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The Proxemic Behaviour of Clients in Relation to Their Perception of the Therapeutic Relationship and Introversion-Extraversion

by G. Alan Rendle

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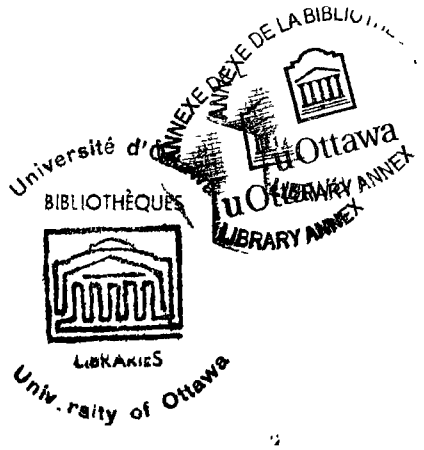

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Curriculum Studiorum

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Introduction

Psychologists have long considered non-verbal behaviour during interpersonal interaction to be a significant variable in communication. It has not been until quite recently, however, that this has been considered as a distinct area worthy of research in its own right. Most of the empirical studies which have attempted to investigate non-verbal behaviour are fairly recent in origin and are far fewer in number than those which have dealt with verbal behaviour. Consequently, there still remains a need for many more studies in this area before any specific conclusions can be reached as to the exact impact or importance of non-verbal behaviour in interpersonal communication.

The research to date in this area has investigated many different aspects of non-verbal behaviour. One of the directions, that the research in this area has taken has been to investigate the manner in which animals and humans regulate or structure their spatial environment. Most of the studies dealing with this topic have attempted to investigate the spatial distances that people prefer to maintain between each other while interacting under a variety of circumstances and conditions. More recently the research on this topic has attempted to study the manner in which people utilize or structure the spatial features of their environment. In the case of dyadic interaction the spatial features which have been primarily investigated are the arrangement of two chairs and a desk or more specifically the preferences for different types of seating positions that dyads of subjects exhibit while interacting in a variety of settings.

The research on spatial distances between people and preferred seating positions has shown that these two variables can have a very important and significant effect on the nature and type of communication that takes place. Most of the studies which have investigated these two variables, however, have dealt with different types of social settings. As yet there would appear to have been little attempt to examine the function of these two variables within the context of a counselling setting. Consequently, it will be the purpose of this thesis to empirically investigate the function of these two variables as they relate to client-counsellor interaction in a counselling setting.

The first chapter of this thesis presents a review of the literature. The review of the literature begins with a brief section which attempts to explain and clarify some of the terminology which is used in the literature to refer to the spatial environment surrounding people or the structuring of this space. The chapter ends with a statement of the predictive hypotheses.

The second chapter describes the actual procedure. It presents the full details of the experiment including the statistical procedures used to analyze the data.

The third chapter presents the statistical results of the experiment and the final chapter discusses their significance.

CHAPTER I

Review of the Literature

The studies which have investigated the manner in which animals or humans regulate their spatial environment have used a broad variety of terms to refer to this "space". For example, Burkhard (1944) used the term individual distance to refer to the distance that animals maintain between one another. With respect to humans examples include such terms as body buffer zone (Horowitz, Duff, and Stratton, 1964; Kinzel, 1970), personal space (Little, 1965; Sommer, 1959), dynamic space (Hall, 1963a), and interpersonal interaction distance (Haase and Dimattia, 1969).

All of the previous terms are virtually synonymous. Basically they refer to the space that surrounds animals or humans which is protected from intrusion. There is an additional term, however, often used in the literature which is broader in meaning. This is the term proxemics which was first coined by Hall (1963). He defined proxemics as "the study of how man unconsciously structures microspace - the distance between man in the conduct of day to day transactions, the organization of space in his houses and buildings, and ultimately the layout of his towns" (p. 109). Stated briefly proxemics may be said to refer to the way in which man organizes his spatial environment.

In this thesis, attempts will be made to investigate not only the distances that individuals prefer to maintain between themselves and others in a counselling setting, but also the way in which they structure their spatial environment with respect to preferred seating positions in a client-counsellor

dyad. Because the term proxemics refers to the way in which man organizes his spatial environment both with respect to the distances between individuals and their spatial surroundings, it shall be used for the purpose of this thesis. In order to be consistent and avoid confusion, it shall also be used to refer to the organization of space by animals although it would appear to be defined by Hall to refer only to this type of behaviour among humans.

It will now be the purpose of this chapter to review the literature on proxemics. The first part of this review will deal briefly with proxemic behaviour among animals and cultural differences in proxemic behaviour. Although these two areas are not directly related to the research in this thesis, brief mention will be made of them in order to give the reader a more comprehensive understanding of the background and type of research that has been done on proxemic behaviour. The second part of this review will deal with proxemic behaviour and interpersonal distances, proxemic behaviour and the relationship between the individuals, proxemic behaviour and personality correlates, and proxemic seating arrangements. These areas will be dealt with more extensively as they are more directly related to those examined in this thesis. Finally this review will end with a summary and a statement of the theoretical hypotheses tested in the present study.

Proxemic Behaviour Among Animals

In this section the writer wishes to briefly review some of the major findings from the research on proxemic behaviour among animals.

The earliest studies in the area of proxemics would appear to have been done almost exclusively with animals. The attributes of proxemic behaviour among animals has probably been best described in a series of studies by Hediger (1950, 1955, 1961). Among other things, he distinguishes between flight distance, social distance, the average distance that is maintained between animals of the same species, and the individual boundary that is kept in non-contact animals beyond which even fellow species members cannot approach without being attacked, bitten, kicked, butted, or otherwise rejected.

Other animal studies in this area have attempted to deal more specifically with the effects of crowding. Crowding involves a situation wherein the population density reaches such a point that appropriate individual distances can no longer be maintained. Probably the most extensive work to be done in this area has been that of Calhoun (1961, 1962). He found that crowding in a population of laboratory rats caused various types of pathological behaviour patterns to emerge. Among the female rats, he observed that many were unable to carry pregnancy to full term or to survive delivery of their litters. An even larger number of females fell short in their maternal functions after giving birth. Behavioural disturbances among the males ranged from sexual deviation, cannabalism, frantic overactivity, to pathological withdrawal.

The previous findings indicate that proxemic behaviour plays a major role in the animal world. It not only governs many of their interactions in some cases it even influences their ability to survive. For example, when the normal patterns of proxemic behaviour are interferred with, as in the case of

Calhoun's (1961, 1962) research, it results in the emergence of various types of pathological behaviour patterns which in many cases are detrimental to the survival of the species.

Care should be taken, however, in any attempt to generalize the previous findings on crowding with animals to humans. Freedman (1975) has concluded from the research on crowding in humans that with all other factors being equated there is little evidence crowding produces any kind of physical, mental, or social pathology. He suggests that the effects of high density population in humans is largely dependent on the particular set of circumstances found in the situation.

Cultural Differences in Proxemic Behaviour

It is the writer's purpose to review in this section some of the studies on cultural differences in proxemic behaviour.

One of the first authors to postulate the existence of cultural differences in proxemic behaviour was the anthropologist E.T. Hall. In addition to this, he is usually recognized as being one of the first to deal with proxemic behaviour in man. In a series of studies (1955, 1959, 1963a, 1963b, 1964), he not only postulated that marked cultural differences exist in the area, he also pointed out the various sensory cues used to judge distance, developed a classification schema on the meaning of various distances between individuals, and as was mentioned previously in this paper, coined the term "proxemics" to refer to the way in which man arranges his spatial environment.

Hall's observations generated a great deal of empirical research on proxemic behaviour in man. Some of this research was designed specifically to test Hall's hypothesis that proxemic behaviour differed according to culture.

The first published study to test empirically Hall's (1963) formulations concerning the existence of cultural difference in proxemic behaviour was that of Watson and Graves (1963). They compared the interaction of pairs of Arab students with pairs of American students on five of Hall's variables.

These five variables were: 1) socio-fugal socio-pital axis (angle formed by the axis of the interactants shoulders), 2) kinesthetic factors (closeness and potential for body contact), 3) touch code (amount and kind of touching), 4) visual code (amount and kind of visual interaction), 5) voice loudness scale (voice loudness measured in decibels). They found that there were substantial and distinct differences on all five of the variables between the Arab and American groups. The Arabs in every case were more intensely interactive.

In another cross-cultural study by Little (1968), attempts were made to examine the social interaction distances among five national groups. The five different groups were American, Swedish, Greek, Southern Italian, and Scot. The task consisted of arranging human figures according to 19 different structured social situations that were presented to the subjects in written form. The various social situations involved differences in degree of acquaintance and affective tone of communication, superior-subordinate and authority interactions, and intimate versus consultative interactions. Male doll figures were used for the male subjects and female doll figures were used for the female subjects.

Little found that there was considerable agreement among the groups as to the ordering of the distances between the doll figures for the different interactions. However, significant differences were found among nationalities as to the mean distance at which the various interactions were judged as taking place. The Mediterranean culture subjects demonstrated much closer interaction distances than the North European subjects. Sex differences were also found.

Female interactions of an intimate nature or those involving an unpleasant topic generally were judged as occurring at closer distances than male interactions in the same situation. On the other hand, interactions with authority figures or superiors were judged as occurring much further apart by the females than the males.

In a cross-cultural study by Sommer (1968), attempts were made to investigate whether or not spatial arrangements were indicative of psychological closeness in five different countries. American, English, Swedish, Dutch, and Pakistani subjects were presented with 37 table diagrams representing all possible permutations of dyadic seating at square, rectangular, and circular tables. They were asked to rate each seating arrangement in terms of intimacy and closeness according to a seven point scale. No differences were found between the American, English, and Swedish samples. However, the Dutch rated across the corner of a table seating arrangements as less intimate than the Americans, English or Swedish and the Pakistani subjects considered opposite seating to be more distant than all the other groups.

The previous studies would all appear to verify Hall's formulations concerning cultural differences in proxemic behaviour. They would also imply that proxemic behaviour in humans is basically a learned behaviour which may be influenced by various cultural factors. As yet, however, it would appear that more research needs to be performed in this area before any attempts can be made to specifically identify or isolate these cultural factors.

Proxemic Behaviour and Interpersonal Distances in Non-Counselling Settings

This section will review those studies which have investigated proxemic behaviour with respect to the regulation of interpersonal distances, or the spatial boundaries that individuals possess and attempt to maintain when interacting with others in non-counselling settings.

The earliest attempts to investigate proxemic behaviour with respect to interpersonal distances would appear to have been done, once again, by Hall. As was mentioned before in this paper, he developed a classification schema on the meaning of various distances between individuals (Hall, 1964). According to Hall's classification schema, the space surrounding individuals may be divided into intimate distance, personal distance, social distance, and public distance. Intimate distance is from 0-18 inches and it combines visual, olfactory, and thermal sensations to signal unmistakable involvement with another person. At this distance, there is usually visual distortion of the other person. Personal distance, 18 inches to 4 feet, is that distance that comfortably separates individuals. It may be likened to a small, protective sphere that the individual maintains between himself and others. Social distance, 4 feet - 12 feet, substantially reduces intimate involvement. At this distance, voice level remains normal but intimate visual detail in the face is not perceived. Public distance is any distance over 12 feet. There is often a raising of the voice over this distance and a still greater loss of visual detail.

One of the implications of Hall's norms is that an individual's personal space has certain prescribed boundaries, given a certain social situation. Consequently, one would expect that if a communicator attempts to violate these

boundaries, it will be regarded as very inappropriate by his addressee. A number of studies have demonstrated this to be the case.

For example, Garfinkel (1964) attempted to investigate the response to extreme intra-personal proxemity. In a class exercise, he instructed each of his students to select a friend or acquaintance and engage him in conversation. Then without indicating that anything unusual was happening to bring his face right up to the other person's face. This approach apparently motivated attributions of a sexual intent regardless of whether the pairs were of like or opposite sex. It lead to bewilderment, acute embarrassment, and avoidance reactions especially on the part of the males. Often the experimenters had difficulty restoring this situation even though they explained that it was just an experiment. Each subject then wanted to know why he, in particular, was chosen.

In another study of the same type, McBride, King and James (1965) attempted to measure galvanic skin response when experimenters of both sexes adopted differing spatio-proximal and distal positions with respect to subjects of both sexes. They found that the galvanic skin response was greatest when subjects were approached from the front while the side approach yielded a greater response than a rear approach. Galvanic skin responses at one and three feet did not differ significantly but galvanic skin responses at nine feet were significantly less than those at shorter distances. In addition to the affect of distance, they also found that the response to experimenters of the same sex was less than to experimenters of the opposite sex.

Felipe and Sommer (1966) studied the reaction to invasion of personal space in two different settings. In the first experiment, a male experimenter approached and sat down next to hospitalized male patients who were not engaged in any kind of specifically designed activity. The patients were out on the hospital grounds and attempts were made to keep the distance between experimenter and subject at approximately six inches. If the subject moved, the experimenter followed him. Each of the encounters lasted for about 20 minutes. A control group was also composed of the same type of subjects which the experimenter could see but did not approach. After only two minutes 36% of the experimental subjects moved while none of the controls did. After 20 minutes, almost two-thirds of the experimental subjects moved while only one-third of the controls did. The usual reaction of the experimental subjects was immediately to turn away from the experimenter, pull in their shoulders, and put their elbows at their sides.

In their second experiment, Felipe and Sommer repeated a similar procedure at tables in a library. This time, however the distances between experimenter and subject were varied. For each trial, the same female experimenter was used and the subject was always a female sitting alone. A control group was also observed as before but not approached. It was found that the closest distance of one foot produced significantly more flight reactions than any of the more distant positions. At the end of 30 minutes, 70% of the experimental group who were approached at a distance of one foot moved while only 13% of the controls did. Although there was little verbal response to the experimenters invasion, numerous other reactions were noted. Often the subject would turn aside or place something between herself and the experimenter. If this failed to reduce the tension, flight reactions occurred.

Fry and Willis (1971) reported one exception where the violation of anothers personal space boundaries did not result in a negative reaction. The subjects were 60 male and 60 female adults waiting in a queue at a movie theater. The "invaders" were children ages 5, 8, and 10 years old who were instructed to stand as closely as possible behind the subjects in the queue without actual contact for five minutes. The results revealed that the 5 year old invaders generally received a positive reaction. However, the 8 year olds were generally ignored while the 10 year olds received a very negative reaction similar to that which would be expected if it were an adult in the same situation.

In contrast to the previous studies where the experimenter violated the personal space boundaries of the subjects, Barefoot, Hoople, and McClay (1972) devised an experiment in which the subjects were forced to violate the personal space boundary of the experimenter. They questionned whether or not the novelty and uncertainty of the experimenter's motives in violating the subjects personal space boundaries might be a major factor contributing to the observed arousal and flight reactions. Thus their study was an attempt to investigate the reactions to spatial invasion in a natural setting where the operation of this type of uncertainty variable was minimized.

In their study, Barefoot, Hoople, and McClay (1972) had two male and two female experimenters seated at either 1 foot, 5 feet, or 10 feet from a water fountain in a public building. They found that male passersby were significantly less likely to stop for a drink when the experimenter was seated at 1

foot as opposed to 5 or 10 feet from the fountain. In other words the subjects tended to avoid a very natural act, such as drinking water from a fountain, when it required the violation of the personal space boundaries of another person.

The previous studies would all appear to verify the implications derived from Hall's observations, that the space surrounding an individual has certain prescribed boundaries which it is inappropriate for another person to violate. The only exception reported in the literature was in the case where the "invader" was a very young child.

When one considers the previous findings within the context of a counselling situation involving two adults they would also indicate that the distance between client and counsellor is an important variable to be considered. For example, if the client were to feel that his personal space boundaries were being violated by the counsellor, it could interfere with the counselling processes and possibly even success of counselling.

Proxemic Behaviour and Interpersonal Distances in Counselling Settings

In this section the author wishes to review those studies which have investigated proxemic behaviour with respect to the regulation of interpersonal distances in counselling settings. Since this is the specific setting under investigation in this paper it was decided to treat this as a separate section from the previous for purposes of clarity even though they both could be included under the general heading of Proxemic Behaviour and Interpersonal Distances.

There have been a number of studies which have attempted to investigate proxemic behaviour with respect to the regulation of interpersonal distances in a counselling situation. Basically they may be divided into two main groups; those which have attempted to examine client response and those which have attempted to examine counsellor response to different interaction distances in a counselling setting according to various specified conditions. They shall be dealt with according to the previous division.

One of the first studies to investigate client response to different interaction distances was that of Haase (1970). He attempted to examine the relationship between sex and instructional set to the regulation of interpersonal interaction distance by the client. The subjects consisted of 100 male and 100 female undergraduate and graduate college students. They were required to rate, in degrees of preference by means of a Semantic Differential Test, photographs of male and female models who were depicted as interacting at distances of 30, 50, 66, and 88 inches respectively. Half of the subjects were instructed to respond to the photographs as though they had come to a counselling center for assistance for some type of personal-psychological problem. The other half of the subjects were to respond to the photographs as if they had come to a counselling center with a more academically related problem. No significant differences in preference for distance were found between male and female or between those who received the personal and academic counselling set. However, significant differences were found with respect to the distances that the subjects perceived as being the most appropriate for a counselling setting. Inspection of the data revealed a linear trend of preference for interaction distances in

a counselling setting with the closest distance of 30 inches being preferred most, while the furthest distance of 88 inches was preferred least. The distance of 88 inches was also perceived by the subjects as being significantly different from all other positions. In addition the three closest distances of 30 inches, 39 inches and 50 inches were found to be significantly preferred by the subjects to the fourth distance of 66 inches.

Dinges and Oetting (1972), in a study very similar to that of Haase's (1970), investigated client interaction distance anxiety in a counselling setting. The subjects were male and female undergraduate students. The instrumentation was the same as that used in Haase's (1970) experiment. It consisted of photographs of a seated male and female model who were depicted as interacting at 30, 39, 50, 66, and 88 inches. All the subjects were instructed to respond to the photographs in terms of how anxious they would feel if they were in the picture. Interaction distance anxiety was measured by the Concept-Specific Anxiety Scale (Cole and Oetting, 1968). Half of the subjects were also asked to respond to the photographs as if they had come to a counselling center for help with a personal-psychological problem. An analysis of the results revealed that the female subjects responded with higher anxiety scores than the males, and that the personal counselling subjects responded with higher anxiety scores than no-set subjects. In addition to this, nearer (30 inches) and far (88 inches) distances were found to have received the highest anxiety scores with the intermediate distances being rated significantly lower. Other significant differences found were, the intermediate distances of 39, 50, and 66 inches were rated as being significantly different on anxiety from the distance of 30 inches, and the distances of 39 and 50 inches were significantly different on anxiety from the distance of 88 inches.

Lassen (1973) designed a study the purpose of which was to determine whether different interpersonal distances between patient and therapist would affect patient behaviour in an initial psychiatric interview. The initial interviews were conducted at 3, 6, and 9 feet by four different psychiatric residents. Each resident interviewed five patients at each one of the three different distances. The measures taken of each patient's behaviour were as follows: patient anxiety as measured by a speech disturbance ratio, content anxiety as determined by the amount of time the patient spent in discussing situations in which he described himself as being fearful or anxious, how clear the patient felt he had been in discussing his problem, how open the patient felt he had been, and whether the patient felt he had gotten his point across. An analysis of the results revealed that the findings fell into three main groupings: (1) patient anxiety as measured by the speech disturbance ratio increased with increased distance, (2) the patients reported that they did not get their point across as well and were more unclear at 9 feet as opposed to 3 or 6 feet, and (3) the patients talked more about their fears and anxieties and reported themselves as being more open at 6 feet than at 9 or 3 feet.

In a study by Haase and Tepper (1972), the counsellor rather than the client response was investigated with respect to interpersonal interaction distances in a counselling setting. They employed a sample of counsellors to assess the relative contribution of two different interaction distances and various other verbal and non-verbal behaviours to the level of empathy in a counselling session. In their study, 26 counsellors with an average of 1500 hours of counselling experience rated 48 different video-taped stimulus situations

between a counsellor and a client on a modification of the Truax-Carkhuff empathy scale. The different stimulus situations involved two levels of eye contact (eye contact versus no eye contact), two levels of trunk lean (forward-backward), two levels of body orientation (direct-rotated), two levels of distance (32-72 inches), and three levels of verbal empathy (high-low-medium). Significant effects were found for distance, eye contact, trunk lean, and verbal empathy. The results suggested that a close distance (36 inches), plus maintaining eye contact, a forward trunk lean, and medium and high rated verbal empathy all contributed independently to higher levels of judged empathy.

In another similar study such as the previous one where the counsellor rather than the client response was under inverstigation, Lecomte and Dumont (1973) examined the effects of different interaction distances and various intensities of lighting on the communication of empathy by counsellors. Eighteen counsellors in training on a master's degree program were required to conduct 20 minute interviews with 54 introductory psychology undergraduates. The counsellors were randomly assigned to three different levels of interpersonal distance - 30 inches, 50 inches, and 80 inches. Each of the counsellors conducted interviews under three different levels of lighting intensity - 1 foot candle, 32 foot candles, and 200 foot candles. Extracts were then taken from each third of the interviews and randomly presented to judges to rate according to Carkhuff's Scales of Communication Assessment. An analysis of the results revealed a significant interactive effect between interpersonal distance and lighting intensity, indicating that the communication of counsellor empathy was enhanced when interpersonal distance was medium (50 inches) and lighting intensity was minimal (1 foot candle).

When the findings from the previous studies which have dealt with counselling situations are compared, they not only demonstrated the interpersonal distances are an important variable to be considered in counselling, but they also reveal some fairly consistent results. First to be noted is that clients possess certain preferences with respect to the distance between themselves and their counsellors. According the Haase's (1970) study, the most preferred distances are those of 30, 39, and 50 inches. However, in Dinges and Oetting's (1972) study, the closest distance of 30 inches was associated with the highest anxiety level as was the furthest distance of 88 inches. The intermediate distance of 39 and 50 inches were rated the lowest in anxiety presumably making them the most appropriate for counselling purposes. With the exception of the closest distance of 30 inches both studies would indicate that clients prefer to interact with their counsellors at a distance somewhere between 39 and 50 inches.

The other studies which dealt with counsellor response to different interaction distances indicate that counsellors also perceive distances which are equivalent to those that clients prefer as being the best in a counselling setting. For example, in Haase and Tepper's (1972) study the closest distance of 36 inches, as opposed to 72 inches, was assessed by counsellors as contributing to a higher level of empathy. In Lecomte and Dumont's (1973) study, the communication of counsellor empathy was found to be enhanced when interpersonal distance was medium (50 inches) as opposed to 30 and 88 inches. These two distances of 36 and 50 inches are almost equivalent to the distances of 39 and 50 inches the clients prefer when interacting with a counsellor.

The only exception to the previous results was found in the case of Lassen's (1973) study which dealt specifically with an initial counselling session. He found that in addition to 36 inches a distance of 72 inches may be a good distance for interacting with a client in an initial interview situation. At both 36 and 72 inches as opposed to 9 feet the clients scored much lower on anxiety, reported that they got their point across much better, and felt they were much clearer in the presentation of their problem. On the other hand at 72 inches the patients also discussed more of their fears and anxieties and felt more open than at either 36 inches or 9 feet. Consequently it may be that in an initial interview situation a far distance of 72 inches may possess one added advantage of making the client feel more open and express more of his fears and anxieties. However, in the case of an ongoing counselling situation both clients and counsellors rate 72 inches as being too far. Rather they prefer a minimum distance of around 36 inches as in Lassen's (1973) study, but a maximum distance of only 50 inches.

In summary, it may be said that the previous studies which have attempted to investigate proxemic behaviour with respect to the regulation of interpersonal distances in a counselling setting reveal two important facts. First there appears to be an optimal distance between client and counsellor at which the client feels the most at ease and which contributes the most to the communication of counsellor empathy. Secondly, both client and counsellor generally perceive these distances as being in the range of 36 to 50 inches with the exception of an initial interview situation where a further distance of 72 inches may help the patient feel more open with respect to discussing his fears and anxieties.

However, the question still remains open as to what the particular variables are that can have an effect on the distances that individuals prefer to maintain between each other both in counselling and non-counselling settings. In the next two sections of this review research will be presented which has investigated a number of variables. Efforts will also be made to point out the need for additional research in this area and how attempts will be made to meet this need in the present study.

Proxemic Behaviour and the Relationship Between Individuals

One variable that can have a marked effect on the distances that individuals prefer to maintain between each other is the relationship that exists between them. It will be the purpose of this section to review those studies which have investigated this variable and the effect it has on proxemic behaviour with respect to the regulation of interpersonal distances.

The earliest studies in this area would appear to have been done by Kuethe. DeSoto and Kuethe (1958, 1959) first of all observed that subjects possess and use certain social schemas when asked about the relations existing between people. Kuethe regarded these schemata as sets of meanings about human relationships which the individual learns through social experience and which mediates his social behaviour. He also regarded these social schemas as response sets to the extent that they function to structure ambiguous situations involving humans or human figures depending upon the relationship that the individual perceives as existing between them.

Kuethe (1962a, 1962b, 1963, 1964) performed a number of studies in an attempt to investigate these social schemas. In each study, he used different types and combinations of figures cut from felt which the subjects were required to place on a felt board under varying circumstances and conditions. The different figures that he used were humans, animals, squares, circles, triangles, and rectangles. Kuethe found that the subjects tended to place the figures on the felt board in a highly organized and consistent pattern. For example, there was a tendency for the subjects to place a child nearer to a woman than to a man and to place a dog nearer to a man than to a woman. On the other hand, a cat was usually placed closer to a woman than a man. In the case of man and woman figures, it was found that they were usually placed closer together than two women or two men. When the subjects were given a choice of pairing human adult figures, male figures were usually placed with female rather than being paired with the same sex. There was also a basic social schema that people belong together. This was manifested in a strong tendency for the subjects to group human figures to a greater extent than non-human figures and to rarely place a non-human figure between two human figures. In the case where the subjects were required to view two figures at a certain distance apart, and then replace them at the same distance by memory, there was a tendency to place human figures closer together than rectangles. In addition to this, subjects who kept man and woman figures together in free placements made the largest number of errors when placing man-woman figure pairs by memory at certain distances. They usually placed them closer together than all other pairs of figures. They were also significantly more likely to give "man" and "woman" as reciprocal verbal associations on word association tests.

In another study, Little (1965) like Kuethe attempted to investigate, by means of various projective methods, the placement of human figures according to the relationships between them. Little specified the relationships between the figures, however, as being either very good friends, casual acquaintances, or strangers. In addition to this, he defined the setting as being in the interior of a living room, in an office, or on a street corner. Instead of a felt board, he used a line drawing and stylized silouettes. As an additional measure, the female subjects were required to arrange two actresses from the drama department in scenes similar to those used with the figures.

Little found that both the degree of acquaintance and the setting of the interaction as specified by the experimenter had a significant effect on the distances that the human figures and actresses were placed apart by the female subjects. For the male subjects, who only arranged the line drawings, the relationship or degree of acquaintance but not the setting was found to have a significant effect on the distances between the figures. The distances between the figures and the two actresses was the closest when they were labelled as friends, next when they were labelled as acquaintances, and the furthest apart when they were labbelled as strangers. With respect to setting, maximum distances tended to occur in an office waiting room and minimum distances on a street corner.

Rosenfeld (1965) attempted to determine the effect of differing relationships on interpersonal proximity by assigning female subjects to approval-seeking or approval-avoiding roles. In the approval-seeking condition, the female subjects were asked to go into a room, where a female confede-

rate of the experimenter was sitting and try to make friends with her. In the approval-avoiding condition, the confederate was presented as someone whom the subjects would not particularly want to be friendly with. Before they entered the room, both groups of subjects were handed a chair by the experimenter who explained that he had forgotten to put a second chair in the room. After three minutes, measurements were taken both of the angle and the distance between the chairs. Significant differences were found between the approval-seeking and the approval-avoiding subjects on the distance between the chairs but not on the angle of placement. The mean distance between the chairs in the approval-seeking condition was 57 inches as compared to 94 inches in the approval-avoiding condition.

In a study by Willis (1966), the initial speaking distance between two individuals was investigated as a function of the relationship between them. In this study, 40 experimenters were required to obtain 20 initial speaking distances each. They accomplished this by measuring the distance from nose to nose between themselves and 20 different people who engaged them in conversation. The measurements were taken at the moment the conversation began. The distances obtained were then related to the relationship between the subjects and the experimenters and to their sex, age, and race. It was found that the speakers tended to stand more closely to women than to men. On the other hand, women stood more closely to good friends, but compared to men, further from those they described as friends. Peers were found to stand closer than persons who were older than the listener, and strangers began conversations at distances greater than that of acquaintances. There was also some evidence that both Negros and whites tended to stand further away from Negros than Caucasians.

Lott and Sommer (1967) investigated the relationship between individuals with respect to how a subject would locate himself vis à vis a person of higher, lower, or equal status. In order to test this, they used three different questionnaires and one experimental study. The questionnaires were pencil and paper diagrams representing individuals of differing status seated around tables. The subject was required to locate his seating position at these tables. In the experimental study, the subject was required to enter a room and sit at a table containing a surrogate of higher, lower or equal status. The results showed that the subjects located themselves further from higher and lower status individuals than they did from their peers.

One month before the 1964 Presidential campaign, Little, Ulchala, Henderson (1968) attempted to examine the interaction distances between members according to their preference of either Goldwater or Johnson for president. Forty-eight male undergraduate college students were asked to arrange two black plexiglass figures according to three different patterns of presidential preference. The three different patterns of presidential preference were: 1) both Goldwater supporters, 2) both Johnson supporters and 3) one Goldwater and one Johnson supporter. In addition to this, the relationship between the plexiglass figures was designated as being either very good friends, casual acquaintances, or complete strangers. It was hypothesized that if members of the dyad shared similar beliefs, their interactions would take place at closer distances. When the distances between the figures was measured, significant differences were found in this respect both with regard to the presidential support factor and degree of acquaintance.

In a series of studies by Mehrabian (1968a, 1968b, 1969), attempts were made to explore the relationship between posture, orientation, and distance of the communicator to an addressee, to the attitude of the communicator to his addressee. The procedure in each experiment was almost identical. The subject was left alone in a room with a set of instructions which directed him to assume different positions toward disliked and liked male and female addressees whose presence in a given location he was asked to imagine. Three judges independently rated the subjects behaviour from an adjacent room through a one way mirror.

Mehrabian found in his experiments that distance was significantly related to attitude. For example, the results showed that the mean distance between the communicators and liked addressees was less than the mean distance to disliked addressees. Some sex differences were also found in that although female communicators stood closer to liked than disliked female addressees, the same relationship did not hold with respect to liked and disliked male addressees. In addition to this, the communicators stood closer to female than male addressees.

Byrne, Ervin, and Lamberth (1970) found a relationship between attitude similarity, attractiveness, and interpersonal distance. They selected 44 male/female pairs on the basis of maximal or minimal similarity of responses on a 50-item questionnaire of attitudes and personality. The pairs were then given feedback on their attitude and personality similarity or dissimilarity and asked to spend 30 minutes together on a coke date. Afterward they returned to the

experimenter for final instructions and the physical distance between the two subjects while standing in front of the experimenter's desk was noted. The subjects were also asked to rate each other on the Interpersonal Judgement Scale which measures attraction or the degree to which one person likes or dislikes another person. The results revealed that those who held similar attitudes rated each other significantly higher on attraction and stood significantly closer to each other after their coke date.

Heshka and Nelson (1972) investigated interpersonal distance as a function of the relationship between dyads of subjects in natural outdoor settings. They took photographs of 57 interacting dyads obtained in the streets, parks, and markets in the city of London, England. Distance was measured from nose to nose according to a known measurement standard in the photograph. After the photograph was taken each interacting pair was approached by the experimenter and asked to fill out a questionnaire. The relationship was established by having the subjects check boxes on the questionnaire marked "acquaintance", "good friend", "relative", or "stranger". The results revealed that for male/female and female/female dyads, strangers stood significantly further apart than acquaintances, good friends, or relatives. However in male/male dyads no significant results were found between distance and relationship.

At this point two studies which were reviewed in the previous section entitled Proxemic Behaviour and Interpersonal Distances in Counselling Settings will be reviewed in this section. The two studies are those of Haase and Tepper (1972) and Lecompte and Dumont (1973). The reason for including them in both sections is not only that they deal with interpersonal distance in a counselling setting, but also with interpersonal distances and empathy which is usually considered as an extremely important variable in the relationship which exists between client and counsellor.

Since both studies were reviewed in detail in the previous section only their main findings will be presented here with respect to level of empathy. In this regard, Haase and Tepper (1972) found that counsellors assessed a close distance of 36 inches between client and counsellor as contributing to a higher level of empathy than a far distance of 72 inches. Lecompte and Dumont (1973) found that the communication of counsellor empathy was enhanced when the distance between client and counsellor was 50 inches as opposed to 30 or 80 inches.

Allgeier and Byrne (1973) designed a study in an attempt to test the following two hypotheses: (1) that both males and females would place themselves closer to a liked than a disliked number of the opposite sex, and (2) that the arousal of negative affect would be inversely related to proximity. Attraction to an opposite sex stranger was manipulated by giving the subjects false attitude information feedback concerning their partner who was actually a confederate of the experimenter. Half of the subjects saw their partner as having attitudes similar to their own and the other half saw their partner as having attitudes dissimilar to their own. After receiving the false attitude information the subjects were asked to rate their partner on the Interpersonal Judgement Scale which measures the degree to which one person likes or dislikes another person. The subjects were then instructed to discuss two consumer products with their partner. Chairs were placed at 2 and 4 feet distances from the confederate and the chair the subject choose provided a measure of interpersonal distance. After the discussion was over the subjects filled out a Multiple Affect Adjective Check List.

All of the results were in the predicted direction. The manipulation of attraction was successful in that attraction toward an agreeing stranger was found to be significantly greater than attraction toward a disagreeing stranger according to the Interpersonal Judgement Scale. Both males and females were found to place themselves closer to a liked than a disliked partner (2 feet as opposed to 4 feet). The subjects who sat two feet away from their partner expressed less feelings of anxiety, hostility, and depression.

In a study by Scherer (1974) it was found that close physical proximity and high levels of eye-contact resulted in dyad members forming positive impressions of one another. The procedure consisted of having the first subject sit in a room with instructions to remain silent so as not to disturb another experiment in the adjoining room. After five minutes the second subject was brought into the room and given the same instructions. Chairs were arranged in the room at 3.5 and 8 feet distances from each other and at 0 and 60 degree orientations. After 10 minutes the subjects were required to fill out a questionnaire consisting of demographic items and items tapping the subjects impressions of one another. The subjects were found to rate each other most positively on the dimensions of interesting, likeable, friendly, and pleasant under the 60 degree, 3.5 feet (high eye-contact near) condition and the lowest on the same dimensions under the 0 degree, 8 feet (low eye-contact far) condition.

In conclusion, it is evident from the previous studies that one important factor which can have a profound influence on the distances that

individuals prefer to maintain between each other is the relationship which exists between them. The research that has investigated the effect of this variable in different types of social settings is considerable. However, there appears to be a distinct lack of research in this area with respect to counselling settings. Only two studies reviewed in this section were designed specifically to deal with counselling situations. These were the studies of Haase and Tepper (1972) and Lecompte and Dumont (1973) and both are very limited in scope. For example, their measurements of the relationship between client and counsellor was very limited in that it was assessed according to only one variable which was degree of empathy. According to Truax (1963), the research on patient-therapist interaction indicates that empathy is only one of a number of important factors which contribute towards an effective therapeutic relationship between client and counsellor.

The paucity of research which deals with counselling settings in this area is difficult to understand. There are many therapists who believe that the basis for a great deal of psychotherapeutic behaviour change is to be found in the interpersonal relationship which exists between client and counsellor. Rogers, who is well known for his famous client-centered therapy has written much concerning the type of relationship which must exist between client and counsellor in order for a therapeutic personality change to occur. According to Rogers (1957), a psychotherapeutic relationship is characterized by three different factors or attitudes which the counsellor must experience and communicate to his client. He called these three factors congruence or genuineness, positive regard or unconditional acceptance, and empathic understanding. The

importance of Roger's three conditions and the therapeutic relationship in leading to more or less effective psychotherapy has been well substantiated (Truax and Mitchell, 1971).

One would expect that because of the emphasis many therapists place upon the therapeutic relationship between client and counsellor there would be much research on the importance and impact of proxemic behaviour on this variable in counselling settings. However, this does not seem to be the case. Consequently it will be one of the purposes of this paper to investigate more thoroughly the functional relationship which exists between interpersonal distances and the therapeutic relationship between client and counsellor.

In addition, attempts will be made to extend the research in this area by investigating the functional relationship between another proxemic variable and the therapeutic relationship. This additional proxemic variable will be preferred seating position in a counselling setting. As yet there would appear to be no research which has examined the relationship between these two variables. The research which has been done on proxemic furniture arrangements will be presented in the last section of this review.

Proxemic Behaviour and Personality Correlates

In this section, those studies which have attempted to relate different types of personality variables to interpersonal distances will be reviewed. The personality variables that will be considered are: those which have been measured according to various psychological tests, and those wherein the subjects have been classified according to certain diagnostic categories.

In most cases, when attempts have been made to relate personality variables to certain behaviour indices, the results are usually less decisive than when the variable has been experimentally manipulated. The same would appear to be true of the research which has attempted to relate personality variables to interpersonal distances. However, there are indications from the research in this area that there is a relationship between the distances that individuals prefer to maintain between each other and certain personality variables.

For example, Leipold (1963) found differences in the distances that introverts and extraverts prefer to maintain between themselves and others. In his study, he noted the chair that subjects occupied vis à vis a seated decoy under anxiety and praise conditions. He also differentiated his subjects on the basis of introversion-extraversion. The results showed that there was greater closeness under the praise than the anxiety conditions, and extraverts placed themselves closer to the decoy than introverts.

Horowitz, Duff, and Stratton (1965), in a three part study, found differences in interpersonal distances between schizophrenics and non-schizophrenics. In the first part of their study 19 schizophrenic and 19 non-schizophrenic males were asked to approach frontally a male investigator and a hat-rack of semi-human proportions.

In the second part of their experiment 10 schizophrenic and 10 non-schizophrenic females were asked to approach, at random, a male, a female and a hat-rack. The hat-rack, in this case, was to be approached from 8 different perspectives of the subjects bodies: from the front, right-front, right, right-

back, back, left-back, left, and left-front. Measurements were then taken of the distances and areas involved. The results indicated that both the schizophrenic and non-schizophrenic subjects approached the inanimate objects more closely than persons. When the 8 approaches in the second experiment were graphed, however, the area of this zone was found to be greater in the schizophrenic group.

In the last part of their study, Horowitz, Duff, and Stratton (1965) asked 25 schizophrenic and 25 non-schizophrenic male subjects to draw a line surrounding three mimeographed views of the body (top, side, front). This line was to represent the distance that they preferred people to stay away from them in ordinary situations. The results showed that the schizophrenics drew oval forms of significantly greater area than the non-schizophrenics.

In an experiment by Luft (1966), which investigated the relationship between interpersonal distances and level of anxiety, 14 college students were instructed to sit in a room 7 - 9 feet apart from a standard stimulus experimenter without talking. The confrontations lasted for 15 minutes and were repeated on five different occasions. The personalities of the subjects were then differentiated with regard to high and low anxiety as measured by the Taylor Manifest Anxiety Scale. It was found that the high anxious subjects judged the distance between themselves and the experimenter as being significantly closer than the low anxious subjects, and closer than the actual physical distance.

Patterson and Holmes (1966) found differences in the distances that introverts and extraverts prefer to maintain between themselves and others that

were very similar to those of Leipold (1963). In their study, they attempted to examine the influence of introversion-extraversion on preferred physical distances in an interview situation. The physical distance measure was based on the seat that the female subjects chose in an interview situation with the male interviewer. The distances were found to be significantly related to scores on the M.P.I. Extraversion-Introversion Scale with the introverted subjects preferring the furthest distances.

Alltman and Haythorn (1967) studied the social activity and territorial behaviour of pairs of subjects isolated for 10 days, compared with matched controls. The members of each pair were also varied on dogmatism, need achievement, need affiliation, and need dominance according to a Greco-Latin Square Design. They found a general increase of territorial behaviour over time. In addition to this, they found that incompatibility on personality traits directly associated with interpersonal matters such as dominance and affiliation resulted in high territoriality. On the other hand, incompatibility on personality characteristics which were relevant to ideas and objects such as achievement and dogmatism did not result in strong territorial outcomes.

Dosey and Meisels (1969) in contrast to most of the studies that have attempted to relate personality variables to interpersonal distances found a lack of relationship between the personal space boundaries of their subjects and two personality variables they assessed by the Rorschach. They predicted that greater spatial distances would be used by highly anxious people and by people who perceive their body-image boundaries as weak or unstructured. They

assessed these two personality variables by presenting the Harrower Group Form of the Rorschach to 91 males and 91 females. The personal space boundaries of the subjects were measured by having them approach each other, take a seat close to or far from the experimenter, and trace one silouette in relation to another. An analysis of the results revealed no significant relationship between the two personality variables of anxiety and body-image boundary and the three measures of spatial distance.

Hartnett, Bailey, and Gibson (1970) found a relationship between high and low scores on heterosexuality and minimum distance preferences when interacting with the opposite sex. The subjects consisted of 32 males and 32 females. Degree of heterosexuality was measured by the heterosexuality scale from the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. It was found that subjects who scored high on heterosexuality approached and allowed themselves to be approached much closer by a member of the opposite sex than those subjects who scored low on this variable. However, only one of the results reached statistical significance. This was in the case of the male subjects who scored high on heterosexuality. They allowed a female experimenter of the opposite sex to approach them much closer than did males who scored low on heterosexuality.

Kinzel (1970) compared a group of eight violent with a group of six non-violent penitentiary inmates on what she termed their body buffer zones. Each subject was taken into a bare 20 foot x 20 foot room where he was told to stand in the center. The experimenter then approached each subject from eight different angles starting from a distance of eight feet. When the subject felt that the experimenter had approached "too close" he was instructed to say stop.

The area within the eight closest distances tolerated by each subject was signified as his body buffer zone. When the average body buffer zone of the violent group was compared to that of the non-violent group, it was found to be almost four times larger. In the violent group, the rear zones were also found to be much larger than the front zones while the opposite was true for the non-violent group.

Meisels and Canter (1970) in contrast to previous research found a surprising lack of significant results between interpersonal distance and the two personality variables of introversion-extraversion and Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory defined schizophrenic tendency. In the first part of their two part study 52 female subjects were administered an introversion-extraversion scale. In addition, half of the subjects were assigned an easy and the other half a difficult topic to discuss with a student-accomplice of the experimenter. Three chairs were placed at 3, 6, and 9 feet from the student-accomplice and the chair the subject chose provided a measure of interpersonal distance. The two hypotheses that the introverts and the subjects who were assigned a difficult topic to discuss would sit further away from the accomplice were not significant. Thus the results found in the two earlier studies of Leipold (1963) and Patterson and Holmes (1966) that introverts prefer greater distances between themselves and others in seated positions than extraverts were not supported.

In the second part of their study 96 female subjects completed the K, Sc, and Pt scales of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory. They were then required to interact with a student-accomplice under stress and non-

stress conditions. Ten chairs were arranged at 2 to 10 feet distances from the accomplice and the chair the subject chose provided the measure of interpersonal distance as in the first part of the study. No significant results were obtained concerning the second set of hypotheses which predicted that the subjects who scored high on the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory defined schizophrenic tendency and the subjects who were in the stress condition would sit further away from the confederate. These results differ from those found in the earlier study by Horowitz, Duff, and Stratton (1964) where it was discovered that hospitalized schizophrenics possess greater personal space boundaries than normals. However, the lack of significant results in this study may be due to the fact that Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory defined schizophrenic tendency is not necessarily the same as a diagnosis of schizophrenia in a hospital.

Meisels and Dosey (1971) investigated the relationship between personal space and defensiveness associated with the expression of anger. They assessed each subject's defensiveness against anger expression by means of the TAT and Word Association Test. Half of the subjects were then assigned to an anger condition and the other half to a control group. In the anger condition the subjects were insulted by the experimenter in an attempt to arouse anger. Half of the subjects in the anger condition were then asked to walk slowly toward the experimenter and stop when they reached him (instructions A). The other half of the subjects were asked to walk slowly toward the experimenter and stop when they reached a confortable distance (instructions B). The control

group also received the same set of instructions. Personal space was measured from toe to toe after each subject stopped. No significant results were found between the anger and control subjects under instruction B. However, under instructions A in the anger condition it was found that the subjects who were anxious about hostility expression used more space than the subjects who did not defend against hostility expression. In addition, it was found that the subjects who did not defend against hostility expression in the anger condition approached the experimenter much closer than the subjects in the control group. The results indicated that the subjects in the anger condition who were not afraid to express their hostility counterattacked by actually invading the personal space boundaries of the experimenter.

In another study on introversion-extraversion and distance Williams (1971) did not find, as in the case of Leipold (1963) and Patterson and Holmes (1966) that introverts interacted at significantly greater distances from others than extraverts in a test situation. Williams did find, however, that introverts consistently indicated they could not comfortably allow people to get as close to them as extraverts according to various questionnaires.

Williams (1971) study consisted of three phases. In the first phase 20 introverts and 20 extraverts were instructed to carry a chair into a room and engage a seated decoy who was already in the room in a conversation. Two different discussion topics were used to promote interaction and two different male decoys were used as experimental assistants. Half of the subjects discussed one topic and the other half the other topic. An analysis of the results revealed that the three variables of decoy, topic, and personality did not significantly affect distance.

In the second part of the experiment the subjects were required to complete three questionnaires. The questionnaires dealt with the distance preference of the subjects with respect to the minimum, maximum, and optimum distance for comfortable conversation, the feeling states of the subjects when others approached too closely, and the location preferences of the subjects in crowded situations such as on a beach or at a party. Significant differences were found between the introverts and extraverts on the minimum distance for comfortable conversation with the introverts preferring greater minimal distances than the extraverts. The introverts were also found to choose the word "self-conscious" when people stood too closely while the extraverts choose "irritated".

In the third phase of the experiment the subjects were required to stop the experimenter three times as he approached and backed away from them according to their preferences for the minimum, maximum, and optimum distances for comfortable conversation. No significant results were obtained. However, the results were very close to the .05 level of significance for the minimum distance with the introverts preferring a greater minimum distance than the extraverts.

Booraem and Flowers (1972) reported that a change in assertiveness resulted in a change of personal space boundaries. Their subjects were 14 psychiatric inpatients who were all diagnosed as being psychotic. They were chosen by the ward psychiatrist on the basis that they would all benefit from being less passive.

All of the subjects personal space boundaries were first of all measured by having an experimenter approach them from eight different directions. When

the experimenter had approached close enough for a comfortable distance the subjects told him to stop. After this the subjects were given an anxiety questionnaire and randomly assigned to two groups. One group received a 12 session assertion training program while the other group only received the usual hospital therapy program and acted as a control. Post tests administered after the assertion training program revealed significant decreases in both anxiety and in the personal space boundaries of the experimental group while the control group showed no significant changes.

Dinges and Oetting (1972) in a study which was quoted previously in this review under the section Proxemic Behaviour and Interpersonal Distances in Counselling Settings, found that certain distances in a counselling situation were associated with higher levels of anxiety. The instrumentation consisted of photographs of seated male and female models depicted as interacting at distances of 30, 39, 50, 66, and 88 inches. The subjects were required to respond to each photograph in terms of how anxious they would feel if they were in the pictures. The results showed that the nearer (30 inches) and far (88 inches) distances received the highest anxiety scores with the intermediate distances being rated significantly lower.

Karabenick and Meisels (1972) suggested that most of the studies which have attempted to relate personality variables to proxemic behaviour or interpersonal distances are deficient because of a lack of congruence between the measured personality dimension and the situation in which the distance was being measured. They felt that personality variables should be related to interpersonal distances only when the personality variables in question are related to the interpersonal interaction situation or setting under investigation.

Karabenick and Meisels (1972) conducted a study the strategy of which was to correct the previous shortcoming by only including personality measures directly related to the situation under investigation. In an attempt to accomplish this, they first measured distance between a stooge and each of 99 subjects in dyads under two conditions: 1) when both members of the dyad were unacquainted, and 2) under conditions where the members of the dyad were given performance feedback on a certain task which was designed to produce experiences of failure for one dyad member and success for another. They found that feedback of failure resulted in greater distances than feedback of success. They also found, that after feedback, people high on the personality dimension of test anxiety stood significantly further from the stooge than those low in test anxiety. They did not find, however, which was contrary to prediction, that persons measuring high in the motive to succeed were more affected by success feedback than those scoring low on that dimension, or that persons scoring high on the motive to avoid failure were more affected by failure feedback than those scoring low on this motive.

Duke and Mullens (1973) found differences in interpersonal distance preference between schizophrenics and normals which were similar to those found in an earlier study by Horowitz, Duff, and Stratton (1965). However, Duke and Mullens (1973) included a third group in their study which was a sample of non-schizophrenic patients diagnosed as suffering from affective disorders. They included this group as a control for the effects of hospitalization. They also measured locus of control in all of their subjects. Interpersonal distance preference was measured by the Comfortable Interpersonal Distance Scale (Duke and Nowicki, 1972).

As in the case of Horowitz, Duff, and Stratton's (1965) study, the schizophrenics were found to prefer greater interpersonal distances than normals. In addition, the schizophrenics were found to prefer greater interpersonal distances than the non-schizophrenic patient group. Locus of control scores also revealed that the schizophrenics were more external than the non-schizophrenic patients who in turn were more external than the normals.

Broekmann and Moller (1973) investigated a number of different variables and their relationship to interpersonal distances some of which were personality variables. In that part of their experiment where they attempted to relate personality variables to interpersonal distances, the subjects were required first of all to rate in terms of preference for distance photographs of four different seating positions each set at three different distances. The three different distances were 1 meter, 1.5 meters, and 2 meters. The subjects were then grouped according to preference for distance as follows: middle group (three or more middle choices), near group (at least two near plus one middle choice), and far group (at least two far plus one middle choice). The personality variables that were related to the three different distance groups were those assessed by the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire. An analysis of the results revealed that only factors E, and Q 3 on the 16 Personality Factor Questionnaire yielded significant results. Subjects who were submissive and dependent (factor E) and displayed socially correct behaviour and self control (factor Q 3) preferred the greater distance between chairs. On the other hand subjects who were dominant and self-assured (factor E) and showed less social correctness and self control (factor Q 3) preferred the middle and near distances.

Pedersen (1973b) tested 170 male subjects on a broad range of personality and demographic variables and correlated them with two simulated personal space measures. The personality and demographic variables were as follows: interpersonal aggressivity, neuroticism, tolerance of ambiguity, different ratings of self (self-acceptance, self-concept, self-ideal, body attractiveness) amount of physical touching relative to a best male friend, birth order, cultural extraction, and amount of drinking. The two simulated personal space measures used were the Pedersen Personal Space Measure (Pedersen, 1973a) and the Rawls Personal Space Measure (Rawls, Trezo, and McGaffey, 1968). The results indicated that subjects with a smaller personal space tended to be less interpersonally aggressive, more tolerant of ambiguity, more accepting of self, have a higher ideal self, and be of Southern European Extraction. In addition, subjects who had a smaller back personal space tended to have a higher self-acceptance, higher emotional stability, and a lower consumption of alcohol.

Sewell and Heisler (1973) like Pedersen (1973) tested their subjects on a fairly broad range of personality dimensions and correlated them with a personal space measure. The procedure consisted of instructing each subject to enter a certain room for an interview. Upon entering the room the subject was greeted by a male interviewer already seating in the room who asked the subject to pull up a chair. The distance at which the subject positioned his chair from the experimenter was used as the personal space measure. Each subject was then given a brief orientation of the alleged purpose of the experiment and was given the Personality Research Form (Jackson, 1964) to take home and fill

out. The Personality Research Form consists of 22 scales which measure 22 different personality dimensions. Correlations computed between the 22 scales of the Personality Research Form and the personal space measures revealed two significant results. Significant negative correlations were found between proximity and the Exhibitionism and Impulsivity Scales. Sewell and Heisler (1973) interpreted these findings as lending support to those of Leipold (1963) and Patterson and Holmes (1966) where it was reported that extraverts approached an interviewer more closely than introverts. They felt that persons who scored high on exhibitionism and impulsivity could also be described as outgoing and "extraverted".

Stratton, Tekippe, and Flick (1973) assigned their subjects to three different groups according to their scores on the Tennessee Self-Concept Test (Fitts, 1965). They found that subjects who possessed a very positive self-concept or the high self-concept subjects approached a male student more closely than the medium and low self-concept subjects. They also found sex differences. High self-concept females were found to approach more closely than high self-concept males whereas low self-concept females approached less closely than low self-concept males.

Tolor (1975) conducted a study which investigated the relationship between personal space and the personality dimensions of introversion-extraversion, neuroticism, and internal versus external locus of control. Introversion-extraversion and neuroticism were measured by the Eysenck Personality Inventory (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1963) and locus of control by Rotter's (1966) scale. The measures of personal space called for 40 male and 40 female subjects to arrange

a self-figure in relation to eight different fixed social figures and then arrangements of the same social figures in relation to a fixed self-figure. No significant results were found between distance and introversion-extraversion for the males. However, for the females extraversion was found to be significantly correlated with a greater distance between a self-figure and a "boss" figure and a closer distance between a self-figure and a "boy-friend" figure. No significant relationships were found between distance and neuroticism for either the males or females. As for external versus internal locus of control only one significant relationship was found. This was in the case of externally oriented men who placed themselves further away from a "mother" figure than internally oriented men.

Tolor et al. (1975) differentiated their subjects on the personality dimensions of a positive versus a negative self-concept according to the Tennessee Self Concept Scale (Fitts, 1965) and high and low levels of trust and openness according to Jourard's Self-Disclosure Scale (Jourard, 1971). Interaction distances were measured by means of a felt figure placement technique which consisted of "self" placements in relation to several key social target figures. No significant results were found for the male subjects. However, females who possessed a positive self-concept placed the figures significantly closer together than those who possessed a poor self-concept. There was also a tendency for females who were trusting and open with others to produce closer distances than less trusting females.

The previous studies indicated that there is a relationship between interpersonal distance and certain personality variables. On the whole it is

difficult to come to any specific conclusions from the research because of the lack of commonality with respect to the broad variety of personality variables that have been examined. There were five studies reviewed in this section, however, which investigated the relationship between the same two personality variables and interpersonal distance. These were the studies of Leipold (1963), Patterson and Holmes (1966), Meisels and Canter (1970), Williams (1971), and Tolor (1975). All of these studies investigated the relationship between introversion-extraversion and interpersonal distance. In addition, Sewell and Heisler (1973) found a relationship between interpersonal distance and exhibitionism and impulsivity which are two personality variables related to extraversion.

In five out of six of the previous studies significant results were obtained. For example, Leipold (1963) and Patterson and Holmes (1966) found that introverts preferred significantly greater distances between themselves and others in seated positions than extraverts. Williams (1971) did not find significant differences in an actual test situation. However, he did obtain significant differences in distance preferences according to various questionnaires with introverts consistently indicating that they could not comfortably allow people to get as close to them as extraverts. Tolor (1975) did not obtain significant results between distance and introversion-extraversion for male subjects. For the female subjects, however, extraversion was found to be significantly correlated with a greater distance between a self-figure and a "boss" figure and a closer distance between a self-figure and a "boy-friend" figure

according to a figure placement technique. Sewell and Heisler (1973) found a significant negative correlation between proximity and exhibitionism and impulsivity. Only in the study of Meisels and Canter (1970) were no significant results obtained between interpersonal distance and introversion-extraversion.

Since most of the studies which have attempted to investigate the relationship between introversion-extraversion and interpersonal distance have obtained significant results this indicates that it is an area worthy of further research. Consequently, it will be the purpose of this paper to investigate this same relationship between introversion-extraversion and interpersonal distance only in a different setting from any of the previous studies, that of a counselling setting. Attempts will also be made to relate introversion-extraversion to another proxemic variable. This additional proxemic variable will involve the arrangement of certain spatial objects or more specifically two chairs and a desk by the client in a counselling setting. By taking this approach it will result not only in an extension of knowledge concerning introversion-extraversion and another proxemic variable but also in an extension of the results already found by previous studies in that it will be possible to make further and more valid generalizations of their findings.

Proxemic Seating Arrangements

In this section, the author wishes to review those studies which have investigated the influence that different types of proxemic seating arrangements in a situation of interpersonal interaction has on both the subjects perception of the situation and his behaviour. The review will be limited to those studies which deal with differences in seating arrangements and its influence on dyadic

interaction, and not group situations. One of the goals of the present paper will be to investigate the relationship between different types of proxemic seating arrangements and dyadic interaction between client and counsellor. Consequently that body of research which deals with differences in seating arrangements in group therapy and group discussion situations is not relevant to the present study.

One of the first studies to investigate differences in proxemic seating arrangements and its influence on dyadic interaction was that of White (1953). The specific setting in which the investigation took place was a doctor's office. The purpose of the experiment was to determine whether or not removing the desk between doctor and patients who were suffering from heart problems would have any effect on the way patients seated themselves. It was observed that when a desk was removed 55.4% of the patients sat at ease in contrast to 10.8% when there was a desk between doctor and patient.

In two studies by Sommer (1959, 1965) the preference for certain proxemic seating arrangements which dyads of subjects exhibited while interacting under a variety of circumstances and conditions were noted. In his first study, Sommer (1959) asked pairs of subjects to discuss various topics while seated at tables in the cafeteria of a hospital. The results showed that most of the pairs tended to prefer corner positions at the tables rather than positions where they were along side or facing each other across the tables.

In Sommer's (1965) second experiment, pairs of students were observed in two different natural settings. The first setting was in a cafeteria where interaction was encouraged and the second setting was in a library where inter-

action was discouraged. It was observed in the former situation that the pairs of students chose to sit across a table or across the corner of a table. In the library, however, they chose a more distant diagonal seating pattern.

Haase and DiMattia (1970) investigated different types of proxemic seating arrangements common to interview and counselling settings. The subjects were counsellors, administrators, and clients. They were asked to respond to photographs depicting four proxemic seating arrangements. The four proxemic seating arrangements were: 1) two chairs placed side by side at a 45 degree angle, 2) two chairs placed directly opposite each other with a table along side of them, 3) two chairs placed at a 45 degree angle with the corner of a table intervening, and 4) two chairs placed opposite each other with a table intervening. The subjects' preferences for each seating arrangement was determined by means of a Semantic Differential Test which they were required to fill out. The results showed significant differences in preference for certain seating arrangements among the three groups. In the first two seating arrangements where there was no intervening table, counsellors were found to endorse these positions the most, while clients endorsed them the least. The administrators were somewhere in between. In the last two seating arrangements, however, where there was an intervening table, the administrators endorsed these positions the most, the clients second, and the counsellors least.

In a study by Byrne, Baskett, and Hodges (1971) 30 males and 30 females watched a televised interview between two confederatesof the experimenters who were seated across the corner of a card table from each other. Before the interview the subjects were tested on an attitude survey and the

responses of the confederates were pre-arranged so that one was similar to the subject on .83 of the attitudes while the other was similar on only .17. After the interview the subjects were asked to rate each stooge on the Interpersonal Judgement Scale which measures interpersonal attraction. Each subject was then asked to enter the video-room and sit down at the card table with the two confederates. There were two empty chairs at the card table so that if the subject chose one he would be seated across the corner of the table from the similar stooge and across the whole table from the dissimilar stooge. The choice of the other empty chair would put the subject in the opposite position with respect to the two stooges. The results revealed that both males and females rated the similar stooge significantly higher than the dissimilar stooge on interpersonal attraction as measured by the Interpersonal Judgement Scale. No significant results were found for the females on seating preference. However, for the males it was found that they consistently chose the empty chair which put them in the position of being seated across the corner of the table from the similar stooge and across the whole table from the dissimilar stooge.

Widgery and Stackpole (1972) found a relationship between two different proxemic seating arrangements and the interviewee's anxiety level and his impression of the interviewer's credibility. The two different proxemic seating arrangements consisted of one condition where the subject and interviewer sat on opposite sides of the desk facing each other and in the second condition they sat in exactly the same positions but on the same side of the

desk . Half of the subjects were interviewed in the first condition and the other half in the second condition. Each subject was interviewed for four minutes. A post test was administered which measured the interviewee's anxiety level and his assessment of the interviewer's credibility. An analysis of the results revealed that the high anxious group perceived credibility to be higher with no desk between while the opposite occurred with the low anxious group.

In another study which was reviewed previously in the section entitled "Proxemic Behaviour and Personality Correlates", Broekmann and Moller (1973) investigated the preference of 30 subjects for four different seating arrangements in counselling, formal, home, and two social situations. The four proxemic seating positions were: 1) two chairs facing each other in front of the desk, 2) two chairs facing each other across the corner of the desk, 3) two chairs set at a 45 degree angle to each other in front of a desk, and 4) two chairs facing each other across a desk. The subjects were presented with photographs of each seating position and asked to indicate where they would prefer sitting if they were: 1) discussing their problems with a psychologist (counselling situation), 2) applying for a job (formal situation), 3) visiting a friend of the same sex (social-general), 4) visiting a friend of the opposite sex (social-specific) or 5) conversing with a parent at home (home situation). An analysis of the results showed that the seating position preference for the home situation differed significantly from all of the other situations. No significant differences were found between the counselling and formal situations or between the social-general and social-specific situations.

The social-general differed significantly both from the counselling and formal situations, while the social-specific situation differed significantly from the counselling but not the formal situation. The seating position that was preferred the most for the counselling, formal and social-specific situations was number four which consisted of two chairs facing each other across a desk. The seating position preferred most for the social-general situation consisted of two chairs facing each other across the corner of a desk (number two seating position) and for the home situation, two chairs set at a 45 degree angle to each other in front of a desk (number three seating position).

It is possible to draw two general conclusions from the previous studies concerning proxemic furniture arrangements. The first conclusion would be that the arrangement of chairs and a desk in a situation of interpersonal interaction may influence the subjects perceptions of and/or reaction to the situation. For example, White (1953) found that patients suffering from heart problems were more at ease when there was no desk between doctor and patient. Widgery and Stackpole (1972) found that a low anxious group perceived interviewer credibility to be much higher when a desk was imposed between the subjects and an interviewer while the opposite occurred in a low anxious group.

The second general conclusion which is very evident from the previous studies would be that subjects exhibit preferences for certain proxemic seating arrangements depending on the setting and the nature of their relationship with the other person. For example, Sommer (1959, 1965) found differences in this respect by observing people interacting in the cafeteria of a hospital and in

a library. In the former situation, people chose to sit across the table or across the corner of a table and those in the corner positions were found to interact the most. In the library, people chose a more distant (diagonal) seating pattern. Haase and DiMattia (1970) found differences in seating preferences among counsellors, administrators, and clients with the administrators and clients generally preferring across a desk or across the corner of a desk seating arrangement to a greater extent than the counsellors who preferred no desk intervening. Byrne, Baskett, and Hodges (1971) found that male subjects preferred a seating arrangement which put them in the position of being seated across the corner of a table from a person they were attracted to and across a whole table from a person they were not attracted to. Broekmann and Moller (1973) found that subjects preferred across a desk seating position to the greatest extent in counselling, formal, and social-specific situations. However, in a social-general situation, they preferred across the corner of a desk seating position the most and in a home situation two chairs set at a 45 degree angle in front of a desk.

The implications of the two previous conclusions concerning proxemic furniture arrangements in a counselling setting, which is the specific setting under investigation in this paper, are many. For example, the wrong type of furniture arrangement could result in a negative reaction on the part of a client and possibly interfere with counselling success. There is some indication from the study of Haase and DiMattia (1970) that this may be the case in many counselling situations. For instance, they found that counsellors generally

preferred a seating arrangement consisting of two chairs in front of a desk while clients preferred the corner of a desk or all of the desk intervening between the two chairs. This being the case it may be that many counsellors have their office furniture arranged in a way in which the client does not like, thereby causing some type of negative reaction on the part of their clients.

The only other study in this review which attempted to assess client preference with regard to proxemic furniture arrangement was that of Broekmann and Moller (1973). They found that their subjects, who were to imagine themselves in a counselling situation and indicate their preference for four different seating arrangements, preferred two chairs facing each other across a desk to the greatest extent. In this respect, the results were similar to those of Haase and DiMattia (1970). In both studies the clients preferred a spatial object intervening between themselves and their counsellors rather than no spatial object.

The author's purpose up to this point has been limited to reviewing the research findings on proxemic furniture arrangements. Attempts have also been made to formulate some general conclusions concerning those findings thereby demonstrating the stage at which the research in this area has reached at present. It will be the purpose of the present study to extend these findings. Efforts will be made to do this in a logical and consistent manner as possible by investigating the functional relationship between preference for seating position in a counselling setting and the same variables that were chosen in the case of interpersonal distances. The two variables chosen were: 1) the therapeutic relationship between client and counsellor, and 2) introversion-

extraversion. According to the literature neither of these two variables would appear to be investigated as yet with respect to their functional relationship to proxemic furniture arrangements. Consequently, the present study should result in a valuable extension of the research findings in this area.

Summary and Theoretical Hypotheses

This chapter has reviewed most of the major studies in the area of proxemic behaviour. The topics covered were proxemic behaviour among animals, cultural differences in proxemic behaviour, proxemic behaviour with respect to the regulation of interpersonal distances in non-counselling and counselling settings, proxemic behaviour and the relationship between individuals, proxemic behaviour and personality correlates, and proxemic seating arrangements. The writer's purpose in this review was to give the reader a comprehensive understanding of the background and type of research that has been done on proxemic behaviour, to show the reasons for the present study, to review facts relevent to the independent and dependent variables of this study, and to develop theoretical hypotheses in terms of the literature reviewed.

In the literature it was found that there was a considerable number of studies dealing with proxemic behaviour in different types of social settings. However, there appears to be very few studies dealing with counselling settings. Consequently it was decided to use this setting in the present study as a first step toward correcting the need for more research in this area.

Two of the most highly researched proxemic variables in the literature appeared to be interpersonal distances and proxemic furniture arrangements. Most of the studies that investigated these two variables were successful in obtaining significant results. In view of this fact and because both of these variables are very pertinent to a counselling setting they were chosen as the proxemic variables to be investigated in this paper.

A concerted effort was made to find in the literature a number of variables that could be used as the same independent variables for both interpersonal distances and proxemic furniture arrangements. It was felt that by investigating the functional relationship between the two different proxemic variables and the same independent variables would add consistency to the present research approach.

The two independent variables chosen were: 1) the therapeutic relationship between client and counsellor, and 2) introversion-extraversion. Attempts will now be made to present the predictive hypotheses that will be tested in the present study concerning these two variables.

In the research that was presented in the section of this review entitled Proxemic Behaviour and the Relationship Between Individuals it was found that one variable which can have a marked effect on the distance that people prefer to maintain between each other is the relationship which exists between them. For example, it was consistently found that people prefer to maintain greater distances between themselves and others whom they dislike or are not attracted to than with people they like or are attracted to (Little, 1965; Rosenfeld, 1965; Little, Ulchala, and Hendersen, 1969; Mehrabian, 1968a, 1968b, 1969; Heshka and Nelson, 1972).

In the field of social psychology there has been a long history of research on the concept of interpersonal attraction. One of the directions this research has taken has been into the area of proxemics. Social psychologists involved in attraction research sometimes use physical distance between two people as a behavioural index of interpersonal attraction. In addition, they often quote the research in proxemics in support of the theory that people will move toward those they are attracted to and away from or avoid those they are not attracted to (Byrne, Ervin, and Lambert, 1970; Byrne, 1971, pp. 237-241; Byrne, Baskett, and Hodges, 1971; Allegeier and Byrne, 1973).

In the present study it is predicted that subjects who perceive themselves as having a poor therapeutic relationship with a counsellor will prefer greater interpersonal distances than those subjects who perceive themselves as having a good therapeutic relationship with a counsellor. This prediction is based, first of all, on the literature where it was consistently found that the distance between two people is related to the positiveness of the relationship between them. Secondly it is based upon the theory put forward in social psychology that people will attempt to achieve a physical closeness with those they are attracted to (subjects who perceive themselves as having a good therapeutic relationship with a counsellor) and distance from those they are not attracted to (subjects who perceive themselves as having a poor therapeutic relationship with a counsellor).

It is also predicted in the present study that the extraverted subjects will prefer greater interpersonal distances between themselves and a counsellor than the introverted subjects. This prediction is based on the

attraction paradigm concept in social psychology rather than on the previous findings in the literature which would indicate the opposite. For example, in the section of this review entitled Proxemic Behaviour and Personality Correlates there were five studies which investigated the relationship between introversion-extraversion and interpersonal distance (Leipold, 1963; Patterson and Holmes, 1966; Meisels and Canter, 1970; Williams, 1971; Tolor, 1975). In four out of five of the previous studies significant results were obtained and in every case except for one finding in Tolor's (1975) study the results revealed that introverts tend to prefer greater interpersonal distances than extraverts.

However, in other research on introversion-extraversion Vingoe (1968) found that introverts are significantly less self-acceptant than extraverts. Brown and Hendrick (1971) found that introverts possess ideals which are incongruent with their actual selves whereas extraverts possess ideals which are highly consistent with their actual selves. For example, introverts saw their ideal private self, ideal social self, and an ideal leader as being that of an extravert rather than an introvert. The extraverts on the other hand expressed extraverted ideals on these same dimensions which were consistent with their actual selves. Similarly Hendrick and Brown (1971) found that both introverts and extraverts preferred an extraverted rather than an introverted stranger on four different measures of liking, interesting at a party, ideal personality, and preferred leader.

The previous results indicate that extraverts are far more satisfied with their actual selves than introverts and possess a much better self-concept.

As a result one would expect introverts to be more open to the idea of counselling. The extraverts would be more likely to resist the implications of counselling that something is wrong with them or they need help. In a study by Eysenck (1960) it was reported that extraverts do much poorer in therapy than introverts which could well be due to the previous supposition. Consequently, it is felt that in the present study there will be differences in attraction between introverts and extraverts toward psychotherapy and psychotherapists in general with the extraverts manifesting a more negative attitude. It is on this basis of differences in attraction between introverts and extraverts toward psychotherapy and psychotherapists, which is unique to the present study in that none of the other studies deal with a counselling setting, that it is predicted the extraverts will attempt to achieve a greater distance between themselves and a counsellor than the introverts.

The next two predictive hypotheses deal with proxemic seating arrangements. The literature in this area is not nearly as extensive as that dealing with interpersonal distances. However, in the section of this review entitled Proxemic Furniture Arrangement, Byrne, Baskett, and Hodges (1971) found that male subjects preferred a seating arrangement which put them in the position of being seated across the corner of a desk from a person they were attracted to and across the whole table from a person they were not attracted to. Attraction was assessed by means of the Interpersonal Judgement Scale. Similarly, Brockmann and Moller (1973) found that when subjects were given a choice of across the width of a desk, across the corner of a desk, and two chairs in front of a desk seating arrangements, they chose across the corner

of a desk with a friend of the same sex and two chairs in front of a desk in a home situation. Both of these situations involve one in which the subjects would be attracted to or like the other person.

In reference to proxemic seating arrangements in the present study it is predicted that the subjects who perceive themselves as having a poor therapeutic relationship with a counsellor will prefer two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk or a large spatial object intervening between themselves and a counsellor. On the other hand the subjects who perceive themselves as having a good therapeutic relationship with a counsellor will prefer two chairs facing each other across the corner of a desk or in front of a desk or a much smaller or no spatial object between themselves and a counsellor. This prediction is based on the previous findings of Byrne, Baskett, and Hodges (1971) and Broekmann and Moller (1973) particularly as they relate to the attraction paradigm concept in social psychology. However, in this case it is hypothesized that in terms of attraction people will attempt to avoid those they are not attracted to by maintaining a large physical barrier between themselves and the other person such as whole desk, whereas they will prefer a much smaller or no physical barrier between themselves and those people they are attracted to such as the corner of a desk or no desk.

Finally it is predicted in the present study that the extraverted subjects will prefer a seating arrangement consisting of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk whereas the introverted subjects will prefer two chairs facing each other across the corner of a desk or in front of a desk. As yet there would appear to be no studies in the literature investigating the

relationship between introversion-extraversion and seating preferences which can be discussed with respect to this prediction. However, it was previously hypothesized that extraverts are more likely to manifest a negative attitude or be less attracted toward psychotherapy and psychotherapists than introverts. Consequently, in keeping with the other predictive hypotheses based on the attraction paradigm concept it is expected that the extraverts will attempt to maintain a large physical barrier such as a whole desk between themselves and a counsellor. On the other hand it is expected that the introverts will prefer a much smaller or no spatial object between themselves and a counsellor such as the corner of a desk or no desk.

In conclusion it is to be emphasized that the purpose of the present study is to pursue proxemic variables as the primary dependent variables. No attempts are being made to view or to claim that proxemic variables can be considered as interchangeable indices in interpersonal attraction or differences in attraction toward psychotherapy and psychotherapists in general. It is the purpose of the present study to empirically investigate the relevant determinants of proxemic behaviour in a counselling setting with the focus being on the therapeutic relationship and secondly on introversion-extraversion. The attraction paradigm concept taken from the research in social psychology has only been utilized because it constitutes a useful model for developing a theoretical rationale upon which to base the predictive hypothesis in the present study. It should also be noted that the attraction paradigm model has been expanded in the case of introversion - extraversion to include differences in attraction toward therapy and psychotherapists in general without reference to a particular psychotherapist. Originally the attraction paradigm was only used by Byrne (1971) to refer to differences in interpersonal attraction.

CHAPTER II

Experimental Design

This chapter describes in detail the research design whereby the predictive hypotheses presented in the summary of the previous chapter are tested. The first three sections describe the sample, apparatus, and the procedure. The last two sections deal with the experimental hypotheses and the type of statistics used to analyse the data.

The Sample

In a number of the experimental studies reviewed in the previous chapter, differences were found between males and females in proxemic behaviour. Consequently it was decided to control for this factor in the present study by using a sample of the same sex.

The subjects were all male, undergraduate students enrolled at the University of Ottawa. They were solicited on a volunteer basis from courses in Introductory, Developmental, and Social psychology. The total sample consisted of 168 subjects.

Apparatus

The apparatus used in the present study consisted of four psychological tests, two video-taped excerpts from simulated counselling sessions, three instruction sheets, and a room with a table and two chairs.

The four different psychological tests used were the Eysenck Personality Inventory, Form A (Eysenck and Eysenck, 1968), the Relationship Inventory OS-M-64 adapted for observers viewing filmed therapy interviews (Barrett-Lennard, 1969), the Interpersonal Judgement Scale (Byrne, 1971, pp. 426-427), and the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale (Goldstein, 1971, pp. 219-221). The Interpersonal Judgement Scale and the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale are found in Appendix I.

The Eysenck Personality Inventory measures introversion-extraversion and neuroticism. Only the former measure was used in the present study. The Relationship Inventory OS-M-64 assesses a person's perception of the relationship which he feels he possesses with another, according to the variables of empathic understanding, level of regard, unconditionality of regard, and congruence. Reliability studies have found test-retest reliabilities ranging from .88 to .92 for the different scales which measure the previous four dimensions (Barrett-Lennard, 1969). It was adapted for the present study by altering the pronouns in the questions in order that it could be used by observers to rate a therapist's relationship with his client from a filmed counselling excerpt. Such an adaptation was found in a previous study by Snelbecker (1967) not to affect the reliability of a longer form of the Relationship Inventory. The Interpersonal Judgement Scale measures interpersonal attraction or the degree to which one person likes or dislikes another. The Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale measures a persons general attitude toward therapy and therapists without reference to a particular therapist or a series of therapy sessions. Its test-retest reliability was found to be .87 (Goldstein 1971, p. 144).

The two video-taped counselling excerpts were both five and one-half minutes long. One of the excerpts showed a male therapist interacting with a male client at a high level according to the dimensions of empathy, congruence and unconditional positive regard. The other excerpt showed the same therapist and client but this time the therapist was functioning at a very low level according to the same dimensions. In both excerpts the therapist and client were shown from the chest upwards in order that the subjects could not see the type of furniture arrangement.

The script used for the high level therapist film was taken from an example in "Helping and Human Relations", (Carkhuff, 1969, pp. 219-220), of a therapist functioning at an optimal level according to the dimensions of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard. Because the helpee in the illustration was female whereas in the present study the helpee was male, a few minor changes had to be made in some of the client responses. The script used for the low level therapist film was basically the same for the client but all of the therapist's responses were changed by the experimenter to represent a counsellor functioning at a very low level on the same dimensions of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard. Both scripts are found in Appendix II.

In order to validate the two different levels of therapist functioning on the video-tape, the Relationship Inventory was used. Ten experienced therapists were used as raters, five of which rated the high level therapist film and five the low level therapist film on the Relationship Inventory. All of the raters

were either enrolled in the Ph.D. program in clinical psychology at the University of Ottawa or had a M.A. in psychology with three years experience in counselling. None of the raters had less than a 1000 hours experience in counselling and psychotherapy and most had a great deal more.

The first two instructions sheets used in the present study were for the purpose of giving the subjects preliminary instructions. The first page on both instruction sheets was identical. It informed the subjects that in order for a psychologist or a psychiatrist to be a good therapist he must experience and communicate to his client the dimensions of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard. It then gave definitions of these three variables. The second pages were different in that one explained to the subjects that they were about to see a video-tape of a therapist functioning at a high level, and the other that they were about to see a video-tape of a therapist functioning at a low level according to the dimensions given on the first page.

The third instruction sheet was used to explain to the subjects what they were required to do in the experiment. Basically the instructions required the subjects to imagine that they had been seeing the counsellor, that they viewed on the video-tape, for help with a personal/psychological problem. He had been interacting with them on the same level as with the client on the video-tape. He was late and had phoned ahead asking the subject to go into his office and set up the chairs for the next counselling session.

On the bottom of this instruction sheet were diagrams of three different furniture arrangements which the subjects were to choose from when

arranging the furniture. The three furniture arrangement diagrams showed two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk, two chairs facing each other across the corner of a desk, and two chairs facing each other in front of a desk. The reason for including the diagrams was to make the subjects more aware of the different ways in which the furniture could be arranged. In addition, it was felt that the diagrams would help to overcome any previous set the subjects might have had with respect to the furniture in a counsellor's office only being arranged according to one specific pattern. The subjects were also informed, in the instructions, that they could vary the distance between the chairs according to their own preference in order that they would not simply set the chairs close to the tables as in the diagrams. This and the previous two instruction sheets are found in Appendix III.

The empty room with a table and two chairs used in the present study was set up to resemble a counsellor's office. The room was entered by a small passageway which measured 88 centimeters wide and 170 centimeters long. The room itself was 285 centimeters wide and 300 centimeters long. The table was similar to that found in many counsellors' offices. It had drawers on one side and was 153 centimeters long and 76 centimeters wide on top. It was arranged on an angle in one corner of the room. On the end wall near the table was a picture of an outdoor scene and behind the table was a window to the outside with curtains. The two chairs were arranged next to each other along the other end wall from the table. One was a swivel chair with rollers which could typically be the kind of chair used by a counsellor. The other chair was of light-weight, chrome plated, steel frame construction with a

straight back and arms. The room is shown in Figure 1, drawn to scale (1 centimeter = .5 milimeter).

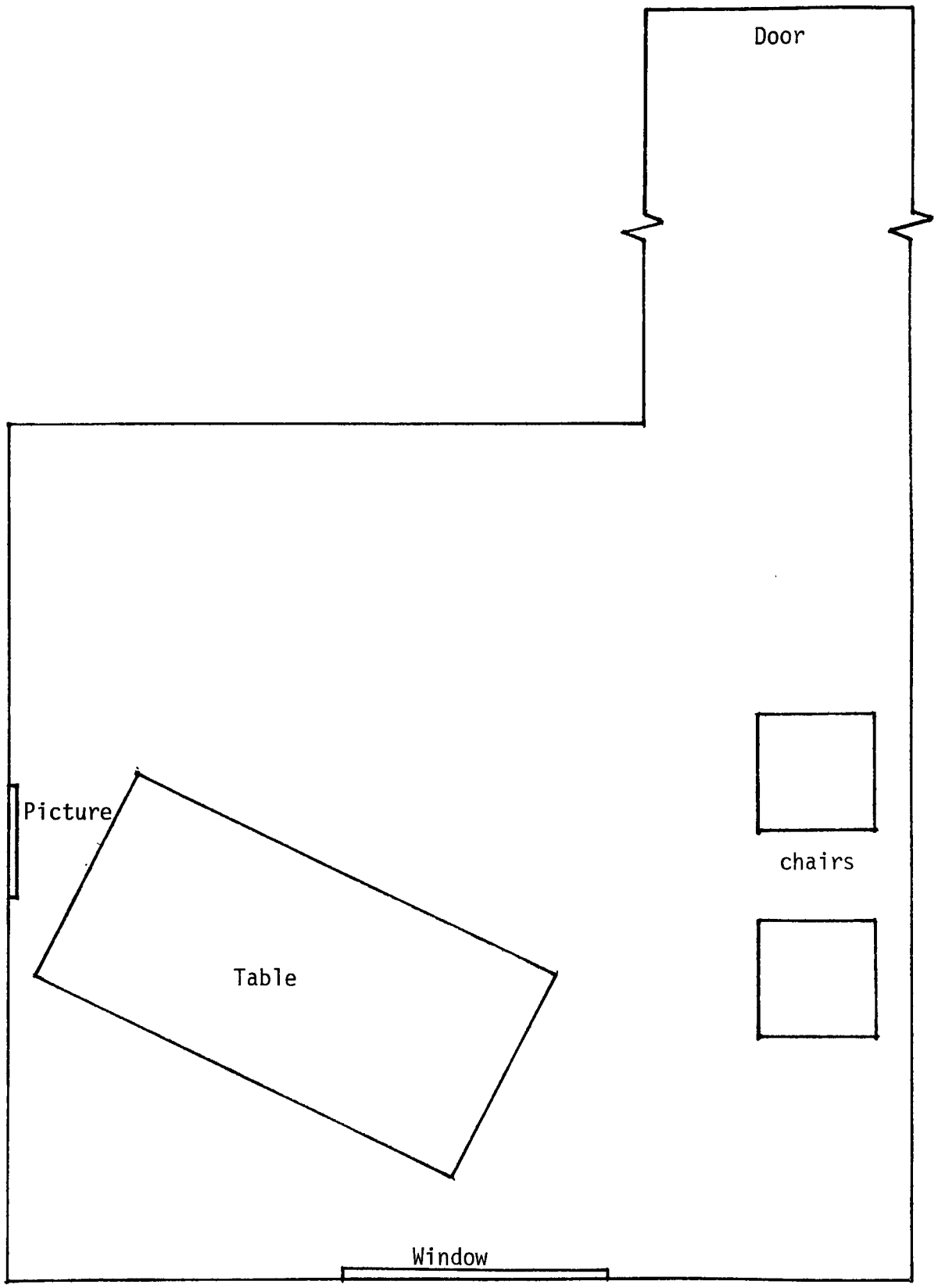
Procedure

The research to date has employed a broad variety of procedures in the study of proxemic behaviour. Some of the methods used have consisted of in vivo participation (Sommer, 1962), the arrangement of felt figures on a felt board (Kuethe, 1962), the arrangement of dolls (Little, 1965), and the preferential judgement of photographs (Haase and DiMattia, 1970). In addition, much of the research has been limited to the use of fixed proxemic settings. For example, the subjects did not alter or determine the proxemic setting. Rather they either rated or chose from different proxemic settings which had been previously arranged by the experimenter, as in the case of the studies using photographs or when subjects were required to choose one chair from a number of chairs which had been set at different distances from another person.

Serious questions can be raised concerning a number of the previous methodologies employed as to whether or not their results can be generalized to in vivo or real life situations. For example, in a study by Haase and Markey (1973) it was found that the results obtained from the judgement of photographs only correlated .30 and the results from the felt-figure placement technique only correlated .56 with subjects' actual behavior according to in vivo participation. Furthermore, the use of fixed proxemic settings, even in an in vivo situation, is open to question in that in most real life situations people use their own repertoires to orient themselves and structure their spatial

Figure 1

Experimental counselling room. (Scale 1 centimeter = .5 milimeter).


Door
Picture
Table
chairs
Window

environment when interacting with others. Consequently, a concerted effort was made in the procedure of the present study to employ a method resembling in vivo participation as much as possible, with the subjects actively involved in determining and structuring the proxemic setting according to their own preference.

The first step in the procedure consisted of administering the Eysenck Personality Inventory to all of the subjects during one of their class periods. The subjects were then classified into introverts, ambiverts, and extraverts according to their scores on the Eysenck Personality Inventory. According to the Eysenck Personality Inventory manual an average score is one which is between the thirty-first and seventieth percentile. Consequently only those subjects who scored below the thirty-first percentile were classified as introverts and above the seventieth percentile as extraverts. Those who scored between the thirty-first and seventieth percentile were classified as ambiverts. In all 62 extraverts, 62 ambiverts, and 44 introverts participated in the present study.

After classifying the subjects according to introversion, ambiversion, and extraversion the subjects in each personality group were randomly assigned into two experimental groups. One of the experimental groups was assigned to view a film of a counsellor functioning at a high level, and the other of a counsellor functioning at a low level according to the dimensions of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard.

The next step consisted of contacting all of the subjects by telephone and making appointments for them to take part in the experiment. Arrangements

were made for the subjects in each experimental group to view the counselling film two at a time. However, they were separated from each other by means of a 4 by 4 foot fiber-board which was placed between them. The fiber-board was arranged in such a way that both subjects could see the television monitor but not each other. They were also instructed not to communicate with each other or make any comments about the experiment while it was in progress.

Before viewing the film the subjects were given written preliminary instructions. Two different sets of instructions were used, one for the high level therapist film and one for the low level therapist film. As was mentioned before in the section entitled Apparatus the first page in both sets of instructions was the same. It informed the subjects that in order for a psychiatrist or a psychologist to be a good therapist he must experience and communicate to his client the dimensions of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard. It then gave definitions of these variables. The difference between the two sets of instructions was in the second page. On one the subjects were actually told that they were about to see a video-tape of a counsellor functioning at a high level and on the other a counsellor functioning at a low level in terms of the dimensions on the first page (see Appendix III for instruction sheets).

The reason for the preliminary instructions was to give the subjects as much relevent information as possible concerning the actions of the therapist on film in order that their perception of him would be according to the experimental purpose. The purpose of this first part of the procedure was to develop within one group of subjects a very negative perception, and within another

group of subjects a positive perception of a filmed therapist in terms of his relationship with a client as defined by the variables of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard. It was felt that by defining these relationship variables to the subjects, and then actually informing them concerning the high or low level of functioning of the therapist on film in terms of these variables would help to accomplish the previous purpose. It was also felt that by giving this type of preliminary information it would cause the subjects to focus primarily on the relationship between therapist and client to the exclusion of other variables which might affect their perception of the therapist.

After viewing the film the subjects were given the Relationship Inventory to fill out with respect to the particular therapist they had seen on video-tape. This was done in order to determine whether or not the first part of the experiment was successful in developing a very negative perception of the therapist on one film and a very positive perception of the therapist on the other in terms of the therapists' relationship with a client.

The first subject to complete the Relationship Inventory was taken into another room set up to resemble a counsellor's office (see section entitled Apparatus and Figure 1 for a description of office). He was then given the second set of written instructions explaining to him what he was required to do. The main purpose for using written instructions in this part of the experiment was to increase standardization of the procedure.

The second set of instructions was also described in the previous section entitled Apparatus and is found in Appendix III. In brief, the

instructions required the subject to imagine that he had been seeing the counsellor that he viewed on the video-tape for help with a personal/psychological problem. During the counselling sessions he had been interacting with the subject on the same level as with the client on the video-tape. He was late and had asked the subject to go into his office to set up the chairs for the next counselling session. On the bottom of the instruction sheet were diagrams of three different furniture arrangements consisting of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk, across the corner of a desk, and in front of a desk. The subject was instructed to arrange the chairs according to one of the three furniture arrangement diagrams. He was to choose the one which he felt he would prefer the most while interacting with such a counsellor with the added instructions that he could vary the distance between the chairs according to his own preference.

After the first subject had arranged the chairs his choice of furniture arrangement was recorded and the distance from the center of one chair to the center of the other was measured. The chairs were then returned to their original positions next to each other and along the end wall furthest from the table. The second subject was then brought into the room and given the same instructions while the first subject waited in the video-room.

After both subjects had arranged the chairs they were given the Interpersonal Judgement Scale to fill out with respect to the therapist they saw on film and the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale. These last two tests were administered to the subjects in a random order. Upon completion of these tests the next two subjects were run.

Both of the final tests measure different aspects of "attraction". They were added to the present study for one purpose only. This was in order that the predictive hypotheses, which are based on a theory taken from the research in social psychology on the attraction paradigm, could be discussed in terms of specified and measurable differences thereby giving a more solid empirical basis to the present study. The dimensions measured by the last two tests should not be confused with the independant variables under investigation, which will be presented with respect to the experimental hypotheses in the next section of this chapter.

Experimental Hypotheses

There are two independent variables which are of interest in the present study. They are a poor and good therapeutic relationship and introversion-extraversion. The dependent variables are distance and type of proxemic furniture arrangement.

In the summary of the previous chapter, the predictive hypotheses were presented concerning these variables. In this section, the experimental hypotheses with respect to these same variables will be presented in null form. They are as follows:

1. There will be no significant differences in the distances the chairs are placed apart by the subjects who perceive themselves as having a poor relationship and the subjects who perceive themselves as having a good relationship with a counsellor.

2. There will be no significant differences in the distances the chairs are placed apart by the introverted subjects and the extraverted subjects.
3. There will be no significant differences in choice of proxemic furniture arrangement by the subjects who perceive themselves as having a poor relationship and the subjects who perceive themselves as having a good relationship with a counsellor.
4. There will be no significant differences in choice of proxemic furniture arrangement between the introverted subjects and the extraverted subjects.

Statistical Analysis

In this section the statistical methods used to analyze the data will be described. The first part will deal with the preliminary statistical analyses performed with regard to the scores obtained on the Relationship Inventory, the Interpersonal Judgement Scale, and the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale. The second part will describe the major statistical analyses used to test the hypotheses.

The preliminary statistical analysis consisted of performing four t-tests. The first t-test was performed on the rating scores obtained by the 10 experienced therapists, five of which rated the high level therapist film and five the low level therapist film on the Relationship Inventory. The second t-test was performed on the two sets of scores obtained on the Relationship Inventory by the subjects who viewed the high level therapist film and

the subjects who viewed the low level therapist film. The third t-test was used to analyze the two sets of scores obtained on the Interpersonal Judgement Scale by the subjects who viewed the high level therapist film, and the subjects who viewed the low level therapist film. The last t-test was computed on the scores obtained from the introverts and extraverts on the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale.

The first major statistical analysis was used to analyze the dependent variable of distance between chairs. This distance measure was taken under three different furniture arrangement conditions. In two of the furniture arrangement conditions, consisting of two chairs facing each other across the corner of a desk and in front of a desk, the subjects were able to place the chairs as close together as they wished. However, in the other furniture arrangement condition consisting of two chairs facing each other across a whole desk, the minimum distance between the two chairs was limited by the width of the table top. This raised the question as to whether or not differences in distances could be a function of furniture arrangement as well as a function of the two independent variables of a poor and good therapeudic relationship and introversion-extraversion.

In order to test whether or not differences in distance was a function of furniture arrangement a one way analysis of variance was performed on the distance scores under the three different furniture arrangement conditions. The F-ratio was significant and a scheffé post hoc test revealed that the furniture arrangement condition consisting of two chairs facing each

other across the width of a desk was significantly different from the other two (the results of the analysis of variance are presented in chapter III). Consequently the dependent variable of distance was analyzed under two conditions. In one condition the furniture arrangement consisted of two chairs facing each other across the corner of a desk or in front of a desk, and in the other condition the furniture arrangement consisted of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk.

To test the effects of the two independent variables (a poor and good relationship and introversion-extraversion) on the dependent variable (distance) a 3 x 2 analysis of variance was computed. The analysis of variance consisted of three levels of personality (introversion, ambiversion, and extraversion) and two levels of relationship (a poor and good therapeutic relationship). Two 3 x 2 analysis of variance were computed, one for each of the two different conditions as defined previously by the type of furniture arrangement.

In each one of the analyses of variance there were unequal cell numbers. In order to account for this the two analyses of variance were computed by means of the full rank linear model with data dependent weights (Tim and Carlson, 1974, pp. 1-18).

The final major statistical analysis was that used to investigate the preference for different types of proxemic furniture arrangement. Furniture arrangement choice was analyzed according to two different types. In one, the subjects were seen as preferring the largest spatial object between themselves and a counsellor, or a furniture arrangement consisting of two chairs facing

each other across the width of a desk. In the other the subjects were seen as preferring a small or no spatial object between themselves and a counsellor resulting in a furniture arrangement choice of either two chairs facing each other across the corner of a desk, or in front of a desk. The data which was gathered with regard to the previous two types of proxemic furniture arrangement choices was in the form of frequencies. Consequently 2 x 2 contingency tables were constructed and the X^2 values were calculated for each one of the two independent variables of a poor and good therapeutic relationship and introversion-extraversion.

CHAPTER III

Presentation of Results

In this chapter the results of the present study will be presented. The first section will present the results obtained from the preliminary analysis of the scores on the Relationship Inventory, the Interpersonal Judgement Scale, and the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale. The second section will present the results obtained from the major analysis used to test the hypotheses.

Preliminary Analysis

The first preliminary analysis revealed a significant difference between the scores of the five experienced therapists who rated the high level therapist film and the five experienced therapists who rated the low level therapist film on the Relationship Inventory, t (8) = 14.41, $p < .01$. The scores on the Relationship Inventory can vary from +192 (most positive) to -192 (most negative). The means of the two groups of raters were +92.2 and -96 respectively.

Similarly the next preliminary analysis revealed a significant difference between the subjects in the two different experimental groups, one of which rated the high level therapist film and the other the low level therapist film on the Relationship Inventory, t (165) = 21.02, $p < .01$. The mean scores for the two groups were +72.35 and -59.24 respectively.

A significant difference was also found between the two different experimental groups in terms of their rating of the therapist in the high level film and the therapist in the low level film on the Interpersonal Judgement Scale, t (166) = 16.14, $p < .01$. The scores on the Interpersonal Judgement Scale can vary from 2 (lowest degree of attraction) to 14 (highest degree of attraction). The mean scores for the two different groups of subjects were 10.19 and 4.33 respectively.

The final preliminary analysis revealed no significant difference between the scores of the extraverts and introverts on the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale, t (99) = -.47, $p > .05$. The scores on the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapist Scale can vary from 25 (most negative attitude) to 175 (most positive attitude). The mean scores for the extraverts and introverts were almost identical. They were 116.29 and 117.57 respectively.

Major Analysis

The purpose of the first major analysis was to determine whether or not differences in distance was a function of furniture arrangement as well as being a function of the two independent variables. It consisted of a one-way analysis of variance computed on the distance scores under the three different furniture arrangement conditions. The analysis of variance revealed a significant difference on distance, F (2,165) = 76.01, $p < .01$. A scheffé test revealed that the furniture arrangement condition consisting of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk was significantly different ($p < .01$)

from the other two furniture arrangement conditions consisting of two chiars facing each other across the corner of a desk and in front of a desk. Consequently the dependent variable of distance was analyzed under two different conditions as defined previously by the type of furniture arrangement. The results of the analysis of variance are presented in Table 1.

Before presenting the findings dealing with the independent and dependent variables under investigation in the present study the null hypotheses stated in chapter 2 will be repeated. The statistical results will then be presented following each null hypothesis.

Hypothesis 1

The first null hypothesis stated that there would be no significant differences in the distances the chairs are placed apart by the subjects who perceive themselves as having a good relationship and the subjects who perceive themselves as having a poor relationship with counsellor. There were no significant differences between the two groups (poor and good relationship) on the distance measure. This finding was obtained in the analysis for the furniture arrangement of two chairs facing each other across the corner or in front of a desk ($\underline{F}$ (1,86) = .60, $\underline{p}$ = .44) as well as in the analysis for the furniture arrangement of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk ($\underline{F}$ (1,70) = 2.50, $\underline{p} \leq .12$). Consequently this null hypothesis could not be rejected.

Hypothesis 2

The next null hypothesis was to the effect that there would be no significant differences in the distances the chairs are placed apart by the introverts and extraverts. No significant differences were found between the

Table 1

Analysis of Variance: Effects of Furniture Arrangement on Distance Between Chairs

Source	df	MS	F
Furniture Arrangement	2	74903.24	76.01*
Error	165	985.38	

*$p < .01$

introverts and extraverts on the distance measure. Once again, this finding was obtained in the analysis for the furniture arrangement of two chairs facing each other across the corner or in front of a desk (F (2,86) = .28, p= .75) as well as in the analysis for the furniture arrangement of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk (F (2,70) = 2.47, p = .09). However, because the last result was so close to a .05 level of significance comparisons were made between the introverts, ambiverts, and extraverts by means of a scheffé test. No significant results were obtained. Thus the second null hypothesis could not be rejected either. The results of the analyses of variance dealing with hypotheses 1 and 2 are found in Tables 2 and 3. The ω^2 results are also presented in Tables 2 and 3. The ω^2 is equivalent to the correlation ratio. It gives the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable accounted for by the independent variable (Kirk, 1968, p.198).

Hypothesis 3

The third null hypothesis stated that there would be no significant differences in choice of proxemic furniture arrangement between the subjects who perceived themselves as having a poor relationship and the subjects who perceived themselves as having a good relationship with a counsellor. The X^2 test revealed a significant difference between the two groups of subjects on choice of proxemic furniture arrangement, X^2 (1) = 41.28, $p < .001$. As a result this null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 4

The final null hypothesis was to the effect that there would be no significant differences in choice of proxemic furniture arrangement between the introverts and extraverts. The X^2 test revealed that this null hypothesis could not be rejected as the results were not significant, X^2 (1) = .57, $p > .05$. (See Appendix 4, Table C for frequency distribution of furniture choice.)

Table 2

Analysis of Variance: Effects of Relationship and Personality on Distance Between Chairs Under Condition of Two Chairs Across Corner and in Front of Desk

Source	df	MS	F
Relationship (A)	1	248.58	.60
Personality (B)	2	115.57	.28
A x B	2	409.52	.99
Error	86	413.75	

$\omega_A^2 = 0$

$\omega_B^2 = 0$

$\omega_{AB}^2 = 0$

Note - See Appendix 4, Table A for table of means.

Table 3

Analysis of Variance: Effects of Relationship and Personality on Distance Between Chairs Under Condition of Two Chairs Across Width of Desk

Source	df	MS	F
Relationship (A)	1	4218.74	2.50
Personality (B)	2	4168.90	2.47
A x B	2	263.06	.16
Error	70	1690.40	

ω_A^2 = .0189

ω_B^2 = .0372

ω_{AB}^2 = 0

Note - See Appendix 4, Table B for table of means.

CHAPTER IV

Discussion of Results

In this chapter the results of the present study will be discussed. During the discussion, efforts will be made to point out the possible implications for further research.

The first preliminary analysis of the results revealed a significant difference in the level of functioning of the therapist in the two video-taped counselling excepts according to the Relationship Inventory. In one film the therapist was rated by five experienced therapists as functioning at a very high level and in the other film he was rated by five experienced therapists as functioning at a very low level according to the dimensions of empathy, congruence, level of regard and unconditional positive regard. Thus the attempts to validate the high and low levels of therapist functioning in the two films was regarded as successful.

In the first part of the experiment attempts were made to create within one group of subjects a very positive perception and within another group of subjects a very negative perception of a filmed therapist, in terms of the therapist's relationship with a client. The results presented in the second preliminary analysis revealed that the manipulation was successful. Significant differences were found between the scores of the two groups of subjects on the Relationship Inventory. The subjects who viewed the high level therapist film were found to rate the therapist high on the Relationship Inventory. On the other hand the subjects who viewed the low level therapist film were found to rate the therapist low on the Relationship Inventory.

In the summary of chapter one a theoretical rationale was presented for the predictive hypotheses. It was based on the attraction paradigm concept taken from social psychology. The third preliminary analysis lent support for this theoretical rationale in that significant differences were found between the two groups of subjects in attraction toward the therapist they viewed on film. The direction was as predicted. The subjects who viewed the high level therapist film rated the therapist high and the subjects who viewed the low level therapist film rated the therapist low on attraction or like, as measured by the Interpersonal Judgement Scale.

The final preliminary analysis, however, revealed no significant differences between the introverts and extraverts in their attitude toward psychotherapy and psychotherapists. Consequently the theoretical rationale based on the attraction paradigm concept for the introverts and extraverts was not supported. It was predicted that the extraverts would be less attracted to or manifest a more negative attitude toward psychotherapy and psychotherapists than the introverts.

A major factor in the present study was to have the subjects actively involved in determining and structuring the proxemic setting according to their own preference. As was mentioned previously, the procedure consisted of taking each subject, after he had viewed the counselling film, into a room that was set up to resemble a counsellor's office. He was then instructed to imagine that he had been seeing the counsellor that he had viewed on video-tape for help with a personal/psychological problem, and to arrange the seating pattern according to his own preference.

While arranging the chairs the subjects had to take two proxemic variables into consideration. One was the distance they preferred to sit from the counsellor. The other was the type of furniture arrangement. They had three choices of furniture arrangement consisting of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk, across the corner, and in front of a desk.

The major analysis of the results revealed no significant difference on distance between the subjects who perceived themselves as having a poor relationship and the subjects who perceived themselves as having a good relationship with a counsellor. This finding was obtained in the analysis for the furniture arrangement condition consisting of two chairs facing each other across the corner or in front of a desk as well as in the analysis for the furniture arrangement condition consisting of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk. However, a very significant difference was found between the same two groups of subjects (poor and good relationship) on choice of proxemic furniture arrangement, $p < .001$.

The previous lack of significant findings on distance is very interesting in terms of previous research. It has been consistently found, in all previous research, that subjects prefer greater distances between themselves and others whom they have a poor relationship with or do not like, than with people they have a good relationship with or like (Little, 1965: Rosenfeld, 1965; Little, Ulchala, and Hendersen, 1969; Mehrabian, 1968a, 1968b, 1969; Heshka and Nelson, 1972). There is no question in the present study concerning the very positive and negative perception of the two groups of subjects in terms of their relationship with or attraction towards the two filmed therapists as revealed by their scores on the Relationship Inventory and the Interpersonal Judgement Scale. Yet this appears to be one of the first studies to find a lack of significant findings on the dependent variable of distance.

There is, however, a major difference between the present experiment and all previous studies dealing with the proxemic variables of distance and choice of furniture arrangement. In all previous studies these two proxemic variables were investigated separately or one at a time whereas in the present study the subjects were required to structure the proxemic setting in terms of both of these variables at the same time. If, in the present experiment the subjects were only required to arrange the chairs in terms of distance and not given a choice of furniture arrangement, significant results would possibly have been obtained on distance as in the case of previous research.

Since no significant results were obtained on distance the mean distances between chairs were examined. This was done in order to determine what the present study revealed with respect to a client's perception of the most appropriate distance for counselling purposes. In the type of furniture arrangement condition consisting of two chairs facing each other across the corner and in front of a desk the mean distance was found to be 104.3 centimeters (41.72 inches). This finding is highly consistent with previous research. In the section of the review entitled Proxemic Behaviour and Interpersonal Distances in Counselling Settings the research showed that both clients and counsellors preferred a distance in the range of 36 to 50 inches.(Haase, 1970; Dinges and Oetting, 1972; Haase and Tepper, 1972; Lassen, 1973; Lecomte and Dumont, 1973). However, in the furniture arrangement condition consisting of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk the mean distance was found to be 161.77 centimeters (64.71 inches). In terms of the literature this is a new finding in that none of the previous research has attempted to assess the most appropriate

counselling distance for this type of seating condition where the minimum distance is limited by a spatial object such as the width of a desk.

The significant result which was found with respect to choice of furniture arrangement resulted in a rejection of the second null hypothesis. It was also in the direction predicted according to the theoretical hypothesis presented in the summary of chapter one. According to the theoretical hypothesis it was predicted that the subjects who perceived themselves as having a poor relationship with a counsellor would prefer two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk whereas the subjects who perceived themselves as having a good relationship with a counsellor would prefer two chairs facing each other across the corner or in front of a desk. An examination of the frequencies of choice of furniture arrangement conditions revealed that the above prediction was supported. This represents a new finding in the research on proxemics in that it is the first time a study has been designed specifically to investigate the functional relationship between choice of furniture arrangement and an interpersonal relationship variable.

The implications of the previous results on distance and choice of furniture arrangement in relationship to the therapeutic relationship and differences in attraction are numerous. First they imply that when clients structure a counselling setting according to both proxemic variables at the same time, choice of furniture arrangement and not distance is the most important

proxemic behavioural index of a poor and good therapeutic relationship or differences in attraction. Secondly, they represent a major finding in that this is one of the first instances in the research on proxemics that differences in distance was not found to be a function of a poor and good therapeutic relationship or differences in attraction. This finding opens up a new avenue of research on proxemics with the orientation on investigating two or more proxemic variables at the same time instead of studying them separately as in the past. In many real life situations people have to cope with two or more proxemic variables simultaneously which means that much of the previous research on proxemics may not be applicable to an actual situation.

The last two results dealing with the functional relationship between introversion-extraversion and the two dependent proxemic variables of distance and choice of furniture arrangement were not found to be significant. In fact an examination of the data obtained with regard to introversion-extraversion revealed that it was so similar, it was impossible to even detect any trends in the results. For example, as was mentioned previously the mean scores for the extraverts and introverts on the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale were 116.29 and 117.57 respectively. The mean distance between chairs in the furniture arrangement condition consisting of two chairs facing each other across the corner and in front of a desk was 108.23 centimeters for the extraverts and 102.79 centimeters for the introverts. The percentage of extraverts and introverts who chose the previous type of furniture arrangement condition was 59.68% and 52.27% respectively. For the

furniture arrangement condition consisting of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk the mean distance was 171.41 centimeters for the extraverts and 156.47 centimeters for the introverts. The percentage of extraverts who chose this type of furniture arrangement condition was 40.32% and the percentage of introverts was 47.73%.

Although none of the previous results are even close to being significant, further research on the proxemic behaviour of introverts and extraverts in a counselling setting is necessary before any definitive conclusions can be reached. However, in terms of the literature this would appear to be the first study which has attempted to investigate the relationship between introversion-extraversion and choice of furniture arrangement. Consequently the present study could be regarded as a exploratory research with regard to whether or not this is an area which possesses potential for future research. The almost identical percentages of furniture arrangement choices found between the introverts and extraverts, and the non-significant results of the X^2 test which was used to analyze frequency of choice would suggest that it is not.

On the other hand there are a number of studies in the literature which have attempted to investigate the relationship between introversion-extraversion and distance in different types of social settings. In some of these studies significant results were obtained (Leipold, 1963; Patterson and Holmes, 1966; Williams, 1971; Tolor, 1975). However, as yet the findings would appear to be largely inconclusive. More research needs to be performed under many different sets of circumstances and conditions before any specific conclusions can be reached as to the exact relationship between these two variables. The main purpose of the present study was an attempt to meet this need. For example, according to the literature this is the first study which

has attempted to investigate the relationship between these two variables in a counselling setting as opposed to different types of social settings. The lack of significant results found in the present study offers valuable information in determining what direction future research in this area should take. The results indicate that in future the research should continue to use different types of social settings as the setting for investigation.

This is not to suggest, however, that additional attempts to investigate the personality correlates of proxemic behaviour in a counselling setting should be discontinued. The present study would appear to be the only one which was designed specifically to deal with a counselling situation. This means that there is still a tremendous need for more research in this area. One direction the research could take would be to investigate the proxemic behaviour of clients in relation to various diagnostic categories such as anxiety neurosis, depressive reactions, obsessive-compulsive neurosis, hypochondriasis, and so on. If significant differences were obtained the practical implications could be far-reaching. For example, observing the client's preferences or reactions to the proxemic setting could aid in diagnosis, structuring the proxemic setting according to the client's preferences could aid in treatment, and observing changes in the client's proxemic preferences in relation to "normals" during the course of treatment could be used as an indication of counselling success.

In terms of further research there are also a number of other ways in which the present study could be expanded and improved. One very simple improvement would be to test both males and females. This could involve testing

them both separately and in mixed dyads where the therapist was female and the client male or vice-versa. By taking such an approach the present findings would be extended to include the question of sex differences.

Another more significant improvement would be to use actual clients who are receiving some type of counselling as subjects. The present study is largely dependant upon the imaginative abilities of the subjects and there is always the question of whether or not they would conduct themselves in exactly the same way if they were in a real situation.

Finally, if actual clients were used, it would be a fairly simple matter to include their counsellors in the research. This would result in a further extension of the findings in the present study. In addition, if significant differences were found between counsellors and counsellees preferences with regard to distance and furniture arrangement, it could have many far reaching and practical implications concerning the most appropriate arrangement of these two variables for counselling purposes.

Summary and Conclusions

The present study was designed to investigate the functional relationship between the two independent variables of a poor and good therapeutic relationship and introversion-extraversion and the two dependent proxemic variables of interpersonal distance and choice of furniture arrangement. The setting under investigation consisted of a counselling scene, where the subjects, who were all male, were required to assume the role of clients.

On the basis of previous research on proxemics and the attraction paradigm concept in social psychology (Byrne, 1971) it was predicted that the subjects who perceived themselves as having a poor relationship with a counsellor would prefer greater interpersonal distances and a seating arrangement consisting of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk. On the other hand the subjects who perceived themselves as having a good relationship with a counsellor would prefer smaller interpersonal distances and a seating arrangement consisting of two chairs facing each other across the corner of a desk or in front of a desk. It was also predicted that the extraverted subjects would prefer greater interpersonal distances and a seating arrangement consisting of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk whereas the introverted subjects would prefer smaller interpersonal distances and a seating arrangement consisting of two chairs facing each other across the corner or in front of a desk.

The procedure consisted of randomly assigning all of the subjects into two groups. One group of subjects viewed a video-taped counselling excerpt of a therapist functioning at a high level and the other group a video-taped

counselling except of a therapist functioning at a low level according to the dimensions of empathy, congruence, and regard. The high and low levels of therapist functioning were previously rated by 10 experienced therapists, five of which rated the high level film and five the low level film on the Relationship Inventory. In addition, before watching the film preliminary written instructions were given to the subjects concerning the level of functioning of the therapist they were about to see. This was done in an attempt to focus the subjects perception on the actual level of therapist functioning in terms of his relationship with a client, to the exclusion of other variables which might have affected their perception of the therapist.

After viewing the film each subject was given the Relationship Inventory to fill out with respect to the counsellor he saw on video-tape. He was then taken into a room set up to resemble a counsellor's office. In this room he was given another set of written instructions asking him to imagine that he had been seeing the counsellor that he had viewed on video-tape for help with a personal/psychological problem and to arrange the seating pattern according to how he would prefer to sit with such a counsellor both in terms of distance and choice of furniture arrangement.

After arranging the chairs each subject was given the Interpersonal Judgement Scale, which measures interpersonal attraction or the degree to which one person likes another, to fill out with respect to the counsellor he saw on film. He was also administered the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale. These final two tests were administered in a random order.

The preliminary analysis of the test scores revealed that the subjects who viewed the high level therapist film rated the therapist high and the subjects who viewed the low level therapist film rated the therapist low on both the Relationship Inventory and the Interpersonal Judgement Scale. These directions were as predicted and were significant. However, no significant differences were found between the scores of the introverts and extraverts on the Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale. It was previously predicted that in terms of "attraction" the extraverts would manifest a more negative attitude toward psychotherapy and psychotherapists than the introverts.

The major analysis of the results revealed no significant difference on distance between the subjects who perceived themselves as having a good relationship and the subjects who perceived themselves as having a poor relationship with a counsellor. The dependent variable of distance was analyzed under two different types of furniture arrangement conditions. One condition consisted of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk and the other consisted of two chairs facing each other across the corner or in front of a desk. The two separate analyses were done in order to account for the fact that in the former furniture arrangement condition the minimum distance was limited by the size of the table top, and an earlier analysis revealed that it was significantly different from the other two arrangements with the mean distance between the chairs being much greater.

Further analysis of the results revealed a very significant difference ($p < .001$) on choice of furniture arrangement between the subjects who

perceived themselves as having a good relationship and the subjects who perceived themselves as having a poor relationship with a counsellor. An examination of the frequencies of furniture arrangement choices revealed that the direction was as predicted.

No significant differences were found between the introverts and extraverts on either distance or choice of furniture arrangement. An examination of the data revealed that the results were so similar that it was impossible to detect any trends whatsoever.

The lack of significant differences on distance in terms of a poor and good relationship was considered a very important finding in relation to previous research findings. For example, in all previous research it was consistently found that subjects preferred greater distances between themselves and others whom they have a poor relationship with or do not like, than with people they have a good relationship with or like. However, all previous studies investigated the two proxemic variables of distance and choice of furniture arrangement separately whereas in the present study the subjects had to structure the proxemic setting in terms of both of these variables at the same time. The result was a lack of significant findings on distance but a very significant finding on choice of furniture arrangement. In terms of future research the trend should be toward investigating two or more proxemic variables at the same time which is more in keeping with many real life situations.

In terms of introversion-extraversion it was concluded that further research on the proxemic behaviour of introverts and extraverts in a counselling setting is necessary before any definitive conclusions can be reached.

It was also pointed out that the present study would appear to be the first one to investigate the relationship between a personality variable and proxemic behaviour in a counselling setting as opposed to different types of social settings. Consequently, there is still a tremendous need for more research of this type designed specifically to deal with a counselling setting.

In terms of future research in the same area it was also suggested that the present study could be expanded and improved by testing both males and females and by using actual clients as subjects. It was further suggested that if actual clients were used it would be a simple matter to include their counsellors in the research. This would result in yet another important expansion of the present study.

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APPENDIX 1

Psychological Tests

Interpersonal Judgement Scale

NAME _____

AGE _____

DATE _____

Please rate the therapist that you saw on the video-tape according to the following scales.

1. Intelligence (check one)

_____ I believe that the therapist is very much above average in intelligence.
_____ I believe that the therapist is above average in intelligence.
_____ I believe that the therapist is slightly above average in intelligence.
_____ I believe that the therapist is average in intelligence.
_____ I believe that the therapist is slightly below average in intelligence.
_____ I believe that the therapist is below average in intelligence.
_____ I believe that the therapist is very much below average in intelligence.

2. Knowledge of current events (check one)

_____ I believe that the therapist is very much below average in his knowledge of current events.
_____ I believe that the therapist is below average in his knowledge of current events.
_____ I believe that the therapist is slightly below average in his knowledge of current events.
_____ I believe that the therapist is average in his knowledge of current events.
_____ I believe that the therapist is slightly above average in his knowledge of current events.
_____ I believe that the therapist is above average in his knowledge of current events.
_____ I believe that the therapist is very much above average in his knowledge of current events.

3. Morality (check one)

_____ The therapist impresses me as being extremely moral.
_____ The therapist impresses me as being moral.
_____ The therapist impresses me as being moral to a slight degree.
_____ The therapist impresses me as being neither particularly moral nor particularly immoral.
_____ The therapist impresses me as being immoral to a slight degree.
_____ The therapist impresses me as being immoral.
_____ The therapist impresses me as being extremely immoral.

4. Adjustment (check one)

_____ I believe that the therapist is extremely maladjusted.
_____ I believe that the therapist is maladjusted.
_____ I believe that the therapist is maladjusted to a slight degree.
_____ I believe that the therapist is neither particularly maladjusted nor particularly well adjusted.
_____ I believe that the therapist is well adjusted to a slight degree.
_____ I believe that the therapist is well adjusted.
_____ I believe that the therapist is extremely well adjusted.

* 5. Personal feelings (check one)

_____ I feel that I would probably like the therapist very much.
_____ I feel that I would probably like the therapist.
_____ I feel that I would probably like the therapist to a slight degree.
_____ I feel that I would probably neither particularly like nor particularly dislike the therapist.
_____ I feel that I would probably dislike the therapist to a slight degree.
_____ I feel that I would probably dislike the therapist.
_____ I feel that I would probably dislike the therapist very much.

* 6. Working together in an experiment (check one)

_____ I believe that I would very much dislike working with the therapist in an experiment.
_____ I believe that I would dislike working with the therapist in an experiment.
_____ I believe that I would dislike working with the therapist in an experiment to a slight degree.
_____ I believe that I would neither particularly dislike nor particularly enjoy working with the therapist in an experiment.
_____ I believe that I would enjoy working with the therapist in an experiment to a slight degree.
_____ I believe that I would enjoy working with the therapist in an experiment.
_____ I believe that I would very much enjoy working with the therapist in an experiment.

* Only the last two questions are scored and then summed to yield a measure of attraction which ranges from 2 (most negative) to 14 (most positive).

Attitude Toward Psychotherapy and Psychotherapists Scale

NAME _____

AGE _____

DATE _____

Both psychiatrists and psychologists are doctors who try to help people with mental or nervous problems by talking to them.

The 25 questions on the following pages are being asked to learn your opinion about psychiatrists and psychologists.

Each question has seven possible answers:

1. Strongly agree
2. Moderately agree
3. Slightly agree
4. Neither agree nor disagree
5. Slightly disagree
6. Moderately disagree
7. Strongly disagree

Circle only one number for each question on the following pages which best tells how you feel.

1.	Psychiatrists and Psychologists are not very much help in solving people's problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2.	Most people would go to a psychiatrist or psychologist if they felt they had mental or nervous problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
3.	Many of the people who go to psychiatrists or psychologists are made worse by the treatement they get.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
4.	Talking about your problems to a psychiatrist or psychologist is mostly a waste of time.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
5.	Every school child should be given a psychiatric examination.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
6.	Psychiatrists and psychologists are warm and friendly people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
7.	If you live a good, clean life, you shouldn't need to talk to a psychiatrist or psychologist.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
8.	Most people would feel comfortable talking to a psychiatrist or psychologist about their problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

9. Most people would be afraid to tell their real feelings during a therapy session where they talked with a psychiatrist or psychologist.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
10. Psychiatrists and psychologists really know more about mental and nervous conditions than other doctors do.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
11. Unhappy people should go to a psychiatrist or psychologist for help.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
12. People with mental or nervous problems should be able to pull themselves together without the help of a psychiatrist or a psychologist.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
13. A psychiatrist or psychologist usually says things that give patients confidence in him.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
14. Most people would find it hard to talk about themselves to a psychiatrist or psychologist.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
15. Most people cannot understand how talking with a psychiatrist or psychologist could do much to solve their problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
16. It would be easier for a person to talk with a psychiatrist or psychologist than with most other people.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
17. Talking with a psychiatrist or psychologist is the best way to deal with mental, nervous, and emotional problems.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
18. Psychiatrists and psychologists, compared to other kinds of doctors, are more successful in helping their patients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
19. Psychiatrists and psychologists would not be needed if people had willpower of their own.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
20. When a psychiatrist or psychologist tries to treat a person with little schooling, neither one really understands the other.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

21. Talking with a psychiatrist or psychologist gives people many ideas about their problems which help them to understand themselves better.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
22. Most people would hesitate to tell a psychiatrist or psychologist what they were really thinking.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
23. Talking with your minister if you have a problem is better than talking to a psychiatrist or psychologist.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
24. It would be difficult to think of things to say during a therapy session where you talked about your problems to a psychiatrist or psychologist.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
25. Psychiatrists and psychologists, compared with other kinds of doctors, are more interested in the well-being of their patients.	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

Questions 2, 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13, 16, 17, 18, 21, and 25 are scored in reverse with a score of 1 = 7, a score of 2 = 6, a socre of 3 = 5 and so one. All scores are then summed to yield a lowest score of 25 (most negative attitude) and a highest score of 175 (most positive attitude).

APPENDIX 2

Scripts for Counselling Films

Script for High Level Therapist Film

Client: Um, I don't know whether I am right or wrong in feeling the way I do, but, uh, lately I find myself withdrawing from people, I just don't care to go out and socialize or play their stupid games anymore. Um, I get angry and then I come home depressed, and I'm starting to get headaches -- it all seems so phony. There was a time when I used to get along with everybody; everybody said,"Isn't he a great guy! He gets along with everybody; everybody likes him," and I used to think that was something to be proud of, but, uh, but I think now that was only how I wanted to be! I was whatever the crowd wanted me to be, or the particular group I was with at the time. Um, I know its important for my job that I go out and socialize and meet people and make a good impression and join clubs and play their phony games -- Elks, and bowling banquets, and, uh, fishing trips and fraternity type gatherings. Um ... I don't know ... I just don't care to do it anymore, and, um, I don't know if that means I'm a ... or that something's wrong with me psychologically. or, uh, is this normal. I mean ... uh ... people don't really know who I am, and they really don't care who one another, who the other person is. They ... its all at such a superficial level.

Counsellor: In other words you're darn sure of how you feel, but you really don't know what it all adds up to. Is it you? Is it the other people? What are the implications for your job? Where is it all going?

Client: Yeh, its an empty life. Its, um, well, there's no depth to it at all. I mean, you only talk about very superficial things and the first few times, its O.K. but after that there's nothing to talk about. So you drink and pretend to be happy and you laugh at the stupid jokes and stupid things that people do when they all, uh, are trying to impress one another, and they're all being very materialistic, and, uh, its just not the route I want to go.

Counsellor: So your feelings are so strong now that you just can't fake it anymore.

Client: That's right, so what do you do? People say, "There's something wrong with you", or "You need to see a psychiatrist or something", because you...you know the thing in society today is that the normal person gets along with people, and, uh, can adjust to any situation. And when you become a little discriminating, maybe very discriminating and critical, then that means there's something wrong with you.

Counsellor: While you know how strongly you feel about all these things, you're not sure you can really act in terms of them and be free.

Client: I don't know if I have the guts. The implications are great. It may mean, uh, a breakup of my marriage, uh, and it means going it it alone, and thats, well, it would be very difficult. I don't know if I could do it. But I feel now like I'm in some kind of trap.

Counsellor: You know you can't pretend, yet you're really fearful of going it alone.

Client: Yeh, I find that I can't talk to anybody about this, I mean, well, its one thing if you have a ... an understanding wife ... if you can talk these things over with her, if she can understand at some level, but ... hell ... she can't.

Counsellor: Its like, "If I act on how I really feel, though, it frightens the people who mean most to me. They won't understand it, and I sure can't share that with them."

Client: (Pause) So what do you do (Pause) I mean ... I ... I find myself going out and telling the people I really know about, about different topics and getting into controversial issues, and, uh, that becomes very anxiety provoking. I can't because I get into heated arguments, and I don't want to do that either, that leads nowhere. I just find myself getting more and more frustrated, anxious, and angry with myself for getting myself into that type of a stupid situation.

Counsellor: You know that doesn't set you free, you know...

Client: No, it bottles me up. It restricts me.

Counsellor: That only causes you more problems, and what you'r really asking about is, how can you move toward greater freedom and greater fullfillment in your own life.

Client: I ... I think I know who I am now, independent of other people, and, uh, which most people aren't and ... um ... but there's no room for that kind of person in this society.

Counsellor: There's no room for me out there!

Client: (Pause) So what do I do?

Counsellor: We run over the question that ... you end up with. "Where do I go from here? How do I act on this? I know how I feel, but I don't know what'll happen if I act on how I act on how I feel."

Client: I ... I have a good idea of what will happen.

Counsellor: And its not good!

Client: No! It means almost starting a whole new life.

Counsellor: And you don't know if you can make it.

Client: Right, I know what I've got now, and if I don't make it all the way with the other, then I'm in trouble.

Counsellor: While you don't know what'll happen if you act on your feelings, you know what the alternatives are if you don't. They're worse.

Client: I ... I don't have much choice.

Script for Low Level Therapist Film

Client: Um, I don't know whether I am right or wrong in feeling the way I do, but, uh, lately I find myself withdrawing from people. I just don't care to go out and socialize or play their stupid games anymore. Um, I get very angry and then I come home depressed and I'm starting to get headaches -- it all seems so phony. There was a time when I used to get along with everybody; everybody said, "Isn't he a great guy! He gets along with everybody; everybody likes him", and I used to think that was something to be proud of, but, uh, but I think now that was only how I or who I was at the time, that I had no real depth. I wasn't who I wanted to be! I was whatever the crowd wanted me to be, or the particular group I was with at the time. Um, I know its important for my job that I got out and socialize and meet people and make a good impression and join clubs and play their phony games -- Elks, and bowling banquets, and uh, fishing trips and fraternity type gatherings. Um ... I don't know ... I just don't care to do it anymore, and, um, I don't know if that means I'm a ... or that something's wrong with me psychologically, or, uh, is this normal. I mean ... uh ... people don't really know who I am, and they don't really care who one another, who the other person is. They ... its all at such a superficial level.

Counsellor: I see, you do have quite an interpersonal problem.

Client: Yeh, its an empty life. Its, um, well there's no depth to it at all. I mean, you only talk about very superficial things and the first few times, its O.K. But after that there's nothing to talk about. So you drink and pretend to be happy and you laugh at the stupid jokes and the stupid things that people do when they all, uh, are trying to impress one another, and they're all being very materialistic, and, uh, its just not the rout I want to go.

Counsellor: What route do you want to go?

Client: Well, ... I'm not sure. People are starting to say, "There's something wrong with you", or "You should see a psychiatrist or something." because ... you know the thing in society today is that the normal person gets along with people, and, uh, can adjust to any situation. And when you become a little discriminating, maybe very discriminating and critical, then that means there's something wrong with you.

Counsellor: Well certainly if you are too discriminating and critical when interacting with people they won't like you. You should make a concerted effort to be more pleasant.

Client: But thats not the problem. I have tried being the nice guy and it hasn't worked, uh, but I'm not sure if I have guts to go another route. The implications are great. But it may mean, uh, a breakup of my marriage, uh, and it means going it alone, and that, well, it would be very difficult. I don't know if I could do it. But I feel now like I'm in some kind of trap.

Counsellor: In other words you are finding that your discriminating and critical attitude is negatively affecting your marriage.

Client: Yeh, I guess so. I find that I can't talk to anybody about this, I mean, well, its one thing if you have a ... an understanding wife ... if you can talk things over with her, if she can understand at some level, but ... hell ... she can't.

Counsellor: I don't doubt that other people can't understand your problem, it usually takes a professional to do this. I would be careful, however, that you don't blame your wife for your problems.

Client: (Pause) So what do you do. (Pause) I mean ... I ... I find myself going out and telling the people I really know about, about different topics and getting into controversial issues, and, uh, that becomes very anxiety provoking. I can't, because I get into heated arguments, and I don't want to do that either, that leads nowhere. I just find myself getting more and more frustrated, anxious, and angry with myself for getting myself into that type of a situation.

Counsellor: Well, as I mentioned before, if you are pleasant to people ...

Client: But that bottles me up. It restricts me.

Counsellor: What kind of person do you want to be then?

Client: I ... I'm not sure. I think I know what I'm becoming, independent of other people, and, uh, which most people aren't and ... um ... but there's no room for that kind of person in this society.

Counsellor: There usually isn't.

Client: (Pause) So what do I do?

Counsellor: We seem to run over and over the same question where you end up with, "Where do I go from here? How do I act on this?" Let me assure you right now that my role here will be to help you figure this out but it will be your fole to figure out how to work on this and what will happen if you become a different person.

Client: I ... I have a good idea what will happen.

Counsellor: Oh!

Client: It means almost starting a new life.

Counsellor: And what are the implications of that.

Client: Well, I know what I've got now, and if I don't make it all the way with the other, then I'm in trouble.

Counsellor: So what have you decided.

Client: I'm not sure.

APPENDIX 3

Instruction Sheets

Preliminary Instruction Sheet for High Level Therapist Film

DIRECTIONS

The research in psychology has shown conclusively that in order for a psychologist or a psychiatrist to be a good therapist he must experience and communicate to his client the following three factors or attitudes:

1. Empathy

Accurate empathic understanding involves the ability of the therapist to perceive and understand the full meaning and significance of both the clients feelings and experience and to communicate this understanding to the client in an accurate and sensitive manner.

2. Congruence

The congruent therapist is one who is honest with himself and thus, with his client. In the therapy session he appears freely and deeply himself in a non-exploitative relationship with his client. During therapy he is at all times completely honest, direct, and sincere in what he says and does not feel any need to withhold himself or his perceptions for emotionally self-protective reasons.

3. Unconditional Positive Regard

The therapist who rates high on this dimension warmly accepts his patients experiences as part of that person without imposing conditions. He does not express warmth in a selective or evaluative way. Rather he communicates the deepest concern for his clients welfare and respect for his potentials as a free individual. He does not attempt at any time to dominate or control his client.

In a moment you will be viewing a video-tape of an except from a counselling session. The counsellor on the video-tape is functioning at a high level according to the previous three dimensions. He appears to perceive and have a very clear understanding of the clients feelings and problem. As a result he exhibits a high degree of accuracy in his responses which deal with the clients feelings (empathy). In a number of respects he appears to be a very open and honest person himself in his relationship with the client (congruence). He also appears to demonstrate a high level of warmth and concern for the client and his welfare (unconditional positive regard).

Please watch the video-tape closely in term of the counsellors functioning according to the dimension of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard. After watching the video-tape you will be asked to complete a short questionnaire which will deal with a number of aspects of the counsellor's functioning according to the previous three dimensions.

Preliminary Instruction Sheet for
Low Level Therapist Film

DIRECTIONS

The research in psychology has shown conclusively that in order for a psychologist or a psychiatrist to be a good therapist he must experience and communicate to his client the following three factors or attitudes:

1. Empathy

Accurate empathic understanding involves the ability of the therapist to perceive and understand the full meaning and significance of both the clients feelings and experience and to communicate this understanding to the client in an accurate and sensitive manner.

2. Congruence

The congruent therapist is one who is honest with himself and thus, with his client. In the therapy sessions he appears freely and deeply himself in a non-exploitative relationship with his client. During therapy he is at all times completely honest, direct, and sincere in what he says and does not feel any need to withhold himself or his perceptions for emotionally self-protective reasons.

3. Unconditional Positive Regard

The therapist who rates high on this dimension warmly accepts his patients experiences as part of that person without imposing conditions. He does not express warmth in a selective or evaluative way. Rather he communicates the deepest concern for his clients welfare and respect for his potentials as a free individual. He does not attempt at any time to dominate or control his client.

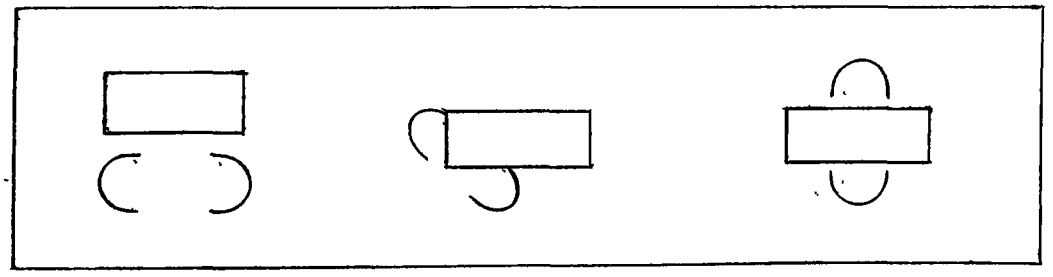
In a moment you will be viewing a video-tape of an excerpt from a counselling session. The counsellor on the video-tape is functioning at a very low level according to the previous three dimensions. He does not appear to perceive or have a very clear understanding of the clients feelings or problem. As a result he exhibits an almost negligible degree of accuracy in his responses which deal with the clients most obvious feelings (empathy). In a number of respects he does not appear to be a very open or honest person himself concerning his own feelings or experiences (congruence). Neither does he appear to demonstrate a very high level of warmth or concern for the client and his welfare (unconditional positive regard).

Please watch the video-tape clearly in terms of the counsellor's functioning according to the dimensions of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard. After watching the video-tape you will be asked to complete a short questionnaire which will deal with a number of aspects of the counsellor's functioning according to the previous three dimensions.

Instruction Sheet for Seating Preference
in Experimental Counselling Room

DIRECTIONS

Imagine that you have been seeing the counsellor that you viewed on the video-tape for help with a personal/psychological problem. During the counselling sessions he has been interacting with you on the same level as he did with the client on the video-tape according to the dimensions of empathy, congruence, and unconditional positive regard. You are now waiting for your next interview with this counsellor and he has just phoned ahead informing you that he will be late and has asked you to go into his office to set up the chairs for your next counselling session. Imagine the room you are now in, is the counsellor's office. Please set up the chairs according to one of the three furniture arrangement diagrams given below. Choose the one which you feel you would prefer the most while interacting with such a counsellor. The arrangement of the chairs should be the same as in one of the diagrams but you may vary the distance between the chairs according to your own preference.



APPENDIX 4

Mean and Furniture Arrangement Choice Tables

Table A

MEAN DISTANCE SCORES BETWEEN CHAIRS AS A FUNCTION OF RELATIONSHIP AND PERSONALITY UNDER CONDITION OF TWO CHAIRS ACROSS CORNER AND IN FRONT OF DESK

	Good Relationship	Poor Relationship
Introverts	$\bar{X}$=106.53	$\bar{X}$=100.5
	n=17	n=6
Ambiverts	$\bar{X}$=103.68	$\bar{X}$=115.86
	n=25	n=7
Extraverts	$\bar{X}$=107.92	$\bar{X}$=110.67
	n=25	n=12

Table B

MEAN DISTANCE SCORES BETWEEN CHAIRS AS A FUNCTION OF RELATIONSHIP AND PERSONALITY UNDER CONDITION OF TWO CHAIRS ACROSS WIDTH OF DESK

	Good Relationship	Poor Relationship
Introverts	$\bar{X}$=143.8	$\bar{X}$=169.13
	n=5	n=16
Ambiverts	$\bar{X}$=152.17	$\bar{X}$=162.58
	n=6	n=24
Extraverts	$\bar{X}$=160.83	$\bar{X}$=182.11
	n=6	n=19

Table C

MEAN DISTANCE SCORES AND FREQUENCY OF FURNITURE ARRANGEMENT CHOICE AS A FUNCTION OF RELATIONSHIP AND PERSONALITY

	Good Relationship			Poor Relationship		
	Extraverts	Ambiverts	Introverts	Extraverts	Ambiverts	Introverts
Two Chairs in Front of Desk	$\bar{x}$=100.2 n=10	$\bar{x}$=100 n=11	$\bar{x}$=107.5 n=8	$\bar{x}$=107.25 n=4	$\bar{x}$=79 n=1	$\bar{x}$=94.5 n=2
Two Chairs Across Corner of Desk	$\bar{x}$=113.066 n=15	$\bar{x}$=106.57 n=14	$\bar{x}$=105.666 n=9	$\bar{x}$=112.375 n=8	$\bar{x}$=122 n=6	$\bar{x}$=103.5 n=4
Two Chairs Across Width of Desk	$\bar{x}$=160.833 n=6	$\bar{x}$=152.17 n=6	$\bar{x}$=143.8 n=5	$\bar{x}$=182.105 n=19	$\bar{x}$=162.58 n=24	$\bar{x}$=169.125 n=16

APPENDIX 5

Abstract

Abstract

The purpose of the present study was to investigate the functional relationship between the two independent variables of a poor and good relationship and introversion-extraversion and the two dependent proxemic variables of interpersonal distance and choice of furniture arrangement. The subjects, who were all male, were required to assume the role of clients in a simulated counselling setting.

All of the subjects were randomly assigned into two groups. One group viewed a video-taped counselling excerpt of a therapist functioning at a high level and the other group a video-taped counselling excerpt of a therapist functioning at a low level according to the dimensions of empathy, congruence, unconditional positive regard, and level of regard as measured by the Relationship Inventory. Each subject was then taken into a room set up to resemble a counsellor's office. In this room the was given written instructions asking him to imagine that he had been seeing the counsellor that he viewed on video-tape for help with a personal/psychological problem and to arrange the seating pattern according to how he would prefer to sit with such a counsellor.

Four hypotheses were tested and the results were as predicted in the case of a poor and good relationship and choice of furniture arrangement. It was found that the subjects who perceived themselves as having a poor relationship with a counsellor preferred a seating arrangement of two chairs facing each other across the width of a desk whereas the subjects who perceived themselves

as having a good relationship with a counsellor preferred two chairs across the corner or in front of a desk ($p < .001$). No significant results were found between the therapeutic relationship and distance between chairs, or between introversion-extraversion and either distance or choice of furniture arrangement.

The lack of significant results between a poor and good relationship and distance was considered an important finding in relation to previous research findings. In all previous research it was consistently found that subjects preferred greater distances between themselves and others whom they had a poor relationship with than with those they had a good relationship. However, in all previous studies the two proxemic variables of distance and choice of furniture arrangement were investigated separately whereas in the present study the subjects were required to structure the proxemic setting in terms of both of these variables at the same time. The results appeared to be a lack of significant findings on distance but a very significant finding on choice of furniture arrangement.

The lack of significant results on introversion-extraversion was interpreted to indicate that further research on the proxemic behaviour of introverts and extraverts in a counselling setting is necessary before any definitive conclusions can be reached.

In terms of future research two major recommendations were made: (1) the trend should be toward investigating two or more proxemic variables at the same time which is more in keeping with real life situations, and (2) when investigating counselling settings attempts should be made to use actual clients as subjects.