11$ ,  $s = 34$ , for levels of Realness (in contrast to the  $s = 71.9$  necessary for significance with  $k = 12$ ,  $N = 3$ ). Indications therefore, were that the ratings of the various helpers, when related to postural-shift conditions, bore little relationship to each other.

When considering the Choice-Forward and Choice-Backward Groups separately (Appendix I, Table B) there were fairly consistent increases in levels of agreement among the helpers. However, the associations were still relatively low - the highest agreement emerged for the Choice-Forward Group on levels of Understanding ( $W = .49$ ,  $s = 25$ ; the sessions involving forward-shift (A) being ranked as communicating most Understanding) and levels of Realness ( $W = .19$ ,  $s = 9.50$ ; with the backward-shift (B) condition sessions ranked as communicating least Realness); and for the Choice-Backward Group on levels of Warmth ( $W = .36$ ,  $s = 18$ ; with the forward-shift (A) condition sessions communicating least Warmth and the backward-shift (B) the most) and levels of Realness and Comfort (both  $W = .28$ ,  $s = 14$ , with forward-shift (A) condition sessions communicating least of these elements and

backward-shift (B) condition sessions most). When just considering the forward-shift (A) and backward-shift (B) session summation of rankings in relation to each other, patterns consistent with postural-shift preference were evident. The Choice-Forward Group strongly ranked forward-shift (A) condition sessions higher than backward-shift (B) on levels of Understanding, Realness and Comfort. These were reversed with the Choice-Backward Group who also ranked the backward-shift (B) condition sessions higher on levels of Warmth and Effectiveness (see Appendix I, Table B).

Provision was made on the ranking instrument (see Appendix A (iii)) for helpers to make open-ended comments on their experiences of the sessions. All made some comments, mostly elaborating on their helping goals in a session or on their ranking choices. However, two-thirds (eight) of the helpers made particular comment on the difficulty they experienced in having to make a deliberate postural shift away from the helpee (condition B). Half of those making such comment were from the Choice-Forward Group, one from the relatively upright choice not included in the group analyses, and the rest (three) from the Choice-Backward Group. None of the helpers commented on their experience of having to make a forward postural shift.

### Videotape Observations

Each of the thirty-six sessions were videotaped in full. This data base is extensive, with the potential for a range of analyses relevant to the verbal and nonverbal process variables under study and the methodological procedures used within this experiment. Some consideration of these possibilities will be made in the next Chapter when discussing future research. For this particular study, only a broad examination of the data was made to identify obvious behaviours.

A noticeable feature was the lack of torso movement by the helpees throughout the sessions. On the whole there was very little variation from the initial body position adopted at the point of sitting down - this mostly being a relatively upright position. Nothing emerged to indicate either compensatory or reciprocal movements in response to the shifts made by the helpers. Hand gestures and leg movements were quite frequent - one very consistent behaviour being a

movement of the right hand and fingers to the side of the face. This hand movement occurred in almost 50 percent of the sessions (16 of 36), with most (seven) being associated with the helper in the forward-shift (A) condition, post-shift period. Eye contact was not able to be fully monitored for either the helpees or the helpers, and there were quite extensive periods where it was obvious that there was no eye contact or face-gazing from the helpees, but these were not clearly associated with any one of the postural-shift conditions.

Attention to the nonverbal behaviours of the helpers also revealed some features worthy of comment. As for the helpees, there was a high degree of hand and finger movement to the face - this time mostly involving the left hand. In the forward-shift (A) condition there were two cases where such a move was made after the shift (one of these involving prolonged rubbing of the eyes); in the backward-shift (B) condition this increased to seven separate cases (mostly involving movement of the forefinger to the side of the left cheek, the middle finger across the mouth and the thumb under the chin (see Appendix B, Plate 7); this generally occurred as part of the torso shift and usually was maintained for about five to ten seconds); in the free-choice (C) condition there were two occasions of a left hand movement to the face, one for each of the forward and backward shift choice options. There would appear to be at least two possible explanations for the greater tendency for this kind of hand-to-face gesture to occur in the manipulated backward-shift (B) condition. It could be that it represented a natural movement with elbow support available on the arm of the chair that would not be possible with the forward-shift (A) movement. Alternatively, it could be a consequence of having to behave in what would be experienced by these trained helpers as a non-facilitative manner. Given that the action involved the left hand which was the side of the body in profile to the video camera and the observer (cf. the predominance of the helpees' right hand-to-face gestures) it might well have represented a desire not to be 'seen' behaving in this way.

An additional indicator of discomfort associated with the experimental backward-shift movement (B) was evident for just over 50 percent of the helpers (seven of the 12). Whereas the forward-shift (A) movement was usually undertaken quite precisely and over a short



time span (although for one helper it involved a gradual creeping of the forearms down the thighs), for the backward-shift (B) movement there were often several preliminary behaviours extended over quite a time within the one minute signal period. Some helpers made several slight upper-torso swings before they made a final swing backwards, whilst others went through a 'ritual' of lifting and lowering each buttock (as if to signal discomfort) before they made the backward movement. As previously mentioned, eye contact could not be fully monitored, but it was noticeable that for the helpers there were more definite examples of eye contact (face-gaze) avoidance in the forward-shift (A) condition, which also is consistent with a compensatory process of adjusting important process behaviours. However, this may have been more noticeable for this condition because the head alignments were easier to determine on the videotape.

Eye contact is clearly a powerful behaviour in interpersonal interaction and in that it is difficult to control it often represents a problem in studies of this kind. There is potential for variations in eye contact to have had a confounding effect in the present study but this will be discussed more fully later. Even though helpers in this experiment were asked to maintain consistent patterns of eye contact, it was clear that some found this very difficult. In one case, for example, a helper whose preference in the free-choice (C) condition was to shift backwards, at the point of moving forward in A (forward-shift) removed his glasses. He spent almost two minutes on and off rubbing both of his eyes with his thumb and index finger, and did not actually replace his glasses until towards the end of the session. Being myopic and rubbing his eyes, he effectively avoided visual contact for most of the post-shift high level attending period.

These observed behaviours are indicative of the potency of the attending behaviours under study and in particular suggest that the helpers found leaning away from their helpers to be a difficult action to make. There is some indication also that the experimental situation which involved close scrutiny by a video camera and an observer may have caused some distraction. This was evidenced through patterns of hand-to-face movements for both helpers and helpees.

## CHAPTER SIX

### DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This Chapter summarizes the findings from the results chapters, elaborating on the meaning and implications of what was determined. The limitations of this study are then discussed and suggestions made for further research. Finally, some integrative concluding comments are made.

#### Summary and Discussion of the Findings

There were several significant findings in this study, which when combined with the pattern of differences that emerged, revealed some salient outcomes.

Looking at the findings obtained between the postural conditions themselves, there were no significant differences for either the anticipatory pre-shift periods nor the post-shift experimental periods. This was so for the total sample of helpers as well as for the two discriminated sub-samples of those whose preference was to move forward and those whose preference was to move backwards. Taking the free-choice condition as a baseline, it seems that being in a forward lean (level-5) or a backward lean attending posture has little differential effect on judges' ratings of helpers' usual levels of facilitative conditions or of helpee self-exploration behaviours.

This conclusion of little evident effect between the postures is supported from the findings of the helpees' assessments of the helpers' communications. Although there were significant differences on a few items and some suggested trends in the data, the overall indications were that the helpees' perceptions did not differentiate between the postural conditions. Indeed, the results were clustered at the positive end of the scale irrespective of the postural condition or the levels of rated effectiveness of the helpers. There are several possible explanations for this. It could be that the instrument used was not sensitive enough to differentiate effects based on postures, that there was a 'halo' effect operating for the helpees as part of the experiment, that the helpers were

all perceived at positive levels because of patterns of 'trained responses', or that each session set up a positive foundation through effective (level-3) attending in the initial (pre-shift) period. Some of these issues will be examined more fully later.

Whatever the reasons, the findings for the helpees' assessments were in marked contrast to other studies with similar kinds of helpee data. A common feature of these other studies is their use of artificial stimulus material (see, for example, Pierce, 1970; Haase, 1970; Kelly, 1971). They found that helpees do make differential distinctions about helper nonverbal behaviours when asked to project themselves into contrived scenes. Findings were less definitive in a more natural, but still quasi-helping, design utilized by Genthner and Moughan (1977), which had similar independent variable manipulations to this present study (i.e. HRD attending levels). They found no significant differences between ratings by helpee-speakers arising out of variations in helper-listener behaviours of upright (level-3) and forward lean (level-5) attending. In this present study, the absence of significant difference findings from helpees who were actually involved in helping interaction is in agreement with the findings by Fretz and his associates (1979). They found differing results for helpee judgements arising out of helper nonverbal behaviours between studies using contrived stimulus material where significant differences were ascertained and more natural interaction procedure studies where they were not.

Seay and Altekruze (1979) from their research, challenge the emphasis being given to the importance of nonverbal behaviours over verbal behaviours in other studies where the designs were artificial (e.g. Tepper & Haase, 1978). Their position receives some support from the present work. The helpees here were not aware of the helper postural shifts, all of them being surprised when informed of this after their sequence of sessions. Also, examination of the videotapes of sessions revealed no nonverbal behaviours of the helpees that could be reliably claimed as a reaction to the helper postural variations. A reason for this and the lack of difference detected by the helpee instrument could be to do with the relationship occurring between the verbal and nonverbal behaviours of the helpers. As will be discussed more fully later, compensatory adjustments were made by the helpers in their verbal

communication of facilitative conditions in response to nonverbal behavioural shifts, so that the combined verbal/nonverbal communications may well have evened out across the various conditions.

Helper rankings of experiences, both for the total helper sample group and the two postural preference sub-samples, also revealed no significant differences related to postures. This finding too is in contrast to studies focussing on helpers, that use more artificial procedures (e.g. Pierce, 1970), suggesting again that actually being part of the interaction leads to different assessments than projecting oneself into the more contrived contexts (Fretz et al, 1979). There were no significant differences from the rankings, but comments recorded by helpers and behavioural indicators such as left hand movements to the face, preliminary torso swings, and movements of adjustment in the chair were associated with having to make a backward shift movement. This suggested that a distinctive response was provoked for this away-movement in particular.

Findings on comparisons for each of the postural-shift conditions, taking the standardized pre-shift attending period as a baseline level, revealed some significant differences. These involved the deliberate backward shift heightening levels of verbally communicated intensity and respect. The differences obtained for these two process conditions with the deliberate backward shift appear to be a part of a larger pattern of differences. The pattern emerges from consideration of the directional differences within the sessions from before to after the deliberate shifts in posture, as well as from the subsequent relationship among the levels relative to one another after such shifts were made. These relative levels of the means are particularly important in the present study as the helpers were used as their own controls and so feature in all of the conditions. The pattern is most obvious in relation to those helpers whose postural shift preference was to move forward, but is also evident for those whose preference was to move in the opposite direction. It involves mainly, but not exclusively, the pre-determined postural shifts (conditions A and B in the experiment).

What emerged was a compensatory relationship between the nonverbal torso movements and the levels of verbally communicated facilitative conditions - a process which, as will be elaborated, is consistent with

Argyle and Dean's (1965) compensation theory. On all helper scales, for both groups of helpers, the levels of verbally communicated conditions associated with the backward shift movement were higher after the shifts had been made than those associated with the forward shift movement. As well, on each helper scale for both groups, the levels of communication increased after the backward shift had been made compared to the levels in that session before the shift. In the case of the forward shift the helpers whose preference was to move forward decreased their levels of intensity and empathy and increased their level of respect. In the case of those helpers whose preference was to move backwards, there was an increase on all of the process conditions associated with the forward shift. The differences associated with the forward shift movement were not as pronounced as with the backward shift increases, suggesting again that the greatest effects were in connection with movement away from the helpees.

The reason for the uniform increase in respect by both groups of helpers with the manipulated forward and backward shifts may have been to ensure that the helpees did not experience either of these shifts as being disrespectful. In the baseline session, the more effective helpers (those who preferred a forward shift) also increased their level of respect, consistent with the HRD model of progressively intensifying levels of conditions (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977). The less effective helpers (those who preferred to move backwards), however, decreased their respect levels within the baseline session. The within-session directional pattern for the less effective helpers suggests that the manipulated behaviours, regardless of direction were instrumental in lifting the levels of communication. As well, the baseline session for these helpers involved a reduction in levels on each of the scales, although the levels after the shifts were not necessarily the lowest. This may mean that responding to an external influence (undertaking pre-determined actions) increases the performance of ineffective helpers. However, the within-session differences become somewhat difficult to make substantive claims about, because there was variability among the levels in the initial standardized period of upright attending. This is no doubt due to varied anticipatory reactions to the pending shifts. It may have meant, for example, that the less effective helpers were distracted in anticipating having to make the pre-determined postural shifts and their levels on the process conditions in these sessions were reduced because

of this - making it inevitable that a within-session increase would result following the shift.

It is of interest to note that the most evident within-session differences were for intensity and respect process conditions. Differences were least evident for empathy and helpee self-exploration. The characteristics of helpee communicated intensity and respect in contrast to empathy are that the former are based on qualitative variations in vocal tone, pitch and stress factors rather more than on the accuracy of the message about the helpee's experience - although empathy also includes these more subtle qualities and intensity and respect must incorporate degrees of accurate understanding (as seen in the scales themselves - see Appendix A (i) and Truax, 1962f; Carkhuff, 1969). Similarly, helpee self-exploration also has a greater content emphasis, although also incorporating more subtle paralinguistic features (Appendix A (i) and Carkhuff & Truax, 1967; Carkhuff, 1969). In this study, the variable which had the greatest correlation with helpee self-exploration was helper empathy, supporting these above descriptions. It may well be that the relationship between nonverbal torso leans and facilitative conditions is predominantly concentrated on variations in paralinguistic behaviours (e.g. tone, pitch and stress) similar to those described by Duncan, Rice and Butler (1968).

Whilst the compensatory process was most evident with the pre-determined postural shifts, there was some suggestion of a similar process operating for intensity and respect with the chosen postures of the baseline sessions. This was particularly so with the helpers who chose to move forward. These helpers produced a slight drop in intensity and an increase in respect after the shift had been made. However, relative to the other levels of intensity and respect after the shifts had been made, this chosen forward shift produced the lowest levels and they were closest to the levels for the other (pre-determined) forward shift condition. The helpers whose choice was to move backwards produced a drop in levels of intensity and respect within the baseline sessions, the change being very slight for intensity but larger for respect. Relative to the other levels of intensity and respect after the shifts had been made, this chosen backward shift produced the highest level of intensity and a level of respect that was between the other two shift levels. However, both the intensity and the respect levels were closest

to the other (pre-determined) backward shift levels. The compensation trend is consistent with the larger pattern and is further indication of the link between postural shifts and intensity and respect levels.

The compensatory process that was evident from these and the previous results is supportive of the compensation/equilibrium theory of Argyle and Dean (1965) who posit that once an equilibrium level of intimacy (incorporating behaviours of distance, eye contact, leaning, smiling, and intimacy of topic) has been established, a change in any one of these behaviours may bring about a condition of disequilibrium in the intimacy balance. Further, given this disequilibrium, directional compensatory adjustments will be made in one or more of the intimacy behaviours to restore the balance. Studies in support of this theory by Carr and Dabbs (1974) and Schulz and Barefoot (1974) which relate variations in nonverbal behaviours to verbal behaviours (answers to increasingly intimate questions) are of particular relevance to the findings in this study. The outcomes in this present work, which involves the balance of similar nonverbal intimacy behaviours and verbally communicated process conditions, are clearly in line with the compensation theory. Indeed, if the theory had been adopted as the basis from which predictions would be made, the then legitimate use of a one-tailed instead of a two-tailed probability level would have made the findings even stronger. This assumption was not adopted, however, because initially the counter theory of reciprocation (that heightened intimacy behaviours are reciprocated; e.g. Breed, 1972), was equally plausible.

It is evident that the compensatory process was stronger for the forward shift preference helpers than for the backward shift preference helpers. A possible explanation for this lies in the relationship of these postural preferences to levels of effectiveness and what this might mean in terms of Patterson's (1976) arousal model of interpersonal intimacy. As determined from the findings, those helpers who preferred to move forward were more effective, both on the scales in the study and

as judged outside of the study by their trainers, than those helpers who preferred to move backwards. Patterson's model suggests that a crucial element in making a response or not to adjustments in intimacy is whether the resulting intimacy level breaches the threshold of arousal for the individual. If it does, then a cognitive evaluation of the experience as being either positive or negative is likely to be made and a response of either compensation or reciprocation will occur based on that evaluation.

It could be argued that effective helpers are likely to be more sensitive to subtle variations in helping interaction (a lowered arousal threshold) involving variations in levels of intimacy. Thus their reactions to changes in nonverbal attending behaviours might be greater. Movement away from the helpee, being contrary to both their training and preference, would presumably be evaluated negatively and lead to compensatory behaviours (a heightening of process condition levels). Leaning forward towards the helpee, perhaps being regarded as too soon in the interaction or too arbitrary an action, may also have been evaluated negatively and consequently have led to compensatory behaviours (a lowering of process condition levels). The less effective helpers may be less sensitive and have a higher arousal threshold so the response, although still present and in a similar direction, was less marked. Alternatively, the less effective helpers may have had a similar arousal level, but they may have compensated through other more powerful and unmeasured intimacy behaviours (e.g. eye contact; Argyle & Ingham, 1972).

Discussion to this point has concerned the relationship of helper behaviours to each other in the total intimacy balance. Argyle and Dean's (1965) compensation/equilibrium theory holds for the behaviours of both members of a dyad in interaction. Helpee responses to disequilibrium in the intimacy or immediacy balance through helper attending shifts can also be considered in relation to the reciprocation or compensation alternatives. The fact that in this study there were no significant differences in helpees' self-exploration levels in relation to forward or backward helper leans is consistent with findings by McDowell (1973) and Russo (1975), who also found no significant differences in responses resulting from variations in intimacy behaviour within interaction. In terms of Patterson's (1976) arousal model it can be assumed that the helpees' threshold arousal levels were not breached.



This is consistent with the helpees not even being aware of the postural shift variations having been made, with there being no obvious helpee nonverbal reactions in response to the variations in helper postural shifts, and with their perceptions on the semantic differential scale.

What pattern there was for helpee self-exploration varied with the sub-samples of helpers. With those whose preference was to move forward there was a reciprocal helpee response to the pre-determined shifts (cf. Breed, 1972). This involved an increase in self-exploration levels associated with the helper forward shift and a decrease associated with the backward shift, with the levels after the shift being higher for the forward than the backward movement. With the helpers whose preference was to move backward there was a compensatory response (cf. Carr & Dabbs, 1974) for the pre-determined shifts. This involved a decrease in helpee self-exploration associated with the helper forward shift and an increase associated with the backward shift, with the level after the shift being higher for the backward than the forward movement. With both sets of helpers, the baseline sessions involved a lowering of helpee self-exploration levels, moving to the lowest point relative to the other sessions. Variations in self-exploration levels were slight and further more focussed study would be necessary to adequately examine the relationship between this behaviour and helper attending levels.

A robust and consistent finding from this study was that of the difference in levels of effectiveness between helpers who preferred to move forward in contrast to those who preferred to move backward. The former scored uniformly higher and consistently above the minimal level of effectiveness (level-3) determined by Carkhuff and Berenson (1977), whilst the latter scored uniformly lower and at times below the minimal level of effectiveness. This finding has already been examined and discussed at some length and seems to be more a function of general levels of effectiveness than being causally related to postural preferences or postural shifts. However, indications from the findings support the claims made by Carkhuff and Anthony (1979) and Ivey and Authier (1978) among others that effective helpers are more likely to behave in ways consistent with high levels of attending.

The other specific consideration of this study involved the

relationship of the rated scores to each other, both among the helper conditions and between the helper conditions and the helpee process behaviour. Whilst the relationships among all of the scales overall was positive, the degree of correlation could only be described as moderate. These correlations were lower than for several other studies (e.g. Truax, 1963; Truax & Carkhuff, 1967) and there was a very limited relationship between any of the helper scales and helpee self-exploration (compared, for example, with findings such as those obtained by Truax and Carkhuff, 1965). Clearly, for this study at least, what was being measured was not a global concept as claimed by Resnikoff (1972) but a series of relatively independent concepts.

#### Limitations of the Study

From this largely exploratory study it has been determined that a low level of relationship exists between a specific helper attending behaviour and helping process conditions. This relationship is especially evident with regard to a backward torso lean and the process conditions of intensity and respect. The major results and a number of other indicators, such as observations from videotapes and comments made by the helpers, supports the view that gross postural shifts are influential elements in dyadic interaction (Scheflen, 1973a). It could be claimed, however, that despite the overall indications, the actual measured effects on the dependent variables were limited in magnitude. Whilst this may be because of a weak relationship between the sets of variables, it could also be that several design and methodological characteristics may have contributed to the restricted effects. These need elaboration.

The use of an upright posture for all helpers in the beginning period of all sessions may have minimized potential differences. This would be most likely for the forward shift movement where the contrast was between minimally effective (level-3) and very effective (level-5) attending (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977), whereas for the backward shift movement the contrast was between minimally effective and ineffective attending. A principle maintained for the study was to operate within as natural a context as possible (Argyle, 1972), and the HRD skills model provided a structure by which to observe the naturalistic process. The original research aim was to address a specific action (forward lean from upright) within this skills technology model (Carkhuff & Pierce, 1977).

These intentions governed several methodological decisions. A full movement through the range of forward-lean to backward-lean and vice versa may have extended the range of contrast and accentuated possible differences, but it would also have involved a violation of the original question and of the proposals within the skills model under examination. Indications from research studies, such as by Truax and Carkhuff (1963), have indicated that high levels of communication too soon are experienced negatively by helpees. This is at the base of the principle of controlled levels of communication incorporated within the HRD phase-progression model (Carkhuff & Berenson, 1977).

A beginning point of high level attending was well established then in each of the sessions and the effects of this may have carried over into the period when the attending levels were varied. Such a carry-over, while influencing the helpees' perceptions, may also have influenced the helpers in their encoding of facilitative communication, and of their assessment of the experience. The likelihood of this occurring would be accentuated by the relatively short duration of the helping sessions. Although the length of the sessions compared favourably with those found in other studies (e.g. Fretz et al, 1979 - 10 minutes; Seay & Altekruze, 1979, and Reece and Whitman, 1962 - 15 minutes), the separation of the interview into two phases may possibly have proved insufficient for any effects to be consolidated. Additionally, although torso-lean has been stressed as a powerful behaviour in interaction (Mehrabian, 1972; Argyle, 1972) and claimed as a feature of effective attending (Carkhuff & Pierce, 1977; Egan, 1976), as a single variable it may have limited power. Its influence may be enhanced by its combination with other nonverbal behaviours, only some of which were held constant in the study.

The sensitivity of the instruments used could also have affected the results obtained. The five-level interaction scales used by the raters were not devised specifically to distinguish within-session variations. Some use has been made of the scales in this way (e.g. Carkhuff & Alexik, 1967; Piaget, Berenson & Carkhuff, 1967). However, natural variations in the levels of the conditions (a finding determined by Heck and Davis, 1973) would increase the likelihood of error in differences associated with independent variable manipulations. At the same time, the use of the subjects as their own controls would neutralize some of this error, but would perhaps create problems of its own to do

with the potential contamination by multiple ratings on the same individuals. Both of the instruments for the helper and the helpee assessments had some potential limitations. The helper scale had a restricted range of ranks and the helpee instrument was also open to a contamination of scores through multiple assessments on the same set of helpers. Further, both sets of data from these instruments related to the sessions overall and did not break down into the two distinct periods of the sessions. Thus a carry-over effect of good attending from the initial period may have confounded potential effects in the latter period. It was not considered practical to obtain responses from the helpers and the helpees emerging from participation in the interaction and at the same time introduce a distinction between the periods of the sessions. This distinction would have meant making assessments from a different perspective, such as, for example, one following a viewing of the second period of interaction on video or listening to it on audiotape.

Probably the most serious limitation was brought about by the difficulties experienced in controlling variables within the experiment. Problems were experienced in controlling eye-contact behaviours as part of the attending shifts. The importance of eye contact as an interaction variable is well recognized (Exline, 1972), and it is often difficult consciously to control its level. Similarly, facial gestures such as smiling, stressed by Fretz and his colleagues (1979) as an important interaction behaviour, were not controlled within the study. The compensation theory of Argyle and Dean (1965) would suggest that these behaviours might well have been used by some helpers to maintain an overall balance of intimacy, thus minimizing any potential effects that might emerge on the measured dependent variables.

Finally, there is the question as to the extent to which the design used can be generalized into practice. The experimentally manipulated behaviours were pre-determined and prompted on cues external to the individual helper. In helping practice, the nearest equivalent would involve arbitrarily defined behavioural shifts that would be cued in the session by the helper perhaps on the basis of elapsed time or judged degrees of personal involvement. The inclusion in this study of a signal period to enable the helper to decide when and how to structure the shifts was an attempt to maintain some helper initiative. The extent to which this actually happened, and the extent to which it simulates the

situation in helping practice is not known and would need additional comparative research. Whilst the purpose of the design and the study was to be informative about behaviours in actual helping experience, the primary purpose was to understand more of the relationships between what are regarded as important helping interaction behaviours.

#### Suggestions for Further Research

The above discussion suggests several implications for further research within this field of interest. The most obvious extension to the present study would be to undertake procedures to maximise any potential effects by working from a more neutral attending baseline than one of minimal effectiveness (level-3). Alternatively, research could aim to develop a complete contrast between maximum positive and maximum negative attending conditions. Also, it would be of value to examine the effects of a longer duration for the experimental period within the sessions.

Another possible extension of the study would be to contrast the findings with those that could be obtained by using the still photographs of the postural-shift variations (as presented in Appendix B, Plates 1 - 6) as stimulus material for assessments of the communication by samples of helpers, helpees and other selected judges. The comparison would be between the judgements of those actually participating in helping interaction and those asked to project themselves into the given context. Indications from other studies mentioned previously are that there might be some distinct differences in the results, and if so this would add weight to the recent findings by Fretz and his associates (1979) suggesting that different assessments are likely from participants. It would also give some increased validity to the results that were obtained from the participating helpers and helpees in this present study.

The relationship between the torso-lean behaviours and interactional behaviours such as process conditions could be examined in additional ways to clarify their influence on each other. The procedures used in this present study and the resulting data provide a useful base for pursuing the question. Some of the issues that could be explored from the available data base are:-

- (i) whether there are differences between the postural-shift conditions, after the start of the one minute signal period, before the actual shift was commenced.
- (ii) whether there are differences in the amount of time taken to complete the shifts, and whether they involved stages or direct movements
- (iii) whether there were differences in the activity taking place at the point of actually making the shifts (e.g. talking or listening)
- (iv) what additional nonverbal behaviours took place for helpers and for helpees as part of making the shifts and occurred after the shifts were made (e.g. gestures, speech errors; filled or unfilled pauses)
- (v) what other changes might have taken place in association with the shifts (e.g. topic changes; more or less active involvement).

Answers to these questions would give greater understanding of the dynamics of making a torso lean when interacting with a helpee and aid in the incorporation of the research into practice. Partial consideration of some of these questions was made within this present study but this was done in a very general way to seek additional information about the likely obvious influence of the manipulated behaviours. Additional and more detailed examinations may lead to further findings of importance.

### Conclusions

This study found that for trained male counsellors counselling female clients, making a prescribed backward lean from an upright minimally effective HRD attending position results in a significant increase in the levels of communicated intensity and respect - as assessed by judges listening to tapes of the interaction. These specific increases are most evident with counsellors whose preference is to move forward from an upright position when given a choice, but are also apparent with counsellors whose preference is to move backwards. The significant increase in intensity and respect associated with the pre-determined backward lean makes up part of a larger process of compensation between verbal and nonverbal behaviours. The pattern of this process is for a prescribed

forward lean to be associated with reduced levels of verbal process conditions and a prescribed backward lean with increased levels. The largest differences are evident with the prescribed backward shift. This overall pattern is again evident with both the counsellors whose preference is to move forward and those whose preference is to move backward, but it is most marked with the former. This may be because of differing arousal thresholds due to differences in sensitivity and levels of involvement. The compensatory pattern is apparent on all process conditions as well as with helpee self-exploration. With regard to the intensity and respect conditions, it also seems to be associated with forward and backward shifts made as freely chosen actions by the counsellors.

The evidence overall suggests that the relationship between making a shift in attending behaviour and the communication levels of process conditions is strongest for the conditions of intensity and respect and weakest for empathic understanding and helpee self-exploration. Speculation might suggest that the reason for this lies in an apparent greater emphasis on paralinguistic cues such as tone, pitch and stress for intensity and respect in contrast to more content cues for empathic understanding and self-exploration. This also seems logical in that paralinguistic behaviours have clearly the most overlap in the verbal and nonverbal channels and are therefore likely to be most readily influenced by distinct variations in either of these dimensions.

Based on the different postural positions adopted, it seems that participating clients do not essentially differentiate between the communications of process conditions by counsellors. Also, participating counsellors experience their counselling sessions in ways unrelated to the postures they adopt. These responses may be due to the counsellors' maintenance of an equilibrium of verbal and nonverbal communication levels and the perceptions of this total communication in the interactional context. However, as the clients' assessments of the counsellors are so uniformly positive it could be claimed that an initial 'good' attending posture provides a powerful helping pre-condition that influences the experience of subsequent postural changes. It may in some senses be more than just a minimally effective postural position.

Finally, a strong association exists among the postural preferences (either forward or backward) chosen by counsellors, their consistent levels

of communication on the process scales, and their trainers' judgements on their counselling competence. It seems that effective counsellors prefer most effective attending postures and ineffective counsellors prefer less effective attending postures.

A return to the initial research question suggests that the findings for this study contradict what might have been expected from the training literature and from the comments expressed by experienced helpers - that leaning forward promotes higher levels of facilitative conditions. However, recognition should be given to the importance of the context when interpreting research findings and to the fact that it is difficult to recreate realistic conditions in laboratory settings. The results may well represent on the part of helpers a very subtle and skilled maintenance of a balance of overall (verbal and nonverbal) communication levels appropriate to the context of the interaction. This would mean the transcendence of a set of mechanical behavioural skills into an holistic presentation to meet the conditions of the given situation. This is in line with the intentions of Carkhuff and others within the skills method.

It seems likely that any benefits associated with leaning forward in counselling would arise out of more than just actioning the behaviour itself. It is likely to involve a complex of such things as motivation, intention and action. These elements are very much part of training and practice and need to be fully addressed even within the framework of skills. •



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APPENDIX AINSTRUMENTS(i) Helper ScalesIntensity and Intimacy of Interpersonal ContactLevel 1:

He communicates a bored inattentiveness and indifference to her communications or her present "being." Whilst he may respond and carry on communications, he is clearly indifferent or inattentive to her and her current feeling process.

Level 2:

He is disinterestedly attentive. It is clear that whilst he is attentive he is not personally concerned with what she is saying or being. There is a remoteness or aloofness involved in his attentiveness which clearly defines him as an outsider or a stranger.

Level 3:

He is attentive and clearly concentrates on what she is saying or being. He is alert to her communications and being but is not engrossed in her ongoing process.

Level 4:

He communicates a concerned attentiveness. He is solicitous of her feelings and experiences and communicates a deep concern. His voice qualities carry an accentuated feeling tone and a closeness.

Level 5:

He communicates a hovering attentiveness. He is preoccupied with her experiences and being and is vitally concerned. There is a note of deep concern and intimacy in his fervid attentiveness.

## EMPATHIC UNDERSTANDING : A SCALE FOR MEASUREMENT

### Level 1:

His expressions either do not attend to or detract significantly from her expressions in that they communicate significantly less of her feelings than she has communicated herself.

Example: He communicates no awareness of even her most obvious expressed surface feelings. He may be bored or uninterested or simply operating from a preconceived frame of reference which totally excludes hers.

In summary, he does everything but express that he is listening, understanding or being sensitive to her in such a way as to detract significantly from her communications.

### Level 2:

Whilst he responds to her expressed feelings, he does so in such a way that he subtracts noticeable affect from her communications.

Example: He may communicate some awareness of her obvious surface feelings, but his communications drain off a level of the affect and distort the level of meaning. He may communicate his own ideas of what may be going on, but these are not congruent with her expressions.

In summary, he tends to respond to other than what she is expressing or indicating.

### Level 3:

His expressions in response to her expressed feelings are essentially interchangeable with those of hers in that they express essentially the same affect and meaning.

Example: He responds with accurate understanding of her surface feelings but may not respond to or may misinterpret the deeper feelings.

In summary, he is responding so as to neither subtract from nor add to her expressions, but he does not respond accurately to how she really feels beneath the surface feelings.

Level 4:

His responses add noticeably to her expressions in such a way as to express feelings a level deeper than she was able to express herself.

Example: He communicates his understanding of her expressions at a level deeper than they were expressed, and thus enables her to experience and/or express feelings she was unable to express previously.

In summary, his responses add deeper feeling and meaning to her expressions.

Level 5:

His responses add significantly to the feeling and meaning of her expressions in such a way as to (1) accurately express feelings levels below what she herself was able to express or (2) in the event of ongoing deep self-exploration on her part, to be fully with her in her deepest moments.

Example: He responds with accuracy to all of her deeper as well as surface feelings. He is "together" with her or "tuned in" on her wave length. Together they might proceed to explore previously unexplored areas of human existence.

In summary, he is responding with a full awareness of who she is and a comprehensive and accurate empathic understanding of her deepest feelings.

## THE COMMUNICATION OF RESPECT : A SCALE FOR MEASUREMENT

### Level 1:

His expressions communicate a clear lack of respect (or negative regard) for her.

Example: He communicates to her that her feelings and experiences are not worthy of consideration or that she is not capable of acting constructively. He may become the sole focus of evaluation.

In summary, in many ways he communicates a total lack of respect for her feelings, experiences and potentials.

### Level 2:

He responds to her in such a way as to communicate little respect for her feelings, experiences and potentials.

Example: He may respond mechanically or passively or ignore many of her feelings.

In summary, in many ways he displays a lack of respect or concern for her feelings, experiences and potentials.

### Level 3:

He communicates a positive respect and concern for her feelings, experiences and potentials.

Example: He communicates respect and concern for her ability to express herself and to deal constructively with her life situation.

In summary, in many ways he communicates that who she is and what she does matter to him.

### Level 4:

He clearly communicates a very deep respect and concern for her.

Example: His responses enable her to feel free to be herself and to experience being valued as an individual.

In summary, he communicates a very deep caring for her feelings, experiences and potentials.

Level 5:

He communicates the very deepest respect for her worth as a person and her potentials as a free individual.

Example: He cares very deeply for her human potentials.

In summary, he is committed to her value as a human being.

## FACILITATIVE GENUINENESS : A SCALE FOR MEASUREMENT

### Level 1:

His verbalizations are clearly unrelated to what he is feeling at the moment, or his only genuine responses are negative in regard to her and appear to have a totally destructive effect upon her.

Example: He may be defensive in his interaction with her and this defensiveness may be demonstrated in the content of his words or his voice quality. Where he is defensive he does not employ his reaction as a basis for potentially valuable inquiry into the relationship.

In summary, there is evidence of a considerable discrepancy between his inner experiencing and his current verbalizations. Where there is not discrepancy, his reactions are employed solely in a destructive fashion.

### Level 2:

His verbalizations are slightly unrelated to what he is feeling at the moment, or when his responses are genuine they are negative in regard to her; he does not appear to know how to employ his negative reactions constructively as a basis for inquiry into the relationship.

Example: He may respond to her in a "professional" manner that has a rehearsed quality or a quality concerning the way a helper "should" respond in that situation.

In summary, he is usually responding according to his prescribed role rather than expressing what he personally feels or means. When he is genuine his responses are negative and he is unable to employ them as a basis for further inquiry.

### Level 3:

He provides no "negative" cues between what he says and what he feels, but he provides no positive cues to indicate a really genuine response to her.

Example: He may listen and follow her but commits nothing more of himself.

In summary, he appears to make appropriate responses that do not seem insincere but that do not reflect any real involvement either.



Level 4:

He presents some positive cues indicating a genuine response to her (whether positive or negative) in a nondestructive manner.

Example: His expressions are congruent with his feelings although he may be somewhat hesitant about expressing them fully.

In summary, he responds with many of his own feelings, and there is no doubt as to whether he really means what he says. He is able to employ his responses, whatever their emotional content, as a basis for further inquiry into the relationship.

Level 5:

He is freely and deeply himself in a nonexploitative relationship with her.

Example: He is completely spontaneous in his interaction and open to experiences of all types, both pleasant and hurtful. In the event of hurtful responses his comments are employed constructively to open a further area of inquiry for both parties.

In summary, he is clearly being himself and yet employing his own genuine responses constructively.

HELPEE SELF-EXPLORATION : A SCALE FOR MEASUREMENTLevel 1:

She does not discuss personally relevant material, either because she has had no opportunity to do such or because she is actively evading the discussion even when it is introduced by him.

Example: She avoids any self-descriptions or self-exploration or direct expression of feelings that would lead her to reveal herself to him.

In summary, for a variety of possible reasons she does not give any evidence of self-exploration.

Level 2:

She responds with discussion to the introduction of personally relevant material by him but does so in a mechanical manner and without the demonstration of emotional feelings.

Example: She simply discusses the material without exploring the significance or the meaning of the material or attempting further exploration of that feeling in an effort to uncover related feelings or material.

In summary, she responds mechanically and remotely to the introduction of personally relevant material by him.

Level 3:

She voluntarily introduces discussions of personally relevant material but does so in a mechanical manner and without the demonstration of emotional feeling.

Example: The emotional remoteness and mechanical manner of the discussion give the discussion a quality of being rehearsed.

In summary, she introduces personally relevant material but does so without spontaneity or emotional proximity and without an inward probing to discover new feelings and experiences.

Level 4:

She voluntarily introduces discussions of personally relevant material with both spontaneity and emotional proximity.

Example: Her voice quality and other characteristics are very much "with" her feelings and other personal materials that are being verbalized.

In summary, she introduces personally relevant discussions with spontaneity and emotional proximity but without a distinct tendency toward inward probing to discover new feelings and experiences.

Level 5:

She actively and spontaneously engages in an inward probing to discover new feelings and experiences about herself and her world.

Example: She is searching to discover new feelings concerning herself and her world even though at the moment she may perhaps be doing so fearfully and tentatively.

In summary, she is fully and actively focusing upon herself and exploring herself and her world.

(ii) Helpsee Semantic Differential Instrument

Please consider carefully the helping session that you have just had. Would you focus on the behaviour of the Helper and indicate how you would assess him under the following items? Please mark each item at the chosen point with a cross (x).

understanding	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	misunderstanding
warm	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	cold
real	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	phoney
close	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	distant
skilful	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	clumsy
insensitive	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	sensitive
indifferent	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	caring
closed	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	open
hesitant	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	decisive
incompetent	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	competent
clear	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	unclear
polite	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	rude
consistent	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	inconsistent
active	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	passive
efficient	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	inefficient
inattentive	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	attentive
unpleasant	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	pleasant
uncomfortable	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	comfortable
weak	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	strong
unsure	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	confident
confused	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	sensible
friendly	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	hostile
sincere	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	insincere
enthusiastic	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	unenthusiastic
realistic	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	unrealistic
unsympathetic	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	sympathetic
rejecting	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	accepting
insecure	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	secure
impatient	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	patient
immature	___:___:___:___:___:___:___:	mature

(iii) Helper Ranking Instrument

Please consider the three counselling sessions you have just had. Focussing on your own experience please rank each session on the criteria set out below,

i.e. Decide the session you felt most "comfortable" in - give it a 1.  
Decide the session you felt least "comfortable" in - give it a 3.  
Put a 2 for the other session (etc.)

Sessions

	One	Two	Three
I was most/least <u>intense</u> in session:-			
I was most/least <u>understanding</u> in session:-			
I was most/least <u>warm</u> in session:-			
I was most/least <u>real</u> in session:-			
I was most/least <u>comfortable</u> in session:-			
I was most/least <u>effective</u> in session:-			

General Comments on Your Experience of any or all of the Sessions:-



Plate 1: Pre-Shift Upright Posture:  
Helpee's Perspective



Plate 2: Pre-Shift Upright Posture:  
Profile Perspective



Plate 3: Post-Shift Forward (A)  
Posture: Helpee's Perspective



Plate 4: Post-Shift Forward (A)  
Posture: Profile Perspective



Plate 5: Post-Shift Backward (B)  
Posture: Helpee's Perspective



Plate 6: Post-Shift Backward (B)  
Posture: Profile Perspective





Plate 7: Post-Shift Backward Posture -  
Typical Hand Position

APPENDIX CINSTRUCTIONS TO HELPERS

We know very little about the effects of helper postural behaviour on counselling interaction. This study is a beginning attempt to examine this relationship. You will meet with three separate helpees and you are asked to be as 'helpful' to them as you can in their dealings with their concern.

In each situation you will be required to adopt particular postures within the interaction. Each session will begin with you adopting an upright posture, and part way through (on a signal) you will be asked to modify that posture. These modifications will be one of:

- (a) leaning forward
- (b) leaning backwards
- (c) shift as you choose

These will be described/displayed to you in more detail prior to the sessions.

We would just ask you to maintain the stance of being as 'helpful' as possible and to allow what happens to occur without trying to make any predictions.

APPENDIX D

Table A: Postural-Shift Condition Means  
(Pre-Shift/Post-Shift) On All Scales

Postural-Shift Conditions

Scales	Forward (A)			Backward (B)			Free-Choice (C)		
	Pre-	Post-	$\bar{X}$ R	Pre-	Post-	$\bar{X}$ R	Pre-	Post-	$\bar{X}$ R
Intensity	3.328	3.255	3.292	3.198	3.484	3.341	3.302	3.349	3.326
Empathy	2.813	2.714	2.763	2.667	2.844	2.755	2.927	2.708	2.818
Respect	3.349	3.474	3.412	3.412	3.583	3.497	3.458	3.552	3.505
Self- Exploration	3.448	3.255	3.352	3.464	3.375	3.419	3.359	3.156	3.258

Table B: Anova Summary - Postural-Shift Conditions/Intensity

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.061	2	.031	.111	
Error for A	6.097	22	.277		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.271	1	.271	2.873	.11 NS
Error for B	1.039	11	.094		
A x B Interaction	.804	2	.402	2.750	.08 NS
Error for AB	3.215	22	.146		

Table C: Anova Summary - Postural-Shift Conditions/Empathic Understanding

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.111	2	.056	.112	
Error for A	10.896	22	.495		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.079	1	.079	.194	
Error for B	4.492	11	.408		
A x B Interaction	.989	2	.495	2.732	.08 NS
Error for AB	3.982	22	.181		

Table D: Anova Summary - Postural-Shift Conditions/Respect

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.260	2	.130	.552	
Error for A	5.178	22	.235		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.610	1	.610	4.800	.04 *
Error for B	1.399	11	.127		
A x B Interaction	.037	2	.019	.263	
Error for AB	1.551	22	.070		

\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed)Table E: Anova Summary - Postural-Shift Conditions/Self-Exploration

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.631	2	.315	.754	
Error for A	9.213	22	.419		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.938	1	.938	3.049	.10 NS
Error for B	3.386	11	.308		
A x B Interaction	.096	2	.048	.164	
Error for AB	6.450	22	.293		

Table F: Choice-Forward Group - Postural-Shift Condition Means  
(Pre-Shift/Post-Shift) On All Scales

Postural-Shift Conditions

Scales	Forward (A)			Backward (B)			Free-Choice (C)		
	Pre-	Post-	$\bar{X}$ R	Pre-	Post-	$\bar{X}$ R	Pre-	Post-	$\bar{X}$ R
Intensity	3.625	3.400	3.513	3.413	3.800	3.606	3.413	3.350	3.381
Empathy	3.400	3.300	3.350	3.263	3.375	3.319	3.363	3.050	3.206
Respect	3.625	3.738	3.681	3.675	3.913	3.794	3.575	3.650	3.613
Self- Exploration	3.563	3.613	3.588	3.688	3.488	3.588	3.513	3.338	3.425

Table G: Choice-Backward Group - Postural-Shift Condition Means  
(Pre-Shift/Post-Shift) On All Scales

Postural-Shift Conditions

Scales	Forward (A)			Backward (B)			Free-Choice (C)		
	Pre-	Post-	$\bar{X}$ R	Pre-	Post-	$\bar{X}$ R	Pre-	Post-	$\bar{X}$ R
Intensity	3.013	3.113	3.063	2.863	3.225	3.044	3.250	3.238	3.244
Empathy	2.200	2.250	2.225	2.313	2.375	2.344	2.413	2.225	2.319
Respect	3.050	3.200	3.125	3.263	3.450	3.356	3.463	3.388	3.425
Self- Exploration	3.163	2.950	3.056	3.338	3.475	3.406	3.188	2.900	3.044

Table H: Anova Summary / Choice-Forward Group -  
Postural-Shift Conditions/Intensity

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.511	2	.255	1.163	.36 NS
Error for A	1.757	8	.220		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.017	1	.017	.122	
Error for B	.548	4	.137		
A x B Interaction	1.007	2	.503	5.805	.03 *
Error for AB	.694	8	.087		

\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed)

Table I: Anova Summary / Choice-Backward Group -  
Postural-Shift Conditions/Intensity

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.488	2	.244	.592	
Error for A	3.296	8	.412		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post -)	.337	1	.337	7.807	.05 *
Error for B	.173	4	.043		
A x B Interaction	.370	2	.185	1.154	.36 NS
Error for AB	1.283	8	.160		

\*  $p = .05$  (two-tailed)

Table J: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Forward-Shift (A)/  
Intensity

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	2.025	1	2.025	3.706	.09 NS
Error for A	4.372	8	.547		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.039	1	.039	.272	
A x B Interaction	.264	1	.264	1.837	.21 NS
Error for B	3.259	8	.136		

Table K: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Backward-Shift (B)/  
Intensity

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	3.163	1	3.164	21.149	.002 **
Error for A	1.197	8	.015		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	1.406	1	1.406	16.216	.004 **
A x B Interaction	.002	1	.002	.018	
Error for B	.694	8	.087		

\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed)

Table L: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Free-Choice (C)/  
Intensity

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	.189	1	.189	1.182	.31 NS
Error for A	1.280	8	.160		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.014	1	.014	.132	
A x B Interaction	.006	1	.006	.059	
Error for B	.855	8	.107		



Table M: Anova Summary / Choice-Forward Group - Postural-Shift Conditions/Empathy

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.229	2	.114	.194	
Error for A	4.719	8	.590		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.150	1	.150	.237	
Error for B	2.532	4	.633		
A x B Interaction	.452	2	.226	.976	
Error for AB	1.850	8	.231		

Table N: Anova Summary/ Choice-Backward Group - Postural-Shift Conditions/Empathy

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.157	2	.078	.406	
Error for A	1.546	8	.193		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.009	1	.009	.022	
Error for B	1.728	4	.432		
A x B Interaction	.198	2	.099	.681	
Error for AB	1.166	8	.146		

Table O: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Forward Shift (A)/ Empathy

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	12.656	1	12.656	18.005	.003 **
Error for A	5.623	8	.703		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.006	1	.006	.023	
A x B Interaction	.056	1	.056	.211	
Error for B	2.133	8	.267		

\*\*  $p < .01$  (two-tailed)

Table P: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Backward-Shift (B)/Empathy

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	9.506	1	9.506	36.541	.001 ***
Error for A	2.081	8	.260		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.077	1	.077	.403	
A x B Interaction	.006	1	.006	.033	
Error for B	1.519	8	.190		

\*\*\* p = .001 (two-tailed)

Table Q: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Free-Choice (C)/Empathy

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	7.877	1	7.877	13.310	.007 **
Error for A	4.734	8	.591		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.625	1	.625	1.379	.21 NS
A x B Interaction	.039	1	.039	.086	
Error for B	3.625	8	.453		

\*\* p &lt; .01 (two-tailed)

Table R: Anova Summary / Choice-Forward Group - Postural-Shift Conditions/Respect

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.335	2	.167	.861	
Error for A	1.556	8	.194		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.301	1	.301	2.730	.17 NS
Error for B	.441	4	.110		
A x B Interaction	.072	2	.036	1.979	.20 NS
Error for AB	.146	8	.018		

Table S: Anova Summary / Choice-Backward Group - Postural-Shift Conditions/Respect

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.988	2	.494	2.839	.12 NS
Error for A	1.392	8	.174		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.115	1	.115	.728	
Error for B	.631	4	.158		
A x B Interaction	.202	2	.101	1.659	.25 NS
Error for AB	.486	8	.061		

Table T: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Forward Shift (A)/Respect

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	3.094	1	3.094	9.799	.01 **
Error for A	2.527	8	.316		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.172	1	.172	1.411	.27 NS
A x B Interaction	.004	1	.004	.029	
Error for B	.977	8	.122		

\*\* p = .01 (two-tailed)

Table U: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Backward Shift (B)/Respect

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	1.914	1	1.914	8.160	.02 *
Error for A	1.877	8	.235		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.452	1	.452	9.759	.01 **
A x B Interaction	.006	1	.006	.135	
Error for B	.370	8	.046		

\*\* p = .01 (two-tailed)

\* p < .05 (two-tailed)

TABLE V: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Free-Choice (C)/Respect

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	.352	1	.352	3.046	.11 NS
Error for A	.923	8	.115		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.000	1	.000	.000	
A x B Interaction	.056	1	.056	1.258	
Error for B	.358	8	.045		

Table W: Anova Summary / Choice-Forward Group - Postural-Shift Conditions/  
Self-Exploration

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	.352	2	.176	.883	
Error for A	1.596	8	.199		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.176	1	.176	.634	
Error for B	1.110	4	.278		
A x B Interaction	.190	2	.095	.338	
Error for AB	2.243	8	.280		

Table X: Anova Summary / Choice-Backward Group - Postural-Shift Conditions/  
Self-Exploration

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Among Postures</u>					
Variable A (Postures)	1.694	2	.847	1.305	.32 NS
Error for A	5.192	8	.649		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.219	1	.219	.491	
Error for B	1.785	4	.446		
A x B Interaction	.515	2	.257	.682	
Error for AB	3.017	8	.377		

Table Y: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Forward-Shift (A)/  
Self-Exploration

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	2.822	1	2.822	7.414	.02 *
Error for A	3.045	8	.381		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.066	1	.066	.110	
A x B Interaction	.172	1	.172	.288	
Error for B	4.789	8	.599		

\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed)

Table Z: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Backward Shift (B)/  
Self-Exploration

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	.329	1	.329	1.043	.34 NS
Error for A	2.519	8	.315		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.010	1	.010	.051	
A x B Interaction	.285	1	.285	1.482	
Error for B	1.538	8	.192		

Table AA: Anova Summary / Free-Choice Groups - Free-Choice (C)/  
Self-Exploration

Source of Variance	SS	df	MS	F-ratio	Prob.
<u>Between Groups</u>					
Variable A (Groups)	1.454	1	1.454	1.757	.22 NS
Error for A	6.619	8	.827		
<u>Within Sessions</u>					
Variable B (Pre- Post-)	.535	1	.535	2.340	.16 NS
A x B Interaction	.032	1	.032	.138	
Error for B	1.828	8	.229		

# APPENDIX E

## Individual Pair-Wise Comparison Tables

### Lsd Method - (Winer, 1971)

$$\text{Formulae: } Lsd = \sqrt{F(1, df_{MS})} \sqrt{\frac{2 MS}{n}}$$

(n = the number of scores that contribute to the means.  
As each pre-shift/post-shift mean comprised two  
segment scores for each helper, n = 24 (2 x 12).  
For the Choice-Groups n = 10 (2 x 5)).

Table A: Postural-Shift Conditions/Intensity

(Postural-Shift x Pre- Post- Interaction, p = .08)

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift	d
Forward-Shift (A)	3.328	- 3.255	.073 NS
Backward-Shift (B)	3.198	- 3.484	.286 *
Free-Choice (C)	3.302	- 3.349	.047 NS

df<sub>MS</sub> = 22; MS = .146; n = 24  
F (1,22) = 4.30, p ≤ .05  
Lsd = .229 p ≤ .05\*

Table B: Postural-Shift Conditions/Respect

(Pre- Post- Main Effect, p < .05)

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift	d
Forward-Shift (A)	3.349	- 3.474	.125 NS
Backward-Shift (B)	3.412	- 3.588	.176 *
Free-Choice (C)	3.458	- 3.552	.094 NS

df<sub>MS</sub> = 22; MS = .07; n = 24  
F (1,22) = 4.30, p ≤ .05  
Lsd = .158, p ≤ .05\*

Table C: Choice-Forward Group/Intensity(Postural-Shift Conditions x Pre- Post- Interaction  $p < .05$ )

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift	d
Forward-Shift (A)	3.625	- 3.400	.225 NS
Backward-Shift (B)	3.413	- 3.800	.387 *
Free-Choice (C)	3.413	- 3.350	.063 NS

$df_{MS} = 8$ ;  $MS = .087$ ;  $n = 10$   
 $F(1,8) = 5.32$ ,  $p \leq .05$   
 $Lsd = .314$ ,  $p \leq .05^*$

Table D: Choice-Groups (Between Groups)/Forward-Shift (A)/Intensity

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift
Choice-Forward Group	3.625	3.400
Choice-Backward Group	3.013	3.113
d (Between)	.612 **	.287 NS

$df_{MS} = 8/MS = .136/n = 10$   
 $F(1,8) = 5.32$ ,  $p \leq .05$ , 11.30  $p \leq .01$   
 $Lsd = .380$ ,  $p \leq .05$ , .554,  $p \leq .01^{**}$

Table E: Choice-Groups/Backward-Shift (B)/Intensity(Pre-Shift - Post-Shift Main Effect,  $p < .01$ )

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift	d (Within)
Choice-Forward Group	3.413	- 3.800	.387 *
Choice-Backward Group	2.863	- 3.225	.362 *
d (Between)	.550 **	.575 **	

$df_{MS} = 8/MS = .087/n = 10$

$F(1,8) = 5.32$ ,  $p \leq .05$ , 11.30  $p \leq .01$   
 $Lsd = .304$ ,  $p \leq .05^*$ , .443,  $p \leq .01^{**}$

Table F: Choice-Groups (Between Groups)/Forward-Shift (A)/Empathy  
(Between Groups, Main Effect,  $p \leq .01$ )

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift
Choice-Forward Group	3.400	3.300
Choice-Backward Group	2.200	2.250
d (Between)	1.200 **	1.050 **

$$df_{MS} = 8/MS = .267/n = 10$$

$$F(1,8) = 11.30 \quad p \leq .01$$

$$Lsd = .777, \quad p \leq .01 \quad **$$

Table G: Choice-Groups (Between Groups)/Backward-Shift (B)/Empathy  
(Between Groups, Main Effect,  $p = .001$ )

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift
Choice-Forward Group	3.263	3.375
Choice-Backward Group	2.313	2.375
d (Between)	.950 **	1.000 **

$$df_{MS} = 8/MS = .190/n = 10$$

$$F(1,8) = 11.3 \quad p \leq .01$$

$$Lsd = .655 \quad (p \leq .01) \quad **$$

Table H: Choice-Groups (Between Groups)/Free-Choice (C)/Empathy  
(Between Groups, Main Effect,  $p \leq .01$ )

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift
Choice-Forward Group	3.363	3.050
Choice-Backward Group	2.413	2.225
d (Between)	.950 *	.825 *

$$df_{MS} = 8/MS = .453/n = 10$$

$$F(1,8) = 5.32, \quad p \leq .05$$

$$Lsd = .694 \quad (p \leq .05) \quad *$$



Table I: Choice-Forward Group/Respect

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift	d
Forward-Shift (A)	3.625	3.738	.113 NS
Backward-Shift (B)	3.675	3.913	.238 *
Free-Choice (C)	3.575	3.650	.075 NS

$df_{MS} = 8/MS = .018/n = 10$   
 $F(1,8) = 5.32, p \leq .05$   
 $Lsd = .138, p \leq .05 *$

Table J: Choice-Groups (Between Groups)/Forward-Shift (A)/Respect  
(Between Groups, Main Effect,  $p = .01$ )

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift
Choice-Forward Group	3.625	3.738
Choice-Backward Group	3.050	3.200
d	.575 **	.538 **

$df_{MS} = 8/MS = .122/n = 10$   
 $F(1,8) = 11.30, p \leq .01$   
 $Lsd = .525 (p \leq .01) **$

Table K: Choice-Groups/Backward-Shift (B)/Respect  
(Within Session, Main Effect,  $p \leq .05$ )

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift	d (within)
Choice-Forward Group	3.675	3.913	.238 *
Choice-Backward Group	3.263	3.450	.187 NS
d (Between)	.412 **	.463 **	

$df_{MS} = 8/MS = .046/n = 10$   
 $F(1,8) = 5.32, p \leq .05; 11.30, p \leq .01$   
 $Lsd = .221 (p \leq .05)*; .322 p \leq .01**$

Table L: Choice-Groups (Between Groups)/Free-Choice (C)/Respect

	Pre-Shift	Post-Shift
Choice-Forward Group	3,575	3,650
Choice-Backward Group	3,463	3,388
d (Between)	.112 NS	.262 *

$df_{MS} = 8/MS = .045/n = 10$   
 $F(1,8) = 5.32, p \leq .05$   
 $Lsd = .219, p \leq .05^*$

APPENDIX FRankings of Helpers on Criteria of Effectiveness

Subject/Choice		Ranks by Empathy Amplitude		Ranks By Empathy Mean		Ranks by Trainers- Assessed Competence	
Helper	Choice	Helper	Choice	Helper	Choice	Helper	Choice
01	F	01	F	08	B (x)	01	F
02	F	02	F	01	F	04	F
03	B	08	B (x)	02	F	02	F
04	F	04	F	04	F	05	F
05	F	10	F	05	F	08	B (x)
06	B (x)	05	F	10	F	06	B (x)
07	B	11	B	11	B	07	B
08	B (x)	12	B	12	B	03	B
09	B	03	B	03	B	11	B
10	F	07	B	07	B	12	B
11	B	09	B	06	B (x)	10	F
12	B	06	B (x)	09	B	09	B

F = Forward Shift (N = 5)

B = Backward Shift (N = 5)

B (x) = Slight backward adjustment - not included in  
Choice-Groups Analyses (N = 2)

APPENDIX G

CORRELATIONS AMONG RATING SCALES (Pearson r)

Scales Overall

	Intensity	Empathic Understanding	Respect	Self-Exploration
Intensity	-	.25	.23	.01
Empathic Understanding		-	.52	.35
Respect			-	.14
Self-Exploration				-

Pre-Shift/Post-Shift Periods

	Intensity		Empathic Understanding		Respect		Self-Exploration	
	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-	Pre-	Post-
Intensity	-	-	.23	.28	.23	.21	.18	-.11
Empathic Understanding			-	-	.61	.46	.41	.31
Respect					-	-	.26	.09
Self-Exploration							-	-

APPENDIX HSUMMARY OF HELPEE SEMANTIC DIFFERENTIAL FINDINGSTable A: Summary of Directions For Postural-Shift Conditions

	Forward-Shift (A) to Backward-Shift (B)		Forward-Shift (A) to Free-Choice (C)		Backward-Shift (B) to Free-Choice (C)	
<u>Intensity</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>
close	4	<u>6</u>	<u>7</u>	3	<u>10</u>	1 (p = .02)
decisive	4	<u>4</u>	<u>8</u>	2	<u>8</u>	2
active	<u>7</u>	4	<u>6</u>	5	<u>5</u>	4
strong	<u>5</u>	2	<u>6</u>	3	<u>4</u>	2
enthusiastic	<u>5</u>	2	<u>6</u>	1	<u>4</u>	2
patient	<u>4</u>	2	<u>4</u>	2	<u>4</u>	2
Total =	4	1	6	0	6	0
<u>Empathy</u>						
understanding	<u>5</u>	4	<u>7</u>	2	<u>4</u>	3
sensitive	<u>3</u>	<u>5</u>	<u>7</u>	2	<u>6</u>	2
clear	3	<u>8</u>	<u>6</u>	5	<u>7</u>	1
attentive	2	<u>3</u>	4	4	<u>3</u>	3
sensible	<u>4</u>	1	3	3	2	<u>4</u>
sympathetic	4	<u>5</u>	5	5	4	<u>4</u>
Total =	2	4	3	0	3	1
<u>Respect</u>						
warm	<u>7</u>	2	<u>6</u>	2	<u>5</u>	4
caring	<u>3</u>	2	<u>8</u>	3	<u>7</u>	2
polite	<u>4</u>	3	<u>6</u>	5	<u>6</u>	1
pleasant	<u>3</u>	1	<u>4</u>	3	<u>4</u>	4
friendly	<u>5</u>	1	<u>5</u>	1	<u>4</u>	2
accepting	<u>3</u>	2	<u>3</u>	<u>6</u>	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>
Total =	6	0	5	1	4	1
<u>Genuine</u>						
real	<u>4</u>	3	<u>5</u>	1	<u>6</u>	2
open	<u>6</u>	4	<u>7</u>	4	<u>6</u>	3
consistent	<u>4</u>	3	<u>5</u>	2	<u>4</u>	2
comfortable	<u>4</u>	3	<u>3</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>
sincere	<u>4</u>	1	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	4	<u>4</u>
secure	<u>5</u>	2	<u>4</u>	3	<u>4</u>	3
Total =	6	0	5	1	4	1

Appendix HTable A (contd.)

<u>Effective</u>	<u>Forward-Shift (A) to Backward-Shift (B)</u>		<u>Forward-Shift (A) to Free-Choice (C)</u>		<u>Backward-Shift (B) to Free-Choice (C)</u>	
	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>
skilful	4	4	<u>7</u>	3	<u>5</u>	4
competent	<u>5</u>	3	<u>7</u>	3	<u>4</u>	2
efficient	4	<u>5</u>	<u>2</u>	2	<u>6</u>	4
confident	<u>5</u>	3	<u>5</u>	3	<u>5</u>	3
realistic	2	<u>7</u>	<u>4</u>	<u>7</u>	<u>5</u>	1
mature	<u>5</u>	1	<u>4</u>	2	3	<u>4</u>
Total =	3	2	4	1	5	1

Table B: Choice-Forward Group (N=5) - Directions for Postural-Shift Conditions

	Forward-Shift (A) to Backward-Shift (B)		Forward-Shift (A) to Free-Choice (C)		Backward-Shift (B) to Free-Choice (C)	
<u>Intensity</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>
close	2	2	<u>3</u>	1	<u>4</u>	0
decisive	<u>2</u>	1	<u>4</u>	0	<u>4</u>	0
active	<u>3</u>	1	<u>4</u>	0	<u>3</u>	1
strong	<u>1</u>	1	<u>3</u>	1	<u>3</u>	0
enthusiastic	<u>2</u>	0	<u>4</u>	0	<u>2</u>	0
patient	<u>1</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0
Total =	4	0	6	0	6	0
<u>Empathy</u>						
understanding	2	2	<u>3</u>	2	2	2
sensitive	<u>2</u>	1	<u>3</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0
clear	0	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>	1	<u>4</u>	0
attentive	0	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	1	<u>2</u>	0
sensible	<u>1</u>	0	<u>2</u>	0	<u>1</u>	0
sympathetic	2	2	<u>3</u>	2	1	<u>2</u>
Total =	2	2	6	0	4	1
<u>Respect</u>						
warm	<u>3</u>	1	<u>3</u>	0	2	2
caring	<u>1</u>	1	<u>4</u>	1	<u>4</u>	0
polite	<u>2</u>	0	<u>4</u>	0	<u>4</u>	0
pleasant	<u>1</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0
friendly	<u>2</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0	<u>2</u>	0
accepting	0	<u>2</u>	1	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	0
Total =	4	1	5	1	5	0
<u>Genuine</u>						
real	<u>2</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0	<u>2</u>	0
open	<u>2</u>	2	<u>4</u>	1	<u>3</u>	0
consistent	<u>1</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0
comfortable	<u>2</u>	2	<u>3</u>	1	<u>1</u>	0
sincere	<u>2</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0
secure	<u>2</u>	1	<u>3</u>	1	<u>2</u>	0
Total =	4	0	6	0	6	0
<u>Effective</u>						
skillful	<u>3</u>	1	<u>3</u>	0	<u>2</u>	1
competent	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	1	<u>1</u>	0
efficient	2	<u>2</u>	<u>2</u>	0	<u>3</u>	1
confident	1	<u>2</u>	<u>4</u>	1	<u>4</u>	0
realistic	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3</u>	1	<u>3</u>	0
mature	<u>1</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0	<u>3</u>	0
Total =	2	3	6	0	6	0

Table C: Choice-Backward Group (N=5) - Directions For  
Postural-Shift Conditions

	Forward-Shift (A) to Backward-Shift (B)		Forward-Shift(A) to Free-Choice (C)		Backward-Shift (B) to Free-Choice (C)	
<u>Intensity</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>	<u>negative</u>	<u>positive</u>
close	<u>3</u>	2	<u>3</u>	2	<u>4</u>	1
decisive	<u>2</u>	1	<u>2</u>	2	<u>2</u>	2
active	<u>3</u>	2	1	<u>4</u>	2	2
strong	<u>3</u>	1	2	<u>2</u>	1	<u>2</u>
enthusiastic	<u>3</u>	1	<u>2</u>	1	1	<u>2</u>
patient	<u>2</u>	1	0	<u>1</u>	1	<u>2</u>
Total =	6	0	2	2	1	3
<u>Empathy</u>						
understanding	<u>3</u>	1	2	2	0	<u>1</u>
sensitive	1	<u>4</u>	<u>3</u>	2	2	<u>2</u>
clear	2	<u>3</u>	2	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	0
attentive	<u>2</u>	1	1	<u>2</u>	0	<u>3</u>
sensible	<u>2</u>	1	0	<u>3</u>	0	<u>4</u>
sympathetic	2	2	2	2	1	<u>2</u>
Total =	3	2	1	3	1	4
<u>Respect</u>						
warm	<u>4</u>	0	<u>3</u>	1	2	2
caring	<u>2</u>	1	<u>2</u>	2	1	<u>2</u>
polite	0	<u>3</u>	1	<u>4</u>	<u>2</u>	1
pleasant	1	<u>1</u>	1	<u>2</u>	1	<u>2</u>
friendly	<u>2</u>	1	1	1	2	<u>2</u>
accepting	<u>2</u>	0	1	<u>4</u>	1	<u>4</u>
Total =	4	1	1	3	1	3
<u>Genuineness</u>						
real	2	2	<u>2</u>	1	<u>3</u>	2
open	<u>4</u>	0	<u>2</u>	2	1	<u>3</u>
consistent	<u>2</u>	2	1	1	1	<u>2</u>
comfortable	0	<u>2</u>	0	<u>2</u>	1	1
sincere	<u>2</u>	1	0	<u>2</u>	0	<u>4</u>
secure	<u>2</u>	1	1	<u>2</u>	2	<u>2</u>
Total =	3	1	1	3	1	3
<u>Effectiveness</u>						
skilful	1	<u>2</u>	2	<u>3</u>	1	<u>3</u>
competent	<u>3</u>	1	<u>3</u>	<u>2</u>	2	<u>2</u>
efficient	2	2	0	<u>2</u>	2	<u>3</u>
confident	<u>3</u>	0	0	<u>1</u>	0	<u>3</u>
realistic	1	<u>3</u>	1	<u>4</u>	1	1
mature	<u>3</u>	1	0	<u>2</u>	0	<u>4</u>
Total =	3	2	1	5	0	4



# APPENDIX H

Table D: Choice-Groups Postural-Shift Comparisons - Helpee Semantic Differential Scale - Mann-Whitney U

$$\text{Formulae} =: U = (n_1) (n_2) + \frac{n_1 (n_1 + 1)}{2} - R_1$$

$$U = (5) (5) + \frac{5 (5 + 1)}{2} - R_1$$

$$U = 40 - R_1$$

Intensity	Forward-Shift (A)			Backward-Shift (B)			Free-Choice (C)		
	Choice-F		Choice-B:	Choice-F		Choice-B:	Choice-F		Choice-B:
	$\leq R_1$	$\leq R_2$	: U	$\leq R_1$	$\leq R_2$	: U	$\leq R_1$	$\leq R_2$	: U
close	31	24	9	32.5	22.5	7.5	30.5	24.5	9.5
decisive	34	21	6	35	20	5	24	31	16 (9)
active	34.5	20.5	5.5	31.5	23.5	8.5	20	35	20 (5)
strong	30	25	9	37	18	3 *	22	33	18 (7)
enthusiastic	34	21	6	31	24	9	22	33	18 (7)
patient	32.5	22.5	7.5	30.5	24.5	9.5	21.5	33.5	18.5 (6.5)
<u>Empathy</u>									
understanding	31	24	9	30	25	10	28	27	12
sensitive	31.5	23.5	8.5	25.5	29.5	14.5 (10.5)	24.5	30.5	15.5 (9.5)
clear	29.5	25.5	10.5	29	26	11	21.5	33.5	18.5 (6.5)
attentive	30	25	10	32.5	22.5	7.5	24	31	16 (9)
sensible	35.5	19.5	9.5	32.5	22.5	7.5	24	31	16 (9)
sympathetic	28	27	12	27.5	27.5	12.5 (12.5)	31.5	23.5	8.5
<u>Respect</u>									
warm	28.5	26.5	11.5	26	29	14 (11)	28	27	12
caring	31	24	9	30.5	24.5	9.5	22.5	32.5	17.5 (7.5)
polite	37.5	17.5	2.5 *	25	30	15 (10)	19.5	35.5	20.5 (4.5)
pleasant	32.5	22.5	7.5	32.5	22.5	7.5	21.5	33.5	18.5 (6.5)
friendly	32.5	22.5	7.5	31	24	9	23	32	17 (8)
accepting	27	28	13 (12)	34.5	20.5	5.5	23	32	17 (8)

.../

Appendix H: Table D (contd.)

	Forward-Shift (A)			Backward-Shift (B)			Free-Choice (C)		
	Choice-F		Choice-B:	Choice-F		Choice-B:	Choice-F		Choice-B:
	$\leq R_1$	$\leq R_2$	: U	$\leq R_1$	$\leq R_2$	: U	$\leq R_1$	$\leq R_2$	: U
<u>Genuineness</u>									
real	37	18	3 *	29	26	11	27	28	13 (12)
open	25.5	29.5	14.5 (10.5)	34.5	20.5	5.5	23.5	31.5	16.5 (8.5)
consistent	32.5	22.5	7.5	31	24	9	24.5	30.5	15.5 (9.5)
comfortable	29.5	25.5	10.5	27.5	27.5	12.5 (12.5)	23	32	17 (8)
sincere	29.5	25.5	10.5	29	26	11	22	33	18 (7)
secure	32	23	8	34	21	6	27.5	27.5	12.5 (12.5)
<u>Effective</u>									
skilful	32.5	22.5	7.5	30	25	10	25.5	29.5	14.5 (10.5)
competent	27.5	27.5	12.5 (12.5)	31.5	23.5	8.5	28.5	26.5	11.5
efficient	29.5	25.5	10.5	28	27	12	20.5	34.5	19.5 (5.5)
confident	30	25	10	38	17	2 *	18	37	22 (3) *
realistic	33	22	7	31	24	9	21	34	19 (6)
mature	32.5	22.5	7.5	35	20	5	21.5	33.5	18.5 (6.5)

\*  $p < .05$  (two-tailed)

APPENDIX I

HELPER RANKINGS (Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance W)

Table A: Postural-Shift Condition Rankings

Intense Postural-Shift			Understanding Postural-Shift			Warm Postural-Shift		
A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
3	2	1	2	3	1	2	3	1
1	2	3	1	2	3	2	1	3
3	1	2	2	1	3	3	1	2
2	3	1	1	2	3	1	3	2
3	2	1	2	1	3	3	1	2
2.5	2.5	1	3	2	1	2.5	2.5	1
2	1	3	1	2	3	2	1	3
1	3	2	3	2	1	3	2	1
2	3	1	3	2	1	3	2	1
2.5	2.5	1	1	2.5	2.5	2.5	1	2.5
1	2	3	3	2	1	3	1	2
3	1	2	1	2	3	1	2	3
26	25	21	23	23.5	25.5	28	20.5	23.5

S = 14  
W = .048 (NS)

S = 3.5  
W = .012 (NS)

S = 28.50  
W = .099 (NS)

Real Postural-Shift			Comfortable Postural-Shift			Effective Postural-Shift		
A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
2	3	1	2	3	1	3	2	1
1	2	3	1	2	3	2	1	3
3	2	1	3	1	2	2	1	3
2	3	1	1	2	3	1	3	2
3	1	2	3	2	1	2	1	3
2.5	2.5	1	2	3	1	2.5	2.5	1
1	3	2	1	3	2	1	2	3
3	2	1	3	2	1	3	2	1
3	2	1	2.5	2.5	1	3	2	1
3	1.5	1.5	3	1	2	2	1	3
3	1	2	3	2	1	3	2	1
1	2	3	1	2	3	1	2	3
27.5	25	19.5	25.5	25.5	21	25.5	21	25.5

S = 34  
W = .116 (NS)

S = 13.5  
W = .046 (NS)

S = 13.5  
W = .033 (NS)

Table B: Choice-Groups Ranks x Postural-Shift Conditions  
(Kendall's Coefficient of Concordance W)

<u>Intense</u>						<u>Understanding</u>					
Choice-Forward Postural-Shift			Choice-Backward Postural-Shift			Choice-Forward Postural-Shift			Choice-Backward Postural-Shift		
A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
3	2	1	3	1	2	2	3	1	2	1	3
1	2	3	3	2	1	1	2	3	2	1	3
2	3	1	2	3	1	1	2	3	3	2	1
2	1	3	1	2	3	1	2	3	3	2	1
2.5	2.5	1	3	1	2	1	2.5	2.5	1	2	3
10.5	10.5	9	12	9	9	6	11.5	12.5	11	8	11

S = 1.50  
W = .03

S = 6  
W = .12

S = 25  
W = .49

S = 6  
W = .12

<u>Warm</u>						<u>Real</u>					
Choice-Forward Postural-Shift			Choice-Backward Postural-Shift			Choice-Forward Postural-Shift			Choice-Backward Postural-Shift		
A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
2	3	1	3	1	2	2	3	1	3	2	1
2	1	3	3	1	2	1	2	3	3	1	2
1	3	2	3	2	1	2	3	1	3	2	1
2	1	3	3	1	2	1	3	2	3	1	2
2.5	1	2.5	1	2	3	3	1.5	1.5	1	2	3
9.5	9	11.5	13	7	10	9	12.5	8.5	13	8	9

S = 3.50  
W = .07

S = 18  
W = .36

S = 9.50  
W = .19

S = 14  
W = .28

.../

Appendix I: Table B (contd.)

Comfortable						Effective					
Choice-Forward Postural-Shift			Choice-Backward Postural-Shift			Choice-Forward Postural-Shift			Choice-Backward Postural-Shift		
A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
2	3	1	3	1	2	3	2	1	2	1	3
1	2	3	3	2	1	2	1	3	2	1	3
1	2	3	3	2	1	1	3	2	3	2	1
1	3	2	3	1	2	1	2	3	3	2	1
3	1	2	1	2	3	2	1	3	1	2	3
8	11	11	13	8	9	9	9	12	11	8	11

S = 6  
W = .12

S = 14  
W = .28

S = 6  
W = .12

S = 6  
W = .12

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