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THERAPISTS BASED ON THE BYRNE MODEL.

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GRADUATE COLLEGE

AN INVESTIGATION OF CLIENT ATTRACTION TO THERAPISTS

BASED ON THE BYRNE MODEL

A DISSERTATION

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CHARLES ALLEN GAYNOR

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1974

AN INVESTIGATION OF CLIENT ATTRACTION TO THERAPISTS
BASED ON THE BRYNE MODEL

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AN INVESTIGATION OF CLIENT ATTRACTION TO THERAPISTS

BASED ON THE BYRNE MODEL

INTRODUCTION

There are potentially many factors which could account for possible success or failure in psychotherapy, but at present research in this field is at an early stage of development. In spite of the above statement, Strupp (1969) indicates that psychotherapeutic theory is overwhelmingly in accord with the view that the nature of the therapist-patient relationship is a major determinant of success or failure. Goldstein (1971) has turned to the literature on psychotherapeutic attraction in an attempt to determine what effect therapist and patient attitudes will have on the therapeutic relationship and on the success or failure of therapy. In his own studies Goldstein has followed a procedure somewhat similar to that of Donn Byrne and his associates (Byrne, 1971).

The purpose of this experimental study was to extend both the research of Goldstein and of Byrne and his associates and to add information to both the areas of interpersonal attraction and therapeutic research. The problem can be stated as, will subjects tend to choose as their therapists individuals whose attitudes are similar to their own, and will the selection of a particular therapist be affected by the quality and quantity of problems a particular client might be experiencing?

Of direct interest to the present research are the large number of studies conducted within the area of interpersonal attraction by Byrne and his associates. These studies as Byrne (1973) has indicated have been conceptualized as an effort to establish and explain the relationship between certain classes of antecedent events and certain classes of consequent events. In The Attraction Paradigm; Byrne (1971) covers extensively the contribution he and his associates made to this area. Typical investigations in the area of interpersonal attraction have involved judgments concerning either one or several target persons (Byrne and Nelson, 1964; Golightly and Byrne, 1964). Byrne (1973) has stated that the single measure most frequently utilized in research within the reinforcement paradigm is The Interpersonal Judgement Scale (IJS), on which subjects evaluate target persons or dimensions of intelligence, knowledge of current events, morality, adjustment, likability, and desirability as a work partner. It has been a consistent finding that the attraction towards a stranger is a positive linear function of the proportion of his attitudes similar to those of the subject (Byrne, 1971). Byrne and his associates have verified this relationship in a series of investigations involving different modes for presentation of attitudes, alternative measures of attraction, and varying levels of importance of attitudes to the subject (Byrne and Nelson, 1965). Attitude statements have been conceptualized by Byrne in a stimulus-response framework with a motivational state as the intervening variable (Byrne, 1966; Byrne and Clore, 1967). According to Byrne and his associates, attraction similarity-dissimilarity is considered to be a special case of reward and

punishment and attitude statements have been demonstrated to yield the same effects as do more conventional positive and negative reinforcers (Byrne, Young and Griffitt, 1966; Corrozi and Rasnow, 1968; Gollighly and Byrne, 1961). Attraction has been found to be highly related to subjects affective states and affective changes induced by attraction stimuli (Gouaux and Sumners, 1973).

The similarity-attraction relationship has also been obtained with subjects drawn from different cultures, such as Japan, and with various age groups such as children in kindergarten, second, fourth, sixth grades and adults (Gaynor, 1971). The present study was conducted within the Reinforcement Paradigm and made use of The Interpersonal Judgment Scale. In part this experiment consisted of an effort to generalize research conducted within the paradigm to the area of psychotherapy and counseling, by making use of a counseling center setting, and the evaluation of a therapist engaged in an actual interview. The attempt was to see whether Byrne's findings might be applicable to such settings and might be relevant to perspective clients choosing a therapist. One of the independent variables that was manipulated in this experiment consisted of the proportion of attitudes that were similar between a particular subject and a hypothetical therapist. It was hypothesized that the findings of the present study would conform to previous research, in that a therapist whose attitudes were more similar to a subject would be evaluated more positively than a therapist whose attitudes were dissimilar. The dependent measure consisted of a series of questions (IJS) asked the subject about the therapist. The questions asked

were about whether or not the particular therapist would be consulted for therapeutic assistance, whether or not this individual would be liked by the subject, and whether or not this individual was seen as an effective therapist. It was expected that affirmative answers to all these questions would result when an individual was presented with a therapist whose attitudes were similar to his own; and negative evaluations would be given when therapist attitudes were dissimilar. The current study was conducted following the rationale of Byrne and his associates (Byrne, 1971; Byrne and Griffitt, 1974) that cumulative scientific progress is greatest when investigators practice what is described as "normal science" which becomes possible following the acquisition of a paradigm. Byrne and Griffitt state that at the present time research on interpersonal attraction may be seen as compromised of a small number of relatively independent mini paradigms plus a number of nonparadigmatic approaches to data collection. By working within Byrne's paradigm, the present study hopes to contribute to scientific research in interpersonal attraction and psychotherapy.

Goldstein in Psychotherapeutic Attraction (1971) reviews a number of studies dealing with interpersonal attraction within the therapeutic situation. He and his associates utilizing a modification of Byrne's procedure, performed an experiment to ascertain both the separate and combined effects on attraction of attitude similarity and topic importance. The study was conducted with inmates serving sentences for public intoxication. Inmates were asked to listen to a tape recording of a psychotherapeutic session. Before doing so, every subject was given a copy of an attitude scale purportedly

completed by the therapist on the tape. Goldstein found that analysis performed on the "attraction" and "willingness" to meet scores failed to support the predicted main effect for attitude similarity or the predicted effect of similarity importance interaction. Goldstein's study is similar to the present one in that subjects in the present study were also asked to listen to a tape recording of a psychotherapeutic session, and also before doing so every subject was presented with an attitude scale that was as in Goldstein's study to have been filled out by the therapist on the tape. One point of departure between Goldstein's study and the present one, besides the context of the experiments, consists in the existence of a second independent variable in the more recent experiment. Subjects in the present study were also asked to read a description of a hypothetical client with whom the therapist was supposed to be talking with on the tape. The description of the client was varied for different subjects throughout the experiment as to the quality and quantity of his problems, although the actual tape recording was held constant for all subjects throughout the experiment. It was the manipulation of the description of the hypothetical client which constituted the second independent variable.

It was mainly for exploratory interest that the second independent variable was utilized. Padd (1972) demonstrated that the source of attitudinal information is an important aspect of interpersonal attraction in addition to the proportion of agreement. He states that it is necessary to examine the context in which attitudinal information occurs (Griffit, 1970; Padd, 1972). One of the concerns of the present study was how well a therapist might be liked as a person, how

effective he might appear, and how desirable he might be as a therapist, would be affected by the particular population of clients he might be seen to be dealing with. In order to obtain information on this issue the context of the therapeutic situation was varied for different subjects by varying the written description of the particular client the therapist was said to be working with. A further area of interest of the present research was how the two independent variables, attitude similarity between the therapist and the subject and the description of the client might interact with each other. It was tentatively hypothesized that under conditions where the client was described as having problems the effect of attitudes might be magnified, aside from that, no hypotheses were made concerning description of clients.

Method and Procedure

Subjects

Thirty-two female subjects participating in introductory psychology courses at The University of Oklahoma participated in the study in order to fulfill course requirements.

Apparatus

A cassette recorder was utilized in the experiment. Its purpose was to play the interaction between the therapist and the client for the subjects. The experiment took place in the experimenter's office at The University of Oklahoma Counseling Center in order to add to the realistic nature of the therapeutic interaction subjects were to listen to.

Procedure

In order to satisfy legal considerations, when the subjects entered the room they were asked to read and sign a written consent form. Subjects were then told "you are participating in a program to evaluate the effectiveness of therapists." Next they were told "I am going to ask you to fill out an opinion questionnaire." After filling out the questionnaire the experimenter left the room telling the subject he would be right back and "faked the attitude survey so that each subject received the correct number of dissimilar or similar attitudes. The "faking" was performed by the experimenter using a pen and on the opinion survey of the hypothetical therapist followed Byrne's procedure of checking off responses that agreed or disagreed with those of the subject (Byrne, 1973). After faking the survey the experimenter entered the room and said, "I would like you to read an opinion survey that was filled out by a therapist". Subjects were distributed equally among four different conditions in the experiment. Half of the subjects received attitude surveys from hypothetical therapists with all attitudes but three being similar, the other half received surveys where all but three were dissimilar to their own. Subjects were also differentiated in that half of them were read a description of a client who was depicted as having a great many problems, the other half were read a description of a client who was described as functioning without many problems. After reading the questionnaire the subjects were then presented with the written description of the client." All subjects in the experiment were next played the same three minute segment of a particular interview between

a therapist and a client. After hearing the interview the subjects presented with an Interpersonal Judgment Scale and were told "I would like you to answer the following questions about the therapist you have just heard. Look up when you have finished." Subjects were asked whether they would like this therapist as a person, would they like working with him, and if they had a problem would they like this person as their therapist.

A two way analysis of variance was performed separately on the three questions on the Interpersonal Judgment Scale. Also the same analysis was performed on the data from the three items of the questionnaire which was summed to form a composite score. Also, in order to determine the nature of the interaction a simple main effects test was performed on the data obtained from question one.

Results

Cell means for questions I, II, III, and the composite scores obtained from the Interpersonal Judgment Scale appear on Tables I-IV.

Insert Tables here

Results of the analysis of variance performed on question I, "If I wanted to obtain therapeutic assistance," yielded a nonsignificant main effect for attitudes ($F=.61$, $df/28$, $p < .5510$) and did not support the hypothesis of the present study nor coincide with previous findings by Byrne and his associates. Analysis of variance performed on question II. "I feel I would like this individual. . . ," question III. "I feel very strongly that this individual is an effective therapist . . . ," and the composite score obtained from the sum of the data from the three items of the questionnaire, all yielded significant main for attitudes ($F=4.3$, $df/28$, $p < .05$; $F=7.90$, $df/28$, $p < .01$; $F=7.90$,

df/28, $p < .01$), supported the hypothesis of the present study that subjects would evaluate therapists more favorably the more similar the attitudes between these subjects and the hypothetical therapist they were listening to. The main effect due to the second independent variable, quality and/or quantity of the clients problems proved to be nonsignificant through all four analyses.

The interaction was significant for question one ($F=7.0$, df/28, $p < .01$), but not for the other two questions or the composite. Results of the simple main effects tests performed on the data from question 1, "If I wanted to obtain therapeutic assistance," yielded a significant main effect of attitudes ($F=5.86$, df/28, $p < .05$) at the level of the second independent variable standing for clients described as being OK and not a significant one for clients described as not OK ($F=1.74$; df/28, $p < .05$). These results indicate that attitudes make a difference when a client is described as OK but not when he is described as not OK. A significant effect due to description was found ($F=6.98$, df/28, $p < .05$), which indicated that description of a client has an effect when attitudes of a subject and a therapist are dissimilar, and that description has no effect when attitudes are similar ($F=1.21$, df/28, $p < .05$).

Discussion

Judging from the results of the analysis performed on the data obtained in the present study, the attempt to see whether Byrne's findings of a similarity-dissimilarity relationship might be applicable in a setting such as a university counseling center was successful. Findings from the present research appear to be similar to previous

findings within the attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1973). This fact can be seen in that the significant main effects found for the independent variable attitudes, obtained from analysis of variance performed on IJS questions II and III, are also in line with similar main effects due to the attitudes found in past studies. Analysis of the data obtained from question I "If I wanted to obtain therapeutic assistance," was the only one which indicated a nonsignificant effect due to attitudes. However, interaction was significant ($F=7.00$, $df/28$, $p < .0127$). For the most part the hypothesis that a therapist whose attitudes were more similar to a subject would be evaluated more positively than a therapist whose attitudes were dissimilar was confirmed. The results of the present study appear to be even more significant due to the small sample size of eight subjects per cell, thus demonstrating once more the powerful nature of the effect.

The lack of the expected significance of a main effect due to attitudes found when an ANOVA was performed on the data obtained from question I, might indicate that similarity on certain attitudes between a prospective client and a therapist might not be as desirable on the part of a person choosing a therapist. As Goldstein indicates (1971), therapy is a complex process and it might be desirable for a client and a therapist to be similar in certain ways and complementary in others. This last consideration might be important when one is in the process of choosing a therapist, thus making Byrne's similarity-dissimilarity relationship not applicable under this circumstance. Also ANOVA' performed on questions I and III appear to be somewhat

contradictory. As stated before, the significant main effects for attitudes found in analyzing the data from the question, "I feel very strongly that this individual is an effective therapist," might be seen as fitting with prior research findings in the attraction paradigm. Individuals who indicate similar attitudes are seen as more competent than individuals who indicate they hold to dissimilar attitudes. Moreover it might be expected that a person who is considered to be seen as effective as a therapist might also be considered desirable as a therapist, and that this relationship would be affected in the same manner by similar attitudes, as was the hypothesis of the present study. However, the results indicate that this was not the case with a significant effect on the third question for attitudes and none on the first question. The lack of a significant main effect from attitudes on the first question might indicate the presence of a Type II error brought about possibly by the small sample size, or the possibility that questions I and III might be responded to differently because they are aimed at different aspects of the same problem. Also question I is the only one which requires definite action from a subject and as a result might be viewed differently and reacted to differently than Question II and III.

The simple main effects tests performed to explore the nature of the interaction obtained from the data from question I indicates that the similarity-dissimilarity relationship holds only for a client described as not having problems and not for one who is seen as not OK. It was also found that description of the client only has a significant effect when a therapist responded with dissimilar attitudes from that

of the subject. It is impossible to interpret these findings given the amount of information at hand and the fact that in each situation the cell means are actually the reverse from what might be expected from previous literature. A therapist dissimilar from a subject is desired more than one whom is seen as similar when a client is viewed as not being OK. This finding is different from the hypothesis in the present study, but it raises the question that the similarity-dissimilarity relationship might not be the only relationship operating within the therapeutic setting. It also raises the possibility that dissimilar attitudes might be viewed as complementary attitudes under certain situations and therefore considered to be the attitudes that the therapist of one's choice might hold. Judging from the reversal of means (Table I) subjects appeared to indicate that in the case of severely disturbed clients they would rather have an individual different from themselves by the therapist. In the case of normal individuals, difference or similarity was not a factor.

With regard to the second independent variable, the only time the description of a client proved to be significant in the analysis was in the interaction already described. It appears from these findings that description of a client might not be too relevant a variable in the desirability, liking, or decision about the effectiveness of a therapist.

This experiment does not support the findings of Goldstein (1971) who found no main effect due to similarity of attitudes. Variations due to the use of females rather than males, students rather than inmates, a counseling center rather than a prison, might account for disparity of findings. The present study tends to add greater support to Byrne's findings and to point to needed research comparing the effects of complementary and similar attitudes within the therapeutic setting.

TABLE I

CELL MEANS FOR QUESTIONS ONE: IF I WANTED
TO OBTAIN THERAPEUTIC ASSISTANCE

	Description	
	B1 OK	B2 Not OK
<u>Attitudes</u>		
A1 Similar	4.2500	3.6250
A2 Dissimilar	2.8750	4.3750

TABLE II
CELL MEANS FOR QUESTION TWO: I FEEL I
WOULD LIKE THIS INDIVIDUAL A LOT

	Description	
	B1 OK	B2 Not OK
<u>Attitudes</u>		
A1 Similar	4.6250	4.3750
A2 Dissimilar	3.5000	4.1250

TABLE III

CELL MEANS FOR QUESTION THREE: I FEEL THAT THIS
INDIVIDUAL IS AN EFFECTIVE THERAPIST

	Description	
	B1 OK	B2 Not OK
<u>Attitudes</u>		
A1 Similar	4.6250	4.3750
A2 Dissimilar	3.5000	4.1250

TABLE IV
CELL MEANS FOR COMPOSITE

	Description	
	B1 OK	B2 Not OK
<u>Attitudes</u>		
A1 Similar	9.0000	8.5000
A2 Dissimilar	6.8750	8.000

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APPENDIX I

**PROSPECTUS: AN INVESTIGATION OF CLIENT ATTRACTION
TO THERAPISTS BASED ON THE BYRNE MODEL**

AN INVESTIGATION OF CLIENT ATTRACTION TO THERAPISTS
BASED ON THE BYRNE MODEL

There are two major approaches to a theoretical interpretation of empirical data concerned with the determinants of interpersonal attraction. They may be roughly categorized as utilizing cognitive or reinforcement models. The two approaches make use of different languages and conduct somewhat different types of experiments (Byrne and Clore, 1971). A considerable degree of theoretical controversy has existed concerning the nature of the relationship between personality similarity and attraction. It has been proposed by different researchers that attraction is facilitated by either similar, or complementary attitudes. However, theoretical differences remain unresolved due to the inconsistency of research findings (Byrne, Griffitt, and Stefaniak, 1967). Byrne (1969) has concluded that the common sense observation that a relationship between attitudinal similarity and attraction is sufficiently accurate, general, and powerful to hold across a variety of situations both in everyday life and in the laboratory; and across a variety of operational definitions of the variables. The existence of such a relationship is considered to be a reasonable basis for ex-

pecting that research within a single paradigm might prove to be valuable. Research performed by Byrne and his students is based upon behavior theory and makes use of a stimulus response language system (Byrne, 1969; Byrne and Clore, 1970; Sachs and Byrne, 1970). The reinforcement formulation has been considered to be advantageous due to the fact that different stimulus conditions can be conceptualized in terms of a single unifying construct, and because of the possibility of relationships between the attraction paradigm and learning theory (Byrne and Clore, 1967).

The experimental work on interpersonal attraction and impression formation is typically characterized by a series of stimuli attributed to or associated with a target person. Later S's are asked to rate the target person on one or more evaluative dimensions such as attraction, attractiveness, or competency (Griffitt, Byrne, and Bond, 1971; Griffitt and Nelson, 1970). In the study of attitude similarity and attraction, samples of attitudes of S's are first obtained and later the S's are presented with the real or hypothetical attitudes of a stranger. The measure of attraction consists of two simple rating scales essentially asking the S to indicate whether he believes he would like or dislike working with this person, or like or dislike this person (Byrne and Nelson, 1964; Golightly and Byrne, 1964). It has been a consistent finding that the attraction toward a stranger is a positive linear function of the proportion of a stranger's attitudes similar to those of the S (e.g., Byrne and Nelson, 1964, 1969; Griffitt, 1969; Griffitt and Clore, 1969; Smith and Meadow, 1970). Byrne et al. have verified this relationship in a series of investigations involving different

modes for the presentation of attitudes, alternative measures of attraction, and issues of varying levels or importance (Byrne and Nelson, 1956). Tesser (1971) also manipulated evaluative similarity by varying the number of similar attitudes and by varying the pattern of similar attitudes. As predicted he found that subjects were able to perceive the differences in structural similarity and attraction was positively related to both structural and evaluative similarity. In a study conducted by Capia and Weiner (1971) the hypothesis that attraction is influenced more by agreement on the meaning of friendship than agreement on impersonal issues was not supported. These results support the contention that the proportion of similar attitudes rather than the topic variable determines attraction. A particular result of such studies is the conceptualization of an antecedent-consequent framework in which attraction varies as a function of attitude similarity-dissimilarity (Byrne and Clore, 1966). It also appears, in the absence of additional information about a stranger, that this relationship is quite stable over a short period of time (Griffitt and Nelson, 1966). Lamberth and Byrne (1971) indicate that demand characteristics play a little role in the results obtained on interpersonal attraction. They indicate that one explanation is that the affect elicited by an agreeing or disagreeing stranger is sufficiently strong that instructional variations are of minimal importance to subjects. They further state that the evidence is compatible with the proposition that the independent and dependent variables have been labeled correctly in the attraction research.

Attraction is considered to be multidetermined, and interacting

individuals possess much more information about one another than just the personality trait in question (Byrne, Clore, and Griffitt, 1967; Byrne, Griffitt, and Stefaniak, 1967). Typically the investigations of attraction have involved a single judgment concerning a single person. It has been only relatively recently that multiple judgments concerning target persons have been considered. It has been found that when multiple stimulus persons are to be judged by a single S, the degree to which the characteristics of each stimulus person influence judgments of the remaining stimulus persons provides the S with a "context" within which each judgment is made (Griffitt, 1971). Griffitt has found that when a S responds on the basis of multiple stimuli a contrast effect is obtained in many situations. Griffitt (1970) has also found that attraction responses are more negative under hotter temperatures than under normal conditions. Under conditions of high temperature and high population density, Griffitt and Vertch (1971) found personal-affective, social-affective, and non-social affective responses to be significantly more negative than under conditions of comfortable temperatures and low population density. It has also been found that the receipt of information confirming one's opinions, and values has a differential effect on attraction depending on the magnitude of the drive to obtain consensual validation (Worchel and Schuster, 1966). It is necessary to control these other variables if personality characteristics are to reveal strong reliable effects. Control of irrelevant sources of variation is attempted with the intention that any similarity effect will not be obscured (Palmer and Byrne, 1970). Bainklotes (1971) states that the closer laboratory conditions are to those in the real world,

the greater the chances that the results will generalize. He also indicates that it may be that much time has been spent in the study of attitude topics that will have little relevance in determining interpersonal attraction in real life, outside of the experimental situation. Aronson (1969) has noted the difficulty of establishing an apriori definition of reward in a complex social situation, where many of the variables cannot be controlled by the investigator. This difficulty has been considered by experimenters working within the reinforcement paradigm. Due to the great amount of multiple uncontrolled stimuli it cannot be assumed that any two interacting individuals who agree on six issues will become fast friends. These six topics may never be discussed, and even if they are discussed they may simply become an insignificant portion of a host of other positive and negative reinforcing elements in the interaction. In spite of the complexity of real life situations experiments are attempting to generalize from the laboratory to more complex "every day" social situations (Byrne, Ervin and Lamberth, 1970).

Byrne, Griffitt, and Stefaniak (1967) have concluded that the hypothesized positive relationship between similarity and attraction has been supported not only with respect to opinions and abilities but also with emotional status, and even similarity of amount of paint consumption. The authors tentatively suggest with other variables held constant, the behavior of another individual is positively reinforcing to the extent that it is similar to one's own behavior.

Attitude statements and attraction have been conceptualized by Byrne in a stimulus response framework with a motivational state

as a hypothetical intervening construct (Byrne, 1966; Byrne and Clore, 1967). This motive has been referred to as a learned drive to be logical, and to interpret correctly one's stimulus world (e.g., Byrne, 1962, 1966, 1969; Byrne and Clore, 1967; Golightly and Byrne, 1964; Worchel and McCormick, 1963). Byrne and Clore (1967) have indicated that the motive which is presumably activated by attitudinal material is not unique to that particular stimulus situation. They state that the motivational properties of attitude statements represent a special instance of a more general phenomenon. Byrne and Clore suggest that the type of secondary motive described in the attraction studies has appeared under various labels and in various contexts. Examples of this motive are the need for cognition or the need to experience an integrated and meaningful world, the need to be able to know and predict the environment, and desire for certainty which involves understanding the environment and making it predictable, and the drive to evaluate one's own opinions and abilities (Byrne, in press). Kelly (1955) has indicated that a person's processes are psychologically channeled by the ways in which he anticipates events. Constructs according to Kelley are used to predict events. They are thus tested in terms of their predictive effectiveness. Similarly, in Phillip's interference theory the individual is a perceiving-action person who makes choices on the basis of assumptions or hypotheses about behavior possibilities in terms of the estimated probabilities of the choices confirming the assumptions. Behavior is thus the result of assertions made by the individual about himself in his relationship with others (Patterson, 1966; Philipps, 1956). It has been suggested by Byrne

and Clore (1967) that the examples of the hypothetical motive cited fit within White's (1959) effectance motive, due to the fact that each involves a process related to effective interaction with the environment. White has stated that there is a competence motive as well as competence in the more familiar sense of achieved capacity. He has stated that behavior satisfies an intrinsic need to deal with the environment, and that satisfaction appears to lie in the arousal and maintaining of activity, rather than its low decline toward bored passivity. White has stated that effectance motivation subsides when a situation has been explored to the point that it no longer presents new possibilities. He has conceptualized it as a neurogenic motive, in contrast to a viscerogenic motive (White, R., 1960). Angyris (1967) indicates that individuals can be described as predisposed or oriented toward increasing their competences or toward protecting themselves in order to survive. Maslow describes the former as responding to growth motivation, the latter as responding in terms of deficiency motivation. White's concept of effectance motivation plays an important part in group therapy and sensitivity training in that increasing one's competence in interpersonal relationships remains an important aspect (Golembrewski and Blumberg, 1970).

White in his consideration of the effectance motive concentrated on exploratory behavior, curiosity, and play (1960). Byrne and his associates extended the effectance motive to include the need to be logical, consistent and accurate, and have pointed to the "negative" aspects of this motive; in this manner allowing for a negative response to stimuli which lie further along the continuum of unfamili-

arity, unpredictability, and unexpectedness (Cohen, Stotland, and Wolf, 1955; Byrne and Clore, 1967; Byrne, Nelson and Reeves, 1961). Maddi (1961), in support of this position indicates that unexpected and completely expected situations arouse negative affect. McClelland, Atkinson, Clark and Lowell, making use of Helson's adaptation level concept, have offered the hypothesis that affect arises when stimulation provides discrepancy from an adaptation level. Small discrepancies from the adaptation level in either direction give rise to positive or pleasant affect, whereas large discrepancies in either direction are the sources of negative or unpleasant affect (Helson, 1964; Varinis, Brandsma and Cofer, 1968). Byrne and Clore (1967) indicate that there are major aspects of our world about which we hold attitudes, beliefs, opinions, and values. Wheelis (1958) has stated that values determine goals, and goals define identity. He indicates that values which we derive from tool-using retain the characteristics of the instrumental process and the values which we derive from myth-making retain the characteristics of the institutional process. However, for the most important decisions of life the instrumental process provides no clear-cut answer. Institutional values which are derived from the activities associated with myth, mores and status, unlike instrumental values, transcend the evidence at hand. "The final authority of such value is force p. 179," while in the case of instrumental values the final authority is reason. According to Wheelis our most important attitudes, beliefs, opinions and values are not grounded in empirical data. Byrne and Clore (1967) indicate that the raising of issues related to them should arouse the effectance motive. They state that the only relevant

evidence to bring about effectance reduction lies in consensual validation or invalidation. According to Byrne and his associates attraction similarity-dissimilarity is considered to be a special case of reward and punishment. Miller (1972) has hypothesized attitude similarity-dissimilarity functions as a grading mechanism in judgments of interpersonal attraction. He states that specifically under conditions of a stimulus person's being similar, there should exist in the perceiver a more open posture with respect to additional stimulus inputs than under conditions of a stimulus person being dissimilar; he indicates that this conjecture has been supported. Corrozi and Rosnow (1968) mention that a fairly recurrent finding has been that S's opinions tend to change in the direction of whichever arguments are closer in time to a positive reinforcement, or further in time from a negative reinforcement. Results of their study indicate that attitude statements of the kind used by Golightly and Byrne (1964) yield the same effect as do the more conventional positive and negative reinforcers. Golightly and Byrne, (1964) and Byrne, Young, and Griffitt (1966) have demonstrated that S's would learn a discrimination task if attitude statements were given as reinforcers. When an individual indicates that his attitude about a topic is similar to that of the S, this communication constitutes a reward. The frustration of the effectance drive by consensual invalidation is considered to be punishing (e.g., Byrne and Clore, 1967; Byrne and Nelson, 1959). An individual expressing dissimilar views to those of the S may be rejected by him and considered to be stupid, immoral, uninformed, and out of touch with reality (Berkowitz and Howard, 1959; Byrne, 1961; Worchel and McCormick,

1963). Lamberth, Gouaux, and Padd (1972) found that S's indicated a greater reduction in negative affect when they had the opportunity to evaluate the stranger who negatively reinforced them than when they did not evaluate the stranger, but merely indicated their affective state immediately after receiving negative evaluations from the stranger. It is suggested by Byrne and his associates that any similarity leads to liking when it provides the S with evidence of his competence in dealing with his environment. Lamberth and Padd (1972) found support for the hypothesis that S's are more similar and thus more attracted to their work partner would indicate a willingness to go to work on a day when they had reason to stay away. They indicate that their results fit nicely with the idea that workers are more willing to go to work if they are rewarded. Good and Nelson (1971) extended the generality of the Byrne-Nelson attraction functions to the person-group context. Non-member S's attraction to a group as entity was shown to be a positive function of degree of attitude similarity he shares with the group members. Stampert and Clore (1969) state that of the several theories which have treated the relationship between attitude similarity, dissimilarity and attraction, most have made assumptions about motivational states. Some emphasize the motivational properties of dissonant, unbalanced or asymmetrical cognitions. According to these theories, disagreement produces a state of tension which can be reduced by rejecting the disagreeer. Stampert and Clore indicate that other approaches to attraction based on conditioning principles also make assumptions about disagreement produced motivation. The authors relate that according to these models disagreement produces

a state of tension, and the ensuing dislike of the stranger is due to his association with the unpleasant state of arousal. Stampert and Clore tested the hypothesis that disagreement produces arousal by obtaining a measure of attraction after S's were exposed to the attitudes of bogus strangers. They compared four groups, varying in the number of disagreeers preceeding a bogus final agreeer. Contrary to the expectation the repetition of disagreement led to ratings that were less and less negative. Stampert and Clore state that the findings appear to indicate that positive attraction toward another may result from his association with drive reduction and negative attraction from association with drive arousal. Stalling (1970), has contended that the effect of similarity on attraction and on performance in a learning task is dependent on the ability of the similar stimuli to elicit affective responses (Byrne, in press). In a study designed to separate similarity and affect he found that the crucial element for the conditioning of affect was that of affective quality rather than similarity per se. Generalizing Stalling's results to attitudinal stimuli Byrne (in press) states that there is evidence that attitude statements elicit affect, influence attraction and have reinforcement properties. In line with this reasoning, Lazarus (1969) has stated that every emotion flows from an appraisal process by which the person or infra human animal evaluates the adaptive significance of the stimulus. A state of arousal seems to follow this interpretation and seems to be connected with motoric impulses in some way. Ellis has also stated that there is the existence of a fact, an event, or the behavior or attitude of another person, there is a self-verbalization or interpretation of

the situation and then an emotional reaction (1962), and then possibly an overt response. Goaux and Lamberth (1971) state that several studies within the area of interpersonal attraction have indicated that S's states are highly related to their attraction responses to a stranger. They indicate that studies have found that S's in whom positive affective states were induced gave significantly higher ratings of a target person than did S's in which negative affective states were induced. Gouauz (1971) working along these lines hypothesized that as the internal affective state of the S is made more positive or negative the attraction response to the stranger would vary accordingly. He stated that within the Byrne and Clore model (1970) any stimulus with reinforcing properties can function as an unconditioned stimulus for an implicit affective response. This implicit or covert response, according to Gouaux, has an affective quality that varies along the pleasant-unpleasant continuum. The more positive the S's affective state, the more positive will be his attraction toward a stimulus person associated with affective induction. Gouaux investigated the effect of induced affection on interpersonal attraction in an experiment having a 3 x 2 factorial design with three levels of attitude similarity and two induced affective states, elation and depression. Both main effects proved to be significant. Gouaux stated that these findings support the assumption that positive affect is associated with more positive interpersonal perceptions and negative affect is associated with negative interpersonal perceptions and evaluations. Byrne (1971) indicates that these studies are consistent with the formulation that environmental stimuli, that is, the affective

inducing procedures, exert a strong influence on attraction responses by changing or modifying internal affective stimuli within the S. Byrne further states that the internal stimulus situation of these S's mediates the environmental stimulus-attraction relationship. These particular implicit affective stimuli are considered to be more like momentary or transitory states than enduring dispositions or traits. Byrne reports that findings strongly suggest that state or momentary affects are more powerful determinants of the interpersonal attraction responses than supposedly stable or trait affects. According to Byrne these findings are consistent with Mischel's (1968) evaluation of trait oriented psychometric assessments, which is namely that they fail to consider adequately the influence of situational stimuli on the individual.

Byrne and Rhamey (1965) in an extended version of the law of attraction indicated that attraction is related to the weighted proportion of positive reinforcement associated with a person. Support for this position comes from experiments performed by Byrne and Nelson, (1964, 1969) and Clore and Baldrige (1968), in which issues associated with a given stranger were all taken from the same level of the topic variable, so that the issues on which the stimulus person agreed were as interesting or important as those on which he disagreed. "Under these conditions no topic effect was found" (Clore and Baldrige, 1968, p. 345). However, when agreements and disagreements were differentially weighted, interest level emerged as a potent variable affecting the agreement attraction relationship. According to the Byrne and Rhamey (1965) formula, when positive and negative reinforce-

ments received from a stranger are both weighted the same, the weights cancel out and no topic effect is predicted. When the positive and negative stimuli are weighted differentially, the weighted proportion of positive reinforcements differ from the unweighted proportion, a topic effect is predicted (Clore and Baldridge, 1968). Banikiotes and Banikiotes (1971) found support for the Clore and Baldridge (1968) position that when topic importance is held constant S's react on the basis of proportion of item agreements. These authors indicate that this confirms much previous work indicating that individuals like others who are similar to themselves. They also state that as hypothesized, the effect of topic importance on interpersonal attraction was more complex. They found that the S reacted in a more extreme way to the hypothetical stranger depicted by the attitude scale composed of important-item content. Banikiotes and Banikiotes found that the hypothetical individual who agreed on the important items was liked significantly better than the one who agreed on the same proportion of unimportant ones. They also found that the hypothetical individual who disagreed on the important items was disliked significantly more than the one who disagreed on the same proportion of unimportant ones. Gormly, Gormly and Johnson (1971) in evaluating the findings of their study state that the prediction that the potency of the topic would affect attraction was supported using both the traditional measure of attraction and the behavioral-evaluative measure devised for the present study.

Interpersonal reward of any type engenders positive affect which is directed toward the rewarding person; punishment has the effect

of generating negative affect which is directed toward the punishing person (Byrne, 1962). Dustin and Alfonsain (1971) found the expected similarity-liking relationship for a random sample of information drawn from two family autobiographies. Baron (1971) found that significantly more S's complied with the requests of a like than with those of a disliked other, but only under conditions where the magnitude of these appeals was relatively great. Hewitt (1969, 1971) has found that favorable evaluations produce more attraction than unfavorable evaluations. He also stated that the specific content of the evaluation was relatively unimportant when the evaluation was favorable, but was to be considered a relevant variable when the evaluation was unfavorable. His results were generally consistent with the reward theory. In the reinforcement model a person is conceptualized as a discriminative stimulus to which evaluative responses can be made (Lott and Lott, 1960). Byrne has stated (Byrne, 1962; Byrne and Clore, 1971) that the evaluation of a person is the function of positive reinforcement associated with the individual. According to Byrne, et al. positive and negative reinforcers are assumed to serve as unconditioned stimuli for implicit affective responses. Byrne (in press) has hypothesized that any stimulus which elicits an affective response can determine evaluative responses toward other stimuli through association with them. "Any discriminable stimulus associated with these reinforcers become a conditioned stimulus for the affective responses (Byrne and Griffitt, 1969, p. 180)." This phenomenon has been substantiated in research performed by Lott and Lott (1968) who demonstrated that a person will develop a positive attitude toward another person if he is

rewarded in the presence of this other person; and by Staats and Staats (Staats, 1968) who demonstrated that attitude responses could be conditioned to words. According to the analysis of Staats and his associates a word paired with a positive reinforcing stimulus should become a CS to elicit the same responses as the stimulus, be rated as having positive evaluative meaning, and also come to serve as a conditioned reinforcer. Conversely, a word paired with a negative reinforcing stimulus should acquire analogous functions of a "negative sort" (Finley and Staats, 1967). A GSR was conditioned to the word large as it was presented in a list of words to the S's using shock and noise as UCS. It was found that negative evaluation meaning was conditioned to "large." These results support the theory that word meaning consists of responses which are classically conditioned to a word through systematically pairing it with certain aspects of the environment (Staats, Staats and Heard, 1962). In experiments performed by Finley and Staats (1967) words of positive evaluative meaning served as positive reinforcers or punishments, and neutral words were shown to have no reinforcing function. Byrne et al. have shown that similar and dissimilar attitudes can condition affect to a discriminable stimulus, regardless of whether the stimulus is human or nonhuman (Byrne and Sachs, 1970). Griffitt and Guay (1969) ran a study in which when S's were given high ratings on creativity 75% of the time, they liked the experimenter, the apparatus and the neutral bystander better than when they were given ratings on creativity 25% of the time. In the reinforcement model implicit affective responses serve as mediators for any subsequent evaluative responses such as attraction (Byrne and Griffitt, 1969).

Byrne (in press) has indicated that in the classical conditioning model of attraction the implicit affect response may be treated in a strictly formal sense or as an intervening variable which is ultimately reducible to the stimuli which elicit it and the responses which it mediates. An attitude is viewed as an implicit response which is evoked by a variety of stimulus patterns, presumably acquired, and predisposes a person toward an evaluative response (Doob, 1947; Osgood, Suci and Tannenbaum, 1957). Lott and Lott (1968) have accepted Doob's (1947) definition of a positive attitude as an anticipatory goal response having both cue and drive properties and state that $r_g - s_g$ provides a theoretical bridge between S-R learning theory and an understanding of the social phenomenon of liking. "... learning to like a particular stimulus person is essentially learning to anticipate reward when the person is present... p. 68)." Griffitt (1968) has stated that although the nature of the hypothetical affective response has not been identified, it appears that a direct manipulation of anticipation of positive or negative reinforcement associated with a stranger does affect attraction toward a stranger. Griffitt (1968) showed that attraction responses are more positive to an individual from whom positive reinforcement is anticipated than from whom negative reinforcement is anticipated. In a later study (Griffitt, 1969) it was demonstrated that attraction is a positive function of the proportion of similar attitudes expressed by a stranger and that the anticipated positiveness of a pending interaction with the stranger is a positive function of the proportion of similar attitudes expressed by the stranger.

In an attempt to test the generality of the similarity at-

traction relationship Byrne et al. have extended the research to a variety of different populations and age groups (Byrne, 1969; Gaynor, 1971; Gaynor, Lamberth and McCullers). On viewing the results of these experiments it appears as if the empirical law relating attitude similarity to attraction has quite an impressive generality across extremely subpopulations. Baskett in a study presented his S's with completed IJS's and asked them to fill an attitude survey in a manner which would have caused them to rate the stranger in that manner. The results differ somewhat from those obtained when attitude similarity is manipulated but did show a linear relationship between attraction and attitudinal similarity. As the ratings on the completed IJS increased in favorableness, Baskett found that the more similar the stranger was to themselves. In studies of attraction among children the manipulation of reinforcement has been found to bring about the predicted additudinal or preferential responses toward puzzles, colors, toys, nonsense syllables, sociopolitical slogans, unfamiliar items of information, and proper nouns (Byrne and Clore, 1971; Lott and Lott, 1968; Nunally and Faio, 1968). It has also been demonstrated that positive and negative reinforcements affect attraction in the same manner as among adults (Byrne and Griffitt, 1966).

Statement of Problem: Recent developments in counseling and psychotherapy have made use of models from communication theory and cybernetics (e.g., Haley, 1963; Kaiser, 1965; Laing, 1969; Mullan and Sangiuliano, 1964; Satir, 1964; Shepherd and Fagan, 1970; Stephens, 1970; Watzlawick, Bevin and Jackson, 1967). The so called sick individual or identified patient is viewed by many as no longer being the resident

of a disease, but as having been subjected to faulty environmental patterns which explain his "bizzare behavior." (e.g., Barnes and Berke, 1971; Bandura, 1969; Cooper, 1967; Laing, 1969; Laing and Esterson, 1964; Ullman and Krasner, 1965). The significant client for therapy may infact not be the identified patient, but may be the family system itself or the parents who might be destroying their children (Bateson, Jackson, Haley and Weakland, 1956; Laing, 1967, 1971; Searles, 1959; Silberman and Blackham). "The family in recent years has become the unit of treatment concern. p. 220." (Mullan and Sangiuliano, 1964). The frame of reference has also shifted in psychotherapy away from a purely patient oriented approach to one in which both individuals in the therapeutic process and their transactions are taken into account (Haley, 1963; Mullan and Sangiuliano, 1964; Watzlawick, Beavin and Jackson, 1967). Therapists who have held to a patient oriented approach have been accused of further carrying on the dehumanization and destruction of their clients and have helped to perpetuate the identified patient role (Bandura, 1969; Cooper, 1967; Laing, 1969b, 1971; Siegler, Osmond, and Mann, 1971). As a result of this new shift in emphasis therapist has become more important than a blank slate affecting his clients. Research has been conducted to determine how particular therapist characteristics affect therapeutic outcome (Bergin, 1964; Hart and Tomlinson, 1970). In this light, the values and attitudes of therapists and their clients have come under consideration in terms of the ways they are involved in and effect the therapeutic process. In client centered therapy for example (Rogers, 1964) Rogers appears to consider the fundamental ways in which the individual values his

experience to be crucial to constructive psychotherapeutic change (Patterson, 1966) and implicitly values self actualization. Tomilson and Whitney (1970) indicate that neither a therapist nor clients make a functional distinction between values and goals. Thus when a therapist speaks of therapeutic goals he is at the same time speaking of his values, and these values determine the direction and the results he seeks. "Approved outcomes are so deeply rooted in the therapist's value system that no criterion of improvement which fails to consider his philosophy of living will be satisfactory." The ethical and social nature of the therapeutic process (Bandura, 1969; Szasz, 1963; Silberman and Blackham, 1971) appears to exist despite the attempts of therapists to differentiate moral from therapeutic interventions (London, 1964; Wolpe, 1969). Therapy has been defined as a process of influence (Haley, 1963) and of social indoctrination (Bandura, 1969) where the individual might be considered cured if he adapts the appropriate response modes, the maneuvers, or correct labels which are chosen by his therapist (Goldstein, 1971; Pepinsky and Karst, 1964). Thorne has indicated that it is the task of the counselor to be a teacher of values (Patterson, 1966). Bandura suggests the possible matching of therapists on the basis of similar moral commitment. Even if he wanted to Chessick indicates (1969) that it would be impossible for a therapist to hide his values from his clients. Along these lines Bandura (1969) has pointed out that therapists of a nondirective orientation selectively reinforce those responses they wish to obtain from their clients. The more like the therapist the more likely the client is to be seen as mentally healthy and as positively benefiting

from therapy. Goldstein (1971) indicates that psychotherapeutic theory is overwhelmingly in accord with the fact that the therapist patient relationship is viewed as a major active therapeutic ingredient. He states that consistent with the desire to more adequately define "relationship" he has turned to the literature on interpersonal attraction. He indicates that in both the laboratory and field settings social psychologists have devoted a great deal of attention to the effects of attitude similarity on interpersonal attraction. He indicates that Byrne and his associates have obtained positive results when subjects were tested from Job Corps trainees, or hospitalized surgical, alcoholic, or schizophrenic patients. Goldstein conducted an attitudinal similarity study at the Vocational Counseling Center where clients were randomly assigned to three experimental conditions. Such conditions being defined in terms of proportional percent attitude agreement between client and counselor. After being given an opinion questionnaire and waiting a short time for the intake worker to score it, a message was communicated to the client as to how much agreement there was between counselor and client. The client was asked to complete a personal reaction scale. Results of this study were insignificant as were results in a subsequent study which sought to widen the spread between the similar and dissimilar manipulations. Goldstein et al. (1971) performed a study to ascertain both the separate and combined effects on attraction of attitude similarity and topic importance. The study was conducted with prison inmates serving sentences for public intoxication. The inmates were asked to listen to a tape recording of a psychotherapeutic session. Before doing so, every subject was given a

copy of an attitude scale purportedly completed by the therapist on the tape. "Analysis of variance performed on the attraction and willingness to meet scores failed to support the predicted main effect for attitude similarity or the predicted similarity-importance interaction effect. p. 134" (Goldstein, 1971). The present research is also concerned with the effect of client therapist similarity and is being conducted within the Byrne reinforcement paradigm, making use of a hypothetical therapist as the stimulus object.

Method: The setting for the study was the University of Oklahoma Counseling Center. Subjects will be college students drawn from introductory psychology sections. The procedure will be a modified version of the standard format utilized with students conducted within the attraction paradigm. These students will be given the following instructions: "Imagine that you are a student who is engaged in obtaining help at a university counseling center.... (Pause to let them imagine). Have you imagined yet?" This is an opinion inventory which we have all of our clients fill out. It helps us see if the amount of opinion similarity between a client and his counselor effects the counseling that goes on between them." p. 128 (Goldstein, 1971). Clients are given a survey of attitudes made use of by Byrne et al. (Table one). After the survey is completed the subjects are asked to wait one moment and during this time the surveys of attitudes of two hypothetical counselors are faked, one agreeing with only three of the individual's attitudes and the other disagreeing with only three out of the fifteen selected. Half of the individuals are presented with the "disagreeing" stranger-therapist, while the other half get the agreeing stranger first.

Subjects are then asked to list their preference of which therapist they would prefer.

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APPENDIX II

TABLES

TABLE I

SUMMARY OF THE TWO WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR QUESTION I:
"IF I WANTED TO OBTAIN THERAPEUTIC ASSISTANCE"

	df	MS	F	P
Attitudes	1	.781	.6055	.5510
Description	1	1.531	1.1869	.2852
AB	1	9.031	7.0000	.0127
Within	28	1.290		
Total	31	1.531		

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF THE TWO-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR QUESTION II:
 "I FEEL I WOULD LIKE (NOT LIKE) THIS INDIVIDUAL"

	df	MS	F	P
Attitudes	1	3.781	4.2995	.0449
Description	1	.281	.3198	.5827
AB	1	1.531	1.7411	.1950
Within	28	.879		
Total	31	.975		

TABLE III

SUMMARY OF THE TWO-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR QUESTION III:
 "I FEEL THAT THIS INDIVIDUAL IS (IS NOT) AN EFFECTIVE THERAPIST"

	df	MS	F	P
Attitudes	1	13.781	7.8951	.0088
Description	1	.0781	.4476	.5157
AB	1	5.281	3.0356	.0895
Within	28	1.746		
Total	31	2.217		

TABLE IV
SUMMARY OF THE TWO-WAY ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE FOR THE COMPOSITE

	df	MS	F	P
Attitudes	1	13.781	7.895	.0088
Description	1	.0781	.4476	.5157
AB	1	5.281	3.0256	.0895
Within	28	1.746		
Total	31	2.217		

APPENDIX III

SCALES AND DESCRIPTIONS

Consent Form

It is my understanding, and I agree, that the experimental session in which I participate may be used for the gathering of data for research purposes only. I understand that the fact of my participation will be held confidential to protect my rights of privacy.

I agree to hold the experimenter free of and harmless from and against any claims, or suits of any kind based upon or resulting or claimed to result from this experimental session, it being understood that everything possible will be done, consistent with the purposes of this consent, to protect my privacy in the use of the experimental data.

Date _____

Subject _____

Witness:

Opinion Scale

Name _____

1. Poetry (check one)

- _____ I like reading poems very much.
_____ I like reading poems.
_____ I sort of like reading poems.
_____ I sort of dislike reading poems.
_____ I dislike reading poems.
_____ I dislike reading poems very much.

2. Intelligence (check one)

- _____ I think that males are very much smarter than females.
_____ I think that males are smarter than females.
_____ I think that males are a little smarter than females..
_____ I think that females are a little smarter than males.
_____ I think that females are smarter than males.
_____ I think that females are very much smarter than males.

3. Sports (check one)

- _____ I dislike sports very much.
_____ I dislike sports.
_____ I dislike sports a little.
_____ I enjoy sports a little.
_____ I enjoy sports.
_____ I enjoy sports very much.

4. Racial Integration (check one)

- _____ I am in favor of racial integration of public schools a lot.
- _____ I am in favor of racial integration of public schools inbetween
a lot and a little.
- _____ I am in favor of racial integration of public schools a little.
- _____ I am not in favor of racial integration of public schools a little.
- _____ I am not in favor of racial integration of public schools in
between a lot and a little.
- _____ I am not in favor of racial integration of public schools a lot.

5. Birth Control Techniques (check one)

- _____ I am in favor of birth control techniques a lot.
- _____ I am in favor of birth control techniques in between a lot and a
little.
- _____ I am in favor of birth control techniques a little.
- _____ I am not in favor of birth control techniques a little.
- _____ I am not in favor of birth control techniques in between a lot and
a little.
- _____ I am not in favor of birth control techniques a lot.

6. College Student Drinking (check one)

- _____ I am in favor of college student drinking a lot.
- _____ I am in favor of college student drinking in between a lot and a little.
- _____ I am in favor of college student drinking a little.
- _____ I am not in favor of college student drinking a little.
- _____ I am not in favor of college student drinking in between a lot
and a little.
- _____ I am not in favor of college student drinking a lot.

7. American Way (check one)

_____ I strongly believe that the American way of life is not the best.

_____ I believe that the American way of life is not the best.

_____ I feel that perhaps the American way of life is not the best.

_____ I feel that perhaps the American way of life is the best.

_____ I believe that the American way of life is the best.

_____ I strongly believe that the American way of life is the best.

8. Acting on Impulse vs. Careful Consideration of Alternatives (check one)

_____ I feel that it is better if people always act on impulse.

_____ I feel that it is better if people usually act on impulse.

_____ I feel that it is better if people often act on impulse.

_____ I feel that it is better if people often engage in a careful
consideration of alternatives.

_____ I feel that it is better if people usually engage in a careful
consideration of alternatives.

_____ I feel that it is better if people always engage in a careful
consideration of alternatives.

Therapist

I. If I wanted to obtain therapeutic assistance . . . (check one)

_____ I would like being this individual's client a lot.

_____ I would like being this individual's client in between a lot
and a little.

_____ I would like being this individual's client a little.

_____ I would dislike being this individual's client a little.

_____ I would dislike being this individual's client in between a lot
and a little.

_____ I would dislike being this individual's client a lot.

II.

_____ I feel I would like this individual a lot.

_____ I feel I would like this individual in between a lot and a little.

_____ I feel I would like this individual a little.

_____ I feel I would dislike this individual a little.

_____ I feel I would dislike this individual in between a lot and a little.

_____ I feel I would dislike this individual a lot.

III.

_____ I feel very strongly that this individual is an effective therapist.

_____ I feel strongly that this individual is an effective therapist.

_____ I feel that this individual is an effective therapist.

_____ I feel that this individual is not an effective therapist.

_____ I feel strongly that this individual is not an effective therapist.

_____ I feel very strongly that this individual is not an effective
therapist.

Table IV Description

This individual has been classified as self actualizing. He tends to see the world from an OK position. He often experiences, recognizes, owns or experiences his feelings. He tends to see things in terms of the present. His experiences are constructed in flexible ways. They are subject to modification by external events. This person is remarkably free from anxiety, thinks very clearly, and is adept at forming relationships with others.

Table V Description

This individual has been classified as a non-actualizing person. He tends to see the world from a Not-OK position. He does not often experience, recognize, own, or experience his feelings. He tends to see things in terms of the past. His experiences are constructed in rigid ways. They are not subject to modification by external events. This person experiences a great deal of anxiety, does not think very clearly, and is not adept at forming relationships with others.

APPENDIX IV

TRANSCRIPT OF THERAPIST CLIENT INTERACTION

CLIENT: And she said. Well. Ah. She said later that she didn't like a guy to do that anyway. She said that she had thoughts sometimes that she had done the wrong thing, because it hadn't been what I had needed. I said, Well it didn't help me. I said, "It's not your fault because you were just being yourself all along. You're one person. Consider yourself." I had been mentally talking to her the whole week long. The one thing I had been telling her was that, "JoAnna there's no way you could hurt me," because I'd already hurt myself. "There's nothing you could do to hurt me, because you are just not that kind of girl who would ever hurt a guy." I said, "I'm not playing with friends. This is my own problem. It happened to come up on us." And that's really true. "I don't think it was . . . you." Maybe it would have helped if she was aggressive, but it might not have made a difference anyway.

THERAPIST: Talk about the aggression in girls that you kind of feel you need. Amplify that, . . .

CLIENT: Well, see it's reassurance. Yeah, I like to know they want me physically.

I don't know how it affected me. My mother was always very cold to my father, . . . And I always had the impression. In Church. We were told in church too, about the seventh or eighth grade, that the girl has to draw the line. The guy doesn't know how, so the girl has to do it. So I got this impression that the girl would be . . . , the girl would be unresponsive and cold.

THERAPIST: Yes. Your mother reinforced that?

CLIENT: Yes. She never cuddled us kids at all. And I never put my arm around my mother since memory.

THERAPIST: Did you want to?

CLIENT: I can't remember. Well, I can remember feeling apprehension, wondering if this was what I should do. When I was at an age when I was going to college, working on my B.A. Now I don't think about it. I just go out. Back then it was not so use to me going. I would go. I couldn't bring myself . . . You see I can't remember being kissed by or kissing my mother, or holding her or being held by her. Ah, I'm sure I had to have been, but it was all back in those times when I was too little to remember. Because, and like I said, my father . . .

THERAPIST: Hang on to that, . . . That leaving for your B.A. and not knowing how to respond to your mother. What was kind of going through your mind?

CLIENT: Well, it was like, if I was to play the role of the average person, in the average family, you kissed her on the cheek. Cause, I'd seen this with some of my cousins, friends, other kids, and I couldn't play that role cause it was just like a barrier.

THERAPIST: It was a role!

CLIENT: Between us, it was. I was too confined too. I was too restrained completely to do that, and I couldn't play the role.

THERAPIST: Because your feelings were where? I mean how did you really feel about it? Your saying that it was a role and it may be an accepted thing to do, but I'm wondering how you were feeling?

CLIENT: Well, it was like I did not want to do it.